



Columbia Biblical Seminary
& School of Missions
A Division of Columbia International University

STYLESHEET

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Introduction

- A. The standard style guide** for all papers at CBS except counseling majors is the latest edition of Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press). The standard for all counseling majors (whether they are writing the paper for a counseling course or not) is the latest edition of *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association). If you do not have a copy of the appropriate manual, you should consider purchasing one so that you may refer to it as often as necessary when you write. Since the large majority of courses require Turabian's style, the notes below (beginning at section I) are meant to be a guide to that style. They are given roughly in the order in which Turabian treats them. Apart from the exception granted to counseling majors above, an instructor has the right to specify one of the styles presented in Turabian's *Manual*.
- B. Materials**
1. **Paper:** 8 ½ x 11", 16 or 20 lb. weight standard white paper. Do not use binders, but staple the paper in the upper left corner.
 2. **Length:** In defining the length of an assignment, "page" means 250-300 words.
 3. **Type:** The typeface and strength of toner should combine to produce easily readable type.
- C. Grammar and Style:** All written work submitted as part of course and degree requirements should contain correct standard grammar and spelling and be written in clear style. A good guide to these matters is William Strunk, Jr, and E. B. White, *The Elements of Style* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.).

You should avoid **sexist language** because it is offensive to some readers. One way to do this is to take a statement like the following (which uses the pronoun 'he')--"When a person does this he enters into a new relationship"--and change it to "When a person does this, he/she enters into a new relationship." However, a better approach is to use the plural form: "When people do this they enter into a new relationship."

Ordinarily the faculty takes matters of **spelling, grammar, form and appearance** into account. Problems in these areas will affect the final grade of the paper, and the faculty reserves the right to turn back for resubmission any written work which displays the following characteristics:

1. **Spelling:** repeated spelling or typographical errors (e.g., five or more errors on two consecutive pages).
2. **Grammar:** flagrant errors (e.g., more than one incomplete sentence) or a pattern of consistent errors throughout.
3. **Form/Style:** consistent disregard of conventions of style, particularly in footnote and bibliography form.
4. **General Appearance:** serious blemishes such as erasure smears, faint type, wrinkled paper, inconsistent margins, words crossed out.

You may resubmit the written work within two weeks of its being turned back. If there is no resubmission, you receive zero for the assignment.

I. Parts of the Paper (Turabian, ch. 1 and 14)

- A. **Title Page:** The paper should have a title page laid out in the form illustrated in Appendix A of this Stylesheet. It may include a blank page behind this title page to prevent the print of page 1 from showing through (and for the grader's general comments). Instructors may require a table of contents, but unless one is specified, do not include one.
- B. **Text**
 1. **Margins** should be 1" all the way around the page. However, the first page of a paper should have a two-inch margin above the title. Unless you use a font with proportional spacing do not use right justification (14.2-3).
 2. **Spacing:** Unless otherwise specified, submit all written work in a clear and legible typewritten form, double-spaced unless otherwise specified. Single space footnotes and indented quotations (14.5).
 3. **Pagination:** Center page numbers or place them flush right within the upper margin. The first page of the text of the paper counts as page 1, but the number should either be omitted from that page or centered in the bottom margin. Neither the title page nor the table of contents (if there is one) counts in the pagination of the paper (14.6-9).
 4. **Fonts:** The best choices of fonts include Courier, Times New Roman, and Prestige Elite. The best choices in size include 11 point (comparable to "elite" = 12 characters per inch) and 12 point (comparable to "pica" = 10 characters per inch). Avoid using a large font to cover up a lack of content.
 5. **Divisions:** You may indicate the logical structure of the paper with the appropriate section headings in boldface type at the left margin. If you need headings at several levels, see Turabian 1.37.
- C. **Bibliography or Reference List:** Normally a bibliography is used when footnotes or endnotes are used (Turabian, ch. 8 and 9), and a reference list is used when parenthetical notation is used (Turabian, ch. 10). The styles of these are different, and they are both illustrated in Turabian, ch. 11. See sections VII and VIII below.

II. Abbreviations and Numbers (Turabian, ch. 2)

- A. **Use standard abbreviations for ancient sources.** An extensive list is provided in *JETS* 33 (1990): 126-129 and *The SBL Handbook of Style* available in the CIU Library.
- B. **When referring to the Old Testament, New Testament, or Septuagint,** the abbreviations OT, NT, LXX are neither italicized nor punctuated.
- C. **Do not use "f" or "ff"** with a reference. Supply the actual closing number (verse, paragraph, section).

D. When exact references are used for biblical and similar literature, the books are not italicized and always abbreviated without punctuation. E.g., Gen 12:1; Jn 3:16; Eph 4:11-16 but "In Romans 5 Paul argues . . ." In many cases standard works (e.g. TDNT) and journals (e.g. JBL) are best abbreviated in footnotes and bibliography. In biblical and theological disciplines, The Society of Biblical Literature's *Handbook of Style* will be the Standard for Abbreviations. See also Turabian ch 2 and 9:113.

| | | | | |
|---------|---------------|-------|-----------|------------|
| Gen | Neh | Hos | Matt | 1-2 Tim |
| Exod | Esth | Joel | Mark | Titus |
| Lev | Job | Amos | Luke | Phlm |
| Num | Ps (Pl.: Pss) | Obad | John | Heb |
| Deut | Prov | Jonah | Acts | Jas |
| Josh | Eccl | Mic | Rom | 1-2 Pet |
| Judg | Cant | Nah | 1-2 Cor | 1-2-3 John |
| Ruth | Isa | Hab | Gal | Jude |
| 1-2 Sam | Jer | Zeph | Eph | Rev |
| 1-2 Kgs | Lam | Hag | Phil | |
| 1-2 Chr | Ezek | Zech | Col | |
| Ezra | Dan | Mal | 1-2 Thess | |

