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Writing Across the Curriculum
Philosophy Writing Resource Book

The goal of the Philosophy Writing Resource Book is to provide templates for a variety of practical resources that faculty within the discipline of philosophy may draw upon. The intention is to provide a book of digital handouts that faculty can use and adapt in constructing a course. I have included an outline of the material in the Philosophy Writing Resource Book with a brief description for each handout of the purpose and content of the material.

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The purpose of the general introduction is to introduce the philosophy faculty to the Writing Across the Curriculum program. I stress in the introduction that the intention of the Writing Resource Book is to provide practical materials rather than to convince through argument or evidence that WAC theory is sound. The WRB is supposed to enable faculty to have practical resources: they may take what they want and leave the rest. I give some sense of the possible resources by discussing syllabus construction, designing writing assignments, informal writing, writing in stages, peer review, and grading strategies.

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§1. General Introduction

INTRODUCTION

What are the basic principles and practices of Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC)?

How might faculty at Brooklyn College institutionalize WAC principles and practices to enable students to better understand course content?

Can WAC practices treat student writing problems without introducing more work for faculty?

WAC PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE: WAC THEORY MADE PRACTICAL

History:

In England and the US in the late 1960s and early 1970s education researchers focused on the relationship between writing and learning in every discipline. WAC researchers discovered that when students write using a variety of functions of language—expressive, poetical, and communicative— and at different levels of formality— from informal freewriting to more formal discipline-specific writing— such students are better able to absorb, analyze, remember, and thinking critically and creatively about a course content. In short, if students learn to write better and more frequently, then students become better learners in every discipline.

WAC principles and practices serve as a toolbox for treating students' issues and problems with writing. There are a variety of reasons that students find writing difficult, There is no silver bullet for treating each and every problem. However, research has shown that incorporating WAC principles and practices can improve student writing.

Principles and Practices:

Syllabus Preparation

Incorporate WAC practices in your syllabus so that students understand at the beginning of the course what is required of them. This might enable students to more easily complete writing assignments without plagiarizing. Have writing activity be a central focus of interaction with course content.

Writing Assignments

If you ensure that your writing assignments are well-planned, designed, and presented, then students will find it easier to engage with the course content and have a better chance to respond effectively to the challenges of the assignment. Discuss the planning, designing, and presentation of assignments with a colleague or writing fellow to ensure that the assignment is manageable for students: Does the assignment have a

clearly defined purpose? Are the instructions clear? Have you provided your students with a model assignment?

Writing in Stages

Develop a step-based outline with students that distinguishes between different stages of the writing process and asks them to meet several deadlines rather than a single due-date. This section also provides handouts on most of the stages of the research paper.

Informal Writing

Create informal writing exercises for homework or in-class use that might include journaling about topics in the course, summarizing or synthesizing readings or lectures, or online interaction between students on discussion boards or blogs. By requiring informal writing, you give students an opportunity to engage with course content in a low stakes environment, a practice which promotes discussion, retention, and understanding of content.

Peer Review

If you provide a context for students to comment on each others' writing, in the form of peer review of paper proposals, lab reports, case studies, etc., then students encourage each other to develop their thinking and writing and familiarize students with audiences. Organize peer review sessions for any of the stages of writing, thesis development, literature review, or rough drafts. Break students up into groups and provide them with a worksheet or questionnaire that guides them through the peer review session. Encourage students to share their work with each other before and after the peer review session as they develop their ideas for a paper or project.

Less Work for Faculty:

Though any change in your current teaching practice means more initial work, incorporating the above practices in your course does not require more work during the semester. Many of the above practices are not designed to be graded, but instead involve the teacher and students in an interactive dialogue that enables engagement with course content, rather than ranking or evaluating the students' work.

For more information about WAC and the Writing Fellows Program, and to access other brochures about WAC, please visit the BC WAC website:

<http://www.brooklyncollegewac.org/>

§2: Incorporating Writing in Your Syllabus

Constructing a WAC-Based Syllabus

The purpose of this handout is to give you a step-by-step process to enable you to construct a writing-based syllabus. Since the philosophy major is a writing intensive major, it is suggested that you clarify your writing skill goals and objectives for the course. These goals and objectives might be used to create grading rubrics or assessment protocols for student writing. I discuss the use of both formal and informal writing in the course. I also outline a few peer review and collaborative learning tools that might be used in the course.

In §1, I introduced WAC practices that faculty might want to incorporate in their courses. The problem with trying to incorporate this material throughout the semester is that the syllabus structures the course ahead of time. Often, faculty want to incorporate WAC practices in their courses after the course is already up-and-running. Revising mid-semester is difficult. So, the solution is plan ahead before the semester begins.

Twelve Steps to Designing a Philosophy Syllabus to Incorporate Writing Practices

The purpose of the following exercise is to enable you generate a syllabus for a philosophy course that incorporates writing practices. Ask yourself the following questions:

1. The philosophy major is a writing-intensive major, which involves a commitment to writing as the most important mode of learning.
2. Have I consulted with other faculty (both at Brooklyn College and elsewhere) for examples of syllabi for the course? What types of writing skills and abilities do those courses expect from students? What kinds of writing skills are exercised in the course?
3. Have I written out the goals and objectives of the course? For Core courses, there are already goals and objectives written for these courses. For major courses, determine the skills that you wish your students to develop from your course and write a list of goals and objectives that inspire them to hone those skills. What writing knowledge, skills and abilities am I most interested in enabling my students to acquire?
4. How might these goals and objectives be turned into grading protocols and rubrics both for the class in general and for specific writing assignments? How can I design the course to reduce time needed for applying rubrics and grading?
5. What formal writing assignments am I planning to include in the course? How many formal writing assignments? How long is each assignment? When will the assignments be due?
6. What types of informal writing assignments might enable students to practice the writing skills and abilities needed to complete the formal writing assignments?
7. Are there any out-of-class informal writing assignments from which students could benefit? For instance, do I want to make a course Web Log, or Blog? Would the students benefit from writing in journals or logbooks? Do I want to

require a dialectical note-taking notebook? Do I want to require summarizing or annotating of course readings? Would students benefit from sending bi-weekly emails? At what point during the semester might these exercises occur, and have I incorporated them into the syllabus?

