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U. S. ARMY

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SPECIAL TEXT 12-160

EFFECTIVE ARMY WRITING

Prepared by

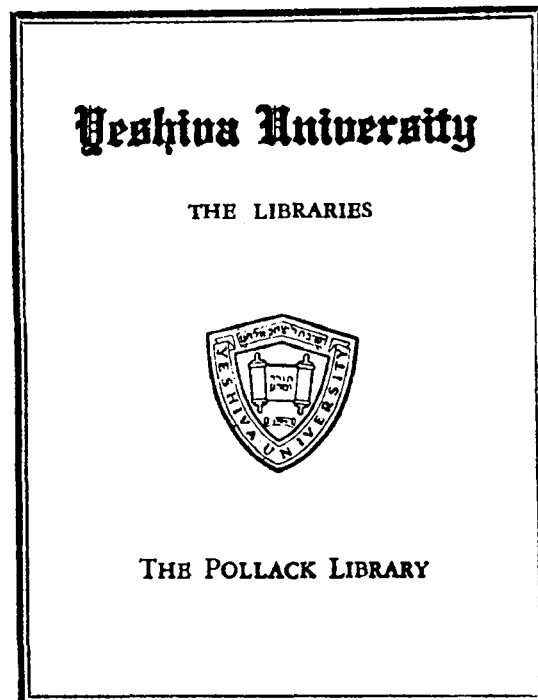
U.S. ARMY ADJUTANT GENERAL SCHOOL

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U. S. ARMY

SPECIAL TEXT 12-160

EFFECTIVE ARMY WRITING

PREFACE

Your ability to express yourself in writing can have an important effect upon your job. Lieutenant General Walter L. Weible, USA, Ret., former Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel, once said, "I have stressed the need for improving Army writing to the Army Publications Board, The Adjutant General, my own office, and every other place where I've had a chance. But I still see too much gobbledygook from all sources every day * * *. Some entry should be made in the record of a student who is a consistently sloppy writer, because his value as a staff officer is doubtful."

Writing is a tool that is generally useful in life; in the Army, it may be vital. Our safety, security, happiness--even our very lives--may at some time depend upon effective communication.

Poor writing is simply a bad habit. Good writing is not easy, but neither is it the impossible task that most of us believe it to be. Writing is a mechanical process. To do it beautifully is an art, but anyone can achieve competence by following certain principles.

This text discusses these principles, offers advice, and gives some specific illustrations. The rest--the actual writing--is up to you.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The U. S. Army Adjutant General School is pleased to make the following acknowledgments:

1. Although the format and development of this text are considerably different, many ideas and applications used in it were inspired by Air Force Manual 11-3, Guide for Air Force Writing, Department of the Air Force, June 1953.

2. The Technique of Clear Writing, (McGraw-Hill, 1952), by Robert Gunning, Blacklick, Ohio, is the source of information on the Fog Index. A copyright release was given by the author.

3. Keys to Readable Writing, 1950, by John McElroy is the source of information on buried verbs. A copyright release was given by the author.

4. The Records Management Handbook: Managing Correspondence--Plain Letters, written by Mona Sheppard for the General Services Administration, National Archives and Records Service, Records Management Division, 1955, is the source of the Watchlist, Appendix II.

5. While they are not directly reflected in this text, the works named below provided excellent background material on principles of effective writing:

DA Pamphlet 1-10, Improve Your Writing
(Department of the Army, 1959)

Flesch, Rudolph, The Art of Plain Talk
(New York, N. Y., Harper and Brothers, 1949)

Flesch, Rudolph, The Art of Readable Writing
(New York, N. Y., Harper and Brothers, 1949)

Hayakawa, S. I., Language in Thought and Action
(New York, N. Y., Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1949)

Klein, David, The Army Writer
(Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, The Military Service Publishing Company, 1953)

Perrin, Porter G., Writer's Guide and Index to English
(revised edition) (Chicago, Illinois, Scott-Foresman and Company, 1950)

Sterling, Edna L., and Emery, Don W., Activity Notebook--Workbook for Advanced Composition
(New York, N. Y., Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Reprinted for the United States Armed Forces Institute.)

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CHAPTER 1

WRITING IN THE ARMY

Section I. INTRODUCTION

1. PAPERWORK AND THE ARMY. Paperwork is widely disliked and commonly blamed for many of the Army's ills. However, is paperwork really at fault?

a. Certainly no organization as large as the Army could manage its affairs without written directives and records. Except at the lowest echelons, the major part of all instructions must be written, since this is the only means by which uniform and timely instructions can reach all elements of the Army. In addition, plans for future operations of the Army must be based largely on studies of the accumulated records of past operations.

b. If it is so necessary, why is paperwork resented?

(1) There is a lot of it. Most Army people are busy and hate to lose time reading a great mass of papers which often seem to bear little relation to the jobs they are doing.

(2) Army writing is often hard to understand. The reader must study and restudy to make sure he has the meaning. Even then he may need to ask for an explanation before he can decide what he is expected to do.

(3) Many people feel poorly qualified to prepare military communications, yet they often must write extensively. They resent being required to do something which they feel they cannot do well.

c. It is not paperwork, therefore, but poor paperwork which must be condemned.

2. NEED TO IMPROVE ARMY WRITING. At one time military writing was considered a model of clarity and conciseness. This is not always true today.

a. For example, one directive on awards and decorations defined conditions for the award of the combat infantryman badge as follows:

"The individual must be an infantry officer, enlisted man, or warrant officer with an infantry MOS, who, while assigned to an infantry regiment or smaller infantry unit, has satisfactorily performed his duties in active ground combat for any period during which his unit was engaged with the enemy and during which he was under fire. These requirements have been more clearly defined by this headquarters and in order to be eligible for award of the combat infantry badge in this division an individual must qualify under one or more of the following criteria."

(Six criteria are listed.)

Let us see how the first sentence could have been written:

To be eligible for the award the man must be infantry. (War-rant officers must hold an infantry MOS.) He must be assigned to a regiment or lower unit of infantry in active combat. He must have done a satisfactory job under enemy fire.

The first part of the above writing was apparently taken from a directive of a higher command. The second sentence suggests that this directive is not clear and that it does not cover the local situation. Would it not have been better to have said something like this?

General rules for award of the combat infantryman badge are contained in AR * * *. Awards within this division must be based on one or more of the following criteria.

- b. Another example, this time about casualty reporting, contains this statement:

"Certain provisions incorporated into the laws enacted by Congress (such as the Missing Persons Act) necessitate the making of determinations of status by the Secretary of the Army in cases involving missing, and missing in action persons, and such determinations are contingent upon complete knowledge of all known facts and circumstances surrounding such casualties."

This might be a more understandable way of saying it:

Since the Secretary of the Army is required by law to make certain findings regarding missing persons, he needs a full report of the facts.

- c. Countless examples like those above could be quoted. Their number makes it plain that Army writing needs improvement. You can help to make Army writing readable and understandable by improving your own writing.

3. PURPOSE OF THIS TEXT. The purpose of this text is to help you make your writing good paperwork. It will show you how to use the principles and mechanics of effective writing. It covers the processes of writing from outlining and organizing materials to understanding why one word or construction is more appropriate than another. No text can take the place of your own good taste and sound judgment since even the experts differ on the best style in expression. Use this text as a guide in evolving a good style of your own.

Section II. COMMUNICATING WITH YOUR READER

4. COMMUNICATING IDEAS. What is effective writing? Effectiveness in writing is obtained not only through clarity of meaning but also by aptness (fitness to style or tone), by appropriateness to subject matter, by acceptability to the reader, and by the congenial relationship of each word to its associates. When you write, you are

trying to give another person an understanding of your ideas. You are trying to build in his mind the same thought patterns which you have in yours. Effective writing, therefore, is marked by two characteristics.

a. First, it has something to say. Perhaps you have considered a problem and arrived at certain conclusions, or perhaps you have gathered data which you believe to be of general concern. In any event, the writing must carry a message.

b. Second, it says what you intend to say. It must be so phrased that the meaning is clear and subject to only one interpretation. If it can be misunderstood, it will be misunderstood--by someone.

5. USING THE LANGUAGE. As a writer you are concerned with the value and limitations of language for communicating ideas to your readers.

a. You use language for two purposes.

(1) First, you use it to form your own thoughts. You think out ideas in words and sentences, using words which are stored in your mind.

(2) Second, you use language to communicate with your reader. You translate your thoughts into words for your reader. To be understood, the words you use must be related to those stored in someone else's mind.

b. Words are symbols. In using them, you may discover that they do not have the same meaning for all readers.

(1) A word has meaning only in accordance with the experience which a reader has had with that word. Since no man's experience is the same as another's, misunderstandings may occur.

(2) Our experience with some words may be so much alike that there is little danger of misunderstanding. For example, the word book means very much the same to all of us. With other words there may be wide differences of meaning for various people. To illustrate, consider the term implement. A farmer would probably think of a plow or disk, but in Army writing the word means to carry out a policy or decision.

(3) You may ask, "Of what use, then, is a dictionary?" The dictionary is of unquestioned value, but remember that it is primarily a record of the many meanings which people have assigned to the various words of the language. It is a guide to help you determine how to interpret or use each word; you must judge from the way a word is used just which of its several meanings is intended.

c. In first setting your thoughts down on paper, you will use words which are closely associated in your mind with those thoughts. The meaning will be clear to you at the time. If you later reread the paper, you will often find that the words no longer seem to be closely related to your ideas. This is the way your writing will look to your reader. If it is not clear, you must rephrase it to carry your exact meaning.

6. GETTING THROUGH TO YOUR READER. Your reader's ability to understand what you write depends largely upon his educational experience. Surveys of the formal education of Army personnel indicate that 58 percent of the male officers and 53 percent of the female officers have completed 16 or more years of schooling. In addition, these surveys indicate that 67 percent of the enlisted men and 98 percent of the enlisted women have completed 12 or more years of schooling.

a. From the examples given in Section I and from common experience, we know that much Army writing is difficult to read and understand. A great part of this difficulty appears to be caused by the high educational reading level of this material.

(1) A random check of Army regulations reflected reading levels of from grade 16 (college graduate) to grade 21 (5 years of postgraduate college work).

(2) A review of representative field manuals showed a reading level of from grade 10 (2 years of high school) to grade 18 (2 years of postgraduate college work).

b. Compare Army writing with that used in popular magazines.

| <u>Reading Material</u> | <u>Reading Level</u> |
|---|---|
| Pulp fiction (westerns, <u>True Story</u>) | 5th grade |
| Slick fiction (<u>Saturday Evening Post</u> , <u>Ladies' Home Journal</u>) | 6th - 8th grade |
| Digests (<u>Reader's Digest</u> , <u>Time</u>) | 8th - 10th grade |
| Quality (<u>Harper's</u> , <u>New Yorker</u> , <u>Business Week</u>) | High school graduate (11th - 12th grade) |
| Scientific (professional papers) | College graduate (above 16th grade) |

From the above it is plain that the most popular writing does not exceed the 10th grade reading level.

c. Army writing is not expected to compete against popular magazines for an audience. On the other hand, it is important that Army writers grasp the significance of the above comparison. If you want your writing to be comfortably understood by most people, adjust the reading level at least two grades lower than the educational level of the majority of your readers. Though capable of reading at higher levels, most people don't like to read up to their capabilities. Your writing will be understood more readily if it is easy to grasp.

d. Don't fear that because you have kept the reading level low you are "writing down" to your audience. "Writing down," like "talking down," is marked by unnecessary explanation of facts which an audience may reasonably be expected to know. Effective writing cuts out lengthy talk about well-known facts. Your readers will be grateful for meaningful, easy prose.

CHAPTER 2

PREPARING TO WRITE

Section I. ORGANIZING YOUR THINKING

7. **DEFINE YOUR PROBLEM.** Your writing is an explanation of your views about a subject. To have formed these views, you must have studied the subject and arrived at some conclusions. The first step in preparing to write is problem solving. If the problem is simple, it may require little effort to solve. If it is complex, you may find it helpful to use the problem-solving technique described in Appendix I. Until you have worked out all aspects of the problem, don't write; "half-baked" ideas are of no value to your readers.

8. **DEFINE YOUR PURPOSE.** The second step in preparing to write is to define the purpose of your writing. What are you trying to do? The paper should tell the reader what to do, why it must be done, and how to do it. Formulate a statement of purpose to guide you in writing the paper. Keep it constantly in mind as you write. You may decide that the statement of purpose should be included in the paper.

a. Your specific purpose may be one of the following:

- (1) To arouse interest.
- (2) To influence attitude.
- (3) To provide information.
- (4) To solve a problem.
- (5) To direct action.
- (6) To evaluate.

b. Whatever your specific purpose, your overall purpose is to get your ideas across.

9. **DEFINE YOUR READER.** After you have determined your problem and your purpose, you must decide who your reader will be. Ask yourself these questions:

a. Who will read what I write? You would not expect material written for a commander with college training to be easily understood by the soldier whose schooling ended at the sixth grade. However, the fact that your reader may have a college degree does not justify the use of difficult prose. Writing can be simple enough to be understood easily by the slow reader and yet be interesting enough to hold the attention of a good reader.

b. How much background in this subject can I expect my readers to have?

Make an estimate of what your readers already know. If they are well acquainted with the subject, you may be able to omit lengthy explanation of detail. Also, the freedom with which you can use technical terms depends upon your readers' prior knowledge of a subject.

(1) You would not expect newly inducted basic trainees to be familiar with the organization of the Army and with military terms. In writing for such men, you would explain in detail the relationships between Army elements; you would use a minimum of technical terms and take care to define each term before using it. Many of the men would not understand if you told them, "Each of you will be given an MOS according to his TOE position." To make them understand, you would have to explain the terms "MOS" and "TOE."

(2) If your audience were a group of senior noncommissioned officers, you might omit many explanations of detail and use military terms with freedom.

(3) In any case, include sufficient explanation so that your meaning will be clear. Do not assume that your readers know as much about the subject as you do. Also bear in mind that your writing may eventually reach a far wider audience than you originally thought; your commander may decide that it should be sent to higher headquarters, to lower units, or to both.

10. RELATE THE WRITING TO YOUR READER. You know the subject, purpose, and audience for your writing. Now, what will be your approach? Will you be personal and informal in style, or is your topic one which requires formal expression? How will you show the relationship between yourself and the reader? How will you show the relationship between the subject and your reader? Your reader wants to know, "How does this affect me?" You must write so that your reader can recognize immediately how he is affected. Decide upon and follow a uniform approach throughout your paper.

a. Informational writing which is designed to reach the individual soldier should be informal and personal in tone. Use the second person. At times, slang expressions may be used to good effect. You are seeking to persuade your reader to do or learn something on his own initiative. Don't handicap your efforts by resorting to what looks like official pressure.

Poor: The purpose of this manual is to provide instruction to the individual soldier on the use and care of the carbine. It describes the parts of the carbine, with explanation of how they operate. The method of disassembling and assembling the carbine is explained in detail. The material in this manual is based on the M2 carbine; however, the major portion of the instruction is readily adaptable to the older models of the carbine.

Better: This manual tells you how to become a good shot with your carbine and how to take care of it. It describes the parts of the carbine and explains their functions. It shows you the way to take the carbine apart and put it together again. The material in this manual is based on the M2 carbine, but most of it also applies to the older models.

b. For communication within a headquarters, most officers know each other well enough that formality is not necessary. An informal style and use of the pronouns I or we and you is generally acceptable. Intraheadquarters writing might be described as "talking on paper"; it is the thought which counts. Remember, though, that staff officers do not exercise command; staff comments are written not as directives but as suggestions or recommendations.

c. In communicating between commands, do not revert to third person and passive voice in an attempt to be formal. Say "recommend," not "it is recommended." Use "we concur" in preference to "the proposal is concurred in." Be careful that you write "concur" to a lateral command, "approve" to a lower, and "recommend" or "request" to a higher echelon. The command position establishes the relationship between the reader and the writer; a communication from a higher headquarters is an order, while one from a lower headquarters may be a request, a recommendation, or a report.

Section II. ORGANIZING YOUR PAPER AND MATERIAL

11. CHOOSE THE RIGHT FORMAT. You are ready to write. You know what you are going to say; you know the purpose of your writing, whom you are addressing, and the approach you are going to use. Now you must decide what form your paper will take. The purpose of your writing, your position, and the usages of the service will largely determine the form you will use. The standard types of communications used by the Army are the result of much thought and experience. This standardization gives you a pattern to follow and prepares the reader for what you are going to say. If you use these forms wisely, they will help you to organize your material and to get your thoughts across. Choose the format which will be of most assistance in selling your ideas. Keep abreast of the regulations which govern the preparation of Army communications so that your writing follows the prescribed format for the medium you choose. Here are some suggestions on the form your writing should take.

a. If you are writing to another headquarters, use a military letter or indorsement. When speed is essential, use a teletype or radiogram. You may use a messageform if you expect no reply or if the reply should be by a separate communication.

b. Sometimes you may be required to use Department of the Army or other forms. Forms can save you and your reader time and effort; use them whenever they will fit your purpose. Be sure that you understand the form and that you complete it correctly. Incomplete or wrong entries can cause much wasted effort and loss of time.

c. You may want your writing to reach all the units in a command. If so, you will probably choose to publish it in one of the routine orders or other directives of your headquarters.

(1) For matters other than those covered in special, general, or court-martial orders, a numbered publication is generally preferred. (Custom and regulations have generally fixed the types of material to be published in special, general, and court-martial orders.) Circulars, bulletins, and numbered memorandums are easy to file, to change or rescind, and to cite as references.

(2) Letters and unnumbered memorandums are quick and convenient to issue, but they are cumbersome to cite and to change or rescind. For these reasons they are not usually used for publications which have a wide audience.

d. To get your ideas across, you may need to show the facts and the reasoning which leads to your conclusions. You might well adopt the staff study form for these complex subjects. Staff studies are commonly used only within a headquarters, although they may serve as supporting material for communications to other headquarters.

e. Various kinds of informal communications are used between staff elements of a headquarters. Normally you will use the disposition form, but in some cases you may use informal memorandums and memorandums for record. Your decision as to which medium to use will depend upon the local rules of your headquarters.

12. MAKE AN OUTLINE. After you have decided what form you are going to use, make an outline to guide you in developing your ideas. Your outline should be based on the solution of the problem or question and must agree with the specific type of format you intend to use for the writing.

a. As a first step in making the outline, jot down the major topics you intend to discuss. Look at what you have written. Does it cover all phases of your subject? Does it contain thoughts which are not related to your purpose? Add to or change your list of topics to make it complete and consistent with your purpose. Delete any unwanted ideas.

b. Expand each main topic by writing underneath it the subtopics which will support it. Unless you need at least two subtopics, don't subdivide your main topics. For each a you should have a b; for each (1) you should have a (2). Check your listing against your notes and references to be sure that all significant ideas are covered. Review the list; new ideas will often occur to you from this second look. Add your new ideas to the list. Eliminate nonessential thoughts.

c. Arrange the topics in the order in which you intend to discuss them. Organize your material into parallel parts of equal importance. Figure 1 illustrates the standard outline form.

d. Compare your outline with the type of communication which you have selected for your paper. Make sure that they are consistent.

e. You now have a tentative outline. As your work progresses, revise the outline to adopt new and better ideas. You will find that as you develop the topics, new thoughts will occur which may change what you have already written and influence what you have yet to write. Note these changes on the outline so that you don't forget them.