E. When extra-biblical ancient sources are cited within the body of a paper, they should be cited similarly to biblical references. Here are two examples:

C A simple example of chiasmus at the sentence level is found in *Rhetorica ad Herennium* 4.28.39 under the definition of *commutatio*: "You must eat to live, not live to eat." In extra-biblical Greco-Roman works chiasmus functioned in three ways: (1) to reinforce a point (Plato, *Symposium* 193b; *Republic* 500c; P.Oxy 858), (2) to make a comparison (Demosthenes, 8.70; Plato, *Republic* 334a), and (3) to sharpen a contrast between ideas (Plato, *Phaedo* 80a; Dio Chrysostom 15.29; Isocrates 4.95; Epicurus, Frg 25).

C Inclusion is the use of the same word(s) to begin and end a discussion. Hellenistic speakers and writers used it frequently. Aristotle, for example, used it repeatedly in his *Rhetoric* (1.5.7; 1.5.16; 1.5.17; 1.15.26) and in his *Politics* (1.2.1; 1.2.23; 4.4.2; 4.4.7); as did Epicurus in his epistle to Herodotus (45; 46).

F. The convention for numbers specified by Turabian is to "spell out all numbers to one hundred and any of the whole numbers followed by *hundred, thousand, hundred thousand, million*, and so on." For all other numbers use numerals. Citing statistics is an exception to this (2.29).

G. Roman numerals are becoming less popular than they once were. Use arabic numbers, e.g., 1 Timothy, 2 Corinthians.

H. "B.C." ("before Christ") stands after the year number, e.g., 64 B.C., but **"A.D."** ("year of our Lord") stands before the year number, e.g., A.D. 70. Some scholars use "B.C.E."

("before the common era") and "C.E." ("the common era") after the year numbers. These are other abbreviations for the same time periods.

III. Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization, Italics and Quotation Marks (Turabian, ch. 3 & 4)

- A. In academic writing, **standard spelling and punctuation** are expected. Turabian discusses the basic conventions at some length, so if this is a weakness, you should spend some time reading this chapter. Never submit a paper without running a spell-check program.
- B. **Capitalization:** Follow standard practice (4.1-13). For a good guide to capitalization of religious words see *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 7.77-7.95 [REF. Z 253 .U69].
- C. **Italics and quotation marks:** Italics and underlining are interchangeable, but you should use one or the other consistently. As a matter of general practice, italicize titles of whole published works and use quotation marks for parts of works.
 - 1. **Use italics** for titles of books, periodicals (journals or magazines), pamphlets, or bulletins.
 - 2. **Use italics** for foreign words which are written in Roman script: "The word he uses is *pragmatica*." This does not apply if you quote a full sentence or more; it applies only to words or phrases inserted into English sentences. Greek and Hebrew words are best included in their original form. Widespread access to word-processing programs with Greek and Hebrew font capabilities should eliminate the need to "write in" Greek or Hebrew characters by hand. However, if you transliterate, the English transliteration should be in italics.
 - 3. **Use quotation marks** for the titles of dissertations or other unpublished works.
 - 4. **Do not use either italics or quotation marks** for the title of a series or for the names of Scriptures or parts of Scriptures (The Bible, The Qur'an, Daniel).

IV. Quotations (Turabian, ch. 5)

- A. **Plagiarism:** See Appendix B.
- B. **Form:** Run short quotations into the text of your paper, with appropriate punctuation. They should fit the grammar of your sentence. Longer quotations should be blocked. The standard is as follows: "A quotation of two or more sentences that runs to eight or more lines of text in a paper should be set off from the text in single spacing and indented in its entirety four spaces from the left margin, with no quotation marks at the beginning or end" (5.4). To be practical, "four spaces" may be interpreted as "about 1/2 inch." Note that the indentation is from the left margin only (most word processing programs allow you to do this indentation by using an 'indent' command).
 - 1. Place **all periods and commas** inside quotation marks regardless of the length of the quotation--"like this," and place semicolons and colons outside--"like this"; the one exception to this is the case where you have a parenthetical reference at the end

of a sentence; in that case move the period, but not the quotation marks, to a point following the parenthesis--"like this" (Turabian 1996, 178-79).

2. Place **question marks and exclamation marks** outside quotation marks unless the question or exclamation occurs within the quotation itself.
3. Use three spaced periods to indicate an **omission** in something you are quoting from one of your sources . . . like this; these should be in addition to any punctuation at the end of the first part of the quotation. (See Turabian 5.18-29 for further discussion.)
4. In quoting, **follow precisely** the wording, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation of the original (for exceptions see Turabian 5.26). An incorrect word or incorrect spelling in the original quotation should be followed by [*sic*].
5. You may **insert words** into quotations for clarification or explanation. However, you should enclose such insertions in square brackets [like this].
6. You may **italicize words** not italicized in the original for emphasis, and indicate this by a parenthetical note following the quotation, e.g., (emphasis mine).

V. Using Hebrew, Aramaic or Greek Words

There are certain accepted conventions to be observed when using Hebrew, Aramaic, and Greek words.

- A. Use original language terms only when you consider them important (e.g., for the sake of accuracy). A Hebrew, Aramaic or Greek word should be transliterated with its first use in a chapter. Always *italicize* or underline transliterations.
- B. Unless necessary, a Hebrew, Aramaic, or Greek term should not be cited more than once in the immediate context.
- C. Hebrew and Aramaic words should be vocalized.
- D. Normally, a Hebrew or Greek font should be used to represent these languages; however, if it is necessary to transliterate, the transliteration should conform to the following (adopted from *JETS*, 33, 1 [1990]:124-125).