8. Are there any in-class informal writing assignments that might help to improve writing skills or help students understand course content? Might I incorporate free-writing exercises about difficult arguments, concepts or examples? Are there any writing prompts that could engender in-class discussions? Do I want to use in-class writing exercises to review weekly readings? Do I want to have in-class written presentations? Or might I organize debates or dialogical discussions orchestrated by writing exercises? When during the semester might these tasks occur, and have I incorporated them into the syllabus?
9. For each formal writing assignment, should I organize the requirements of the assignment into stages? What type of assignment is this? Is the assignment an analytical essay? A state-of-the art essay? An essay mediating between two philosophers? A research paper? For each assignment, have I suggested ways to break up work into stages?¹ Have I incorporated these stages into the syllabus when they are required?
10. Do I want to include in the completion of the assignment an organized peer review session? At which stage will the peer review exercise be used? For instance, will it be used at the stage when students are developing a thesis, creating a literature review, or writing a first draft? Will the peer review occur outside of class on a discussion board or Blog, or will it occur in class? Have I organized the peer review activities so students have enough time outside of class to prepare for required in-class work? Have I decided how groups will be organized? Do I have a peer review checklist or worksheet for students to complete? Have I incorporated this into the syllabus?
11. Have I discovered any writing issues or problems that my students are having throughout the semester? Could a writing fellow, field tutor, or learning center tutor help students to address these problems?
12. Have I created protocols or rubrics for each of these writing activities? Could I have students evaluate each other's work given any of these writing exercises? For each assignment in the course, have I employed minimal marking or focused on specific and manageable writing issues? Have I developed a criterion to incorporate into a course protocol or rubric that arise from the goals and objectives, assess the writing skills and activities exercised in the course, and measure comprehension of course content?

¹ For instance, I might incorporate any of the following stages into a research paper: do background reading; choosing a topic and/research question; developing a thesis; determine the purpose of the research paper; consult reference works on the topic; list key words relevant to the topic for searching; compile a working bibliography; locate the items in the working bibliography; create folders and areas for storage; take notes on all readings; email philosophers, professor, or other students who might help with research; free-write on the topic in a logbook; review compiled material often; plan the organization of the paper; write a first draft; revise draft for organization, development of ideas, and use of primary and secondary sources; revise draft for transitions between sections, paragraphs, sentences, and ideas; draft for citations or footnotes to avoid plagiarism; edit paper for correctness of grammar, punctuation, and language usage; revise bibliography and works cited page; hand in final product.

§3: Effective Writing Assignments

Designing Effective Assignments

The following is a worksheet for two professors to share assignments.

PART A: As the **creator** of the assignment, answer the following questions:

1. What do you think you are asking students to do in your assignment?
2. What is your pedagogical objective in giving this assignment?

PART B: After reading your partner's assignment, answer the following questions as if you were a **student** receiving the assignment.

1. What do you think is expected of you? How do you know?
2. What do you think is the purpose of this assignment?
3. How would you go about completing this assignment?
4. What questions or concerns would you have about this assignment?

EFFECTIVE WRITING ASSIGNMENTS

A writing assignment that is well-planned, carefully designed, and clearly presented increases the likelihood that students will learn from it and generally improves the quality of students' responses.

In order to help faculty navigate some of the issues involved in crafting writing assignments, we have broken down the process into four stages and included questions for faculty to ask themselves in each.

PLANNING

- Does this assignment have a clearly defined purpose?
- Is the assignment integrated into the larger goals of the course and syllabus?
- Does the assignment encourage students to engage with course content?
- Do students possess the necessary skills and information to complete the assignment?
- What specific skills are students developing and why are these necessary and important?
- Can students complete the assignment in the time allowed?
- Would this assignment be better presented in discrete stages?
- Can students at different levels engage with the assignment?
- Could this assignment lead to a larger course project?
- Would it be useful to discuss the assignment with a colleague or find out which assignments have worked particularly well in his or her courses?

DESIGNING

- Are the instructions clearly stated?
- Have you identified all discipline-specific terms and explained the requirements

or conventions for writing in your discipline?

- Did you define the intended audience and writing style students should adopt for the assignment?
- Are the mechanics of the assignment, including its length, format, and due date, explained?
- If you were given this assignment, how might you approach it?

PRESENTING

- Have you prepared a written copy of the assignment to hand out to students?
- Have you allocated an adequate amount of time to present the assignment in class, discuss it with students, and respond to questions about it?
- Have you discussed the overall structure and organization of the writing assignment, as well as your discipline-specific expectations for student responses to terms such as summarize, analyze, and discuss?
- Are there model responses to the assignment that you could share with students?

EVALUATING

- Did the results of the assignment meet your expectations? Why or why not?
- Were there specific skills that students lacked to complete the assignment adequately?
- Would it help to get student feedback about the assignment?
- How might you revise or refine the assignment in the future?

§4: Writing Methods

Brainstorming Exercise for Finding a Topic

1. Group brainstorming (15 minutes)

As a brainstorming activity, we are going to make group Mind Maps.

First, we will work as one large group, then we will break into seminar groups

The purpose of a Mind Map, also referred to as an *Idea Map*, *Concept Map*, or *Cluster*, is to generate ideas and also to highlight the relationships among ideas. This will also help you see the range of topics that could emerge from the range of topics discussed in the course.

To begin, start with a circle in the center of the page or board and write a "triggering" word or phrase in the circle. For instance, suppose the topic is _____. The instructor will record ideas and key words or concepts on branches or sub-branches that extend from the initial circle. Continue to pursue one train of thought until ideas run dry, then find a new starting point to start a new branch. It will begin to resemble a radial diagram. Eventually, you'll have multiple clusters of information to choose from.

It's possible to form a research paper topic out of one cluster of information.

Not only will this activity allow you to brainstorm ideas, but the mind map itself will begin to resemble an organizational system. The structure might seem random at first, but eventually you'll see ways you could organize a concept into a structure or an outline. It's kind of like a way to map out your thought process. Understanding the relationship between ideas will help you create an outline. Think of it also as an exercise in striking a balance between order and chaos.

Follow your instincts and associations. This is not the time to be editing your ideas. The next step in your research paper assignment will be to follow the line of inquiry that interests you the most, then compose a topic, a thesis statement, and finally an outline from it. Once you have a clear idea of your topic, you will then know what to search for when you're looking for references.

2. Individual group mind maps (10 minutes)

Now that we've created this as a class, let's divide into four groups. Do the same thing with the broad topic you have chosen. Spend about ten minutes.

3. Each group gives a short, five-minute presentation of their results (20 minutes)

Starting a Paper: What is a Thesis?

Basic Concepts: In college, you will often come across assignments requiring you to provide a clear thesis, a concise summary, a coherent analysis, etc. Professors will expect you to know the difference between a thesis and a summary, or between a summary and an analysis, so you need to have a clear working definition of these terms. Rather than provide you with a set of abstract descriptions, I want you to find examples on your own, by looking over the following samples from students' papers.