13. SELECT A PATTERN OF ORGANIZATION. When you have completed your tentative outline, ask yourself whether it presents your ideas in a logical way. As you read the outline, do your thoughts move easily from one idea to the next? If you find

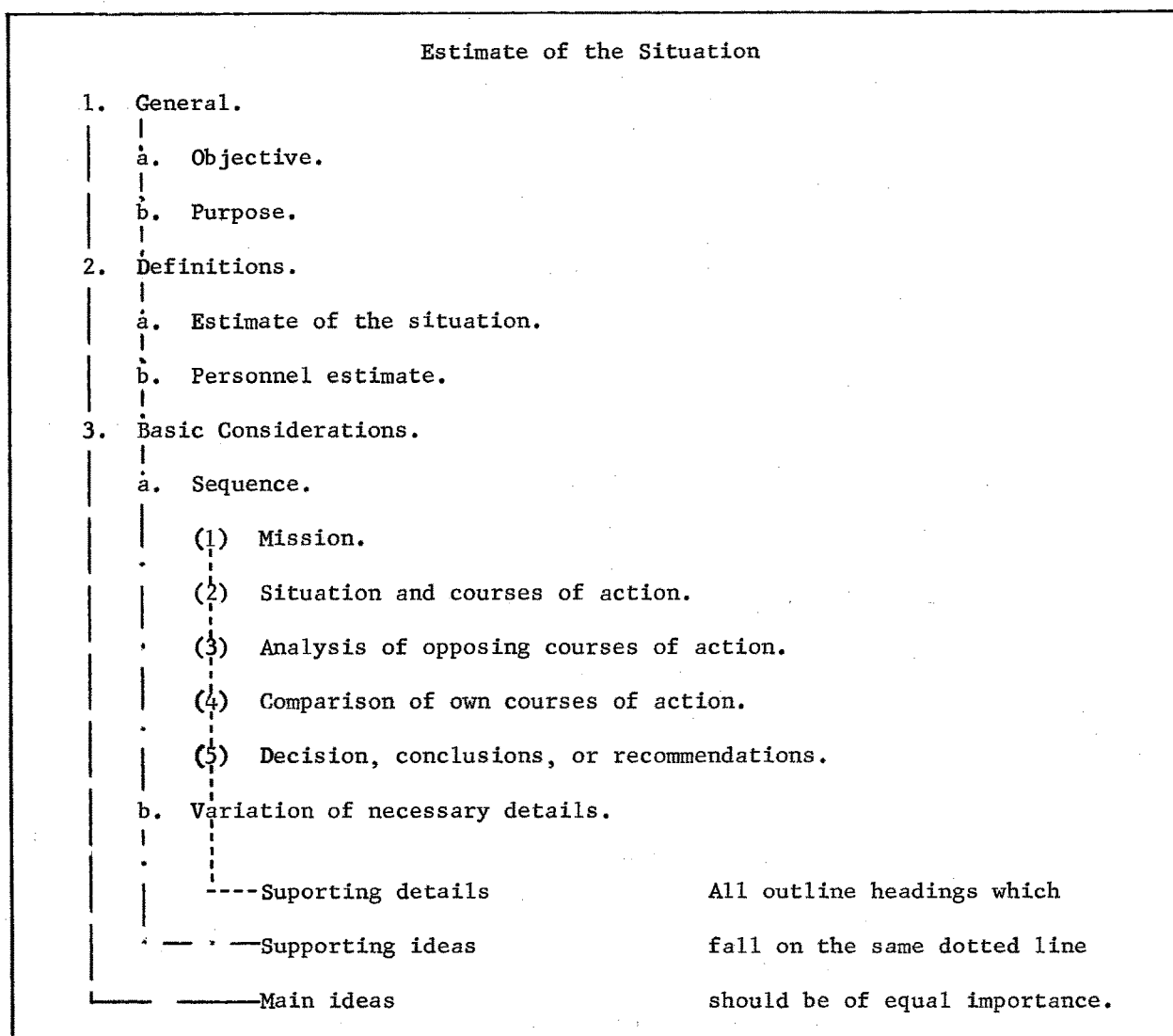


Figure 1. Outline.

that your thoughts jump from one idea to another, you probably lack an orderly pattern for presenting the message. If your writing is to have the effect you want, it must be so organized that each part prepares the reader for what is to come. Choose a logical pattern for your writing. Adjust your outline to follow that pattern. Try one or more of the following types of organization:

a. Time pattern. You may discuss the subject in the sequence that events happened or are expected to happen, or you may go from the present to the past. Whichever system you follow, the time sequence will hold your ideas together. Your writing might run like this: "When World War II began * * *. As the war progressed * * *. By 1945 * * *."

Main idea: History of the United States before the Civil War.

1. Period before 1800.
 - a. Colonization.
 - b. The American Revolution.
2. 1800 - 1860.
 - a. The War of 1812.
 - b. The Monroe Doctrine.
 - c. The War with Mexico.
3. Period of Dissension.

b. Numbering pattern. In this pattern a main idea is supported by a series of details. Numbering the subordinate ideas relates them to the main topic. This type of organization is widely used in Army regulations and military correspondence; in fact, this text follows the numbering pattern.

Main idea: Format of the military letter.

1. Heading.
 - a. File reference.
 - b. Date.
 - c. Suspense date.
 - d. Subject.
 - e. Address.
2. Body.
 - a. Paragraphing.
 - b. References.
 - c. Continuations.
3. Close.
 - a. Authority line.
 - b. Signature.
 - c. Inclosures.
 - d. Copies furnished other offices.

c. Cause and effect pattern. If you state an opinion and support it with reasoning, you are using the cause and effect pattern. You show the logic of your assertion by giving the reasons which support it. It is usual for you to use this pattern when you are asked for your views on a subject.

Opinion: The files of this headquarters should be centralized.

- Reasons:
1. To insure compliance with records disposition instructions.
 2. To insure filing of record copies.
 3. To establish uniform filing procedures.
 4. To avoid duplication of files.

5. To eliminate excess paperwork.
6. To establish a central reference point for all files.

d. Comparison and contrast pattern. Two or more things are compared for similarity or contrasted for differences. This pattern is often used to describe the advantages and disadvantages of various courses of action.

Two items contrasted: Should the Army use electric or manual typewriters?

- Item 1: 1. Electric model.
- a. Advantages.
 - b. Disadvantages.

- Item 2: 2. Manual model.
- a. Advantages.
 - b. Disadvantages.

e. Definition pattern. When you describe an idea, object, or person, you are using the definition pattern. You must explain the class to which your subject belongs and show how the subject differs from anything else in that class. Job descriptions are examples of writing which follows the definition pattern.

Main idea: Clerk-typist job requirements.

1. Skill and knowledge.
 - a. Minimum typing speed of 45 words per minute.
 - b. Knowledge of Army regulations pertaining to administrative procedures.
2. Physical requirements.
 - a. Good vision.
 - b. Good finger and manual dexterity.
3. Mental requirements.
 - a. Verbal ability.
 - b. Good memory.

f. Negative detail pattern. If you eliminate all but one of several possible solutions by showing how the others do not apply, you are using the negative detail method. This procedure is often used in staff studies.

Main idea: At which Army post should the new airborne division be located?

- Solution 1 eliminated: 1. Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana.
- a. Area of post too small.
 - b. Lack of airstrip and drop zones.
 - c. Inadequate housing for troops.
 - d. Lack of training and maneuver areas.

Solution 2 eliminated: 2. Fort Monroe, Virginia.
a. Excessively bad flying conditions.
b. No area for expansion of post.
c. Inadequate housing.

Solution 3 supported: 3. Fort Campbell, Kentucky.
a. Air base and drop zones on post.
b. Adequate family and troop housing.
c. Extensive training and maneuver areas.

Conclusion: Fort Campbell, Kentucky, is the best location for the new airborne division.

g. Question and answer pattern. The objective is to cause your reader (or listener) to participate in your thinking. This method is often used in teaching. When you use it in writing, be sure that the question stands out. Set it off from the rest of your writing so that the reader will pause to consider it before he reads the answer.

Main idea: How can we achieve teamwork within the squad?

1. What is the best method to accomplish this goal?
(Orientation followed by practical exercises.)
2. When can this phase of the training be scheduled?
(During the first week of training in squad tactics.)
3. Where can we conduct this training? (In the company classroom and field training areas.)
4. How can this principle of teamwork be best illustrated? (Squad problems necessitating complete teamwork.)

14. YOU ARE READY TO WRITE. You have something to say. You are sure that your reasoning is sound and that what you have to say is of value to your audience. You have organized your material for orderly presentation. Next you must put your ideas on paper.

CHAPTER 3

WRITING

Section I. PUTTING YOUR THOUGHTS ON PAPER

15. **BEGINNING TO WRITE.** You are full of thoughts that you want to put down on paper. What should you do? First, review your outline. Then set down your thoughts about the first topic. Continue to write, developing the subtopics and moving on to the other main ideas as you complete each topic. Don't worry much about grammar, punctuation, and mechanics on this first draft. The important thing is to concentrate on putting your thoughts on paper.

16. **ACQUIRING EFFECTIVENESS.** The following sections of this chapter offer suggestions on how to improve the effectiveness of your writing. Some general principles of writing are discussed, together with techniques for putting them into effect. Because no single principle or technique can guarantee effectiveness, you must consider and apply them all simultaneously. This text separates and labels these principles, but they are too closely interwoven for you to separate them in actual usage.

Section II. PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE WRITING

17. **ACCURACY.** Your work must be free from factual and mechanical errors. It should present only essential and accurate facts free from bias or distortion. Correct use of grammar, punctuation, and spelling will also contribute to clarity and understanding.

18. **BREVITY AND COMPLETENESS.** You must keep to essentials. Your writing should be brief and to the point. To cover a subject completely, while keeping the length of the paper to the absolute minimum, requires careful analysis and probably several revisions. If necessary, explanatory facts and figures should be attached as annexes. The shorter your paper, the less your chance for error. On the other hand, never sacrifice clarity to gain brevity.

19. **CLARITY.** You must make a special effort to keep your writing clear and free from misunderstanding. Your readers must be certain of your intent. Select words and phrases that express your exact meaning and that can have only one interpretation. Avoid a telegraphic style, which too often sacrifices clarity for brevity. In general, use the active voice in short sentences of simple construction and avoid vague, meaningless, and ambiguous expressions.

20. **COHERENCE.** Coherence is the logical development and arrangement of a subject. You can achieve coherence by first thinking the subject through and seeing it as a whole, then arranging the various parts logically and harmoniously. When writing on a complex subject, use an outline to achieve coherence.

21. UNITY. Your writing must adhere to a single main idea. Not only should you apply this principle to each sentence and paragraph, but also to your entire paper. If you have more than one subject to discuss, prepare a separate paper on each subject.

Section III. WORDS AND PHRASES

22. GOBBLEDYGOOK. For some reason, when most of us begin to write, we use the longest words we know. Although we usually think and speak in a simple, straightforward manner, when we write we seem to want to impress our readers with our vocabularies. This mistaken belief in the impressiveness of big words accounts for much of the "gobbledygook" in official writing. This catch word means that the writer uses (1) 100 words to say what could be said in 20; (2) unfamiliar words; (3) words of three or four syllables when simpler words could give the same idea; (4) military jargon or overworked phrases; (5) long and involved sentences; (6) foreign expressions; (7) jumbled, unrelated, illogical ideas.

a. Use common words. You will find that it is harder to write "gobbledygook" than simple language because you must translate the simple words you use in thinking into uncommon, impressive words. Make it easy on yourself by using plain language.

Impressive: Illumination is required to be extinguished upon vacating these premises.

Simple: Turn out the lights when you leave.

b. Do you understand the words you have used? Are you sure that your reader will understand the words you have used? You can't expect your reader to understand what you have written if you don't. If the meaning of any word is doubtful in your mind, find a better expression. Your reader will lose the thought if he has to search for the meaning of your words.

Confusing: Hegemony is a basic characteristic of a good officer.

Clear: Leadership is a basic characteristic of a good officer.

Confusing: An Army career offers you the opportunity to peregrinate in foreign countries.

Clear: An Army career offers you the opportunity to travel in foreign countries.

23. WORDINESS. Use words which have meaning. Often our writing is cluttered with words which add no meaning. We use words which could be omitted; we use phrases when a word would do. Learn to recognize this "excess baggage" and eliminate it from your writing. Here are three examples:

Wordy: I contemplate inaugurating a reorganization of my company in the near future.

Wordy: In every instance wherein a change is necessary in a one-page or two-page pamphlet, the change will be accomplished by a republication of the pamphlet.

Wordy: Needless to say, the discarded desk will be repaired in each instance.

See how they are improved by cutting out the "excess baggage":

Improved: I intend to reorganize my company soon.

Improved: When changes are necessary, one- or two-page pamphlets will be republished.

Improved: Each discarded desk will be repaired.

24. CLEARNESS.

a. Some words cover such a broad field that the reader is unable to decide what you mean. Avoid vague, ambiguous, blanket words that cannot be precisely related to your subject. In this example, distant or unrelated ideas and words are hiding the real meaning:

Wordy: These chapters on tests and measurements are presented with the hope that they will enable you to make full utilization of correct procedures and techniques. It is believed that you will find them of practical value in the event that you are called upon to administer tests or to interpret in the field the scores resulting from tests.

Improved: In these chapters we will teach you how to give tests and interpret test scores.

b. Further, distinguish between words of similar meaning. Find the word that will precisely express the thought. Note the distinction in meaning between rebellion and revolution. Rebellion is open, organized, and armed resistance to constituted authority; revolution, as here compared, implies the overthrow of one government and the substitution of another. Another comparison might be made between the words practicable and practical. Practicable is applied only to that which is capable of being put into practice. Practical, as opposed to theoretical, means "sensible" when applied to persons, "efficient" when applied to things. The building of a pontoon bridge across a body of water might be practicable (it could be done), but it would not be practical (sensible) unless it were the most efficient method of connecting the two shores.

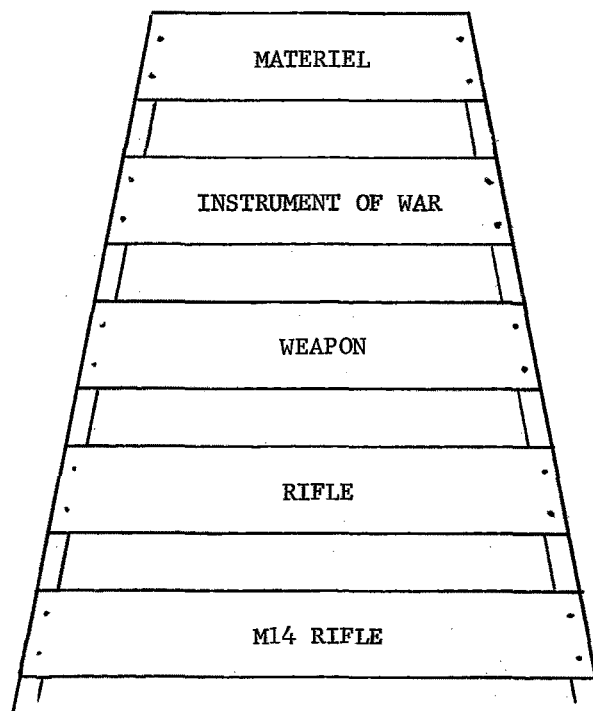
c. Appendix II is a "watchlist" of commonly misused and overworked terms. Watch for these and avoid them.

25. EFFECTIVENESS.

a. Use concrete words. Concrete words are easy to understand because they relate to the five senses. For example, the words M14 rifle are meaningful because they represent an object that can be seen, felt, and used. On the other hand, abstract words are hard to understand because they fail to recall experiences of the five senses. Some language experts describe words in terms of an abstraction ladder. When possible, keep your word choice low on the abstraction ladder.

(1) The lower rungs of the ladder represent those words which stand for objects which the reader can readily identify. They are concrete words.

(2) As you go up the ladder, each word becomes more abstract than the one below it. At the same time, the meaning becomes more vague and open to debate. Such a ladder might look like this:



b. Use simple, plain, fresh words and phrases.

(1) Words or phrases may be simple or complex. Simple words or phrases communicate at once; complex ones hide your meaning.

Complex

Along the lines of
In the case of
With the result that

Simple

Like
For
So that

(2) Some words or phrases are used so exclusively in writing that they have an artificial, stilted flavor; while you may need to use such words occasionally, try to find common terms instead. Stilted words or phrases appeal to few readers; plain words reach everyone. Compare the following examples:

| <u>Stilted</u> | <u>Plain</u> |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| Accordingly, consequently | And so |
| Hence, thus | Therefore |
| Moreover | Now, next |
| That is to say | In other words, that is |

(3) Some words or phrases have been so overworked that they are tiresome to hear. Even though these trite expressions have meaning, they have lost the electric quality of good style. Fresh words, although ordinary and simple, attract your reader by their naturalness and simplicity. Instead of trite terms, look for fresh words. Notice the difference between the following expressions:

| <u>Trite</u> | <u>Fresh</u> |
|-----------------------------|--------------|
| Makes provision for | Does |
| The fullest possible extent | The most |
| For the reason that | Since |
| Inasmuch as | Since |
| In the event that | If |
| On the basis of | By |

c. Don't bury your verbs. Verbs are relation-showing words. They show action (we go), state (he became), feeling (she likes), or existence (you are). A buried verb is one that has been hidden in other words. If you free these verbs, they will add force to your writing. Verbs are often buried in words which end in ance, ment, al, ing, ed, tion, sion, and age.

The need for investigation of the sounds became apparent to them.

In the above example the buried verbs are investigate, in investigation, and appear, in apparent. If we extract the buried verbs, we might rephrase the sentence as follows:

The need to investigate the sounds appeared to them.

Since the sentence is still awkward, we might further rephrase it:

They saw that they needed to investigate the sounds.

Or better:

They saw that they should investigate the sounds.

Section IV. EFFECTIVE SENTENCES

(NOTE: Can you readily distinguish the parts of a sentence? If not, you may have difficulty in understanding this section. If necessary, master the parts of speech and parts of sentences as treated in Appendix III.)

26. CLEAR AND LOGICAL ARRANGEMENT. How can you make sure that your sentences are clear and coherent?

a. Use simple sentences. Limit each sentence to a single thought. A sentence which includes several unrelated ideas connected by and's and so's is hard to understand.

Intricate: The following individuals failed to make a qualifying score with the M14 rifle, so this course will be repeated during the last half of the current training cycle, and their schedules should be changed to include this instruction.

Clear: The following individuals failed to qualify with the M14 rifle. These individuals will repeat this course during the last half of the training cycle.

b. Arrange your words and phrases to convey your exact meaning. You do not need to be a grammarian to recognize illogical sentence structure. Use common-sense. When you have written a statement, ask yourself, "Is the meaning of the sentence clear at first glance?" If you can't answer "Yes," the sentence needs rearranging.

c. Look for misused modifiers. Modifiers, whether they are words or phrases, should be near the words they modify. If you use modifiers carelessly, you will confuse your reader. There are three types of misused modifiers: dangling modifiers, misplaced modifiers, and ambiguous modifiers. Any of the three will lead to confusion, as shown in the following examples:

Dangling Modifier

Dangling: Driving quickly through the cane fields, the two positions were seized by the 21st Infantry. (Driving cannot logically modify positions.)

Should be: Driving quickly through the cane fields, the 21st Infantry seized the two positions.

Dangling: Taking our seats, the parade started. (Taking cannot logically modify parade.)

Should be: Taking our seats, we watched the beginning of the parade.

Misplaced Modifier

(Notice the difference in meaning which results from shifting the position of a word.)

Misplaced: Every soldier cannot become a general. (Modifies can become.)

Clear: Not every soldier can become a general. (Modifies every.)

Misplaced: Only the tank contained two gallons of gas. (Modifies tank.)

Clear: The tank contained only two gallons of gas. (Modifies two.)

Ambiguous Modifier

Ambiguous: Inspectors will report any unauthorized use or misuse of equipment. (Unauthorized modifies both use and misuse.)

Should be: Inspectors will report any misuse or unauthorized use of equipment.