C Hebrew consonants: ^ˊ b g d h w z ḥ ṭ y k l m n s ^ˆ p š q r š̄ t

C Transliteration for **ℵ** and **ϣ** should be written in with a fine black pen if the raised semicircle is not available on the word processing program. Also, acceptable is the use of the markings for a parenthesis in a superscript position, e.g., ^ˆ and ^ˆ. Do not use an apostrophe for ℵ or a raised "c" for ϣ.

C The spirant form of a b g d k p t letter is normally not indicated; if necessary, use underlined b g d k p t. *D-geš forte* is shown by doubling the consonant (e.g., *hammelek*). Normally *mappiq* is not indicated.

C Vowels: a (*pataḥ*), ~(*q-mes*), â (final *q-mes h'*), e (*seg Q*), *ē*(*šēṭē*), ê (final and medial *šēṭē y Q*) and medial *seg Q y Q*), i (short *hireq* defectively written), î (medial or final *hireq y Q*), o (*q-mes h-tûp*), *ç*(*h Q em* defectively written), ô

(*ḥQem* fully written), *u* (short *qibbûs*), *ā* (long *qibbûs* defectively written), *û* (*šûreq*). Other final vowels are to be written with the appropriate vowel sign followed by *h* (or *'-leph*) or *mater lectionis*. Furtive *pataḥ* is to be recorded as *pataḥ* (e.g., *rûaḥ*). Reduced vowels are to be written with the breve: |, , 4 Short vowels fully written should be shown as *o(w)*, *u(w)*, *i(v)*. Accents are not normally written; if necessary, the acute accent is to be used for the primary and the grave for the secondary accent. A hyphen is to be used for *maqq'p*.

- C For transliteration of Aramaic, the system described above for Hebrew is to be followed, even though *šêrê* and *ḥQem* are frequently not markers of long vowels in Aramaic.
- C When transliterating Greek words, use *th* for θ, *ph* for φ, *ch* for χ, *ps* for ρ, *'* for ο, Ç for τ, *h* for the rough breathing, and *y* for λ, except when it is part of a diphthong (e.g., *au*). *IÇa* subscript should be obtained from a character set or represented by a cedilla under the vowel concerned (e.g. *h* for ' , *ç* for ®, *ç* for â).

VI. Using and Citing Sources

Turabian illustrates **several methods** for documenting sources (i.e., giving your sources credit). The first involves **footnotes or endnotes**, and it is presented in chapter 8; this approach requires a bibliography at the end of the paper, and the forms for the bibliography are presented in chapter 9. The second approach involves **parenthetical references and a reference list**; these are presented in chapter 10. Chapter 11 gives examples of both styles, marked as follows: For Footnote or Endnote style, the note form is marked as 'N' and the bibliography form as 'B.' For Parenthetical Reference style, the parenthetical reference is marked as 'PR' and the reference list as 'RL.' For further examples, see sections VII and VIII below.

1. **Avoid unnecessary quotes**, especially from works that are general in nature such as OT introductions and non-technical commentaries. Include only materials that are directly relevant to your argument.
2. **There should be a one-to-one correspondence** between the works cited in the paper and the works listed in the bibliography or reference list. A professor may, of course, instruct you otherwise for a particular reason.
3. In research it is important to **determine who is speaking**. When citing from composite sources such as *The Zondervan Pictorial Encyclopedia of the Bible*, *Theological Dictionary of the New Testament* (Kittel), or *The Expositor's Bible Commentary*, use the name of the scholar who actually wrote the article cited.
4. It is also important to **determine when material was written**. Be on the alert for modern reprints of early works. Give both dates for such works.
5. **Order the works in the bibliography alphabetically** (by last name). Order multiple works by the same author chronologically (from earliest to latest).
6. **Do not include the English Bible in the bibliography.**

7. If you are writing the paper for a course in English Bible, you could use several **translations**. Include a note stating, "All quotations, unless otherwise noted, are taken from . . ."
8. If you are writing the paper for a course in Biblical Languages, indicate in the bibliography **the edition of the biblical text(s) used** along with other ancient sources cited.
9. **Do not use footnotes for biblical references.** Include them in parentheses in the body of the paper. Similarly, use parentheses for high-frequency items such as page references to a work under review.

VII. Documentation Using Footnotes and Bibliography (Turabian, ch. 8 and 9)

This section represents one style presented by Turabian; the other is given in the following section.

A. Format

1. **Footnotes are preferable to endnotes**, especially since they are so easy to insert with word processing programs. Place each footnote at the bottom of the page on which the reference is made. Number the footnotes consecutively. Footnote numbers within the text should be raised (8.7). The numbers at the beginning of the notes may be either placed on the line and followed by a period or raised, without a period (8.10).
2. **The first footnote reference** to a given work should contain the same information as the listing in the bibliography, as well as the page reference and any other comments.
3. **When you have two or more successive footnotes** referring to the same item, use "Ibid." instead of a short reference. "Ibid." refers to the citation *immediately* preceding (same author, work, and page). It is permissible to follow "ibid." with a page number in order to refer to a different page of the same work.
4. When you need to refer to a book that you have **referred to in a preceding footnote**, but not the one immediately preceding, you should insert a footnote which includes the Author's last name and page number, e.g., Westcott, 130.
5. At the end of the paper present all the **sources cited** in the forms illustrated in chapter 11.
6. **For citing electronic documents** including internet sources see Turabian 8.141, 11.57, and 12.20. However, for more detailed sources see Section X below.