As you look over the six sentences below, decided which (if any):

- provide a definition of terms
- restate an author's thesis
- offer a summary of an article
- offer an analysis of an article

Introducing Material: It's important to provide readers with a clear idea of what your topic is right away (What authors are you writing about? What texts are you referring to? What ideas will you focus on?). Which of the sentences below best introduce you to the material that will be covered? Why are they successful?

1. In this article the author describes affirmative action as "planning and acting to end the absence of certain kinds of people...from certain jobs and schools."
2. In this theoretical article, Barbara R. Bergmann points out that even through affirmative action is mainly promoted by government officials, its application has been largely voluntary or left in the hands of individual private or public schools and workplaces.
3. Bergmann believes that the heart of an affirmative action plan is its numerical hiring goals, based on an assessment of the availability of qualified minority people and women for each kind of job.
4. Elizabeth Higginbotham focuses on black women's employment, especially those who are in the professional field.
5. "What is Affirmative Action?" written by Barbara Bergmann is an article that explains affirmative action.
6. This article by Elizabeth Higginbotham examines the racial and sexual barriers that educated Black women have endured in relation to obtaining work in professional and managerial positions.

Creating a Thesis Statement

A thesis statement is a sentence or paragraph that expresses your view concerning a particular topic. It is the basis of an introductory paragraph. You must be sure you can support the statement in the body of the essay.

A Thesis Statement should be:

SINGULAR: For a short essay, it should usually contain one clear idea. More than that can be distracting.

SPECIFIC: If it is too broad, it becomes difficult to discuss all of the relevant information.

SIGNIFICANT: It should be something that many people will think is interesting or important.

SUPPORTABLE: It should be an assertion that requires evidence and support.

- *A universally agreed-upon fact or an observation is not a thesis. (e.g., People use many lawn chemicals.)*

- *A thesis takes a stand rather than announces a subject.*

Announcement: The thesis of this paper is the difficulty of solving our environmental problems.

Thesis: People are poisoning the environment with chemicals merely to keep their lawns weed-free.

- *A thesis is **not** the title. It is a complete sentence that expresses in some detail what claim you plan to support.*

Title: Social Security and Old Age

Thesis: Changes in the Social Security System make it almost impossible to plan for one's retirement.

- *A thesis statement is sufficiently narrow so that it can be fully supported.*

Broad: The American steel industry has many problems.

Narrow: The biggest problem of the American steel industry is the lack of funds to renovate outdated plants.

- *A thesis statement is specific rather than vague or general.*

Vague: Charles Darwin's work was influential.

Specific: Charles Darwin's *On the Origin of Species* influenced nineteenth-century paleontological research on the evolutionary relationships between dinosaurs and birds.

- *A thesis statement has one main point rather than several.*

More than one main point: Stephen Hawking's physical disability has not prevented him from becoming a world-renowned physicist, and his book is the subject of a movie.

One main point: Stephen Hawking's physical disability has not prevented him from becoming a world-renowned physicist.

Identify the problems in the following thesis statements:

1. The World's Fair in New Orleans was a disaster because of the way the press criticized the way it was run, but it was exciting for little children and had many good food booths.
2. TV commercials are obnoxious to the person who is intent on watching a good show; on the other hand, they provide entertainment and they provide a good opportunity to take a snack break.
3. Since politicians are constantly bombarding each other, how do they expect anyone to know who is right and who is wrong?
4. Unless people are conscious of pollution, the world will be destroyed by the year 2050.
5. Rap is both a creative and original form of music; it also has its roots in American jazz.

How could you turn each of the above sentences into a good thesis sentence?

Tips for Outlining

Outlining:

- Begin with a precise topic.
- Then try to give a precise statement of the question you are attempting to answer
- Then give “an answer,” which is your thesis.
- One way to begin is to outline a plan for defending your thesis by the end of the essay.
- Each part of the essay should be designed to be in service of that end.
- The outline should develop organically. As your essay develops, if you discover that your outline is problematic, feel free to re-outline.

Outline of an outline:

I. Opening paragraphs

- A. The question that this essay is designed to answer (or alternatively the problem it aims to solve).
- B. The question is clarified (if necessary).
- C. If it would be helpful, an explanation of why the question is important (or interesting or difficult).

II. The writer's answer to the question (or alternatively, her thesis)

III. Middle paragraphs (the bulk of the paper):

The writers argument for the thesis. There is no one fixed pattern for arguments. [However, the usual strategy is to lay out the argument in standard form and show how the argument is valid. Then, show how the argument is sound by defending each premise in turn.]

IV. The argument may include, but it is not required to include, a restatement and if necessary a qualification, of the thesis. Also it could include, but need not, “a reply to the critics,” that is a rejoinder to arguments against the writer's thesis...

V. Closing paragraph: A brief summary of the argument as presented in III.

From Feinberg (2007) *Doing Philosophy*

Writing an Introduction

Problem, Thesis, Overview

A good scholarly introduction might contain these three main elements: a presentation of the problem, a thesis statement, and an overview of how you will proceed.

1. PROBLEM

State the problem clearly. You could either ask it in the form of your “big question” or ask your question implicitly. You can then explain why the problem is significant or worth pursuing.

My Example: “What were the differences between Jean Domat’s and John Locke’s ideas about the lower classes?”

Your Example:

My Example: “Both men were opinionated about the structure of the social order, but they came to opposite conclusions. By focusing on their views of the lower classes, we can better understand Locke’s and Domat’s motivations for the structure of the social order.”

Your Example:

2. THESIS

In this second part of the introduction, you can state what your paper is trying to prove. Your thesis doesn’t always need to be expressed in the introductory paragraph, but you should know what it is. It may not be clear to you until you have written the paper; you can always go back later and fill it in.

My Example: “Domat’s view of peasants as socially inferior was directly opposed to the views of Locke, who believed that all men and women are created equal.”

Your Example:

3. OVERVIEW

Finally, your introduction can give the reader an overview of your paper. In a short paper, you may not need much.

My Example: “First, I will examine Domat’s views about peasants and human nature. Then I will focus on Locke’s ideas about freedom. Finally I will demonstrate how the two views are contradictory and discuss the political ramifications.”

Your Example:

TIPS:

- You may want to write your introduction last after you have worked out your ideas in the paper.
- Keep it clear and simple. Snappy, creative introductions won’t necessarily get you an A.
- Keep it small and focused. The easiest way to get your professor to roll his/her eyes is to begin a paper with something like this: “Peasants have existed in history throughout time.”

Evaluating Sources

Sources can be primary (original data or original sources) or secondary (texts that comment on primary texts). In either case, you should provide a proper citation. Any text can be quoted and analyzed, but in an academic context, only certain kinds of sources are considered reliable. How do you know whether a source is reliable and therefore appropriate to include in your research paper?