Ambiguous: All damaged equipment and scrap will be turned in to the property disposal officer on Friday. (Damaged modifies both equipment and scrap.)

Should be: All scrap and damaged equipment will be turned in to the property disposal officer on Friday.

d. Watch for faulty pronoun references. Pronouns should be placed as near as possible to their antecedents so that no intervening word is mistaken for the antecedent. If necessary, repeat the antecedent to prevent misunderstanding. Further, pronouns should agree in number with the nouns to which they refer.

Confusing: The sniper followed the scout into the woods where he shot him. (Scout would probably be mistaken for the antecedent.)

Should be: The sniper followed the scout into the woods and shot him.

Confusing: Although we have three types of divisions, its headquarters are essentially the same. (The word its should agree with the antecedent types.)

Should be: Although we have three types of divisions, their headquarters are essentially the same.

e. Tie your thoughts together with parallel construction. Express parallel ideas with the same grammatical structure.

Not parallel: The property officer is responsible for issuing supplies, maintenance of records, and must keep a reserve stock.

Should be: The property officer is responsible for issuing supplies, maintaining records, and keeping a reserve stock.

27. COMPLETENESS. Some sentences are not understandable because an essential word or phrase has been omitted.

a. Watch for omitted words in sentences which compare or contrast ideas. The terms you use must be capable of being compared or contrasted.

Not comparable: The United States Air Force has more planes than any other country.

Should be: The United States Air Force has more planes than the air force of any other country.

b. Look for parts of verbs which have been left out. Two different verb forms may be required if your sentence uses more than one tense.

Omission: Infantry always has and always will be a deciding factor in battle.

Should be: Infantry always has been and always will be a deciding factor in battle.

c. Watch for missing prepositions. Some prepositions are commonly used with certain other words to form idiomatic phrases; for example, bring to pass, addicted to, come by, and situated on. In writing, you must respect the relationships of these expressions if you are to avoid awkwardness and misunderstanding. When you have two or more such phrases in a sentence, use the correct preposition with each.

Omission: This headquarters is neither concerned nor interested in the proposed program.

Should be: This headquarters is neither concerned with nor interested in the proposed program.

28. UNIFICATION. You need both coherence and unity to make a sentence logical and clear. Unity exists when all parts of the sentence contribute to one clear idea or impression. A unified sentence is like a pane of clear glass; you look through it unaware of its existence. When an idea is not clear, the glass becomes somewhat hazy and the sentence become more like a wall than like a pane of glass.

a. Avoid mixed construction of sentences. Mixed constructions often come from using the wrong subject-verb relationship and from repeating an object or a conjunction. Examine these examples:

Wrong Subject-Verb Relationship

Mixed: Driving a car is both simple and will also give you much pleasure.

Should be: Driving a car is simple and pleasurable.

Repeating an Object

Involved: He has an old typewriter which all his friends want to borrow it.

Should be: He has an old typewriter which all his friends want to borrow.

Repeating a Conjunction

Involved: The general said that if we hurried that we would catch up with the headquarters.

Should be: The general said that if we hurried we would catch up with the headquarters.

b. Use short sentences. They are more likely to be tight, unified sentences. Short sentences are easy to read because our eyes can pick them up with little effort. Such sentences are easy to understand and remember because they form simple thought patterns.

Lengthy: Military training teaches a soldier to stand straight and walk with his head up; this helps in future life because it becomes a habit, and so many people have the the bad habit of walking stooped, which leads to poor health and poor appearance.

Short: Military training teaches a soldier to stand straight and to walk with his head up. Good posture becomes habitual and leads directly to better health and appearance.

(1) How short should your sentences be? Language experts tell us that our sentences should average 17 words or less. You may feel that complex ideas cannot be adequately presented in such sentences. However, popular magazines such as The Saturday Evening Post and Reader's Digest use sentences which average fewer than 17 words. The New Yorker magazine, which has a reputation for relatively high literary quality, uses sentences with an average length of 18 words.

(2) Of course, not all of your sentences should be 17 words, or less, in length. If they are all short, your writing will be monotonous and childlike. Vary the length of your sentences for interest; otherwise, your reader will become tired of your style. Some sentences may be one word (for example, "Stop!"); others may total 25 or more words. Try to balance your sentences, though, so that the average length is about 17 words.

Monotonous: Back of the school building are the barracks. The barracks are long, rambling, three-story buildings. Each building is divided into 12 rooms. Each room will accommodate 15 men.

Variety: The barracks located behind the school building are long, rambling, three-story buildings. These buildings are divided into 12 rooms, each of which will accommodate 15 men.

29. EMPHASIS. Strong sentences help sell your ideas. Your reader unconsciously projects himself into the action or situation you describe. Because it gives him a feeling of active participation, positive, vigorous writing will hold your reader's attention. What can you do to make your writing emphatic?

a. Use the active voice. For a direct statement of the idea, make the subject of your sentence perform the action (active voice). The passive voice has its uses, but it is frequently misused and always adds words.

Weak: Our flank was attacked by the enemy.

Good: The enemy attacked our flank.

Good: All men were inoculated against typhoid by the surgeon.

(In this example we want to emphasize the receiver of the action, men, and minimize the person performing the action, the surgeon.)

b. Avoid indirect phrasing. Express your ideas immediately and directly. Frequent use of expressions such as it is, there is, and there are weakens your sentences by postponing the meaning until the end of the sentence. Compare these examples:

Weak: It is the opinion of this branch that the documents are improperly classified.

Better: This branch believes that the documents are improperly classified.

or

I believe that the documents are improperly classified.

Weak: There are three types of divisions, with which you should become familiar.

Better: You should become familiar with the three types of divisions.

c. Make the sentence structure show what is important. The most emphatic part of a statement should be at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. Don't put the key part of the sentence in the middle; if you do, your reader may entirely miss your meaning.

Not this: In order to enable the will of the commander to be understood unmistakably, a standard sequence for all field orders is prescribed to insure that all essential instructions are covered.

But this: The commander uses a standard sequence in all field orders so that he is certain to include all essential instructions and to make himself fully understood.

Not this: A combat division can, and frequently does, operate independently but it usually operates as part of a corps.

But this: Usually operating as a part of a corps, a combat division can, and often does, operate independently.

d. If you must qualify your statement, put the qualifying words first. If you place them in the middle or at the end of the sentence, your reader may need to re-read the statement to get your meaning. He will be more likely to remember the qualification than the main thought. When you put the qualifying words at the beginning of the sentence, your reader will know that what follows is limited by what you have already said. Since he does not need to retrace his thoughts, he will more readily grasp the main idea. Compare the following:

Weak: The four-pronged attack at Salerno would never have succeeded if it had not been supported by heavy naval gunfire.

Better: If it had not been supported by heavy naval gunfire, the four-pronged attack at Salerno would never have succeeded.

Section V. MEANINGFUL PARAGRAPHS

30. ORGANIZATION OF PARAGRAPHS. When you made the outline, you set the pattern for your writing by listing the topics to be covered. If your paper is short, you may cover each topic in a single paragraph; if your subject is complex, you may

need a paragraph for each subtopic. In any event, you will need a method for organizing the paragraphs. Try the following:

a. Limit each paragraph to a single topic. Don't break up your writing into an endless series of paragraphs treating minor ideas, but don't go to the other extreme by writing your entire paper in one paragraph. Build each paragraph around a central idea and limit the information to what your reader needs. Three or four fully developed key ideas are more easily remembered than six or eight half-expressed ideas.

b. Begin the paragraph by telling what it is about. One way to do this is to use a name (topical heading) for the paragraph. Whether you use a topic heading or a full sentence will normally depend upon the style you have selected for your paper. The text should begin with a topic sentence which states your main idea or which gives introductory information about the subject.

c. Following the introductory portion of the paragraph, add the supporting thoughts and data which you have on the topic. Say all you have to say about the topic in one paragraph; while you may later refer to or draw conclusions about the topic, you should not scatter the discussion throughout a series of paragraphs.

d. As you progress from one part of your paper to the next, help your reader to follow you. Shift or rephrase the sentences until each thought leads easily to the next. Use pronouns with antecedents in the previous sentences. Show connection by introducing sentences with such words as however, therefore, or now. Below are other transitional words and phrases for unifying your paper.

| <u>To Show</u> | <u>Use</u> |
|-----------------|--|
| Addition | Besides, in the second place |
| Cause or result | For this reason, on that account, therefore, and so, under these conditions, as a result |
| Comparison | In the same way, similarly, likewise |
| Concession | Naturally, of course, although |
| Explanation | For example, in particular, specifically |
| Repetition | In fact, in other words, obviously |

e. The concluding sentence in a paragraph of several sentences will often be a summary of what has been said in the paragraph. Use the final sentence to emphasize the points you want to get across. In a paragraph, as in a sentence, the first and last portions are the most emphatic. If the paragraph is complex, the last sentence should mirror the key information which you set forth in your topic sentence.

f. Figure 2 illustrates the techniques discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

31. LOGICAL ARRANGEMENT OF PARAGRAPHS. A simple, easy flow of ideas is necessary if you are to get your message across. Arrange your paragraphs so that each paragraph will prepare the reader for what is to come.

a. The text of military writing, regardless of its detailed format, is usually made up of three elements--the introductory portion, the body, and the closing or action portion. Think of these three elements as a working breakdown to show the general relationship of your paragraphs to each other.

(1) Your initial paragraph (or paragraphs) tells what the writing is about; it may state a problem, describe the purpose of the paper, or give background on a subject. It may cite governing directives or otherwise show the authority for the paper. Your introductory paragraph should be short and to the point; it should tell your reader what to expect and why you have written the paper.

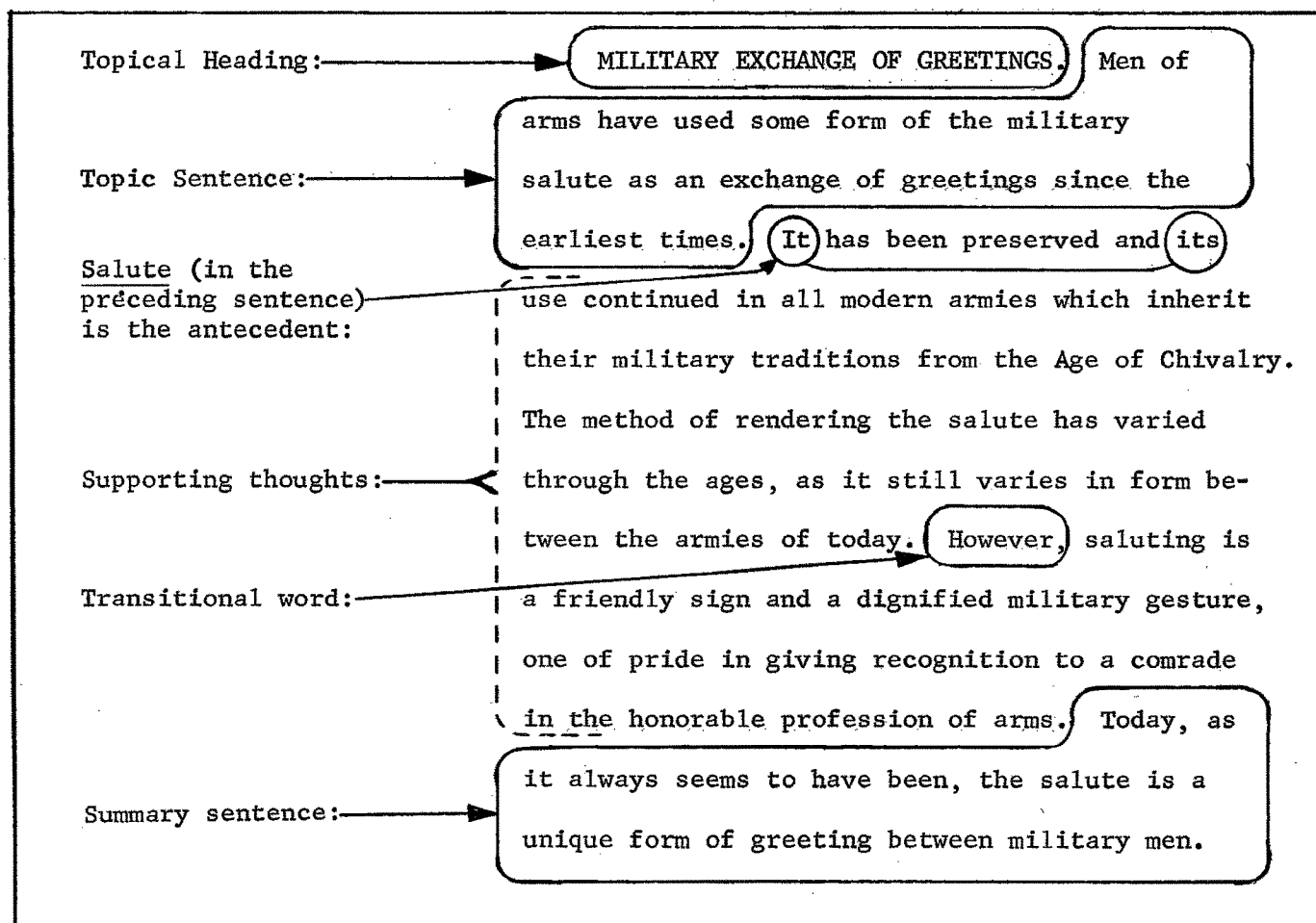


Figure 2. A Well-Organized Paragraph.

(2) The body consists of one or more paragraphs. Regardless of its exact arrangement or the number of paragraphs, the body is the place where you state your

case. Facts, criteria, and related data are usually presented first; an analysis of the facts and an explanation of your views then follow.

(3) In the closing or action portion, you should recommend a specific line of action or summarize the important points of the paper. If the paper is a directive to lower units, use this portion to set a date for completed action.

b. As you develop each paragraph, make sure that it is consistent with the intended organization of your paper. Be slow to make changes in the tentative outline; think each change through to make sure that its adoption does not upset the overall pattern or omit vital information. If a better presentation will result, change your outline even though you must rewrite other portions. If your outline is well organized, the relationship of each paragraph to the whole writing will be easy to see.

c. Briefly review each paragraph as you write. Is the meaning clear? Do the thoughts flow naturally from one paragraph to the next? If not, rework your paragraphs until they satisfy you. However, don't try to give the paper a final review until you have finished it.

CHAPTER 4

MECHANICS OF WRITING

Section I. NEED FOR UNIFORMITY

32. UNIFORMITY PREVENTS CONFUSION. Not too long ago spelling, abbreviation, capitalization, and punctuation were largely matters of personal taste. However, the lack of uniformity in using these devices caused much misunderstanding. To stop this confusion teachers and writers eventually adopted certain generally uniform practices which, through common acceptance, have become standard usage.

33. SOME VARIATIONS REMAIN. There are still differences of opinion on the details of the best way to spell, abbreviate, or capitalize some words and on the most effective ways to use certain punctuation. This chapter does not attempt to define a single best system for all these actions. It discusses some generally accepted principles which will help you in your writing.

Section II. SPELLING

34. SPELLING IS IMPORTANT. Of the mechanical elements in writing, spelling is probably the most firmly fixed. With few exceptions each word has a preferred spelling. Any standard dictionary will tell you which spelling to use. Because of this widespread agreement on how words should be spelled, misspellings make a particularly bad impression on your reader.

35. AVOID MISSPELLINGS. It is obviously impractical for you to look up in a dictionary the spelling of every word you use.

a. If you are stumped on the spelling of a word, try your best to recall it. Write down what you think is correct; then check the dictionary for the correct spelling. You will often find that your spelling is right.

b. Watch for words which you consistently misspell. Most of us have weaknesses in the spelling of certain words. When you recognize words that you often misspell, learn their correct spelling and impress it upon your memory.

c. Pay attention to the way in which you form plurals. Plurals of compound words are made by pluralizing the most important word. For example: sergeants major, surgeons general, and major generals. Instead of the Latin form, the Army prefers anglicized plurals such as formulas, appendixes, and memorandums.

d. Be careful of words or word parts which sound alike but which have different spellings.

(1) Their and there (their house, go there).

(2) The words ending in sede, ceed, and cede. Only the word supersede uses the ending sede. Proceed, succeed, and exceed are the only words ending with ceed. All other words which have this sound use the spelling cede.

(3) Contractions. Will not is contracted to won't; you are is contracted to you're. Don't confuse contractions with possessives which also use an apostrophe (Funk's Library, Jones' house).

e. Don't ask others how to spell a word. If you look the word up in the dictionary, you will remember its spelling far longer than if you rely on someone else. Besides, the person you ask may be unsure of the spelling; yet because he doesn't want to look ignorant, he may guess at the spelling and give you the wrong answer.

f. You may be puzzled about when to spell out numbers that are used in a sentence. Generally accepted military usage is to spell out sums of less than 10 and to use figures for amounts of 10 or over. If you have a combination of numbers below and above 10, in the same sentence, express them all with figures. There are other exceptions to the general rule (e.g., numbers of days, months, and years are expressed as figures), but all the exceptions are too numerous to include in this text. It was once popular to write numbers in words and then to repeat the number with figures in parentheses; today most military writers avoid this duplication.

Section III. ABBREVIATIONS

36. USE ABBREVIATIONS CAREFULLY. Abbreviations are both useful and dangerous. They can reduce the bulk of your writing and make the use of complex terms easy and precise. On the other hand, if you use abbreviations that are unfamiliar to your readers, they may not understand your writing. Further, you must be certain that your abbreviations are correctly used. Perhaps the most misused abbreviations are i.e. and e.g. Follow i.e. (that is) by further explanation, not examples; follow e.g. (for example) by specific examples. Another abbreviation often misused is etc. (and so forth). Never use and before etc. And is redundant since etc. is an abbreviation of et (and) plus cetera (other things). If you are in doubt about the spelling, capitalization, or meaning of any abbreviation, consult a good dictionary.

37. OBSERVE ARMY USAGE. We in the Army are probably more accustomed to abbreviations than people in civilian life. In certain forms of writing (combat orders and radio or cable messages) the use of abbreviations is either required or especially encouraged. For ordinary military writing, however, bear certain cautions in mind:

a. Use only authorized abbreviations. Check the latest Army directive on abbreviations for those which are peculiar to military use. Abbreviations common in civilian life (such as the abbreviations for states and territories) and contained in standard dictionaries are acceptable. Don't make up new abbreviations.

b. Spell out the term you are abbreviating the first time that you use it in a paper and show the abbreviation in parentheses immediately after the full term; e.g., Program of Instruction (POI). In informal writing, if you know that all of your

readers are well acquainted with the abbreviation, it is not always necessary to spell out the expression. But don't take chances; if there is doubt whether the abbreviation will be understood, spell it out the first time that it appears.

c. Use abbreviations sparingly. Since each abbreviation stands for a fairly complex idea, your reader must pause to recall its meaning. If he must stop to do this every few words, he will lose time and the continuity of your thoughts. Don't make your reader wade through "alphabet soup."

d. Some Army abbreviations are so well known that they may be used for military writing without an introductory explanation. Titles for types of common Army publications such as TOE, AR, and FM can be used without explanation. On the other hand, abbreviations for unfamiliar publications such as Army Training Programs (ATP) and Army Training Tests (ATT) should not be used unless they are first explained. In military correspondence and informal writing, the names of military grades may be abbreviated without explanation.

e. Don't use military abbreviations when you write to a civilian. Whenever there is doubt about whether to abbreviate an expression or to spell it out, spell it out.

Section IV. CAPITALIZATION

38. **DON'T OVERCAPITALIZE.** Most military writers do tend to overcapitalize. Perhaps they feel that capitalization emphasizes the words they use. This is not true; the reader generally expects a capital letter to identify one of two things--the beginning of a sentence, or a proper name. To use capital letters otherwise will only serve to mislead the reader. Further rules are made to secure uniformity in doubtful cases. If you are unsure whether or not a word should be capitalized, the best rule is not to capitalize it.