B. Examples

The following are examples of types of sources not easily found in other guides.

1. **Ancient sources** can be particularly troublesome. The following examples, given in the appropriate form for a footnote (N) and for the bibliography (B), are typical:

- N ¹Aristotle, *The "Art" of Rhetoric*, trans. J. H. Freese, Loeb Classical Library (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1926), 127.
- B Aristotle. *The "Art" of Rhetoric*. Translated by J. H. Freese. Loeb Classical Library. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1926.
- N ²Augustine, *Christian Doctrine*, trans. M. Dods, A Select Library of the Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church (Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1979), 127.
- B Augustine. *Christian Doctrine*. Translated by M. Dods. A Select Library of the Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1979.
- N ³*Biblica Hebraica Stuttgartensia*, ed. K. Ellinger, W. Rudolph. Stuttgart: Deutsche Bibelstiftung, 1983.
- B *Biblica Hebraica Stuttgartensia*. Edited by K. Ellinger, W. Rudolph. Stuttgart: Deutsche Bibelstiftung, 1983.
- N ⁴*The Greek New Testament*, 3rd ed., ed. K. Aland, M. Black, C. M. Martini, B. M. Metzger, and A. Wikgren (New York: United Bible Societies, 1975).
- B *The Greek New Testament*. 3rd ed. Edited by K. Aland, M. Black, C. M. Martini, B. M. Metzger, and A. Wikgren. New York: United Bible Societies, 1975.

2. Specialized dictionaries or encyclopedias with extended signed articles, e.g., R. Kittel, *Theological Dictionary of the New Testament*.

- N. ¹Herman Strathman, “**בְּרֵאשִׁית וְאֵלֶּיךָ**,” in *Theological Dictionary of the New Testament*, ed. Gerhard Friedrich and Gerhard Kittel, 10 vols. (Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1964-1976).
- B Strathman, Herman. “**בְּרֵאשִׁית וְאֵלֶּיךָ**.” In *Theological Dictionary of the New Testament*, 6:516-535. Edited by Gerhard Friedrich and Gerhard Kittel. 10 vols. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans, 1964-1976.

3. Major commentary series should be handled as follows:

- N. ¹C. A. Briggs and E. G. Briggs, *A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Book of Psalms. The International Critical commentary*, edited by S. R. Driver, A. Plummer, and C. A. Briggs. Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark, 1906-1907.
- B. Briggs, C. A. and Briggs, E. G. *A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Book of Psalms. The International Critical Commentary*, edited

by S. R. Driver, A. Plummer, and C. A. Briggs. Edinburgh: T. and T. Clark, 1906-1907.

4. **Unpublished material** cited from lectures, public addresses, proceedings, etc., should be handled as follows:

- N. ¹J. Robertson McQuilkin, "Biblical Authority Made Functional," lecture delivered to APT 605, Principles of Christian Work class of the Columbia Biblical Seminary and Graduate School of Missions, Columbia, SC, 19 October 1980.
- B. McQuilkin, J. Robertson. "Biblical Authority Made Functional." Lecture delivered to APT 605, Principles of Christian Work class of the Columbia Biblical Seminary and Graduate School of Missions, 19 October 1980.

VIII. Documentation Using Parenthetical References and Reference List (Turabian, ch. 10)

This is the second style presented by Turabian.

A. Format

1. The particular version of this style promoted by Turabian is **the author-date system**. In this approach footnotes or endnotes are replaced by parenthetical references within the text; and a typical reference includes the author's last name, the date of publication, and the page number--like this (Turabian 1996, 175). The author's name given here should correspond to the name listed in the Reference List at the end of the paper.
2. At the end of the paper, present all the sources cited in the paper in the forms illustrated in chapters 10 and 11. **The Reference List** items differ from bibliography items at two points: the date is inserted after the author's name rather than at the end of the entry; and the title is capitalized sentence-style rather than headline-style. The forms for both parenthetical references and reference list entries are illustrated in ch. 11.
3. For citing **electronic documents** including internet sources see Turabian 8.141, 11.57, and 12.20. However, for more detailed sources see Section X below.

B. Examples

As with the footnote/endnote approach, **ancient sources** can be particularly troublesome. The following examples are the same ones given in the previous section, but they are given in the appropriate form for parenthetical references (PR) and for the Reference List (RL):

PR (Aristotle 1926, 127)

RL Aristotle. 1926. *The "art" of rhetoric*. Translated by J. H. Freese. Loeb Classical Library. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

PR (Augustine 1979, 127)

RL Augustine. 1979. *Christian doctrine*. Translated by M. Dods. A Select Library of the Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church. Grand Rapids: Eerdmans.

PR (*Biblica Hebraica Stuttgartensia* 1983)

RL *Biblica Hebraica Stuttgartensia*. 1983. Edited by K. Ellinger, W. Rudolph. Stuttgart: Deutsche Bibelstiftung.

PR (*The Greek New Testament* 1975)

RL *The Greek New Testament*, 3rd ed. 1975. Edited by K. Aland, M. Black, C. M. Martini, B. M. Metzger, and A Wikgren. New York: United Bible Societies.