A source can be considered dependable if:

1. It is a recognizable academic journal or publisher: a reputable university press, or any publication or person associated with a university; well-known publishers of philosophy like Oxford, Blackwell, Routledge, MIT, Harvard, etc.; major newspapers or magazines like the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, *New York Review of Books*, *The Guardian*; websites associated with universities or major newspapers and magazines.
2. The author and/or the source is cited in other texts. (You might use Google Scholar or CiteSeer to find out.)
3. A teacher or professional tells you that the source has a good reputation. (If you are in doubt, please ask.)
4. Generally, if you find the source in a serious context (in an academic library, for example), it is likely dependable unless you spot any of the following warning signs.

A source may not be dependable if:

1. There is no identifiable author, no date, or no apparent publication data.
2. The author does not belong to any clearly identifiable, respectable organization and has not been published by any respectable medium.
3. The author has no credentials to indicate any expertise in the area he is writing about.
4. The author is not mentioned by any other academic texts on the same subject.

TIP: Investigate the author's reputation by checking a "Who's Who" publication, or simply look for the author's name on Google or Wikipedia to see where else he or she has published. Reading book reviews of the author's work may also be helpful.

5. The content of the article is extremely biased or emotionally loaded.
6. The claims of the article aren't supported by or go beyond the evidence provided.
7. The article vilifies alternative viewpoints.
8. The article is trying to sell something.

TIP: Check the content against other sources. Dependable articles make arguments backed up with evidence and acknowledge that others may disagree.

9. The publisher is not well known among experts in the field.

10. The publisher is a strongly partisan organization.

Other Things to Consider: If your subject matter is evolving, your sources should not be too old. Look for newer editions or newer publications. Also, ask yourself who the target audience of the text is. It could be that it's too simple or too sophisticated for your purposes. Finally, when you are finding sources through Internet searches, you must be more skeptical than you would be with print sources.

Tips For Paper Writing

Tips for selecting a topic:

- Choose a narrow question and a narrow answer.
- Select a question that interests you or at least one that can sustain your interest.
- First, ask yourself what you think about a question first, then turn to the literature on the topic.
- If you find that what you are doing is boring or uninteresting, change your topic.

Tips for library research:

- Philosophers usually write for each other, but not for the general public.
- The amount of secondary material that is necessary to read would take more time
- than students usually have, so stick to the assigned readings and try to work out your own ideas.
- It is important to practice doing philosophy, rather than finding “an answer” in a textbook.

Resolving controversies:

- Occasionally, it can be fruitful to develop your own ideas by opposing two philosophers who are in clear disagreement with each other.
- One strategy is to oppose two different views on a topic and to take the best from either in order to create a new position.

Summarizing and Analyzing

Even when you don't know very much about a particular subject, it is often not obvious whether somebody is summarizing or analyzing material. Read over the following sentences and decide which offer a summary and which offer an analysis.

1. In this article the author describes affirmative action as "planning and acting to end the absence of certain kinds of people...from certain jobs and schools."
2. In this theoretical article, Barbara R. Bergmann points out that even though affirmative action is mainly promoted by government officials, its application has been largely voluntary or left in the hands of individual private or public schools and workplaces.
3. Elizabeth Higginbotham focuses on black women's employment, especially those who are in the professional field.
4. Bergmann believes that the heart of an affirmative action plan is its numerical hiring goals, based on an assessment of the availability of qualified minority people and women for each kind of job.
5. "What is Affirmative Action?" written by Barbara Bergmann is an article that explains affirmative action.
6. This article by Elizabeth Higginbotham examines the racial and sexual barriers that educated Black women have endured in relation to obtaining work in professional and managerial positions.

How to Summarize

1. **Read** the article.
2. **Re-read** the article. Underline important ideas. Circle **key terms**. Find the **main point** of the article. Divide the article into sections or **stages of thought**, and label each section or stage of thought in the margins. If the article is short, note the main idea of each paragraph.
3. Write brief summaries of each stage of thought or if appropriate each paragraph. Use a separate piece of paper for this step. This should be a **brief outline** of the article.
4. Write the main point of the article. Use your own words. This should be a sentence that expresses the central idea of the article as you have determined it from the steps above.
5. Write your **rough draft** of the summary. Combine the information from the first four steps into paragraphs.
6. Edit your version. Be concise. Eliminate needless words and repetitions. (Avoid using "the author says...", "the author argues...", etc.)
7. Compare your version to the original.

In the summary, you should include only the information your readers need.

1. State the main point first.
2. Use a lower level of technicality than the authors of the original article use. Do not write a summary your readers cannot understand.
3. Make the summary clear and understandable to someone who has not read the original article. Your summary should stand on its own.
4. Write a summary rather than a table of contents.
Wrong: This article covers point X. Then the article covers point Y.
Right: Glacial advances have been rapid as shown by x, y, and z.
5. Add no new data and none of your own ideas.
6. Use a simple organization:
7. Unless the examples in the article are essential, do not include the examples in your summary. If you include them, remember to explain them.

Here is an easy way to begin a summary: In "[name of article]" [author] states
[State the main point of the article first.] For example: In "Computer Chess"* Hans Berliner states that the CYBER 170 series computer can perform well in a chess tournament.

Cite the source with correct bibliographic form:

*Berliner, H.J. (1981). Computer Chess. Nature, 274(567), 745-748.

[Author. Article Title. Journal Title. Vol. (Number/Month): Pages.]

So when you write a summary:

1. State the main point first.
2. Emphasize the main stages of thought.

3. State the article's conclusion.
4. Summarize rather than give a table of contents.
5. Keep summary short: three to seven sentences.

Example:

Not so Good:

This article covers the topic of measuring the extent of global deforestation. The article discusses reasons for concern, the technique, the results, and the project's current goal.

Good:

According to the author of "Seeing the Forest," the extent of global deforestation was difficult to measure until satellite remote sensing techniques were applied. Measuring the extent of global deforestation is important because of concerns about global warming and species extinctions. The technique compares old infrared LANDSAT images with new images. The authors conclude the method is accurate and cost effective.

How to Quote and Paraphrase

Quoting and paraphrasing are very useful tools that allow you to incorporate *other* author's ideas into *your own* writing. In order to avoid plagiarism, it is crucial to acknowledge the original source that you are quoting or paraphrasing.

Quoting: To quote is to incorporate a passage from another text using the *author's original words*.

- The standard way of indicating that the words used are from the author and not your own is to place the passage you are citing within quotation marks ("..."). If the text you are quoting is long (say, more than three sentences), you should indent it instead of using quotation marks.
- Remember that what you are writing must be an *exact copy or transcription* of the original text.