39. CAPITALIZE THE BEGINNING OF EACH SENTENCE.

a. Even if you wouldn't normally capitalize the first word, do capitalize it when it starts a sentence.

Ex-President Truman entered the hall.

b. When you use an incomplete sentence as a complete thought (e. g., "Stop him!"), capitalize the initial word.

c. If you use a direct quotation, question, or slogan within a sentence, capitalize the first word of the quoted material.

The order read "Attack at 0500."

d. Capitalize the first word of terms listed under columnar headings, when used as subparagraphs, even though they may not be complete sentences.

Special staff officers may include the following:

- (1) Signal officer.
- (2) Aviation officer.
- (3) Chemical officer.
- (4) Engineer officer.

40. CAPITALIZE PROPER NOUNS AND WORDS DERIVED FROM PROPER NOUNS. Proper nouns are those which are identified exactly so that they can be distinguished from other related or similar objects.

John Smith
Washington, D. C.
Buick
England

Sherman tank
Liberator plane
Garand rifle

41. CAPITALIZE NAMES OF ORGANIZATIONS.

Department of the Army
Headquarters, 7th Division
Regular Army
U. S. Infantry
the Air Force (U. S. Air Force)

but

the army of Germany
7th Division headquarters
the infantry in the division
infantry troops
air activity

42. CAPITALIZE TITLES.

a. Capitalize titles immediately preceding the name, both in the singular and plural.

Colonel Jones
Colonels Jones and Smith

b. Capitalize official titles used alone only to indicate preeminence or distinction.

the President
the Supreme Allied Commander
the Chief of Staff (U. S. Army)
the Secretary (of Defense)

but

the corps commander
the theater commander
the ambassador
the U. S. consul
the president of General Foods

- c. Capitalize titles following the name, if given formally and in full.

General Herbert Gray, Chief of Staff, Third United States Army
Major General Charles W. Thompson, Commanding General, 29th Division
John Doe, Military Assistant, Office, Under Secretary of the Army

but

General Gray, the Third Army chief of staff
Major General Charles W. Thompson, the commanding general of the
29th Division
John Doe, the military assistant

43. CAPITALIZE COMMON NOUNS USED AS PROPER NOUNS. If context or common use make it clear that it is especially singled out, any outstanding item may be capitalized.

the English Channel
the Civil War the American War of 1861-1865

44. CAPITALIZE THE TITLES OF OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS WHEN USED TO REFER TO AN INDIVIDUAL DOCUMENT.

Department of the Army Circular 360-4, 17 Dec 63
DA Form 24 (Service Record)

but

Department of the Army circulars
service records

45. DON'T CAPITALIZE THE FIRST WORD OF SLOGANS GRAMMATICALLY DEPENDENT UPON WHAT PRECEDES.

He sent word to us to "hit the road" so we started to pack.
He passed the word along that "we may storm the enemy."

46. DON'T CAPITALIZE THE FIRST WORD OF A SENTENCE INSERTED WITHIN ANOTHER WHEN IT IS SEPARATED BY PARENTHESES OR DASHES.

The company was moved (this had been decided previously) to a new location.

He told me--but perhaps I shouldn't talk about it--that the colonel had made the decision.

47. DON'T CAPITALIZE ENUMERATIONS WITHIN A SENTENCE.

Company commanders will (1) inspect their company areas for police, (2) arrange for disposal of rubbish, (3) notify the S3 when their units are ready to move.

48. DON'T CAPITALIZE NAMES OF SEASONS OF THE YEAR.

Last summer he was assigned to Fort Benjamin Harrison.

49. DON'T CAPITALIZE POINTS ON THE COMPASS UNLESS THEY REFER TO A SPECIFIC GEOGRAPHICAL SECTION OF THE COUNTRY, RATHER THAN A DIRECTION.

| | | |
|-----------------|------------|------------------------|
| North Africa | <u>but</u> | western Europe |
| Central America | | northern South America |

50. DON'T CAPITALIZE WORDS WHICH, ALTHOUGH SOMETIMES USED AS PROPER NOUNS, DESCRIBE A GENERAL CLASS OF THINGS.

All captains will be considered.

Entries in the morning report are governed by AR 335-60.

Section V. PUNCTUATION

(NOTE: You will find Appendix III helpful in understanding punctuation.)

51. PUNCTUATE TO MAKE YOUR MEANING CLEAR. Some writers are afraid of punctuation. They are constantly trying to recall some half-remembered rule which will do away with the uncertainty they feel about punctuation. While you should be careful in using punctuation, there is no need to be fearful about it.

a. In its simplest sense, punctuation in writing takes the place of pauses and emphasis in speaking. One test for effective punctuation is to read your writing aloud; if you pause or use emphasis where the punctuation appears, your punctuation is probably correctly placed.

b. Present-day writers minimize punctuation and rely on skillful phrasing to make the meaning clear. If a sentence requires a lot of punctuation, it is likely to be long and hard to understand. In addition, excessive punctuation tends to break the smooth flow of words. If your sentences seem overly punctuated, try rewriting them for greater effectiveness.

c. The following paragraphs of this section contain some suggestions which may help you to overcome the most common punctuation difficulties. See figure 3 for a brief guide for sentence punctuation.

52. KNOW WHEN TO USE THE COMMA. The comma is the most frequently used punctuation mark and the one which causes the most trouble. It indicates the smallest break in continuity of thought or sentence structure.

a. One use of the comma is to show parallel construction. Two or more words, phrases, or clauses which have the same grammatical function in a sentence are parallel constructions. For example, in the sentence "The men laughed, swore, and

joked," the three words laughed, swore, and joked are parallel verbs. In the foregoing example, note that a coordinating conjunction, and, is also used to indicate parallelism; coordinating conjunctions (i.e., for, yet, and, or, nor, but) imply some parallelism. The following examples show parallel construction.

Use commas with coordinating conjunctions when
they join two independent clauses

He was still undecided about issuing the order to attack the enemy on the 20th, but he knew that an attack was essential to prevent the enemy from reuniting his forces.

The captain is a good student in logistics, for he is well acquainted with this field.

Guide to Punctuating
Independent and Subordinate Clauses

1. Sentence. Sentence.
2. Independent clause; independent clause.
3. Independent clause, {
nor
and
or
but
for
yet
} independent clause.
4. Independent clause; {
therefore
however
then
etc.
}, independent clause.
5. Independent clause subordinate clause.
6. Subordinate clause, independent clause.
7. Independent clause subordinate clause; independent clause.
8. Independent clause; subordinate clause, independent clause.

Figure 3. Guide for Sentence Punctuation.

Use commas with three or more words in a series

He distributed arms, ammunition, and food. (Series of nouns.)

The instructor was thoroughly familiar with his subject, had a pleasant speaking voice, yet failed to hold the interest of his students. (Series of verbs.)

(Current military practice requires the use of the comma before the conjunction, as shown in this example.)

Use commas with parallel adjectives

The cumbersome, noisy tank lumbered across the field.
Europe expects to have a long, severe winter.

Use commas with three or more parallel phrases or clauses

He aimed, he fired, he saw him fall. (Short independent clauses.)

This is a government of the people, by the people, for the people.

He knew that he would be late, that he would miss chow, and that he would be punished. (Series of subordinate clauses.)

b. Another use of commas is to set off explanatory material which is not essential to grammatical construction or the main thought. When commas are used in this fashion, they have the effect of weak parentheses. The words they inclose supplement but do not change the meaning of the entire sentence.

(1) Use commas with nonrestrictive clauses. Clauses which could be inclosed in parentheses without changing the meaning of a sentence are nonrestrictive clauses and should be set off by commas. On the other hand, clauses which so limit or modify the sense of a thought that they are essential to its meaning are restrictive clauses; they should not be set off by commas.

Nonrestrictive: The company, which was on our left, made a surprise withdrawal. (There was only one company--commas are needed.)

Restrictive: The company which was on our left made a surprise withdrawal. (More than one company is involved; the one on the left withdrew. Commas should not be used.)

Nonrestrictive: Captain Jones, who is my tactics instructor, spoke to me. (There is only one Capt Jones; therefore, commas are used.)

Restrictive: The captain who spoke to me is my tactics instructor. (Since the captain was not specifically named, the subordinate clause is needed for identification.)

(2) Use commas with nonrestrictive appositives. Words or phrases which follow a noun and mean the same thing (appositives) are treated as inserted elements. As with clauses, nonrestrictive appositives are set off with commas and restrictive appositives are not.

Nonrestrictive: The officer, a major, saluted and departed.

Restrictive: The destroyer Ferguson swerved. (There are many destroyers; only the Ferguson is discussed.)

Appositives are really shortened clauses. To distinguish between restrictive and nonrestrictive appositives, try phrasing them as clauses. Nonrestrictive clauses will be easy to form; restrictive clauses will be awkward.

Easy: The officer, who was a major, saluted and departed.

Awkward: The destroyer, which was the Ferguson, swerved.

c. Use commas with adjectives which follow the nouns they modify. Adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify, but if you want to emphasize the adjectives, you may place them after the nouns they modify. In this case, set off the adjectives with commas.

Weapons carriers, armored or unarmored, are designed for rough use.

The weather, cold and foggy, had driven almost everyone indoors.

d. Use commas with certain introductory or concluding phrases and clauses. Often explanatory material will be used to introduce a sentence. In such cases--

Use a comma to set off long adverbial clauses
which precede the main clause

After the fifth and sixth problems of the maneuver have been completed, the umpires will give their reports to the chief umpire.

Before you leave the company, lock the supply room and turn in the key.

Do not set off adverbial clauses which follow
the main clause

The umpires will give their reports to the chief umpire when the problem is done.

Our company will assemble in front of the headquarters building before the parade begins.

Use commas to set off introductory verbal phrases

Having eaten, he wanted to sleep.

but

Having to eat made him late.

(Here the phrase having to eat is the subject of the sentence; therefore, it is not introductory.)

Firing into the sun, the sergeant hit the wrong target.

but

Firing into the sun gave the sergeant a headache.

Don't use a comma to set off short adverbial phrases

Unnecessary: After the battle we regrouped.

Necessary: Before leaving, the soldiers demolished the gun position.
(Comma is needed here for clarity.)

e. Also use commas to supplement other punctuation and to prevent misunderstanding.

Set off direct quotations from the rest of the sentence

Direct: He said, "We will advance on this line."

I asked, "Will the supporting artillery fire be lifted in time?"

Indirect: He said that we will advance on this line.

I asked whether the supporting artillery fire would be lifted in time.

Use a comma any time that it will prevent misunderstanding

Confusing: To Rome Britain was a barbaric outpost.

Correct: To Rome, Britain was a barbaric outpost.

Confusing: The men slid down the ropes but one ranger seemed to be caught in the rigging.

Correct: The men slid down the ropes, but one ranger seemed to be caught in the rigging.

Set off titles which follow the name to which they pertain

Norman P. Winston, Ph. D., was educational advisor.

Thomas J. Cooper, Jr., was inducted into the Army on his birthday.

Colonel Elmer C. Burnside, the commanding officer, reviewed the parade.

Differentiate between items of address

New York City, New York, U. S. A.

U. S. Army Adjutant General School, Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana 46216

f. Never separate a subject or object from its verb with a single comma (non-restrictive expressions require two commas when they are used in a sentence).

Not this: We in the meantime, attacked, Santa Cosimo.

But this: We, in the meantime, attacked Santa Cosimo.

Not this: Pvt Joe E. Sims who was the best rifleman in the battalion, led his squad in the attack.

But this: Pvt Joe E. Sims, who was the best rifleman in the battalion, led his squad in the attack.

53. KNOW WHEN TO USE THE SEMICOLON. The semicolon has two purposes: (1) to separate two or more independent clauses when coordinating conjunctions are not used and (2) to separate items in series when commas have already been used.

a. Use the semicolon to join two complete but closely related thoughts. It may be used in place of a coordinating conjunction, or it may be used with such conjunctions as however, therefore, and consequently when they join two grammatically complete sentences. (Place a comma after these conjunctions.)

The division advanced rapidly; by 1400 hours it had reached Foggia.
(And has been omitted.)

We left at daybreak; however, our route was so rough that by nightfall we had progressed only nine miles.

b. Use semicolons to make your meaning clear when you must link in one sentence a series of expressions containing commas. Remember that the parts of the sentence which are set off by semicolons should be parallel constructions.

We could try to find our way out through the low, dense jungle; could withdraw to Ormoc, which had not yet fallen; or could search for a safe, passable route over the ridge.

Colonel James Williams, the commanding officer; Major Jack Black, the S4; and Major Timothy Green, the post engineer, attended the conference.

54. RECOGNIZE THE PROPER USE OF THE COLON. The colon is a mark of anticipation. It is a formal mark and is usually emphatic. The material which follows the colon illustrates, restates, or depends on that which precedes the colon.

a. Use a colon with enumerations, lists, or explanations. (Don't use it when the thought of the sentence is dependent on material following the colon.)

Wrong: The vehicles found to be satisfactory were: the half-track, the weapons-carrier, and the 2 1/2-ton GMC.

Right: The vehicles found to be satisfactory were the half-track, the weapons-carrier, and the 2 1/2-ton GMC.

Right: These vehicles were found to be satisfactory: the half-track, the weapons-carrier, and the 2 1/2-ton GMC.

Wrong: Functions of management are: planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling.

Right: The following are functions of management: planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling.

Wrong: The colonel had been awarded: the Distinguished Service Cross, Silver Star, Bronze Star, and Purple Heart.

Right: The colonel had been awarded the following decorations: Distinguished Service Cross, Silver Star, Bronze Star, and Purple Heart.

b. Use a colon with a long and formal quotation or when say or a substitute for say has been left out.

The sergeant looked up: "What was that?"

Major General Smith made the following remarks: "This visit is one of the important field visits to which I look forward with great interest. The opportunity to talk with you about some of our problems is one which too seldom occurs * * *."

55. USE QUOTATION MARKS CORRECTLY.

a. Use quotation marks to inclose quotations, slogans, slang expressions, or ordinary words used in other than their usual fashion.

Quotation: "If you have a bayonet," said Lt Johnson, "turn it in to supply."

Slogan: It was "Be Kind to Animals Week."

Slang: We "bugged out" of there in a hurry.

b. Sometimes the use of other punctuation marks with quotes causes trouble. An easy rule to remember is that periods and commas are placed inside the quotes; other punctuation marks are placed within the quotes only if they are a part of the quotation.

"Don't go that way," he said, "for it is mined. Don't you recognize the markers?"

Did he say, "This area is mined"?

c. Quotations within a quotation are inclosed with single quotation marks. If both quotations end at the same place, close them with both a single and a double quotation mark.

The captain said, "But the AR says, 'Applications will be submitted in triplicate.'"

d. When you quote matter that is longer than one paragraph, place a quotation mark at the beginning of each paragraph, but use it at the end of only the last paragraph.

"I certainly agree that we need to improve. I have stressed this to the Army Publications Board, The Adjutant General, my own office, and every other place where I've had a chance. But I still see too much gobbledygook from all sources every day. I'm sure you do, too.

"One way I think we can get some definite improvement is by teaching simple, direct writing in our Army schools. I don't mean that new courses need be set up to do this; I think it can be done within present instruction. Clear writing should be made such a daily requirement that it becomes a habit for the student rather than a special course on the subject."

56. KNOW WHEN TO USE ITALICS AND UNDERLINING. Italics are not punctuation, but they are sometimes used in place of quotation marks and to set off words so as to make the meaning clear. In papers which are typed or written in longhand, underlining takes the place of italics.

a. Use italics to set off foreign words included in an English context and to identify letters, words, or phrases which are, themselves, being talked about.

The Italians considered him simpatico.
The word and is a coordinating conjunction.

b. To identify the names of books and periodicals.

We consulted the Encyclopedia Britannica and even Harper's Magazine.

You should read "Going Home," by Colonel Frank Lehman, in the July Military Review.

c. Use italics to accent portions of your writing. Use them cautiously; they lose their effect if used too frequently.

57. USE PARENTHESES, DASHES, AND BRACKETS SPARINGLY. Use them to set off explanatory remarks when commas would be too weak.

a. Use parentheses to show that the inserted material is remote or independent from the rest of the sentence. Parentheses show a stronger break in the sentence than do commas; while the material included in parentheses is related to the main thought, it is only loosely connected.

The attack (only heaven knows why it was ordered!) began at noon.

b. Dashes are used to show sharp interruption in thought and are less formal than parentheses. Usually material set off by dashes is closely related to the grammar and subject matter of the sentence, yet the shift is so abrupt that commas will not do the work. (In typing, use two dashes to differentiate them from hyphens.)

The company needed one thing--more training.

The man who knew what action had been taken--the first sergeant--was on leave.

c. Brackets are used to inclose material inserted by the writer in quoted material. Bracketed remarks may add omitted words which are essential to understanding, or they may explain or discuss the author's comments.

The colonel explained, "The assault company [Company E] will attack alone."

58. USE HYPHENS CORRECTLY. Hyphens are used to join compound words and to break a word at the end of a line.

a. The most common type of compound word is that used as a unit modifier immediately preceding the word it modifies. If the words to be joined could be used independently in the sentence, they should not be compounded.

His action was an ill-advised one.
His action was ill advised.

The sick, cold, hungry troops trudged on.

b. Prefixes ex and self are always hyphenated.

The speech was made by ex-President Hoover.
The psychologist emphasized the need for self-expression.

c. When you must end a line of writing in the middle of a word, break the word so that the hyphen can be inserted between syllables. If you are in doubt, consult a dictionary.

59. RECOGNIZE THE PROPER USE OF THE APOSTROPHE. Apostrophes are used to show possession, to form certain plurals, and to indicate that words have been contracted.

a. To show possession, use the apostrophe with an s; for words ending in s or the s sound, omit the additional s.

| | | |
|----------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| the soldier's helmet | | tanks' tracks |
| Jones' tent | | weapons' sights |
| eight weeks' course | <u>or</u> | eight-week course |

b. To form the plurals of numbers, letters, and certain words and symbols which are not commonly used in the plural, use an apostrophe and s.

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------|---|
| <u>5's</u> and <u>4's</u> | <u>but</u> | the numbers <u>5</u> and <u>4</u> |
| <u>a's</u> and <u>b's</u> | | the letters <u>a</u> and <u>b</u> |
| <u>why's</u> and <u>wherefore's</u> | | the words <u>why</u> and <u>wherefore</u> |
| <u>&'s</u> | | the symbols <u>&</u> |

c. Use the apostrophe in contractions to show that letters have been omitted. The apostrophe may also be used to indicate the omission of part of a date.

| | |
|---------|----------|
| they're | they are |
| you're | you are |
| it's | it is |
| won't | will not |
| '64 | 1964 |

- d. Don't use the apostrophe with the word it to show possession.

The tent, together with its pegs, was lying on the ground.

60. KNOW HOW TO USE END PUNCTUATION. Army writing closely parallels civilian writing in the use of end punctuation. However, there is some variation from civilian use, as the following rules demonstrate.

- a. The period.

(1) Do not use periods with military abbreviations (e.g., TOE and Bn), but use them with commonly accepted nonmilitary abbreviations (for example, i.e., and D.C.).

(2) Unless other punctuation is required, use periods to end numbered subparagraphs even though they may not be complete sentences.

- b. The exclamation point, since the exclamation point (!) is closely associated with emotional appeal, you should rarely use it in military writing.

- c. The question mark. Use the question mark as you would in nonmilitary writing. Although you usually avoid direct questions in formal writing and military correspondence, they sometimes are essential or desirable.