IX. Using a Computer

- A. **The word processing programs** provided on ACCESSNET are WordPerfect and Word for Windows. These programs take the fear out of using footnotes, care for lonely widows and orphans, and are available on all the computers in the Academic Computing Lab. Those computers connected to the ACCESSNET also have Greek and Hebrew capability via 'Bible Windows.'
- B. Be certain to make **back-up copies** of your text. No system is 100% reliable, and disks are not infallible. Occasionally and unpredictably files can become unreadable. You should keep two identical disks and periodically save your file to each disk. "The computer lost my text!" is no more acceptable as an excuse for a late paper than "The dog ate my homework!" Murphy's Law applies particularly well to computers: "If something can go wrong, it will." Plan ahead. Print your finished paper *the day before it is due* so that you have time to deal with unexpected difficulties.

X. Using the Internet

The Internet is emerging as a significant source of research materials, and those concerned with using research sources appropriately and citing them adequately are still struggling to create standards. The four points below need to be considered when citing Internet sources in an academic paper.

- A. If a **Uniform Resource Locator (URL)** is available, that is the preferred method of citation. That is not always the case, however. If a document was accessed through a program like Gopher or Telnet, there may be only a command-pathway available. URLs are often indicated by angle brackets like this, <>. (See the example just above.)

- B.** Care needs to be taken with **dates**, distinguishing, for example between the date of publication or latest revision and the date of access. This is necessary because of the fact that electronic documents are subject to what has been called “invisible revisability.” That is, an author may revise a document without indicating that it has been done. The practice that seems to be emerging is that the date of publication is located near the title of the work and the date of access is located near the end of the citation.
- C.** **E-mail discussion lists** present a special problem for addressing because the role of ‘publisher’ becomes rather confusing. The best practice is to cite both the individual author’s e-mail address and the list address.
- D.** Because hypertext is fundamental to the Internet, it is possible to access documents through an indefinitely large number of pathways. This means there is **no ideal address** for any one document, but citations to the same document may appear in different contexts under different URLs.
- E.** **A detailed discussion and set of examples** of how to cite Internet sources is given by Maurice Crouse in *Citing Electronic Information in History Papers* (7 September 1999). Available [Online]: <<http://www.people.memphis.edu/~mcrouse/elcite.html>> [11 April 2000]. Under different kinds of documents, Crouse gives forms for Reference List, Bibliography, and Notes. The best approach to citing Internet sources is to find an example in his document that corresponds to the source you are citing and copy the form.

APPENDIX B

Plagiarism

Plagiarism, regardless of your intent, is the presentation of someone else's words or ideas as your own (see Biblical and Ministry Standards & Community Life). This means you may not use someone else's words, ideas, conclusions, or examples without giving proper credit; you may not submit work done by another student as your own; you may not submit anything you got from a printed source or from an electronic source like those on the Internet as your own; and you may not help another student do any of these things. Plagiarism will result in academic penalty, and may result in failure in the assignment, failure in the course, and further disciplinary action. When necessary, the appropriate personnel dean will be informed.

The one exception to this is what is known as 'common knowledge.' This consists of the basic information that is common to a field (like history, Bible, or anthropology) and is available in any basic textbook or encyclopedia article. It includes historical and scientific facts and even the basic principles of a discipline. When you come across the same information in a number of your research sources, you may consider it common knowledge, and you may use it without giving credit to any particular source. However, outside the realm of this common knowledge, you are expected to properly acknowledge your sources, and if you do not it is plagiarism.

Plagiarism may take several forms: (a) quoting an author's words without either indicating they are quoted or giving the source; (b) using an author's sentence structure and changing a few words to hide the fact it was stolen; or (c) paraphrasing or summarizing an author's words without giving credit to the source.

Here are some examples of plagiarism illustrated by how several students use a passage from *Early Christian Doctrines* by J. N. D. Kelly. First, here is Kelly's passage:

With the dawn of the third century the rough outlines of a recognized penitential discipline were beginning to take shape. In spite of the ingenious arguments of certain scholars, there are still no signs of a sacrament of private penance (i.e., confession to a priest, followed by absolution and the imposition of a penance) such as Catholic Christendom knows to-day. The system which seems to have existed in the Church at this time, and for centuries afterwards, was wholly public, involving confession, a period of penance and exclusion from communion, and formal absolution and restoration—the whole process being called *exomologesis*.

(1) Here is one student's use of some material from this passage:

The sources of penance as a system are somewhat vague. At the beginning of the third century the rough outlines of a recognized penitential system were beginning to take shape. Although some scholars disagree, there are still no signs of a sacrament of private penance. The system which existed in the Church at this time, and for centuries afterwards, was very public.

This is plagiarism. The student wrote the first sentence himself and after that essentially copied his words from the source, changing a few words and leaving out a few phrases.

Here is the same passage from the student's paper with the quoted words in italics and some words from the original in brackets:

The sources of penance as a system are somewhat vague. At the beginning *of the third century the rough outlines of a recognized penitential* [discipline] system *were beginning to take shape*. Although some scholars disagree, *there are still no signs of a sacrament of private penance*. *The system which* [seems to have] *existed in the Church at this time, and for centuries afterward was* [wholly] very public.

This student's use of the source shows three problems: (a) The main problem is that there are no quotation marks. If you are going to quote an author, do so accurately and use quotation marks. (b) The second problem is that the student has not mentioned his source. However, even if he had, it would still be plagiarism, because he used the author's sentence structure and wording without quoting accurately and using quotation marks. (c) The third problem is that the student misquoted the source. At the end of what he wrote he said, "very public" rather than "wholly public"—not as serious an error as the others, but somewhat inaccurate.

- (2) Here is a second student's use of the same material—using quotations properly:

Although the origins of penance (following private confession) as a sacrament are somewhat vague, J. N. D. Kelly claims that "with the dawn of the third century the rough outlines of a recognized penitential discipline were beginning to take shape." However, he does claim that what happened "at this time, and for centuries afterwards, was wholly public, involving confession, a period of penance and exclusion from communion, and formal absolution and restoration . . ." (1978, 216).