Paraphrasing: To paraphrase is to put into *your own words* what the original author said in the passage you are citing.

- When paraphrasing, *do not* use quotation marks or indentation, so your reader can know that you are using your own words instead of the author's words.
- *Be careful!* Changing a few words here and there does not turn a quotation into a paraphrase. This is a form of plagiarism even if you indicate your source. To avoid this, it is helpful not to look at the original passage while you are paraphrasing it.

Here is an example of a good and a bad paraphrase, taken from

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/563/02/>:

Original: Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10 percent of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. Lester, James D. *Writing Research Papers*. 2nd ed. (1976): 46-47.

Legitimate: In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46-47).

Plagiarized: Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10 percent of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

Acknowledging Sources: Whether you are quoting or paraphrasing, you must *always* acknowledge your source.

- Include a *Reference* section by the end of your paper or essay where you list every text you have used. Give the full information for every text, including the author, the title, the publisher and the year of publication.
- For each quote or paraphrase, indicate the source *and* the page number of the passage. Ask your instructor what style of citation he is expecting you to use (i.e., APA, MLA, etc.). If you are using APA, for example, you only need to report the author, the year of publication and the page number for each in-text citation.

When to Quote or Paraphrase: You should quote or paraphrase when you want to include other author's ideas into your own writing, either because you want to critically discuss these ideas or because they provide supporting evidence for a claim you are making.

- Since most of your paper should be written in your own words, try to use quotes only when there is a good reason for doing so. Otherwise, it is better to paraphrase.
- You should *paraphrase* a passage when you are interested in the ideas expressed in it, rather than the words that the author used.
- You should *quote* a passage when you have good reasons to include the author's original words. For instance, you may be particularly interested in the way the author expressed his idea in this particular passage, or you may want to discuss the specific words used by the author in expressing his idea.

For additional information on quoting and paraphrasing, consult <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/563/01/>

Twelve Tips for Being a Right-Sized Writer

1. Use clear and precise expression in an attempt to describe and explain the facts.
2. Keep your writing simple and plain by reading it to a family member, friend, or fellow student.
3. Be economical in expression spending your words wisely: don't write too much and don't write too little.
4. Be on the lookout for repetition: sometimes repetition can be helpful to remind, but other times it can be unhelpful.
5. Be sure to emphasize what is important at all levels: the paper, the paragraph, and the sentence.
6. Avoid patronizing the reader with unnecessary explanation.
7. Avoid preaching to the reader.
8. Avoid inappropriately dogmatic language; use perhaps, often, sometimes, most, and many.
9. Avoid touting the superiority of your argument over others.
10. Be charitable: Avoid calling other people's views absurd, stupid, or ridiculous.
11. Do not use appeals to authority in a philosophical argument.
12. Do not make excuses for logical weaknesses in the paper.

§5: Writing in Philosophy

Problems to Avoid in Writing a Philosophy Paper

- 1) Don't assume because a famous philosopher said something, that it is necessarily true. There are no authorities in philosophy.
- 2) Use an objective tone. Philosophy is in the business of aiming at the truth, so try not to merely state opinions or suggest platitudes.
- 3) Make sure you are using the correct language. Make sure that any term that is pivotal to your argument is defined.
- 4) Don't fall into the Ad Hominem Trap. Simply because Martin Heidegger was a Nazi does not mean that his argument against Cartesian Dualism is invalid. It is the argument with which we are concerned.
- 5) Don't use hateful language. Use creed-neutral, race-neutral, and gender-neutral language, otherwise your reader may be offended.
- 6) Exclude irrelevant facts. Resist the need to give background on the philosopher, the historical setting, or other facts that don't matter to the argument. Of course, if these facts do matter, discuss them.
- 7) Don't write too much or too little.

Writing Strong Arguments

- If you don't have an argument, literary style won't save your essay.
- If the issue is vague, use definitions or rewrite the issue in order to present a precise claim to deliberate.
- Don't make a clear issue vague by appealing to some common but meaningless phrase, such as "This is a free country."
- Beware of questions used as claims. The reader may not answer them the way you do.
- Your premises must be highly plausible, and there must be glue, something that connects the premises to the conclusion. Your argument must be impervious to the questions "So?" and "Why?"
- Don't claim any more than you can actually prove.
- There is often a trade-off: You can make your argument strong, but perhaps only at the expense of a rather dubious premise. Or you can make your premises clearly true, but leave out the dubious premise that is needed to make the argument strong. Given the choice, opt for making the argument strong. If it's weak, no one should accept the conclusion. And if it's weak because of an unstated premise, it's better to have that premise stated explicitly so it can be the object of debate.
- Your reader should be able to follow how your argument is put together. Indicator words are essential.
- Your argument won't get any better by depending on "I believe that" or "I feel that" statements. Your reader probably won't care about your feelings, and they won't establish the truth of your conclusion.
- Your argument should be able to withstand the obvious counterarguments. It's wise to consider them in your essay.
- For some issues, the best argument may be one which concludes that we should suspend judgment.
- Slanters turn off those you might want to convince; fallacies just convince the careful reader that you're dumb or devious.
- If you can't spell, or if you can't write complete sentences, or if you leave words out, then you can't convince anyone. All the reader's effort will be spent trying to decipher what you intended to say.

Adapted from Epstein (2006)

Tips on the Structure of a Philosophical Essay

A Simple Example

- I. State the proposition to be proved.
- II. Give the argument for that proposition.
- III. Show that the argument is valid.
- IV. Show that the premises are true.
- V. State the upshot of what has been proven.

Martinich (1996: 23)

I: Provide a thesis statement [Cf. thesis statement handout...], with a brief history of where that thesis comes from, and a road map for the rest of the paper.

II: Spell out the argument in standard form. [Cf. Handout on Standard Form]

III: Illustrate how the argument is valid by showing that if the premises are true then the conclusion must be true. There is no interpretation of the premises as true under which there is an interpretation of the conclusion as false.

IV: Provide arguments and evidence for your premises. Consider objections to each premise and present replies.

V: There are a few options for a conclusion: (1) state what you have done; (2) explain the implication for other areas of philosophy; (3) admit what you haven't done, but weren't committed to doing; (4) gesture at why your results are important.

What Are the Characteristics of Philosophical Diction?

Diction refers to the kinds of words and expressions you choose to use in your communication. The choice is usually based on context, and we all have the ability to express what we mean using a different diction (colloquial, formal, intimate, etc.) depending on the situation and audience.

In scholarly (or academic or professional) diction, the goal is to convey information and ideas clearly and precisely using the vocabulary and basic concepts that are particular to your field. In scholarly writing you are writing for other scholars, people who, it can be assumed, share your professional training but not necessarily your cultural background or personal temperament.