CHAPTER 5

REVIEWING YOUR WRITING

Section I. PURPOSE OF REVIEWING

61. **VALUE OF REVIEW.** You know that if you put your writing aside for a day or two and then reread it, the meaning may often appear to have changed. But you can't always subject your writing to this cooling-off process; deadlines and the pressure of other work require that Army writing be finished promptly. In place of the time-consuming cooling-off process, you can use a method of review which will spot the weaknesses in your writing.

62. **OBJECTIVES OF REVIEW.** A review has three objectives:

a. To evaluate the content of your writing. Your paper must be complete and based on sound reasoning.

b. To check the effectiveness with which you have organized the paper. The subject, its order of development, and the relationship between one part of the paper and another must be clear.

c. To make sure that your writing will be easily understood. The reader must be able to grasp immediately the exact meaning of what you write.

63. **EFFECTIVENESS OF REVIEW.** Review the draft for content, for organization, and for effectiveness of expression. If your writing is long, you will find that a separate review for each objective is best. If possible, have someone else read and criticize your paper. For effective review, you and your critic can use the procedures described in this chapter.

Section II. REVIEW OF CONTENT

64. **COMPLETENESS.** How can you determine that your writing is complete? Read the paper, and as you do so, ask yourself these questions:

Who is involved?

What does the reader need to know?

When must he act?

Where is the action to take place?

Why is the action necessary?

How should the reader proceed?

If action by the reader is required, provide a means for him to take the action. If you want a report, furnish a form or an example.

65. **ACCURACY.** As you reread your paper for completeness, also check for accuracy. Your writing must be based on established fact and sound logic. If the facts are dubious or if the sources of information are of doubtful reliability, your writing may be invalid. To convince the reader of the soundness of your views, you must show him the reasoning process by which you arrived at your conclusions. Test the data you have assembled for reliability and accuracy.

a. Ask yourself whether the facts are based on reliable sources. Sources are of two kinds: witness reports (including your own observations) and opinions of authorities who are experts in the field. Test the reliability of your data.

Check Witness Reports

Was the witness in a position to see or know firsthand what was happening?

Was he mentally and physically capable of understanding what he observed?

Was he prejudiced?

Test Opinion of Authorities

Is the authority recognized as an expert in his field?

Is he prejudiced?

Is the authority up to date?

b. Check your facts for accuracy by answering these questions:

Have you quoted source material correctly?

If you have used mathematics, are the computations correct?

Does one fact seem to contradict another?

66. **PITFALLS OF LOGIC.** Avoid false reasoning and appeals to the emotions.

a. **False reasoning.** You may feel that your method of reasoning is sound, but it is easy to slip into questionable tricks of logic. Watch out for the following:

(1) **False analogy.** An analogy is not actually reasoning; it is the assumption that what is true of a simple, familiar situation will be true of a complicated situation.

Just as a man must someday die, so must great civilizations live their allotted time and decline.

In the above example, the first statement does not prove the second. You may find analogies helpful as examples, but you must use them with care to avoid wrong conclusions.

(2) Hasty generalization. You must base your generalizations on representative instances, not just a few. The original meaning of the phrase "the exception proves the rule" was that the exception tests the rule. If you can think of instances which would disprove the generalization, the reasoning is faulty. For example, an inspector general reported the following:

"Several enlisted men of this command have not received information regarding their eligibility to claim dependency benefits. Since this is an important personnel function, the personnel officer is negligent."

(Further investigation disclosed that instructions had been published on the procedure to make application for dependency benefits but that the soldiers who complained had not read the notice.)

(3) Using reputation as sole support of judgment. You should not assume that a thing is good solely because someone of good reputation has adopted it or recommends its adoption. The fact that the Army and the Air Force use a particular system of correspondence does not prove that the same system would be best for the Navy and the Coast Guard. Likewise, you use poor judgment when you quote an authority who has spoken out of his field. An outstanding biologist may offer sound advice on how to win a war but his advice must be judged on its own merits and not taken as that of an expert on war.

(4) Arguing for a compromise. Sometimes you may find that a compromise will be the best solution to a problem. On the other hand, a compromise may often be wrong.

A company commander who has the alternatives of attacking the enemy or of withdrawing his troops will often be wrong to compromise by doing nothing.

If you have all the facts, the best course of action usually will be plain. Unless the facts indicate that a compromise is the best solution, don't compromise.

b. Appeals to emotion. Does your writing try to convince by using appeals to the emotions? If you attempt to play on the reader's fear, pride, or self-interest to sell your views, you are resorting to emotional appeal. The basic purpose of military writing is to enlighten. Appeals to the emotions often serve to hide the truth; they therefore defeat the purpose of military writing. Examine your paper for the following:

(1) Name-calling. If you give undesirable names to things you dislike, such as referring to someone who disagrees with you as a "reactionary" or a "radical," you are engaging in name-calling. Army writing has no place for name-calling.

(2) Biased adjectives. Adjectives should describe accurately. When you use adjectives that tend to degrade or glorify the thing you are describing, you are using biased adjectives. For example, one writer has said, "I am firm; you are stubborn; but he is pigheaded." Probably each person is equally set in his opinions; yet, emotionally, pigheaded and stubborn are unfavorable words, while firm is complimentary.

(3) Bandwagon appeals. If you have used such expressions as "It is generally concluded that" or "Everyone agrees," ask yourself whether your assertions can be proved. Your reader may accept what you say because he doesn't want to seem different from the average man, not necessarily because the facts prove your case. Beware of bandwagon appeal; even majority opinions can be wrong.

(4) Glittering generalities. A glittering generality uses good labels to transfer approval to an idea. To say that "the principles of sound personnel management dictate adoption of this proposal" is to use a glittering generality. Unless the principles involved are stated and the facts show that they are applicable to the proposal, the generality is not necessarily valid.

(5) Catch phrases. We have all been exposed to advertising, political, and propaganda sayings and slogans which may be either misleading or untrue. Sometimes we unconsciously use these phrases as accepted facts because through repetition they have become firmly implanted in our minds. Examine your writing for such expressions as "We've never lost a war nor won a peace; therefore * * *" and "Our first line of defense is * * *; therefore * * *."

Section III. A REVIEW FOR ORGANIZATION

67. CHECK OF STRUCTURE. Read your paper a second time and check it against the following points.

Is my subject clearly stated?

Does the subject title accurately describe what is in my paper?

Have I defined my purpose in the introductory portion of my paper?

Is my subject advanced in clean-cut stages?

Have I clearly shown the relationship between those stages?

Have I followed my outline?

Have I smoothly tied together the points of my outline?

68. TABLE OF CONTENTS. If your paper is lengthy, make a table of contents. It will also help you in reviewing its organization. Give each chapter, section, and paragraph title; if subparagraphs are lengthy, title them, too.

Section IV. A REVIEW FOR UNDERSTANDABILITY

69. UNDERSTANDABLE LANGUAGE. You are sure that you have said all that needs to be said about the subject and you feel that the organization of the writing is well suited to carry your message. However, are you certain that your writing will be understood? The procedures described in this section are suggested ways to check whether your message will get across to your reader.

70. CHECK OF LANGUAGE AND STYLE. Ask yourself:

Will the reader be able to grasp readily the meaning of the words I have used?

Are my sentences too long and involved?

Have I used transitional words and sentences?

Does my writing have force?

Is the level of abstraction too high?

Is my style consistent and pleasant to read?

71. THE FOG INDEX READABILITY YARDSTICK. A readability yardstick is a device or formula used to measure the understandability of a manuscript. This formula is often expressed as the reading level or, more specifically, the level of schooling the reader should have to understand the material easily. Many different readability yardsticks have been developed; any yardstick that helps a writer produce better material will serve the purpose. Yardsticks are helpful guides to writers who want to improve their writing, but they are not intended to limit the writer. A writer is not expected to use a yardstick in all his writing; however, if he suspects that he is writing over the heads of his readers, a yardstick may be helpful.

a. The Fog Index is one of the most convenient and easily applied yardsticks. Most writers can apply this formula accurately since the elements to be counted are clearly defined. It was chosen because it eliminates some of the more tedious aspects of other widely used formulas.

b. The Fog Index theory is based on word and sentence length--the longer the words and sentences, the foggier the meaning. The Fog Index is a figure which represents the number of years of schooling a reader should have before he can readily understand the writing. The average high school graduate can easily read material with a Fog Index of 12 or less. Writing that has an Index of more than 12 is in the danger zone and is likely to be misunderstood.

c. These are the steps in finding the Fog Index of written material:

(1) Find the average sentence length by dividing the number of words by

the number of sentences. Use a sample of 100 or more words in figuring average sentence length. Sentences that have two independent clauses separated by a semi-colon are counted as two sentences.

(2) Compute the percentage of hard words. To do this, count the number of words of three or more syllables in the sample. Then divide this number by the total number of words in the sample. Omit the following from the count of hard words:

(a) Verbs such as donated or indorses that are made three syllables by adding ed or es. A verb such as indicated, however, is a hard word since it already has three syllables without the addition of ed.

(b) Combinations of short, easy words such as stockholder or airliner.

(c) Words that are capitalized.

(3) Add the average sentence length and the numerical value of the percentage of hard words, and multiply by .4. The result is the Fog Index of the material. For example, the Fog Index computation of a 180-word letter containing 12 sentences and 18 words of three or more syllables is as follows:

| | |
|---|-------------|
| Average sentence length ($180 \div 12$) | 15 |
| Percent hard words ($18 \div 180$) | $+10\%$ |
| | 25 |
| Fog Index factor | $\times .4$ |
| Fog Index | 10 |

d. To compute the Fog Index for the following paragraph, follow the three steps explained in paragraph c.

As soldiers we all have special reasons for being proud of the past accomplishments of the United States Army. All Americans who feel pride in the progress and position of world predominance of our country, whether they realize it or not, are honoring the Army. If there had been no Continental Army under General Washington, there would not have been an independent United States; in later years, if there had been no Army, the nation would never have survived. The pride of the Army is expressed, among other ways, in various customs and traditions. These are kept to remind us of the millions of other Americans who have served in the ranks, during the country's history, so that we and our families may live in a vast, free, and rich country.

The average sentence length, figured by dividing the number of words (131) by the number of sentences (6) is 22. When we divide the number of hard words (10) by the total number of words (131), we get the numerical value of the percentage of hard words (7.6 percent). When we add the average sentence length and the numerical value of the percentage of hard words and then multiply by the Fog Index factor of .4, we get 11.8, which is the Fog Index.

e. While the Fog Index is not infallible, it is a convenient way to measure how hard your writing will be to read. Use the Fog Index to see whether your writing is geared to your audience.

(1) Remember that for most people the most comfortable reading level is material with a Fog Index of 10 or less.

(2) If the Fog Index indicates that a paragraph is hard to understand, it is best to rewrite the paragraph. Usually your rewritten material will be better than the original, but remember that a low Fog Index alone does not guarantee clear meaning.

72. STOPPING POINT. No matter how short your paper is, recheck it and rewrite it until you are satisfied that it tells what you have to say in the manner in which you want it said. But don't try to achieve an unrealistic degree of perfection. Stop revising when you are satisfied that the paper will accomplish its objective. Put it into final form as soon as possible so that the action you want will be taken promptly.

CHAPTER 6

THE STAFF STUDY

Section I. INTRODUCTION

73. GENERAL. So far in this text we have discussed the general principles of effective writing. In this chapter we shall study the best military format for reporting the solutions to complex problems--the staff study. The development of the staff study puts a premium on the application of the principles treated in earlier chapters. While other frequently-used forms of Army writing could be studied with profit, no other form will require you to use such straight thinking and clear, concise language as does the staff study. Learn to use it well.

74. PURPOSE. The staff study plays the same part in Army administration that the estimate of the situation does in combat operations. It contains an accurate, concise analysis of the problem and your conclusions and recommendations. The purpose of a staff study is to assist your commander, or other superior, in making a decision. To serve this purpose a staff study must incorporate the principles of effective writing.

a. **Clarity.** There must be no doubt of your meaning.

b. **Brevity.** Normally, the body of your staff study should not exceed one page in length. Your commander should be able to get a clear picture of the problem and the recommended solution with a minimum of reading. However, clarity should never be sacrificed for brevity.

c. **Accuracy.** There must be no factual or mechanical errors. Check and re-check source data and the final paper so that your commander can accept the paper with confidence.

d. **Coherence.** Your ideas should be presented in logical order with the relationships between ideas clearly shown.

e. **Unity.** Your paper must deal with only one subject--the problem. Keep away from side issues and irrelevant material.

f. **Completeness.** You must cover every angle of the problem, including all reasonable courses of action. All papers necessary to put the recommended action into effect should accompany your study.

75. USE. Because its format parallels the steps of problem solving (Appendix I), the staff study is an excellent way to present your solution to a problem.

a. **Compare the two series of steps:**

Problem Solving

1. Recognize the problem
2. Gather data
3. List possible solutions
4. Test possible solutions
5. Select final solution
6. Act

Staff Study

1. Problem
2. Assumptions
3. Facts bearing on the problem
4. Discussion
5. Conclusions
6. Action recommended

b. Use the staff study when dealing with complex or controversial questions, but don't overuse the staff study. Many times the solution to a problem is obvious; don't waste your time in writing or your commander's time in reading staff studies for simple or routine actions.

c. Figure 4 shows the format for a staff study.

Section II. PLANNING THE STAFF STUDY

76. PLANNING THE APPROACH. Whether you are assigned a problem to develop or you originate the staff study yourself, you must have a plan of approach.

a. First, work out the solution to the problem.

(1) The problem-solving technique described in Appendix I can be effectively applied to this phase of the staff study.

(2) When extensive research is necessary, you may find it helpful to follow the research procedures outlined in Appendix IV.

(3) Prepare and follow a basic work plan. Outline the problem, the steps to be followed in its solution, the information required, the sources of information, and the agencies to be consulted. Assign a tentative time schedule to each phase in the development of the paper. (Appendix V provides an example of a basic work plan.)

b. After you are satisfied that you have arrived at the best workable solution, informally coordinate your proposed solution with all other interested agencies.

(1) Let them review your conclusions and recommendations and the reasoning on which they are based. You will speed up the preparation of your paper and insure a better understanding of the problem if you visit the other agencies and personally discuss the project. Get the comments as informally as possible, verbally or by office memorandum.

| | | |
|--|--|---------|
| Reference Symbol | Headquarters Place Date and time | Heading |
| SUBJECT: (Sufficient for file identification.) | | |
| 1. PROBLEM. Concise statement of the problem in the form of a mission. 2. ASSUMPTIONS. Any assumptions necessary for a logical discussion of the problem which cannot be accepted and considered as facts. (If you have made no assumptions, omit this paragraph and renumber subsequent paragraphs accordingly.) 3. FACTS BEARING ON THE PROBLEM. Essential facts, in logical sequence, which must be considered. (If you have no facts to state, omit this paragraph and renumber subsequent paragraphs accordingly.) 4. DISCUSSION. A careful analysis of the essential facts and assumptions, presenting considerations pro and con, to arrive logically at sound conclusions and recommendations. 5. CONCLUSIONS. Statement of the results derived from a reasoned judgment of the effects and implications of the essential facts. Alternate lines of action are eliminated in this paragraph. (This paragraph may be omitted in brief studies, in which case the following paragraph is renumbered accordingly.) 6. ACTION RECOMMENDED. Complete, concise, and clear-cut statement of action recommended, presented in such form that all which remains for the commander, etc., to do is to indicate his approval or disapproval. (If recommendations are not required or in order, omit this paragraph.) | | Body |
| _____ Initiating staff officer, committee chairman, or head of staff agency | | |
| ANNEXES: (List those accompanying the study.) CONCURRENCES. Each staff officer concerned indicates his concurrence by his initials followed by his rank, name, official position title, and telephone number. NONCONCURRENCES. Each staff officer concerned indicates his nonconcurrence by his initials followed by his rank, name, official position title, and telephone number. In each case reasons for nonconcurrence should be stated briefly on a separate memorandum, which will be attached as an additional annex. CONSIDERATION OF NONCONCURRENCES. The author of the staff study states the result of his consideration of any nonconcurrences. If his consideration shows that the nonconcurrence cannot be supported, the reasons therefor will be stated. The author will sign or initial this consideration of nonconcurrence. ANNEXES ADDED: (List the annexes containing nonconcurrences.) ACTION BY APPROVING AUTHORITY: (Heading not necessary.) Date Approved (disapproved), including (excluding) exceptions. | | Closing |
| _____ Signature | | |

Figure 4. Staff Study Form.

(2) Don't confuse this informal review with the formal coordination step of the staff study. The informal check is an opinion-gathering effort to make sure that your solution is sound and that it covers all aspects of the problem.

(3) Don't hesitate to consult other staff officers or to use their ideas. Staff officers consulted on a problem have a duty to provide all possible information and advice.

77. STEPS TO BE FOLLOWED. When you have the problem and its solution firmly and clearly in mind, you are ready to write. Study the instructions and suggestions contained in Section III, and apply them as you write. Usually the completion of a staff study will require that you take five actions:

a. Prepare a rough draft. If the problem is complex, you can use this draft for the informal coordination described in paragraph 76b.

b. Prepare a final draft if your study is complex or if the informal coordination resulted in numerous suggested changes. For simple studies, a final draft may not be necessary.

c. Check the draft and then prepare the final study. Route it to interested agencies for comment.

d. Upon the return of the concurrences, enter the coordinating actions on the staff study, and forward the study to the commander for decision.

e. Upon receipt of the commander's decision, make sure that all agencies concerned are informed and that the approved action is carried out.

Section III. WRITING THE STAFF STUDY

78. GENERAL. The staff study has four major divisions: the heading, the body, the closing, and the attached annexes. The heading identifies the paper; the body contains the meat of the problem and the solution; the closing contains the authentication and shows attachments and coordination; and the annexes carry supporting material. (Appendix V shows a completed staff study, including annexes. The format of the staff study is that prescribed in FM 101-5.) Your headquarters may use minor variations of this format, but the basic techniques should apply throughout the Army. The following paragraphs describe how each element should be prepared.

79. THE HEADING. The heading is similar to that used in a military letter and gives the following information:

a. The headquarters of origin. Ordinarily, offices within a headquarters are not shown in the heading; they may be shown if locally desired.

b. The place or location of the headquarters.

c. The date and time when the report is prepared (e.g., 151200 Dec 64). Some headquarters omit the time from studies in which the time element is relatively unimportant.

d. The reference symbol, which usually contains an office symbol but no file number.

e. The subject of the report. This should be a concise description of the topic of your staff study sufficient to provide ready file reference.

f. Addressee (optional). If you find it necessary to show an addressee, you may do so immediately preceding the subject. The words MEMORANDUM FOR are used, followed by the duty title (or rank and name) of the person addressed.

80. THE BODY. The body is the heart of your staff study. You must briefly state all essential elements of the problem, analysis, and solution. It contains a maximum of six elements.

a. Problem (paragraph 1). This paragraph is a short, clear statement of the problem to which your study proposes a solution. You should state the problem as a mission. It should be understandable to your reader, and cover all significant elements of the problem. If the problem is complex, you may subparagraph.

(1) Turning again to our sample study in Appendix V, consider the following possibilities in stating the problem.

Should recovered U.S. military personnel be immediately evacuated to the communications zone?

(The problem is not stated as a mission, and the statement does not cover all significant elements of the problem.)

To recommend to the Commanding General, 1st Army Group, what First Army believes should be done with U.S. military personnel who are prisoners of war and recovered by First Army during our advance.
(This is a statement of what the writer intends to do rather than of the problem to be solved.)

To determine whether U.S. prisoners of war recovered by First Army should be held in the army area for processing or moved immediately to the communications zone.

(This is a short, clear statement of the problem, stated as a mission, and including all significant elements of the problem.)