This is a proper use of the source, with quotation marks indicating the words that have been copied and the citation in parentheses giving credit to the original author.

- (3) Here is still a third student's use of the same material—this time with no quotations but using Kelly's ideas and giving appropriate credit:

Although the origins of penance (following private confession) as a sacrament are somewhat vague, J. N. D. Kelly argues that at the beginning of the third century confession was still public in the church and had not yet become a private matter between the confessor and his priest (1978, 216).

Again, this is a proper use of the source. The student has accurately reflected what the original author said and given appropriate credit.

APPENDIX C

Guide to Graduate Writing

Good writing can result from careful attention to a few basic keys. Paying attention to these will not guarantee you will be a great writer, but not paying attention to them will guarantee you will not. The first key, of course, is that you must have something to say. Papers that simply wander through a topic summarizing what others have said and not making a point of their own are usually a waste of time for both writer and reader. A good paper results from careful research, analysis, synthesis, and presentation. This does not mean that you should not begin to write before you have something to say, but it does mean that early in the research process one of your main goals should be to begin shaping your own opinions on this topic. These pages are not concerned with the research, analysis, or synthesis phases of the process, but with the presentation of your ideas to a reader.

- A. Structure:** When you have something to say, the first consideration in presenting your thoughts is to structure your material for communication. Each field of study has its own approach to writing. What are described here are some generic elements that go into scholarly writing. All of them may not fit the particular discipline for which you are writing, but they are easily adjustable. Regardless of how you approach a piece of writing, though, the main consideration is that you think of the reader and what he/she is going to understand by what you write. The reader has no obligation to read your mind.
1. Begin the paper with a statement of the issue being addressed, not with conclusions--either yours or those of others--or with dictionary definitions. Ideally, you should approach a paper with some research question you are going to address, or at least you should formulate one in the early stages of your research. You need not state this as a question in your paper, but the reader should be clear on the issue you are addressing by the end of your introduction, and should also have a good idea of the scope of your topic.
 2. It is usually appropriate to describe the history of the discussion of a particular problem, presenting scholars' opinions either chronologically, by type of method used (e.g., source criticism, form criticism, redaction criticism), or by basic approach to the problem (e.g., historical, literary, theological). Becoming familiar with this history will, of course, inform your own thinking and give you a context in which to think about your topic. This reading can begin at a general level, but it should progress from there to more detailed discussions. The bibliography for these more detailed discussions can often come from the general reading.
 3. After you have laid out the background evidence from your sources, begin your argument with the evidence from the primary texts, quoting or summarizing the material that is particularly relevant to your problem. Generally the rule is to quote sparingly, summarizing most evidence and quoting only critical points. Then discuss the range of scholarly opinions concerning the problem. Finally, present a hypothesis that explains the evidence, supporting it with argumentation.
 4. At the end of the paper, spell out your conclusions on the topic and present them so as to convince your reader of your position.

B. Use of Sources: A paper is more than a summary of your reading; it is an expression of your opinions based on your reading, a discussion of which you can claim to be the author. Use what you get from your sources as the raw material for your discussion, but make your points in your own words.

1. One important consideration in doing this is to distinguish between primary and secondary evidence. In biblical studies, primary evidence is material that is derived directly from ancient documents. Secondary evidence is material that has been developed by current scholarship (e.g., arguments, lines of thought, methods of handling the primary evidence, and conclusions drawn from it). In other areas, primary evidence consists of reports of original research or the materials used for that research.
2. Each scholar has the right to have his/her point of view presented fairly. A scholar's work should be understood against its background. Be particularly careful to accurately reflect a writer's thought and not to use pejorative language to dismiss opinions with which you disagree.
3. Repeated references to a single author suggest inadequate control of the literature. There is no virtue in simply summarizing the work of one author. A well-researched paper compares the points of view of various scholars (unless your assignment is to review the work of one author).

C. Paragraphs: The fundamental unit of any writing, especially scholarly writing, is the paragraph. When you have a structure clearly in mind, you will build it from paragraphs. Most people who can write a good paragraph can write a good paper. Bad paragraphs usually show weaknesses in at least one of three basic areas--structure, development, or coherence.

1. To achieve structure, the best practice is to begin each paragraph with a topic sentence that states clearly the point you want to make in that paragraph. This sentence should always be in your own words because it is a statement of your point. You should then use each succeeding sentence to develop some aspect of the point made in your topic sentence. Most of these should also be in your own words, although they may summarize or paraphrase information from your sources (giving credit appropriately). However, you may insert quotations where necessary to best represent your sources. Often you should round out the paragraph with a concluding sentence.
2. To achieve development, you need to use facts, opinions, and logical arguments appropriate to the topic of your paragraph. The nature of the point you wish to make in the paragraph will determine what type of development to use. If your point calls for historical facts, give enough to do the job; if it demands theological opinion, use the best sources you can find; if it requires biblical exegesis, work carefully through the relevant aspects of the issue; or if it calls for logical argument, argue from the known to the unknown and use appropriate facts and analogies. The thing to keep in mind throughout is the point you wish to make in the paragraph.
3. In addition to structure and development, paragraphs also need coherence. To achieve this, you need to pay careful attention to the logical relationships between your ideas. The first (topic) sentence should usually include a word or phrase that forms a transition from the point of the previous paragraph (like *in addition to* at the beginning of this

paragraph). But within the paragraph as well, each sentence should be clearly connected to the preceding. To accomplish this you may use pronouns like *he* or *this* (as in this sentence); conjunctive words or phrases (like *similarly*, *however*, *for these reasons* or *as a result*); parallel structure (such as that in the previous paragraph); repeating words or phrases such as *sentence* (two paragraphs back); using semantically similar words (like *paragraph*, *sentence*, *word*).