Therefore scholarly diction should:

—Be as precise as necessary. This may require a specialized vocabulary.

- “Most people” is vague; “a majority of American undergraduates” is more specific. “In society today” is not precise enough to be useful. What society? Where?
- Specialized terms such as “socioeconomic” or “stratification” can be usefully succinct.
- Sometimes you need broader terms to be accurate. For example, instead of “salary” you might use “compensation” if you want to include health benefits, bonuses, etc.

—Be as simple and clear as possible. Don’t use a word that “sounds good” if the meaning isn’t absolutely clear (to you and to your reader.) Use your dictionary.

- Don’t use “elevated” language (“thus,” “heretofore,” “indubitably”) for its own sake.
- Watch for phrases that muddy your style and may be unnecessary. “As such,” “generally speaking,” “of course,” or “more or less” are a few examples.

—Avoid colloquialisms (slang), clichés, and expressions or metaphors that might be common in ordinary speech but that add nothing to your meaning. It shouldn’t normally be necessary to use “you” or “I”.

- “Children” instead of “kids,” for example. “Alcohol” instead of “booze.”
- “When all is said and done,” “nowadays,” “all over the place,” etc. are inappropriate.

—Express your opinion, but not your prejudices. Make your point with facts and arguments, not with emotional appeals.

- For example, if you think SUV drivers are obnoxious, your paper about suburbanization is not the place to mention it.

- Avoid expressions of your personal reactions (“Wow!” and “Yuck”).
- “I believe...” is usually inappropriate: You are asserting theories, not beliefs.

—Never talk down to your reader. Don’t over-explain things that will be obvious to someone in your field, and don’t over-generalize.

- A statement like “Winter is the coldest season” is out of place in an academic paper, as is “New Yorkers hate winter.”
- Your sentence structure and organization should also reflect the sophistication of your thought. Use a variety of complex and compound sentences.

—Most importantly, remember to take these as guidelines, not rigid rules, and use your own judgment about what works and what doesn’t.

Polishing a Philosophical Essay

Simple ways to improve your essay:

1. Try to find an active, vigorous verb to replace a phrase consisting of some form of “to be” and a noun phrase, especially an abstract noun: “My argument will be...” becomes “I will argue that...”
2. Change passive constructions into active ones: “The existence of universals was proven by Plato.” becomes “Plato proved the existence of universals.”
3. Transform prepositional phrases with abstract nouns into clauses: “The reconstruction of Kant’s argument is difficult.” becomes “Reconstructing Kant’s argument is difficult.”
4. Use participial phrases to subordinate a thought expressed in a main clause: “Aristotle tried to devise a more naturalistic theory of universals. He came up with his theory of immanent universals.” becomes “In trying to devise a more naturalistic theory of universals, Aristotle came up with his theory of immanent universals.”
5. Avoid needless or uninformative clarification: “Plato’s position is not really contradictory.” becomes “Plato’s position is not contradictory.”
6. Reduce complex phrases: “Russell makes use of this construction.” becomes “Russell uses this construction.”
7. Make the antecedents of pronouns clear. Consider this fragment: “Aristotle struggled long and hard to devise a more naturalistic view of Plato’s theory of universals.” This is the topic of this essay” becomes “Aristotle struggled long and hard to devise a more naturalistic view of Plato’s theory of universals. This struggle is the topic of this essay.”
8. Replace a phrase with one word that means the same thing: “The word *substance* had two meanings.” becomes “The word *substance* is ambiguous.”

From Martinich (1996: 79-80)

A Rubric from Peter Vranas**RUBRIC FOR ARGUMENTATIVE PHILOSOPHY PAPERS**

This rubric is for philosophy papers that are supposed to give an original, in-depth defense of a single, narrow thesis. Underlined terms are explained in the notes at the end.

| EVALUATION DIMENSIONS | ACHIEVEMENT LEVELS | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| | UNACCEPTABLE | AVERAGE | PROFICIENT |
| 1. Organization | a. There is no title or there is a title that does not make clear the topic of the paper (e.g., "Legal murder," when the topic is the death penalty). b. The thesis of the paper is not announced in the introductory paragraphs (i.e., there is no sentence like "I will argue that ..."). c. The paper follows no coherent plan: it reads like a hodgepodge of ideas. The <u>reader</u> ² wonders how the pieces relate to each other. | a. There is a title that makes clear the topic but not the thesis of the paper (e.g., "The death penalty"). b. The thesis of the paper is announced (e.g., by "I will argue that ...") but is formulated unclearly or vaguely in the introductory paragraphs. c. The paper follows a coherent plan, but the plan could be significantly improved by rearranging certain pieces. | a. There is a title that makes clear the thesis (and thus also the topic) of the paper (e.g., "Against the death penalty"). b. The thesis of the paper is announced (e.g., by "I will argue that ...") and is formulated clearly and precisely in the introductory paragraphs. c. The paper follows a coherent plan with every piece in a proper place. The reader easily sees how the pieces relate to each other. |
| 2. Reasoning | a. The <u>argument</u> ³ contains a fallacy, either a <i>formal</i> one (e.g., "A entails B; so, B entails A") or an <i>informal</i> one (e.g., "everyone accepts A; so, A is true"). b. The conclusion of | a. The argument contains no (formal or informal) fallacy but is <i>inductively weak</i> (i.e., its premises do not make its conclusion probable, let alone certain). b. The conclusion of the | a. The argument is either <i>deductively valid</i> (i.e., its premises make its conclusion certain) or <i>inductively strong</i> (i.e., its premises make its conclusion probable but not |

² "The reader" is shorthand for "a typical professional philosopher possibly unfamiliar with your sources."

³ "The argument" is shorthand for "the specific argument being evaluated (graded)." (On the dimensions of Reasoning and Justification, *each* argument in the paper—i.e., Argument for the thesis, Objection 1, Reply 1, etc.—will be evaluated *separately*. On the remaining dimensions—i.e., Organization, Originality, etc.—the paper will be evaluated *as a whole*.)