(2) If the problem is one which has been assigned to you, examine it carefully to be sure you understand exactly what is wanted. You must be fully aware of any limitations or special conditions imposed. If doubt exists on any point, you should clarify it with the person who assigned the study. It may even be necessary for you to obtain more specific information concerning the commander's personal views if no policy exists as a guide.

b. Assumptions (paragraph 2). In this paragraph you list those assumptions which are necessary for a logical consideration of the problem.

(1) Assumptions are usually reasonable guesses. Since it is often impossible to know exactly how a given situation will develop, you may have to use assumptions as the basis for your reasoning.

(2) Even though assumptions are not facts, they must be based on facts. To be valid they should be consistent with current trends and probable future events. In a given situation, valid assumptions might be made about the expected rate of advance of a unit, the supplies expected to be used in an operation, or the future possible moves of a headquarters. In our sample staff study in Appendix V, the two assumptions are based on facts and past experience. They establish conditions which must prevail to make the study valid and complete.

(3) Avoid irrelevant or misleading assumptions. Ask yourself if your conclusions would be valid if your assumption did not hold. If the answer is "yes," eliminate the assumption. Remember, ideally you should have no assumptions. Also remember that once accepted, an assumption has the same effect as a fact.

(4) Don't confuse facts and assumptions. Facts can be established as such by reference to competent authority. If you have a long list of assumptions, you have probably included a number of facts in your list.

(5) If you have no assumptions, omit this paragraph and renumber the succeeding paragraphs.

c. Facts bearing on the problem (paragraph 3). This paragraph lists the facts which are the basis of your analysis and solution of the problem.

(1) Include only those important facts pertinent to the solution of the problem. Unnecessary facts confuse the reader and hide your thinking.

(2) Challenge each fact before you incorporate it into your study. Don't mistake opinions, speculations, conjectures, or conclusions for facts. Ask yourself the following questions about each fact before you decide to include it in your study.

What makes the statement an undeniable fact?

Has the fact been documented? Can it be?

In what manner does the fact bear directly on the problem as a whole?

Does the fact eliminate the need for further development to relate it to the subject?

In what manner does the fact clarify the problem?

(Try asking the above questions about each of the facts listed in the sample staff study in Appendix V. Are these facts accurate? Are there other facts which should have been listed?)

(3) When facts are based on outside sources, you may often need to attach this material to the study as annexes. In such cases enter a concise summary of the data and cross-reference the study to the appropriate annex.

(4) If the listing of facts is lengthy, you may include it as an annex. The annex should be identified in this paragraph.

(5) Arrange the facts in logical sequence. Usually this sequence will be the same as that of the discussion.

(6) Occasionally, you will have no facts. (If this is the case, your reasoning will then be based on assumptions.) If so, omit this paragraph and renumber the succeeding paragraphs.

d. Discussion (paragraph 4). In this paragraph you analyze the problem. You describe the effects of the assumptions and facts on the problem and weigh the advantages and disadvantages of the various courses of action.

(1) The importance of writing a careful, objective analysis cannot be over-emphasized. You must discuss all material facts and objections, even objections to the recommended course of action. Your commander must be aware of the objections to any solution so that he can minimize the effect of any disadvantages that may result. Few problems have solutions that are without disadvantages.

(2) If the discussion is quite long, summarize it in this paragraph and attach the full discussion as an annex. However, don't use an annex to avoid the effort of making your discussion concise. It is your job to save your commander's time by reworking the study until it gives a clear, complete picture in the fewest possible words.

e. Conclusions (paragraph 5). This paragraph gives the results of the reasoning you developed in the discussion paragraph. This is the point at which you choose a solution.

(1) Not only must you eliminate the less desirable courses of action but you must also present a complete workable solution.

(2) Your conclusions are the direct and natural result of the objective analysis in the discussion. They should not continue the discussion.

(3) Conclusions must answer each part of the problem and must be consistent with the assumptions and facts. They should never add new or unrelated material.

f. Action recommended (paragraph 6). In this paragraph you state concisely and clearly your recommended course of action.

(1) Your recommendations tell how the solution should be put into effect. They must cover each phase of the problem and must be consistent with the conclusions. Never include new matter in your recommendations.

(2) If a letter or directive is required to carry out the action, you should attach it as an annex. All that should remain for your commander to do when he reads your study is to approve the report and, if necessary, sign the action paper.

81. THE CLOSING. The closing may have four main elements.

a. The signature block is the first portion of the closing.

(1) Usually you will sign a study which you prepare. However, you may be directed to prepare a study for the signature of your chief. Local usage and the wishes of the officer who directed the study will govern who signs the staff study.

(2) The typed signature block usually consists of the last name, rank, official position, and telephone number of the author. For staff studies sent outside the headquarters, use the prescribed signature for military correspondence.

b. The annex listing is the second element of the closing. It may be in two parts.

(1) Identify annexes with capital letters, and list and arrange them in alphabetical order under a heading Annexes. You will usually list the annexes in the same sequence as that in which they are referred to in the body of the study. You should list the action paper as Annex A. This will save your commander from searching through all the annexes to sign the action paper.

(2) List under Annexes Added any lengthy nonconcurrences (see subparagraph c) and documents submitted by agencies to which you sent the study for concurrence.

c. The coordination actions (concurrences, nonconcurrences, and the consideration of nonconcurrences) make up the third element of the closing.

(1) You should route your staff study to each interested activity for formal concurrence. All agencies concerned must have a chance to review and comment on the study since it may vitally influence their activities. They may point out serious flaws in your facts or reasoning. Even more important, the commander must be able to weigh for himself the reasons for any outstanding differences of opinion.

(2) If the reviewing staff officer agrees with the study, he will show his agreement by signing his initials, followed by his rank, last name, position, and telephone number. You must allow enough space between the headings Concurrences and Nonconcurrences for each reviewing officer to add his initials. If there are no nonconcurrences, you should add the word None after the heading.

(3) If the reviewing officer disagrees with any important element of the staff study, he should take the following actions:

(a) He should enter his initials followed by his rank, last name, position, and telephone number under the heading Nonconcurrences.

(b) Then he should attach a separate memorandum to explain the reasons for disagreement. He may add documents to prove his points, but he should make his comments brief and use a minimum of supporting material. If his comment is very short, he may enter it on the study following his initials.

(c) In case of strong disagreement or an inability to understand parts of the study, he should informally consult with you as the author of the report. Either of you may be in error; both of you can profit from a frank, objective discussion of your differences. Each of you has a duty to protect your commander from bickering, and you must try to resolve your differences.

(4) If there are nonconcurrences, you should take the following action:

(a) Objectively consider each nonconcurrency. If you agree with the changes suggested by the reviewing officer, you should amend your study. If you do not agree with the nonconcurrency, you should informally try to reach an understanding with the officer concerned. If you change your study, you should reroute it to any agency which has previously concurred.

(b) If the above action does not resolve the difference you should briefly state your reasons for disagreement (under the heading Consideration of Nonconcurrences). Initial your comments.

(c) Attach the memorandums of nonconcurrences as annexes and list them under the heading Annexes Added.

d. If you include a formal approval or disapproval, it is the fourth element of the closing.

(1) In the following situations you will customarily include the action of the commander.

(a) When neither the study nor the action paper is signed by the commander and one or both will be forwarded to higher headquarters.

(b) When you desire a permanent record because the action on the study is an important policy decision.

(c) When otherwise considered desirable by your commander.

(2) Local usage will dictate your format for formal approval or disapproval action. (See Appendix V.)

(3) The commander ordinarily includes his reasons for disapproval, but there is no requirement that he do this. In any event, your commander should tell you why he disapproved your study. A new study may be in order.

(4) You do not need formal approval when your commander signs the action paper carrying out the recommendations. Likewise, studies about purely local and temporary problems are not ordinarily given formal approval.

82. THE ANNEXES. Annexes are an integral part of the complete study. You should clearly label them and arrange them for easy identification. Mark Annex A, Annex B, etc., in the lower left corner. Since individual annexes may be withdrawn for other use, you should label them in pencil. For convenience in turning to any given annex, use cover sheets and alphabetical tabs (see Appendix V). The tabs are staggered along the edges of the sheets so that the upper tabs do not cover those beneath.

83. THE STUDY IN FINAL FORM. Here are some general rules to help you prepare your staff study in final form.

- a. Leave an adequate margin at the top or side to permit secure binding.
- b. Use paper of uniform size throughout the study.
- c. Assemble your study neatly, and use a manila folder to protect it from soiling.
- d. Prepare enough copies of the study to furnish one to each agency concerned, plus the necessary copies required for file and reference.

APPENDIX I

PROBLEM SOLVING

1. IMPORTANCE OF PROBLEM SOLVING. Your writing is an explanation of your views about a problem. Problem solving, then, precedes writing.

2. A PLAN FOR SOLVING THE PROBLEM. Do you use a hit-or-miss approach or do you follow a logical, systematic pattern? When you become aware of a problem, try following these steps.

a. First step. Recognize the problem.

(1) Write down a description of the problem. Describe the objective and tell what difficulties prevent its achievement. Make your description concise but complete.

(2) Limit the problem. Restrict it to manageable size by determining who is involved, what the circumstances are, when and where the problem occurs, and why and how the situation arose. Eliminate unnecessary elements.

(3) Break the whole problem into parts. Do the parts form small problems that need separate handling, or do the parts relate so closely to the whole that only one approach is needed?

(4) Prepare a tentative outline for the paper. List each element of the problem as a major point in the outline. Use the outline to evaluate what you know about the problem and to determine what additional study or research is required to solve the problem.

b. Second step. Gather data.

(1) Assemble all the information you can find on the problem. If necessary, use the research procedure described in Appendix IV.

(2) Evaluate your information. Determine whether it is reliable and current. Identify the items of information which are established facts. If you must make assumptions, you should base them on the facts.

c. Third step. List all possible solutions. Don't rule out a solution on first examination; it may contain or suggest ideas of value. The more solutions you consider, the better your final solution is likely to be.

d. Fourth step. Test possible solutions by listing the advantages and disadvantages of each possible solution. Compare the merits of each to determine which course of action is the best. You must be careful not to let prejudice or personal preference influence your decision.

e. Fifth step. Select the best possible solution, or a combination of the best solutions, for solving your problem.

f. Sixth step. Act. Put your recommended solution in a format which the approving officer can sign and put into effect.

3. OVERLAPPING STEPS. In actual practice the steps of problem solving may not be separate and distinct. More than one step may be considered at a time, or development at one step may cause you to reconsider a previous step. For example, the data you collect may force you to redefine your problem. Similarly, while testing solutions, you may think of a new solution; or, in the process of selecting a solution, you may discover a need for additional information. These steps should be considered as a checklist to help you organize your thoughts. They are not a substitute for good judgment.

APPENDIX II

THE WATCHLIST

Watch for the words and phrases on this list. Some of them are overworked. Others are used incorrectly. Many are longer than need be.

ABEYANCE. Held in abeyance is a pompous phrase. Wait and postpone action are more natural expressions.

ABOUT. He will arrive at about nine o'clock is not a correct sentence. Use at or about, but not both.

ABOVE should not be used in the sense of more than. His wages are more than (not above) \$5,000 a year.

ACCOMPANIED BY. The preposition with is usually better, as his letter with (instead of accompanied by) the application.

ACCOMPLISHED may be expressed as done.

ACCUMULATE. Gather is a good plain word to replace this one.

ACQUAINT. Instead of acquainting your readers with facts, tell or inform them.

ADDITIONAL. Vary the use of this overworked adjective. Use added.

ADVISE. Tell, inform, and say are fresher words for letters. You are advised is a useless phrase in any letter.

AFFECT, EFFECT. Affect is always a verb meaning to modify or influence. Effect may be noun or verb. As a verb it means to accomplish or bring about; as a noun, outcome or result. Both affect and effect are overworked, correctly and incorrectly.

AFFORD AN OPPORTUNITY. Allow is suggested as a replacement for this overworked phrase.

ALL-AROUND is not correct. Use all-round.

ALL OF. Say all the workers, not all of the workers.

ALL READY, ALREADY. The first is an adjective phrase, correctly used in the sentence: When the hour came, they were all ready. The second is an adverb that oftener than not should be omitted: We have (already) written a letter.

ALTERNATIVE, CHOICE. Alternative refers to two only; choice, to two or more. Since there is only one alternative to another, don't say the only other alternative; simply say the alternative.

AMELIORATE. Why is this big word so popular? It's a good word, but so is the commoner word improve.

AMOUNT, NUMBER are often used loosely. An amount is a sum total; number, as a noun, refers to collective units. You have an amount of money, and a number of errors.

ANTICIPATE means to foresee or prevent by prior action. Don't use it when you actually mean expect.

ANXIOUS is proper only when anxiety actually exists. We are eager to write good letters, not anxious.

ANY. Don't follow superlatives with any, as Lincoln's letters are the best of any. When used in a comparative statement, any must be followed by other, as that letter is better than any other he has written.

ANY PLACE is not good usage. Say anywhere.

APPEAR. A woman appears to be young, but she seems to be intelligent. Appear usually suggests that which is visible.

APPRECIATE YOUR INFORMING US is a clumsy phrase that can be replaced with a simpler one, as please write us or please tell us.

APPROXIMATELY is overworked. Why not say about?

APPARENTLY. This is a "hedger" to be avoided.

APT. Don't use this word when you mean likely. Apt suggests predisposition. A tactless person is apt to write a blunt letter, but delayed replies are likely (not apt) to damage public relations.

AROUND. Around ten dollars is incorrect. Say about ten dollars.

ASCERTAIN is a big word often used when the little word learn is better. Don't use ascertain unless you want to put over the idea of effort in getting facts.

ASSISTANCE. Let's have more help and aid, and less assistance.

AT--

--ALL TIMES. Say always.

--THIS TIME. Say now.

--THE PRESENT TIME. Say now.

--AN EARLY DATE. Won't soon do?

--YOUR EARLIEST CONVENIENCE. Do you mean this? A convenient time may not come.

--THE EARLIEST POSSIBLE MOMENT. This may be the moment the letter arrives.

ATTACHED--

--PLEASE FIND

--HERETO

--HEREWITH

Worn out letter language. Attached is adequate.

ATTENTION IS INVITED OR ATTENTION IS CALLED should be needless. If a sentence doesn't make its point without these emphatics it needs rewriting.

BALANCE. You may have a balance on an account, but that which is left after something is taken away is a remainder, as the remainder of the year, the remainder of the office force.

BASIS. Instead of saying as a basis for, simply say for.

BE BACK in the sense of return is not preferable. Say, he will return to (not be back in) the office Tuesday.

BETWEEN, AMONG. Between properly refers to two only. Among is used in referring to more than two.

BIANNUAL, BIENNIAL. Biannual, like semi-annual, means twice a year. Biennial means every two years.

BIMONTHLY means every two months. Semi-monthly is used to express twice monthly.

CLAIM. Do not use claim as an intransitive verb. Claim ownership, but don't claim to be efficient.

COGNIZANCE. Avoid this big word both in its legal meaning of jurisdiction and in its common meaning of heed or notice. Instead of saying under the cognizance of this office, be specific, as this office does not audit travel vouchers. Instead of saying having cognizance of this fact, say aware of this fact.

COMMENCE. Begin or start are stout little words that should not be forgotten.

COMMITMENT. How about promise?

COMMUNICATE, COMMUNICATION. Avoid these long words by being specific. Instead of communicate, use write, wire, or telephone. Instead of communication, use letter, telegram, memorandum.

COMPLIANCE, COMPLIES. The phrase in compliance with your request is too formal for a friendly letter. It is often not necessary, but, if needed, may be replaced with as you requested. Meets the requirements is a good substitute for complies with requirements.

CONCLUDE. It is better to close a letter than to conclude it.

CONTRIBUTE. What's wrong with give?

CONSIDER. Omit the superfluous as after this word. We consider the case closed (not as closed).

CONSIDERED OPINION. Forget this one.

CONSIDERABLE. Use this word only as an adjective.

CONSUMMATE. You really like big words if you use this one in the sense of complete or bring about.

CONTINUOUSLY, CONTINUALLY. The first word means without interruption; the second, intermittently, at frequent intervals.

DATE. Instead of this date, say today. Instead of under date of, say on, of, or dated.

DEMONSTRATES. Shows is a good plain word to substitute for this one.

DESIRE. If you wish or if you want is usually better than if you desire.

DETERMINE. Overworked. Decide or find out may be substituted.

DEVELOP. Don't use this word for happen, occur, take place.

DIFFERENT is superfluous in this sentence: Six (different) plans were discussed at the meeting.

DUE TO THE FACT THAT is a roundabout way of saying because.

DURING suggests continuously, throughout. In (not during) the meeting he brought up the question of pay raises.

EARLIEST PRACTICABLE DATE. What is a practicable date?

EFFECT, AFFECT. See AFFECT.

EFFECTUATE. A pompous way of saying to bring about.

EMPLOYED is overworked in the sense of used.
EMPLOYMENT. Jobs and work have equal dignity.

ENCLOSED--[INCLOSED, Military Spelling]

--HEREWITH
--PLEASE FIND
--WITH THIS LETTER

} Enclosed is sufficient.

ENCOUNTER DIFFICULTY is an unnecessary euphemism for find it hard, or have trouble. Instead of saying call on our local office if you encounter difficulty in completing your application, why not say call on our local office if you need help etc.? Or, if difficulty must be your word, why not replace encounter with meet?

ENDEAVOR TO ASCERTAIN, high-sounding phrase though it is, simply means try to find out.

EQUIVALENT is seldom better than equal.

EVENT is not to be used for incident, affair, and happening, unless the occurrence is particularly noteworthy.

EXERCISE CARE is a stuffy way of saying please be careful.

EXPIRATION. End is just as final.

EXPEDITE is a popular Government word. Can't we say hasten or hurry? Do you know that the Latin from which expedite derives means "to free one caught by the foot"?

EXPERIENCE HAS INDICATED THAT. Try we (I) learned.

FACILITATE is another popular Government word. It means make easy, but it makes hard reading for some people.

FARTHER, FURTHER. Farther indicates distance; further denotes quantity or degree. You go farther away; you hear nothing further.

FAVOR. Does anybody nowadays use favor in the sense of a letter? Don't. It's old fashioned.

FEW, LESS. Few is for numbers; less is for quantities or amounts. Write fewer pages and say less.

FIRST is both an adjective and an adverb. Don't say firstly.

FOLLOWING. He retired after (not following) an outstanding career.

FINALIZE, FINALIZATION. These are manufactured words. Why manufacture such words when you have end, conclude, and complete?

FOR--

--YOUR INFORMATION. Superfluous.

--THE MONTH OF JULY. For July.

--THE REASON THAT. Since, because, as.

FORWARD is often used when send is better.

FULLEST POSSIBLE EXTENT. A meaningless padding.

FURNISH is often used when give is better.

Please give (not furnish) us the information.

FURTHER. See FARTHER.

IF--

--DOUBT IS ENTERTAINED. Say if doubtful.

--IT IS DEEMED SATISFACTORY. Say if satisfactory.

IMPLEMENT. Say carry out.

IN--

--COMPLIANCE WITH YOUR REQUEST. Say as requested.

--ADDITION TO. Say besides.

--A SATISFACTORY MANNER. Say satisfactorily.

--THE NEAR FUTURE. Say soon.

--THE EVENT THAT. Say if.

--THE AMOUNT OF. Say for.

--THE MEANTIME. Say meantime or meanwhile.

--ORDER TO. Say to.

--REGARD TO. Say about.

--VIEW OF THE FACT THAT. Say as.

--A POSITION TO. Say we cannot rather than we are not in a position to.

INADVERTENCY. Errors and mistakes are not glossed over by this euphemism.

INASMUCH AS. As, since, and because are a lot shorter.

INDICATE is overworked, but show is a stout little word.

INFORMED. You are informed should be a useless phrase in any letter.

INITIAL is overworked, but first is not used enough.

INITIATE is a Government favorite for which begin is synonymous. Sometimes the word can be omitted, as in the phrase initiate a citation (cite).