D. Sentences: Paragraphs are made of sentences, so if you are to write good paragraphs you need to be able to write good sentences. The two basic considerations here are correctness and effectiveness. Sentence correctness is a matter of grammaticality, and the most common grammatical faults are the following:

1. Sentence fragments are strings of words punctuated as sentences but not really qualifying as such. They often begin with subordinating conjunctions: *When they had fully argued the issue and come to a consensus resulting from compromise on both sides*. They often have an *-ing* form of a verb with no auxiliary: *Having fully argued the issue and come to a consensus resulting from compromise on both sides*. These are often easy to spot if you read them in isolation; they depend on their context for meaning.
2. Run-on (fused) sentences and comma splices are about as common as fragments. These result from joining two sentences without proper conjunction or punctuation. *This development has contributed a great deal to our understanding of the problem, such developments have always been helpful in the field of historical research*. In this example, two independent clauses are joined by a comma, but often in such cases the comma is omitted. Both are ungrammatical. These two clauses should be written as two sentences or at least joined with a semicolon rather than a comma.
3. Imprecise or incorrect pronoun reference makes writing unclear or confusing. When you use words like *this*, *these*, *they*, *that*, *which*, and *it*, be sure they have a specific referent--not like this: *In Romans chapter 8 it teaches . . .* What teaches? In addition, don't refer to a noun that is only implied: *In Augustine's writings he takes the following approach*. Here 'Augustine' is used as a modifier, not as a noun; so the reference of 'he' is awkward.
4. Accidental shifts in tense are also confusing. *This practice was fully established by the third century. After this there is no question raised about it. Everyone seemed to be agreed on what should be done*. Shift tense only when your meaning shifts between the past and the present.

Effectiveness is different from grammaticality. It involves such issues as clarity and emphasis.

5. Ideas have relative weight (in their context), and that should be reflected in how you coordinate and subordinate them in your sentences. For example, here is a sentence from Richard Longenecker: *Because of his view of the corrupting nature of the material body, Philo viewed communion with God to be a matter for the soul alone*. The second idea is the point he wants to make, and the first is the reason for it, so he subordinates the first. Here is his next sentence; in this one the ideas are coordinated: *The body might be indirectly purified by the initiated and pure mind, but it never enters directly into fellowship with God*. These are two ideas of roughly equal weight.

6. Parallelism makes for smooth writing, and non-parallel structures can be stumbling blocks. Here is an example of non-parallel structure: *In the early chapters he reviews the fundamentals, but little emphasis is placed on the finer points.* Reworded it would read like this: *In the early chapters he reviews the fundamentals, but places little emphasis on the finer points.*
7. Sentence variety is an important element of good writing. In adult writing, sentence length usually varies from about ten to thirty words, averaging between fifteen and twenty-five. If your sentences are all at the short end of that scale, your writing will sound choppy, and if they are at the long end they will probably be hard to follow. They should vary between these two extremes. You can either calculate your sentence length yourself by using one or two representative pages, or you can use the word count function that is available on many word processing programs.
8. Sentences should not only vary in length, but also in structure. If a page of writing has many sentences that begin in the same way (with pronouns or prepositional phrases, for example) some need to be rewritten with different beginnings.
9. Sentence order is another important contributor to clarity. A sentence which, after piling up modifiers and qualifications, exploring nuances and bypaths, and threading its way through many intricacies of thought, finally gets to its point at the end is known as a periodic sentence. Such a sentence can be effective, but it must be carefully and skillfully constructed if it is to be clear. A cumulative sentence, on the other hand, makes its point at the beginning and then adds modifiers. Such a sentence has much more chance of being clear and has, in fact, the ability to carry quite a few modifiers without becoming overloaded.
10. The passive voice can be useful in scholarly writing, and some authors even recommend it. But to avoid it is worth some effort because it can put writing to sleep. It is better to say, *Verse 27 supports this interpretation,* than to say, *This interpretation is supported by verse 27.* And *Most authorities claim . . .* is better than *This is claimed by most authorities . . .*

E. Word choice: After considering the paper as a whole, the paragraph, and the sentence, the next level you need to consider is the words that make up sentences. Writing and speech come in different forms or registers, as they are called. The register should fit the circumstances. Scholarly writing calls for a scholarly register, which is not only more formal than conversational register, but also more exact. Formality is something to be handled with care, though; it is not the same as abstractness. Much scholarly writing suffers from being too abstract. Note the following (the writer can be anonymous for this purpose): *The second group of passages containing the title consists of those in which Jesus couples it with statements concerning His approaching suffering, death and (sometimes) resurrection. . . . That the joining together of the title with these peculiar predicates is not accidental appears not only from the constancy of occurrence, but also from its frequency, beginning precisely where the direct announcement by Jesus of His approaching passion sets in.* Such writing is unnecessarily abstract and demonstrates more muddiness than intelligence.

However, abstractness is not the only issue concerned with word choice. Much student writing is characterized by fairly common problems involving individual words. The

following are examples of specific problems observed in students' writing and suggested corrections:

1. Avoid contracted words like *it's* and *doesn't* and use instead *it is* and *does not*. (Note that the possessive "its" does not have an apostrophe.)
2. *However* is not a conjunction and cannot be used after a comma to join two sentences; however, it can stand after a semicolon, as in this sentence.
3. Certain words are habitually misused: *Like* is not a conjunction; use *as* instead--e.g., *As Arnott claims, . . . Infer* does not mean *imply*. Readers *infer* by drawing a conclusion from what is written. Writers *imply* things by suggesting them without expressly stating them. *Farther* refers to distance; *further* refers to time or quantity. *Methodology* means the theory or study of method. A *method* is a manner or mode of procedure.
4. In a logical argument the word "feel" is out of place. Use "consider" or "conclude."