| | | | |
|------------------|--|--|---|
| | <p>the argument is irrelevant to the goal of the argument. (E.g., the argument is advertised as an objection to X, but the conclusion, rather than being that there is a problem with X, is that there is a problem with Y.)</p> <p>c. At least one premise is <i>irrelevant</i> to the conclusion (and is thus <i>redundant</i>: it can be removed without affecting the strength of the argument).</p> | <p>argument is only marginally relevant to the goal of the argument. (E.g., the argument is advertised as an objection to X, but the conclusion is that there is only a trivial problem with X.)</p> <p>c. No premise is irrelevant but some premise is redundant. (E.g., "<i>B</i> entails <i>C</i>" is relevant to <i>C</i> but is redundant given <i>A</i> and "<i>A</i> entails <i>C</i>.")</p> | <p>certain).</p> <p>b. The conclusion of the argument is highly relevant to the goal of the argument. (E.g., the argument is advertised as an objection to X, and the conclusion is that there is a serious problem with X.)</p> <p>c. No premise of the argument is redundant (and thus no premise is irrelevant to the conclusion of the argument).</p> |
| 3. Justification | <p>a. The premises of the argument contain major or multiple factual mistakes.</p> <p>b. At least one controversial premise is not supported at all (i.e., it is just stated). ("I feel that ..." does not count as support.)</p> <p>c. The formulation of the argument contains disrespectful (e.g., ridiculing, offensive, or biased) language.</p> <p>d. The reader wonders whether the source of some ideas is you or someone else. (It is <i>plagiarism</i> to present ideas—let alone formulations—that you got from others as if they were your own.)</p> | <p>a. The premises of the argument contain a few minor factual mistakes.</p> <p>b. At least one controversial premise is supported only weakly (e.g., by referring to a single study).</p> <p>c. The argument is respectfully formulated but violates the Principle of Charity (i.e., it gives an unsympathetic reading of others' views).</p> <p>d. The paper makes clear who the source of each idea is but some references are incomplete (e.g., a reference to a journal article includes no page number).</p> | <p>a. The premises of the argument contain no factual mistake.</p> <p>b. Every controversial premise is strongly supported (e.g., by means of a further argument or extensive references).</p> <p>c. The argument is respectfully formulated and conforms to the Principle of Charity (i.e., it gives a sympathetic reading of others' views).</p> <p>d. The paper makes clear who the source of each idea is and gives complete references (including, for a journal article: authors, title, journal, volume, year, and pages).</p> |
| 4. Originality | a. The thesis of the | a. The thesis of the | a. The thesis of the |

| | <p>paper is the same as one of the views discussed in your sources.⁴</p> <p>b. Every argument for the thesis is the same as one of the arguments formulated in your sources.</p> <p>c. Most objections, replies, etc. are from your sources.</p> | <p>paper is a minor variation of one of the views discussed in your sources.</p> <p>b. Every argument for the thesis is a minor variation of one of the arguments formulated in your sources.</p> <p>c. Most objections, replies, etc. are minor variations of those formulated in your sources.</p> | <p>paper differs significantly from every view discussed in your sources.</p> <p>b. At least one argument for the thesis differs significantly from every argument formulated in your sources.</p> <p>c. Most objections, replies, etc. differ significantly from those formulated in your sources.</p> |
|-----------------------|--|--|---|
| EVALUATION DIMENSIONS | ACHIEVEMENT LEVELS | | |
| | UNACCEPTABLE | AVERAGE | PROFICIENT |
| 5. Clarity | <p>a. Even a reader familiar with your sources often wonders what you are trying to say.</p> <p>b. Several moves in the argumentation are not introduced by <i>transitional phrases</i> (like "One might object to the first premise ...", "I reply that ...", "My second reply to the first objection is ...").</p> <p>c. There are many (i) excessively long sentences or paragraphs, (ii) undefined obscure terms, or (iii) cases in which first you say something unintelligible and then explain what</p> | <p>a. Only a reader familiar with your sources almost never wonders what you are trying to say.</p> <p>b. Transitional phrases are almost always present but are sometimes <i>inadequate</i>; i.e., they do not make clear <i>who</i> is making a move (you or an opponent) or <i>to what</i> the move responds (e.g., to the first or second premise of an argument).</p> <p>c. There are a few (i) excessively long sentences or paragraphs, (ii) undefined obscure terms, or (iii) cases in which first you say something</p> | <p>a. Even a reader unfamiliar with your sources almost never wonders what you are trying to say.</p> <p>b. Almost every move in the argumentation is introduced by a transitional phrase that makes clear both <i>who</i> is making the move (you or an opponent) and <i>to what</i> exactly the move responds.</p> <p>c. There are almost no (i) excessively long sentences or paragraphs, (ii) undefined obscure terms, or (iii) cases in which first you say something unintelligible and then explain.</p> |

⁴ "In your sources" is shorthand for "in class, in the required readings, or in any extra readings that you did or discussions that you had."

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|
| | you meant. | unintelligible and then explain what you meant. | |
| 6. Conciseness ⁵ | <p>a. The paper is highly repetitive: it makes the same points again and again.</p> <p>b. Many sentences are wordy: the reader finds the writing long-winded.</p> <p>c. There are lengthy or multiple digressions (i.e., passages that can be removed without affecting the argumentation).</p> | <p>a. The paper is slightly repetitive: it makes a few points more than once.</p> <p>b. A few sentences are wordy: their points can be made in significantly fewer words.</p> <p>c. There are a few short digressions (i.e., passages that can be removed without affecting the argumentation).</p> | <p>a. The paper avoids unnecessary repetition: it develops each point only once.</p> <p>b. Almost no sentence is wordy: the reader finds the writing compact.</p> <p>c. There are almost no digressions: almost every sentence contributes to the argumentation.</p> |
| 7A. Precision | <p>a. The reader gets the impression that the writing is sloppy, that you wrote the paper in a hurry or in a single draft.</p> <p>b. The reader can often misinterpret you; your formulations are highly ambiguous (i.e., open to multiple interpretations).</p> <p>c. Your formulations are often highly inexact: what you say is clearly incorrect (e.g., you make category mistakes like saying "this is a false argument").</p> | <p>a. The reader gets the impression that the writing is in general careful but would have considerably improved if you had gone over more drafts.</p> <p>b. The reader can sometimes misinterpret you; your formulations are slightly ambiguous (i.e., open to a couple of interpretations).</p> <p>c. Your formulations are sometimes slightly inexact: what you say is <i>strictly speaking</i> incorrect (e.g., because you use extreme or immodest expressions like "always" or "I will prove").</p> | <p>a. The reader gets the impression that you have carefully thought about almost every single word in the paper, going over multiple drafts.</p> <p>b. The reader can seldom misinterpret you; your formulations are unambiguous (i.e., open to only one interpretation).</p> <p>c. Your formulations are almost always exact: what you say <i>can</i> be even strictly speaking correct (although it <i>might</i> still be incorrect; e.g., some justified beliefs are false).</p> |
| 7B. Language | a. The style is | a. The style is scholarly | a. The style is scholarly |

⁵ Conciseness will be automatically considered unacceptable if you give (on the "Instruction sheet for turning in papers") a word count for the paper—including notes and references—which exceeds the allowable word limit (specified on the "Course information" sheet) or if you give no word count at all.