INCAPACITATED. Why not unable to work?

INSURE. In order to insure is a common phrase in Government letters. Make sure is simpler and more natural.

INTERPOSE NO OBJECTION. Be direct. Say I do not object or I approve.

JURISDICTION. See Cognizance.

KINDLY should not be used for please. Please reply, not kindly reply.

LAST AND LATEST are not interchangeable. Last means final; latest, most recent. The last page of a book, but the latest book on the market.

LEAST is used when more than two persons or things have been mentioned. Use less when only two persons or things have been mentioned; He is the less (not least) forceful of the two speakers.

LENGTHY means unduly or tediously long. Lengthy may describe some of our letters, but long is usually the word.

LESS. See Few and Least.

LIEU. In place of is more appropriate for letters.

LIKE. Never use like to introduce a subject and its verb. He wrote as (not like) he spoke.

LIQUIDATE. Say pay off if you use the word in that sense.

LOAN is not desirable as a verb. Use lend.

LOCALITY. Don't overlook the little word place.

LOCATE. You find (not locate) a file.

MAKES PROVISION FOR. Try using does.

MEETS WITH OUR APPROVAL is a roundabout way of saying we approve.

MODIFICATION. Change will usually take the place of this one.

NEAR is incorrectly used in this sentence:

There is not near enough. Use nearly.

NECESSARY is used when need would do. For example, you may shorten it is not necessary for you to you need not.

NOMINAL means in name, and by implication small. Why not say small?

NONE as a subject is usually plural unless a singular subject is clearly indicated. None of the jobs are open. None of the work is done.

NOTWITHSTANDING THE FACT THAT is the longwinded way of saying although or even though.

OBJECTIVE can be aim.

OBLIGATE can be bind.

OBLIGATION can be debt.

ON is superfluous in stating days and dates.

He arrived Tuesday, not on Tuesday.

OPTIMUM is Latin for best. Let's stick to English.

OUT is superfluous in phrases like start out and lose out. He started (not started out) as a messenger.

OVER should be avoided when you mean more than in referring to a number. There were more than (not over) five hundred people at the meeting.

OVER THE SIGNATURE OF is an unnatural way of saying signed by.

PAMPHLET need not be described as little. The suffix let on words like booklet, leaflet, and hamlet, means little or small.

PAST. Say last year, not past year, if you mean the preceding year.

PART. Our error is better than an error on our part.

PARTICIPATE is a common word, but take part is a good plain way of saying the same thing.

PARTY. Does anyone use this for person any more? Don't.

PECUNIARILY INTERESTED. Like so many of our pompous phrases, this one originated to cover a broad meaning. Substitutes for phrases like these do not always satisfy our legal advisers. But you might try financial interest or interest in profit.

PER need not be used for our English article a.

Avoid the Latin terms, per annum, per diem, and so on. Say a year and a day.

PHOTOSTATIC COPIES. Photostats is a word now generally accepted.

PLACE. See ANY PLACE.

PORTION. Part of the time, not portion of the time.

POSSESS. Why not have?

PRACTICALLY is overworked. Use virtually, almost, nearly.

PRECLUDE. Do you use this word whenever you can work it in? Vary your usage with shut out or prevent. Many letterwriters overwork the phrase preclude the necessity.

PREDECEASE is often used as a euphemism.

Euphemisms are not as tone-invoking as you may think. Say die before.

PREDICATED ON THE ASSUMPTION. Forget this one.

PREVENTIVE is better than the irregular doublet preventative.

PREVIOUS TO, PRIOR TO. Why not before?

PRINCIPAL, PRINCIPLE. The noun principal means head or chief, as well as capital sum. The adjective principal means highest or best in rank or importance. Principle means truth, belief, policy, conviction, or general theory.

PROCESS OF PREPARATION doesn't make the action any more important than being prepared or we are preparing.

PROCURE. Some people say this is the common Government word for get.

PROVEN should not be used as the past participle of prove. Use proved. Proven may be used as an adjective.

PROMULGATE. A long word for issue.

PROVIDING should not be used for if or provided. Providing low-cost houses is a problem but we will meet the problem provided the builders get supplies.

PURSUANT TO. Under will usually take the place of this one.

QUITE means really, truly, wholly, positively. Avoid its use in phrases like quite a few and quite some.

RARELY EVER, SELDOM EVER. Ever is superfluous in phrases like these. Say we seldom fail, not we seldom ever fail.

RECENT DATE is meaningless. Either give the date of the letter or omit any reference to it.

REGARDING is overworked. Little words wear better, so try using about oftener.

REMUNERATION. Why not pay?

RENDER. Use give in the sense of giving help.

RESPECTING. If you mean about, why not say about?

RESIDE. The chances are you seldom use this word in talking. The talk word live is the natural one for a letter.

RETAIN. Keep is not a word to shun.

REVIEW OF OUR RECORDS INDICATES. If the information can come only from the record, omit this phrase.

STATE is more formal than say.

SECURE. Avoid this word when get, take, or obtain is better.

SELDOM EVER. Ever is superfluous.

SOME should not be used in the sense of some-what, a little, or rather. His letters are somewhat (not some) better.

SORT. Never say these sort or those sort. Say this sort or those sorts.

SPOUSE. Unless you are quoting a law, why use this word in preference to husband or wife?

STILL REMAINS. Still adds nothing to the meaning of remains.

SUBMITTED. Sent.

SUBSEQUENT TO. After.

SUFFICIENT. Enough.

TERMINATED. Ended may be just as final.

THIS--

--IS TO INFORM YOU. Omit.

--IS TO ACKNOWLEDGE AND THANK YOU.

Thank you is enough.

TRANSMIT. Send is better.

UNKNOWN should be avoided in the sense of unidentified.

UNTIL SUCH TIME AS. Until is enough.

UTILIZATION is an inflated word for use.

VERIFICATION may be proof.

VERY is redundant in the phrase very complete. Complete is absolute.

VISITATION. Why should anyone use this word in the place of visit?

WISH TO APOLOGIZE, WISH TO ADVISE.

Instead of the first phrase, simply say we apologize. Instead of the second phrase, start off with what you have to say.

APPENDIX III

REVIEW OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Section I. THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. **GENERAL.** In English there are eight traditional parts of speech. Each word is classified, depending on how it is used, under one or more of these general names for words. The succeeding paragraphs of this section briefly define each part of speech and describe how it is used.

2. **NOUNS.** A noun is a word which names a person, place, thing, action, quality, or idea.

a. Nouns are of two types:

(1) Proper nouns which so precisely identify an object or idea that it is set apart from all other similar objects or ideas.

Alexander Hamilton
New York City
Christianity

(2) Common nouns which identify a general class of objects or ideas.

soldier
religion
humility

b. Words used as nouns serve as subjects or objects in a sentence. They also serve as appositives (words which emphasize or explain other words by repeating--just as this parenthetical expression is doing) to other nouns and to pronouns.

3. **PRONOUNS.** A pronoun is a word which stands for a person, thing, or idea without specifically naming it. A pronoun replaces a noun and performs the same function. The eight types of pronouns are as follows:

| | |
|----------------|--|
| Personal: | I, you, he, it, my, yours, his, its, me, him |
| Relative: | Who, which, that, whoever, whatever |
| Demonstrative: | This, that, these, those |
| Indefinite: | Each, either, any, some |
| Interrogative: | Who, whom, whose, which, what |
| Reflexive: | Myself, yourself, himself |
| Intensive: | Myself, yourself, ourselves |
| Reciprocal: | Each other, one another |

4. **VERBS.** A verb is a word which describes action, state of being, or feeling. Verbs tell what a subject does, is, or feels, and may indicate how an object is affected by the subject. Verbs have five important qualities.

a. Tense. The time-showing quality (past, past perfect, present, present perfect, future, or future perfect).

Past: I took the platoon test.

Past perfect: He had taken the course of instruction while stationed at Fort Benning, Georgia.

Present: He takes good care of his equipment.

Present perfect: You have taken a good approach to the problem.

Future: You will take CBR training beginning next Monday.

Future perfect: By this time tomorrow I shall have taken my final examination.

b. Voice. The quality which shows whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Active: He hit me.

Passive: I was hit.

c. Mood. The quality which shows whether the writer regards the statement as a fact, as a wish or possibility, or as a command.

Indicative: He will be here today.

Subjunctive: If he were here today, we would go.

Imperative: He shall be here today.

d. Person. The quality which shows whether the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person spoken about, is affected (first, second, or third person).

| | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| First person: | I go | We go |
| Second person: | You go | You go |
| Third person: | He goes | They go |

e. Number. The quality which shows whether the verb refers to one or to more than one person, thing, or idea (singular or plural number--see example above).

5. ADJECTIVES. An adjective is a word which describes or limits a noun or pronoun.

| | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| A <u>cold</u> day | <u>This</u> man |
| A <u>tall</u> soldier | <u>His</u> man |
| A <u>smooth</u> field | <u>Several</u> men |
| A <u>man</u> | The <u>English</u> ships |

6. ADVERBS. An adverb is a word which describes or limits a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

a. Adverbs are commonly used to tell how, when, where, why, how much, and to what extent.

Highly praised organization
Widely practiced policy
Steadily held
Quite readily identified

b. Adverbs are often adjectives or participles to which the ending ly has been added. However, many adjectives are also used as adverbs without a change in form. For example, fast, better, much, and straight.

7. PREPOSITIONS. Words which relate a noun or a pronoun, a phrase, or a clause to other elements of a sentence are prepositions. The noun which follows a preposition is its object.

a. A preposition may relate its object to a verb, another noun, or an adjective.

A verb: We placed him in his room.
Another noun: Hear the pound of marching feet.
An adjective: He is rich in knowledge.

b. The same word may often be used as a preposition, as an adverb, or as a conjunction.

Preposition: A wild charge after the enemy.
Adverb: He followed after.
Conjunction: After the withdrawal, we dug in.

8. CONJUNCTIONS. Words which join words, phrases, or clauses are conjunctions.

a. Coordinating conjunctions connect two or more sentence parts of equal rank. For example:

Both recruits, Jones and Lee, wanted to go, but neither
the platoon leader nor the company commander would approve
and give permission for the patrol.

b. Conjunctions which introduce dependent clauses and join them to main clauses are subordinating conjunctions:

We felt that they would attack if they could, because
they were also endangered.

9. EXCLAMATIONS. Any word used independently to show strong feeling is an exclamation.

What! I can't believe it.
Stop! The gun is loaded.

Section II. THE PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

10. SENTENCES. A sentence is a group of words which expresses a complete idea.

a. The subject of a sentence names the person or thing which does the act or about which the statement is made.

Company "A" came first.
In front of us was the enemy.
We should have taken the left turn.

b. The predicate is the full statement made about the subject. The verb is the word or group of words within the predicate which describes the action, occurrence, or state of being of the subject.

Company "A" came first.
The enemy was in front of us.
We should have taken the left turn.

11. COMPLEMENTS. Often the subject and verb are so complete in themselves that they require nothing else to constitute a sentence (I will go). Frequently, however, some other sentence part is needed. A complement is the noun or adjective (or their equivalents) which rounds out the meaning of the verb. There are four kinds of complements which occur regularly in the common sentence patterns of English.

a. The direct object follows only verbs of action and designates the person or thing that directly receives the action. It answers the question whom? or what? after the verb.

He prepared the report.
He hit the bull's-eye.

b. The indirect object names the person or thing from whom or to whom the action is performed. It answers the question for whom? or to whom? after the verb. (A verb which takes an indirect object also will always have a direct object.)

He sent us our orders.
I gave him my rifle.

c. The subjective complement is a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective that renames or describes the subject. Subjective complements follow verbs of being and other linking verbs.

Noun: Our greatest concern is security.
Pronoun: It is she.
Adjective: The company was tired.

d. The objective complement is a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective that refers to or describes the direct object. In a sentence with an objective complement, the infinitive to be is present or may be inserted between the direct object and the objective complement.

Most Americans think our government to be the world's best.
The prisoners made him their spokesman.
I wanted the commander to be him.

12. PHRASES AND CLAUSES. Sentences may also contain phrases and clauses, which are groups of words that function as single units.

a. Phrases.

(1) A prepositional phrase is composed of a preposition and its object.

(a) Ordinarily, the object is a noun or pronoun or sometimes a group of words used as a noun or pronoun.

He shouted from the ridge.
We told him to give it to whomever he wished.

(b) A prepositional phrase may be used as a noun, adjective, or an adverb.

Noun: The worst time is after sundown.
Adjective: We could see the edge of the lake.
Adverb: We left in a hurried fashion.

(2) Verbal phrases are phrases composed of verb forms (verbals) with their modifiers and complements. Verbals, with their complements and modifiers, are used as other parts of speech--nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. There are three kinds of verbal phrases: participial, gerundive, and infinitive.

(a) A participial phrase is composed of the present or past participle of a verb and its complements or modifiers. A participial phrase always functions as an adjective.

Holding on the left, the company attacked in the center and on the right.

(b) A gerundive phrase is composed of a gerund and its complements and modifiers. A gerundive phrase always functions as a noun.

Teaching the manual of arms is not always easy.

(c) An infinitive phrase is composed of an infinitive (to plus the verb root) and any modifiers and complements. It may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Noun: To be a good instructor requires effort.

Adjective: He now has the capability to fight an offensive action.

Adverb: We left to visit the position.

b. Clauses. A clause differs from a phrase in that the clause has a subject and a predicate. There are two types of clauses: independent and dependent (subordinate). An independent clause may stand by itself as a sentence. However, a dependent clause, like a phrase, does the work of a single word; it may serve as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

(1) Noun clauses have the following uses in a sentence:

Subject: Whatever he does will always be done right.

Subjective complement: That is what he told us.

Delayed subject: It has been determined that we cannot move. (It is an expletive.)

Direct object: We think that you are mistaken.

Object of preposition: He can send it by whoever is going.

Appositive: His feeling that the fight would go in our favor was justified.

(2) Adjective clauses may modify nouns or pronouns.

We took the road which led to Pons.
Was it they who asked you?

(3) Adverbial clauses show their adverbial function by telling one of the following things about the predication: how, when, where, why, how much, or to what extent.

You may start after we give the signal.

He set up his stand wherever he could find an audience.

We were so tired that we couldn't walk another step.

If they attack, counterattack.

We could have no leaves because we were on maneuvers.

The enemy had occupied the ridge so we were under constant observation and fire.

He enlisted in the Army even though he was only 14 years old.

13. TYPES OF SENTENCES. Sentences may be classified, according to their makeup, into the following four groups:

a. A simple sentence consists of one independent clause; it may, however, have a compound subject or a compound verb, or both.

b. A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause.

c. A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses.

d. A compound-complex sentence consists of at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

APPENDIX IV

GUIDE FOR RESEARCH

Section I. NEED FOR RESEARCH

1. RESEARCH. Often you will have the facts sufficiently well in mind so that you can write your paper with little or no research. In many cases, however, you may either be assigned a problem or asked to prepare a paper which will cause you to consult numerous authorities.

2. SUGGESTIONS. This appendix offers suggestions on how to collect and evaluate data when you must draw upon a wide variety of sources for the information to solve your problem. Try them when you must research.

Section II. SOURCES OF RESEARCH MATERIAL

3. EXTENT OF RESEARCH. Your first step will be to define the problem (Appendix I). You must have a clear idea of what your subject is and the kind of information you need.

a. From your analysis of the problem, make a tentative list of the main issues which you consider essential to a solution of the problem. These are the topics for which you must gather supporting material.

b. Check the list and note the items for which you already have the answers. The remaining items are the ones that require research.

4. SOURCES OF INFORMATION. Ask yourself what references are likely to contain information on the subjects you seek.

a. For military subjects particularly, you should consult the indexes of Army publications in the Department of the Army Pamphlet 310-series. Even though the answer to your problem may not be in an Army publication, your recommended solution should be consistent with Army directives.

b. Check the files of your headquarters for correspondence, reports, and previous studies on the subject. You may find some of the data on file in your section, in the office which administers the files, or in the central files room of your unit. Check reports control records to see what reports are available. You may find it helpful to consult the officer in charge of the data processing unit, especially if you want information pertaining to subordinate units.

c. If a library is available, check the library index for reference materials. Look for encyclopedias which may contain information that you need. Ask the librarian for assistance; he is an expert who can save you much fruitless searching.

d. You may determine that adequate sources of data are not available to you and that information must be obtained from other persons. Check first to see if any individuals in your section or unit have the data you need. Decide whether it will be necessary to ask higher headquarters for help.

e. After you have considered all possible sources of information, list those which you think will be helpful. Your list is now a tentative bibliography. You are ready to start reviewing references and assembling data.

Section III. COLLECTING INFORMATION

5. NEED FOR A SYSTEMATIC PROCEDURE. With long papers and those having numerous references, a formal research procedure is needed. Authorities in this field differ on the best system to follow. Regardless of the system you use, it should provide a method of evaluating material, a way to identify references, and a means of recording data.

6. SURVEY OF REFERENCES. The first step in assembling data is to examine the references you listed so that you can choose those which are of value.

a. Check the table of contents to see whether the reference applies to your subject. If you can't tell from this check, quickly glance over the contents of the document. Pay attention to headings and topical sentences; don't try to read every passage. You will soon spot the material which concerns your problem.

b. Look at the date of publication to check the reliability of the writing. If it is old, it may be outdated; on the other hand, if it is a witness report, it may be more reliable if dated on or near the date of the action described.

c. Check the author. Determine whether he is a recognized authority or otherwise qualified to write on the subject. Many references contain a brief biography of the author; if yours have none, consult a biographical encyclopedia.

7. PREPARATION OF BIBLIOGRAPHY CARDS. When you have decided that a reference is applicable and reliable, prepare a bibliography card for it. Code this card to your notes to save time and effort in identifying the reference.

a. Use cards of uniform and convenient size. Either make your notes in ink or type them to preserve their legibility.

b. Enter data in the following manner:

(1) If the reference is filed in a library, place the library call number in the upper left corner of the bibliography card so you can easily find the book when you want it.

Library call
number

355.1
N 33 n

A rectangular card template with a decorative sawtooth bottom edge. The top-left corner contains the text "355.1" and "N 33 n".

(2) On each card, place a reference number in the upper right corner. This number indicates the order in which you examined the reference for possible use in your paper. For example, reference number 6 represents the sixth reference you looked at and considered for future use.

6

A rectangular card template with a decorative sawtooth bottom edge. The top-right corner contains the number "6".

Reference
number

(3) Center the author's name in the middle of the card. If the reference is a numbered Army directive (AR, TM, FM), use this identification in place of the author's name.

Writer

Branahan, Joseph L., Col, USA

A rectangular card template with a decorative sawtooth bottom edge. The center contains the text "Branahan, Joseph L., Col, USA".

(4) List the title of the reference in the middle of the card directly below the author's name. If it is an article within a book or periodical, inclose the title of the article in quotation marks and underline the title of the publication. Show the place of publication, the publisher, and the year of publication in parentheses below the title. If applicable, show the month when the work was published.

Title, place of
publication,
publisher, and
year

"Military Government," Military Review (Ft Leavenworth, Kansas, CGSC, July 1954)

A rectangular card template with a decorative sawtooth bottom edge. The center contains the text "Military Government," "Military Review" (underlined), "Ft Leavenworth, Kansas, CGSC, July 1954".

(5) A completed bibliography card might look like this:

Library call
number

355.1
N 33 n

6

Reference
number

Writer
Title, place of
publication,
publisher, and
year

Branahan, Joseph L., Col, USA
"Military Government," Military
Review (Ft Leavenworth, Kansas,
CGSC, July 1954)

8. RECORDING THE IDEAS. To get the most from your references, try the following:

a. Read the document once for its general sense. Make no attempt to take notes but concentrate on getting the writer's full meaning. If you are interested in only a portion of a writing, glance over the rest to make sure that you understand how your portion fits into the overall writing. You may miss an important meaning or limitation if you look at only a portion of the reference.

b. Reread the reference and make notes to record the important ideas. Each fact in your final paper must be supported by reputable authority. As with the bibliography, a convenient way to take notes is to use cards.