F. Punctuation: Several punctuation problems tend to dominate students' writing.

1. You do not usually need a comma after an opening prepositional phrase that is part of the thought of a sentence (although sometimes a comma can clarify a case of ambiguity). "In the beginning" is part of the thought "In the beginning God created . . ." and doesn't take a comma, but phrases like "In my opinion" are not part of the following thought, so they do take a comma.
2. If you have an opening clause that begins with *If*, *When*, *Since*, or another subordinate conjunction, separate it from the main clause with a comma--as illustrated by this sentence.
3. Do not put punctuation before an opening parenthesis, but after a closing one (if necessary), and do not leave a space after an opening parenthesis or before a closing parenthesis.
4. A dash consists of two hyphens without a space between them or on either side of them--like this.
5. Do not leave extra space after periods that mark abbreviations.
6. Do not underline end punctuation in underlined material; stop it before the punctuation--like this.
7. Do not use a colon after a verb to begin a series; a colon should come only at the end of a clause. Therefore, you usually don't need a colon and can simply say, for example, that the colors were red, white, and blue (not "The colors were: red, white, and blue.").
8. Use apostrophes correctly to indicate possession. Add *'s* to singular nouns regardless of whether they end in an *s* or not (*the bishop's policy*, *Charles's laws*); the one exception to this is the case of ancient names (*Jesus' disciples*, *Socrates' teachings*). Add an *'s* to plural words like *children* which do not end with an *s*, but add only an apostrophe to plural words that end with a plural *s* (*the participants' behavior*).

G. The Writing Process: Writing is a process, and the more control you take over the process the easier it becomes. Most graduate level writing starts with research, and that is the

assumption underlying the following: This is not a guide to the methods of research; it simply offers some suggestions on how to use your research to make your writing easier.

1. **Research:** As you conduct your research, one of your most important tasks is to find the limits and shape of your topic. As you do this, a good approach is to develop a planning sheet--one sheet of paper on which you jot down the main point of your paper and a preliminary working outline that will guide your research and writing. This sheet will look something like a thesis and outline page, but under each point of the outline you make a note of the sources you will use and the kind of information they will give you. This sheet will be your roadmap to get you through the paper.

Most people make research notes in one or more of three forms: on notecards, on highlighted photocopies of pages from sources, or as notes typed directly from sources into a computer. Each one of these has its advantages. Notecards allow a great deal of flexibility in organizing your material. Photocopied pages save time and preserve the context of statements in your sources. Typing notes directly into the computer has the advantage that when you wish to incorporate notes into your paper they are already typed and all you need to do is cut and paste or drag them to the desired place.

2. **Writing:** Plan on more than one draft; you have many tasks to perform and can't do them all at once--planning, shaping your thoughts, presenting them clearly, making your writing forceful and correct. You can approach the writing process itself in one of two ways. Both work well, and the choice may be a matter of your personality as a writer or even the nature of the topic--and both can effectively use the planning sheet developed in the previous step. The first is zero-drafting, and the second is drafting from notes.
 - a. **Zero-drafting** is sitting down with only your preliminary thesis and outline and writing a draft based on the knowledge you have gained from your reading and note-taking--without looking at any of your notes. As you do this, of course, you are free to write notes to yourself (like "fill in details here" or "check some other sources here"). When you have done this, you go back and in a second draft add specific quotations, paraphrases, and references from your notes.
 - b. **Drafting from notes** is the more common approach. To do this, you spread your notes out on your desk and arrange them in order under slips of paper with the appropriate headings from your preliminary outline; then using your outline and notes you draft the paper.

The second approach may sound easier since it lets you write with notes in front of you, but the first approach has an advantage: it is more likely to produce a paper shaped from your own thinking rather than just a summary of your research. If the zero-drafting approach sounds scary, remember that you do have your notes to fall back on. No matter which approach you use, write your first draft as quickly as possible without worrying about matters of form and correctness or even details; you will be coming back later to revise anyway. Often it can be helpful to break a long paper into bite-sized chunks according to your preliminary outline and write these one at a time.

3. **Revising and Editing:** Your work deserves careful revision and editing. Take the time to do this--revise for effectiveness and edit for correctness. These are two separate steps,

and they can only be done after you have a draft to work with. After writing your draft, take a break and then read your paper through several times for different things.

- a. Your first run-through should be to check what you have written for effectiveness. This is the revision process, and it really can seem quite disorganized, involving a number of readings and revisions as you go. Some prefer to do this on a hard copy of the paper; others have accustomed themselves to doing it on the computer screen. The kind of things you are looking for here are the following: Have you said what you wanted to say? Is the point of the whole paper clear? Do the points you make in each paragraph contribute to your argument? Will the whole thing leave the reader with one impression and be convincing?
- b. Your final step is editing. This is where you check for correctness. Concentrate on things teachers have pointed out as your weaknesses--sentence structure, word use, punctuation, spelling. Have someone else read the paper for you and point out any problems, but make the corrections yourself. If you have someone else type the paper, you are still responsible to check it afterwards.

These notes are intended only as a general guide. For more detailed coverage of some of the topics included here see William Strunk, Jr, and E. B. White. *The Elements of Style*, 3rd ed. (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1979).