(1) Limit each card to a major topic. If you have information from several sources on one topic, make a separate note for each reference. Label each note with the topic to which it pertains. When you begin to organize your notes, it will be easy for you to arrange them in logical order by subject matter.

(2) Make notes of the ideas which occur to you as you study the problem. Identify them as your own, but classify them under the same topic as the other notes to which they are related.

(3) In the beginning you may want to write many notes. As you master your subject, you will find that the notes become fewer and shorter. To avoid copying a mass of unrelated material, condense the author's thoughts and translate them into your own words. Occasionally you will wish to quote part of the source document; if so, don't write out lengthy quotations but indicate on your note card which portion is to be quoted, with a brief description of what it says.

(4) Place the subject or topic of the note in the upper left corner and underline it. Below the subject write the note or direct quotation. If the note is a direct quotation, use quotation marks at the beginning and end of the note. Identify the page number of the extracted material directly after the end of the note.

(5) Place the reference number in the upper right corner. This number tells you to which bibliography card the note pertains. All note cards which refer to bibliography card number 6 will have 6 as their reference number.

(6) Here is how a completed note card might look:

| | | | |
|-------|--|---|-----------------------------|
| Topic | <u>Supervision of local governing bodies</u> | 6 | Reference number |
| Note | An immediate problem was to provide local government services. In some cases the Nazi officials had fled; many officials had been killed in bombing attacks; and, in still other instances, local officials were afraid to exert their normal authority. P.4 | | Location in reference |

c. If you take only a few short notes on each reference, you may find it convenient to use the back of the bibliography card for note making.

9. **REPORTS.** After exhausting all sources of information in your organization, you may need to obtain a report from other sources.

a. Explain what you want and why you need it. When you request a report, include enough background material so that the reader will understand your problem.

b. If possible, develop a simple form on which the reply can be made. Where feasible, provide replies which can be completed with a check mark.

10. **INTERVIEWS.** You may decide that the best way to get certain information is through an interview.

a. Prepare yourself for the interview by listing the points on which you desire information.

b. Begin the interview by explaining why you need information from the person being interviewed.

c. Keep the interview on the subject.

d. Make notes on the interview. If note making seems to bother the person being interviewed, concentrate on listening and prepare your notes afterward. Use the same system of note cards as you would for written source material.

Section IV. CONCLUSION OF RESEARCH

11. THE STOPPING POINT. No one can tell you when you have assembled enough material. You must decide when to stop researching and start writing. You should not waste your time on endless pursuit of unnecessary data.

a. Pause from time to time in your research to look over the facts you have assembled. Review them to see if they answer all major questions.

b. When you feel that your research is complete, test it by drawing conclusions. If you have the complete picture, the conclusions should almost shape themselves. Review the conclusions to see whether they fit the facts; if not, you may need to do further research.

c. Question the soundness of your conclusions. Take a negative view of your conclusions and ask yourself if any facts are missing. While the data and conclusions may be consistent, you may not have enough specific facts to support your generalizations.

12. ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL. When you are satisfied that you have completed the major elements of research, organize your notes for writing.

a. Arrange them by topic and read and sort them until they fall into a logical pattern in your mind.

b. Use this pattern to draw up the outline of your paper. Begin writing while the continuity of thought is still fresh in your mind.

Section V. SOURCE OF YOUR MATERIAL

13. METHODS OF IDENTIFYING AUTHORITIES. Many types of papers require a formal identification of the sources of information; often it is necessary to cite a reference to establish a fact or to lend weight to an opinion. There is no one prescribed way to identify these sources of information. In some papers you may wish to show references in the text; in others, you may want to use footnotes or numbers coded to an end bibliography.

a. In identifying an authority in the text, you may quote it directly or indirectly or set it off in parentheses.

AR 320-5 says, " x x x."
John Dewey indicates that x x x.
(Par 21, FM 101-5).

b. Footnotes to identify a reference are usually keyed to the text by the use of asterisks. One asterisk refers to the first footnote on a page, two to the second, and three to the third (*, **, ***). If many of the pages include more than three

footnotes, you should code them with numbers to prevent confusion. Don't mix numbers with asterisks.

c. There are several methods for using the number and end bibliography system. A simple one to use is the following:

(1) Prepare a bibliography by listing each reference you have used.

(2) Arrange your references in alphabetical order by the author's last name or by the title of the work if the name of the author is not given. Numbered official publications are alphabetized by the title of the type of publication and arranged in numerical sequence.

(3) After the references have been arranged alphabetically, number them consecutively with Arabic numerals. Once these references are thus arranged, they will probably not have the same numbers that were assigned to them on the bibliography cards.

| BIBLIOGRAPHY | |
|--------------|---|
| 1. | AR 380-5, <u>Military Security, Safeguarding Defense Information</u> (Department of the Army, 1962). |
| | * * * * * |
| 4. | Bradley, Omar N., General U. S. Army, <u>A Soldier's Story</u> (New York, N. Y., Henry Holt and Company, 1951). |
| | * * * * * |
| 9. | FM 101-5, <u>Staff Officers' Field Manual, Staff Organization and Procedure</u> (Department of the Army, 1960). |

14. NEED FOR CONSISTENCY AND ACCURACY. Regardless of the system you follow, be consistent throughout your paper. Give a full and accurate description of each reference. If it becomes necessary to consult the references, inconsistencies and inaccuracies may handicap both you and your reader.

APPENDIX V

EXAMPLE--COMPLETED STAFF STUDY INCLUDING BASIC WORK PLAN

SITUATION. The First Army, consisting of I, II, and III Corps, is engaged in combat in the European Theater of Operations. On 1 June 196_, the army group commander called on the army commanders for written recommendations concerning whether U. S. military personnel held prisoner by the enemy and recovered during the course of advance of U. S. forces should be held in the army area for processing or moved immediately to the communications zone. The chief of staff discussed this matter with the G1. Since the problem is too complex and involved to be decided without a thorough study, the chief of staff directed the G1 to prepare a staff study on the problem. The G1, Brigadier General Smith, as his first step in preparing the staff study, worked out the following basic work plan:

BASIC WORK PLAN

1. PROBLEM.

a. Whether U. S. military personnel held prisoner by the enemy and recovered during the course of our advance should be

- (1) Held in the army area for processing, or
- (2) Moved immediately to the communications zone.

b. Recommendation to CG, 1st Army Group, in a letter signed by the army commander.

2. INFORMATION REQUIRED.

- a. Opinions and recommendations from corps commanders.
- b. From G2--estimate of number of U. S. prisoners to be recovered and intelligence screening involved.
- c. From G3--units available to process recovered prisoners.
- d. From G4--logistical capabilities.
 - (1) To handle in army area.
 - (2) To evacuate to COMMZ immediately.
- e. From surgeon--estimate of physical condition of recovered prisoners and capabilities of medical facilities.

f. From AG--estimate of administrative processing necessary.

g. From files--DA policy, if any.

3. ACTION TO OBTAIN INFORMATION.

a. By letter from corps commanders.

b. By consultation with staff in the following order: G2, G3, G4, surgeon, and AG.

c. By study of pertinent regulations, manuals, and reports, if any.

4. TIME SCHEDULE.

| | |
|---|---------|
| Complete assembly of information | 7 June |
| Complete consideration of information and formulate conclusions and recommendations | 9 June |
| Complete draft of study | 10 June |
| Complete coordination | 12 June |
| Complete final revision | 13 June |
| Submit to chief of staff | 13 June |

a. On 7 June, General Smith had completed the assembly of the information necessary to prepare his staff study. He obtained it through an exchange of correspondence with the corps commanders and consultations with G2, G3, G4, the surgeon, and the adjutant general. His research revealed that no specific DA policy exists for handling recovered U. S. military personnel. There was a document, however, which described the policy in effect during World War II. That policy prohibited the further utilization of repatriated personnel in combat or in direct support of combat operations against the enemy nation which had held them prisoner. Such personnel were evacuated as soon as possible to the zone of interior.

b. With this information General Smith was prepared to begin actual preparation of the study. Following the time schedule of his basic work plan, he submitted the completed staff study on 13 June (see next page).


CLASSIFICATION

Headquarters First Army
APO 707
131200 Jun 6_

AHFKC

SUBJECT: Recovered U. S. Military Personnel.

1. PROBLEM. To determine whether U. S. prisoners of war recovered by First Army should be held in the army area for processing or moved immediately to the communications zone.
2. ASSUMPTIONS.
 - a. Approximately 20,000 prisoners per month for the next 4 months will be recovered by First Army if zone of advance is unchanged.
 - b. Many recovered prisoners will be in poor physical condition.
3. FACTS BEARING ON THE PROBLEM.
 - a. Air transportation for as many as 1,000 to 2,000 personnel a day is available and additional rail transportation is available if needed.
 - b. There is no existing Department of the Army policy governing processing and evacuation of recovered prisoners of war.
 - c. During World War II, such persons were evacuated as soon as possible to the zone of interior for complete processing and rehabilitation.
4. DISCUSSION.
 - a. Advantages in immediately moving recovered personnel to the communications zone: (These are, concurrently, disadvantages of retaining recovered prisoners in the army area.)
 - (1) First Army would not have to use manpower needed for the tactical situation to process these individuals.
 - (2) Housing facilities may be entirely lacking at point of recovery. In any event, better facilities exist in the communications zone.
 - (3) Recovered personnel should be hospitalized. Army does not have the necessary medical facilities.
 - (4) Rapid evacuation will have a beneficial morale effect on the troops and the public.
 - b. The only advantage in holding personnel in the army area is to obtain information of the enemy by detailed interrogation. (Concurrently, a disadvantage of immediate evacuation.)
 - c. For details see Annex B (Summary of comments).
5. CONCLUSION. Using adequate available transportation, First Army should evacuate all recovered U. S. military personnel to the communications zone as rapidly as possible.
6. ACTION RECOMMENDED.
 - a. That the conclusion in paragraph 5 be approved.
 - b. That the attached letter (Annex A) be signed and forwarded to the Commanding General, 1st Army Group.


SMITH
Brig Gen, USA
G1, Ext 211

CLASSIFICATION

CLASSIFICATION

ANNEXES: A--Letter to CG, 1st Army Group
B--Summary of comments

CONCURRENCES.

AMB Brig Gen Frank, G3, Ext 213
JEB Brig Gen Bolde, G4, Ext 214
AMB Brig Gen Black, Surg, Ext 216
Or W Col White, AG, Ext 217

NONCONCURRENCE. *LJM* Brig Gen Meany, G2, Ext 212. Immediate evacuation of recovered personnel will prevent early interrogation and could result in loss of timely information concerning the enemy.

CONSIDERATION OF NONCONCURRENCE. The desirability of obtaining information from recovered military personnel as quickly as possible is realized. However, as most of these men will have been confined and removed from the area of actual combat, the information which they may furnish would not affect the immediate tactical situation. Information could be obtained from the men by use of an interrogation form either while they were being returned to the communications zone or upon their arrival there. This information could be sent to G2 for his review.

MES

ANNEXES ADDED: None.

ACTION BY APPROVING AUTHORITY:

Approved (disapproved), including (excluding) exceptions as noted.

I. M. BRISK
General, USA
Commanding

CLASSIFICATION

HEADQUARTERS FIRST ARMY
OFFICE OF THE COMMANDING GENERAL
APO 707

AHFKC

13 June 196_

SUBJECT: Recovered United States Military Personnel

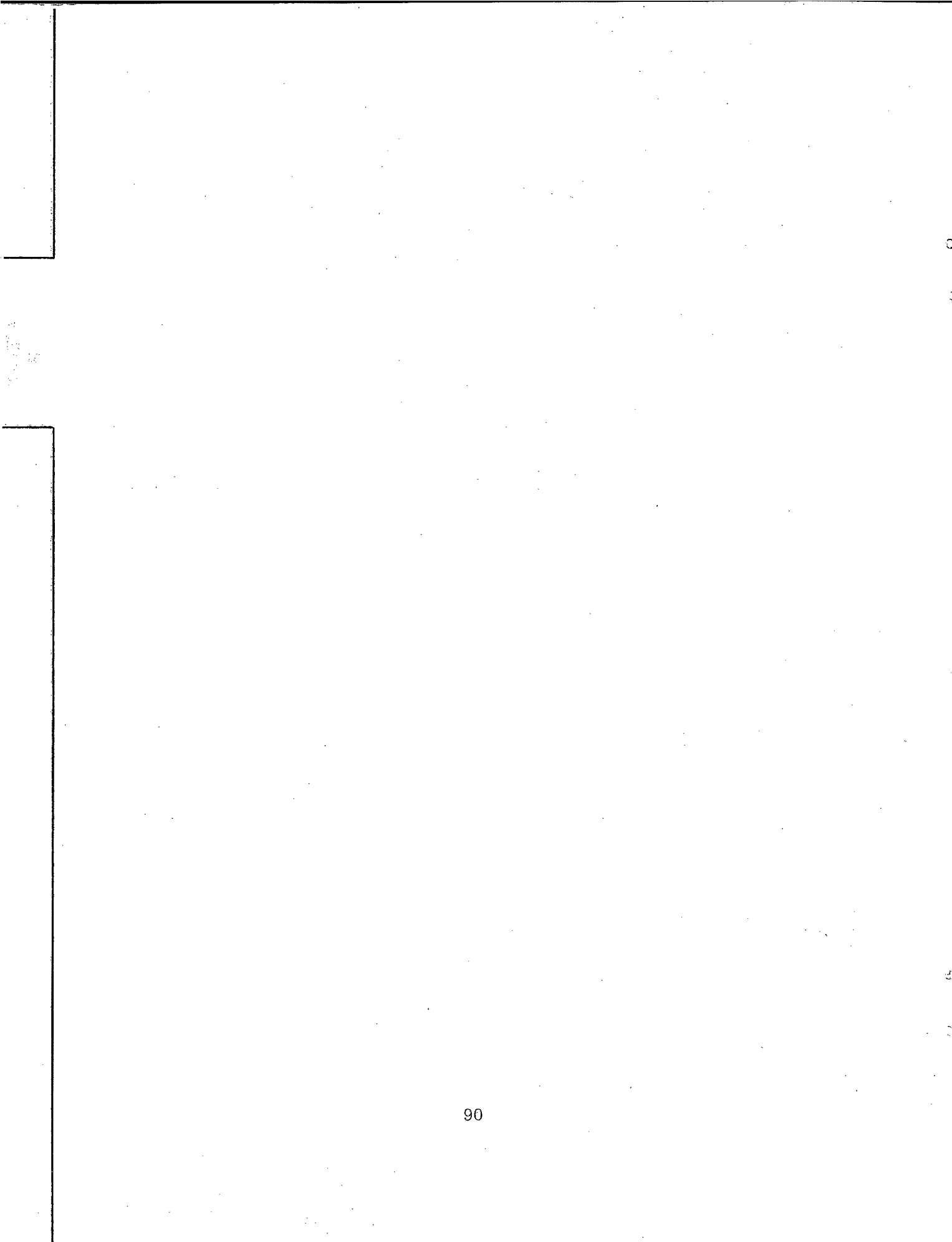
TO: Commanding General
1st Army Group
APO 793

1. I recommend that United States military personnel held prisoner by the enemy and recovered in the course of advance of United States forces be moved to the communications zone, preferably by air, immediately upon recovery.

2. First Army information sources indicate that approximately 20,000 prisoners per month will be recovered. Holding such individuals under army control for processing would require using manpower and supplies badly needed for tactical operations. In addition, the physical condition of those prisoners now held is believed to be such that a large percentage, if not all of them, should be hospitalized upon recovery. Such hospitalization is not feasible with the medical personnel and facilities now available in the army area.

3. An apparent disadvantage is the delayed interrogation of these prisoners. I believe, however, this disadvantage is offset by the many advantages to be derived from the recommended action.

I. M. BRISK
General, USA
Commanding



SUMMARY OF COMMENTS

1. (Lt Gen Brown, CG, I Corps)--I cannot recommend too strongly that recovered personnel be moved out of division and corps areas immediately upon recovery. The tactical situation requires our complete attention. The diverting of personnel, equipment, and supplies to caring for recovered personnel could hinder the accomplishment of the corps' tactical mission.

2. (Lt Gen Gray, CG, II Corps)--I recommend that recovered military personnel be evacuated as soon as possible after recovery. I understand that the physical condition of prisoners is quite poor. Our medical facilities are strained to the limit. I believe that it will be advantageous to the recovered personnel, as individuals, and to this command, tactically, if they are moved quickly to the rear.

3. (Lt Gen Green, CG, III Corps)--Personnel recovered from the enemy should be moved to the rear immediately. If the particular area in which they are recovered has been fought over, facilities for housing such personnel may be expected to be virtually nonexistent. Movement to such part of the corps area where adequate facilities exist, if any, appears to be a waste of time, transportation, and personnel. In my opinion, those individuals should make the fewest moves possible in view of their physical condition. It is easier to move the personnel to the rear than to move supplies forward to them.

4. (Brig Gen Meany, G2)--Present information indicates that the army, if its zone of advance is not changed, will recover approximately 20,000 prisoners a month for the next 4 months. It is very important that all possible information concerning the enemy be obtained from these men. I am prepared to furnish interrogation forms for them to fill out prior to their being evacuated. A personal interrogation would be preferable, but I feel that, because of the numbers involved, the form will be sufficient in this instance. I recommend that recovered personnel be held under army control until the completion of this modified interrogation and evacuated thereafter.

5. (Brig Gen Frank, G3)--I recommend immediate evacuation to the communications zone. The recovery program will involve manpower, either in the form of table of organization units or in the form of provisional groups organized specifically for the program. I believe that we will be strained to provide personnel to handle recovered personnel even if they are evacuated immediately. If they are held under army control, the cumulative expenditure of manpower for the recovery program will definitely hinder our tactical operations.

6. (Brig Gen Bolde, G4)--I recommend immediate evacuation. If these individuals are held in the army area, there will be the problem of additional supplies to be moved forward. The number anticipated will not cause a serious supply problem under normal conditions, but the occasion might well arise wherein supply movements to the forward areas would be restricted to the absolute essentials; namely, rations, gasoline, and ammunition. I believe that such conditions would

Annex B

be unnecessarily hard on those recovered. On the other hand, they may be quickly evacuated by using transportation moving to the rear. It would be unusual if we couldn't use airlift most of the time, provided recovered personnel could be moved to airfields for staging. I believe that we could easily move 1,000 to 2,000 individuals per day from the forward areas to the communications zone, using nothing but airplanes. In case of great numbers being recovered, we of course have adequate space in returning rail transportation.

7. (Brig Gen Black, surgeon)--All recovered personnel should be evacuated to the communications zone by air as soon after recovery as possible. If our information concerning their physical condition is correct, I recommend that all recovered personnel be hospitalized. If the facilities were available, I would evacuate all of them through medical channels. Such a program is impossible. I propose to evacuate all seriously sick and wounded through medical channels and recommend that the remainder be flown to the communications zone for immediate hospitalization.

8. (Col White, adjutant general)--I recommend immediate evacuation to the communications zone. Facilities exist in the rear for replacing lost records, making partial payments, and notifying next of kin. Doing these things promptly and efficiently will raise the morale of these troops. The quicker reports are made to next of kin, the better impression the public at home will have of the Army. There are no provisional processing teams available to army, and if these people are kept under army control, the processing would have to be done by divisions and corps. At the present time, they would be unable to process rapidly the 20,000 prisoners per month it is anticipated we will recover.

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