| | | | |
|--|---|---|--|
| | <p>inappropriate for a scholarly paper: it is too colloquial, too impassioned, too flowery, or too impressionistic.</p> <p>b. There are so many grammatical, syntactic, spelling, or punctuation mistakes that the reader is distracted and has difficulty focusing on the argumentation.</p> | <p>(in general sober and factual) but the paper is dry as a result: the reader feels bored.</p> <p>b. There are some grammatical, syntactic, spelling, or punctuation mistakes, but not so many as to be distracting.</p> | <p>(in general sober and factual) but the paper is still lively: the reader feels interested.</p> <p>b. There are almost no grammatical, syntactic, spelling, or punctuation mistakes.</p> |
|--|---|---|--|

Philosophy Assignment Examples

From Bean's *Engaging Ideas*:

1. Choose a question that Plato answers in one way and Aristotle answers in a different way (for example, "How do we explain how things change?" or "What is the relation between a universals and particulars?"). Then in the first part of your paper, explain to your reader the differences in these two theories. In the second part of your paper, evaluate the two positions, arguing that one position is stronger than the other. In this section, specifically answer the following questions: What does one theory explain well that the other cannot explain adequately? What other credible concepts or theories support this theory or are supported by this theory? What phenomena can be captured by the chosen theory that the other theory cannot capture?
[This assignment could be adapted for many different historical examples of disagreement between philosophers. A few spring to mind: Plato and Aristotle on the soul; Locke and Berkeley on perceptual experience; Hume and Kant on causation; Descartes and Spinoza on substance; Leibniz and Clarke on space and time...]
2. In a two- to three-page reflection essay, consider the following quote from Aristotle (*Nicomachean Ethics* II.2) with respect to your own life: "(We are inquiring not in order to know what excellence is, but in order to become good, for otherwise our inquiry would have been of no use), we must examine the nature of actions, namely how we ought to do them." Are you studying and inquiring in order to become good? In the first section of your paper, explain what you think Aristotle is saying by relating the passage to your reading of the *Nicomachean Ethics* passage in your textbook. In the second section of your paper, explore your reasons for studying and inquiring in your university experience. In the third section of your paper, consider whether you agree or disagree with Aristotle.
3. An assignment that might be used to "bracket" a core or intro-level course: "What is a philosophical question that bothers you? Detail the question that you simply cannot get an answer to, that no matter who you ask, you are just not satisfied with the answer. Then, write a short one-page answer to that question, providing reasons and evidence for your answer." This is handed in during the first week of class and may be assigned in-class or as a take-home assignment. In the last weeks of class, have students return to their questions/answers and give students the opportunity to reflect on changes in their thinking as a result of the course.
4. The following is an in-class group activity that may inspire students to read the texts. As a group, propose a list of significant questions you would like the teacher or students to discuss in class regarding any (reasonably contained) text X [e.g., Plato's *Apology*, one of Descartes' meditations, Plato's *Symposium*,

Hume's passage "On Miracles," Nagel's "Bat paper," etc....] Each student's initial list should include ten questions (which will be handed in to the instructor). As a group, come to a consensus about what are the three best questions. Choose a leader/recorder to write the three questions on the board and explain why your group considers those questions relevant, interesting or significant. And, then begin addressing the questions in group discussion.

From Martinich's *Philosophical Writing*

1. For either a logic course, metaphysics course, or philosophy of mind course: "Given the following definitions, are subjectivity and objectivity contraries or contradictories?

x is subjective IF there is only one person who can experience x;
x is objective IF the properties of x can be determined by more than one person."

In the first part of your paper, define "contrary" and "contradictory," and propose your thesis. Make sure to explain why the definitions of subjective/objective and contrary/contradictory matter for your thesis. In the second part of your paper, provide an argument for your thesis providing examples of subjective properties and objective properties.

2. This assignment could be adapted in a variety of contexts, but it is explained in the context of the Gettier problem. "Often famous counterexamples are more complicated than they need to be. Write an essay that simplifies or includes a simplification of such a counterexample. [Have the student select the counterexample or select it for the student.] Explain the purpose of the original counterexample, try to construct a simpler counterexample with the same effect, and explain why your counterexample achieves that purpose.
3. You might assign students the task of rewriting a paragraph or short one-page essay on a topic they are studying. This enables students the opportunity to try to rewrite something they haven't written initially, which will improve their writing, while improving understanding of course content.

From Zinsser's *Writing to Learn*

Present the students with an example of a phenomenon and have them figure out what theory that they have studied in class applies to it. (Example: In a Philosophy of Mind class, students might be shown a video of a blindsight patient and asked to evaluate it in terms of the accounts of consciousness they had read.)

For any course: Have students create multiple choice tests over the reading. These can just be handed in to the professor, or selections from them could actually be given as a test.

Student letters: After reading the assignments, but before the class discussion, students pair up and write each other an informal 200-word letter expressing questions, confusions, etc. about the reading. After the reading has been discussed in class, they each respond with a typed, 500-word response attempting to answer—or at least intelligently speculate on—the questions posed in their partner's first letter. (Students will participate more actively in class discussion because they will want to elicit answers to their partner's questions.)

"Briefing papers" to be assigned in place of standard compare/contrast papers: Have students interpret a specific situation from two scholars' perspectives then evaluate the implications of the different perspectives in a concrete way. For example, in a Sociology course, they could use their interpretations of the two perspectives to formulate a sample social policy.

§6: Types of Papers/Essays

Schedule for Research Paper

This table identifies the major activities involved in performing a philosophy research project. Following the process will enable you to develop and produce a research paper. If you perform each exercise separately, in the order listed, and in the dates required, you will end up with a good finished product. Throughout the process, you should consult with your instructor about any issues you are having.

| ACTIVITIES IN MY RESEARCH PAPER | DATE |
|---|--------------|
| Do background reading. | 9/22 |
| Choose a topic and/research question. | 9/24 |
| Develop a thesis that is truth-evaluable. | 9/29 |
| Decide on the purpose of the research paper: to inform; to report original work; to argue; to outline a debate; etc. | 10/1 |
| Consult reference works on the topic (encyclopedias, dictionaries, companions of philosophy); list key words relevant to the topic for searching. | 9/22 - 10/6 |
| Compile a working bibliography: a list of reference works, books, articles, reviews, websites, etc. that relate to the topic. | 10/8 |
| Locate the items in the working bibliography: check out books from the library; order books through interlibrary; print online materials and copy articles; create folders and areas for storage. | 10/10 |
| Take notes on all readings. | 10/1 – 10/11 |
| Where relevant, email philosophers, professor, or other students that might help with research, answering any unanswered questions. | 10/11 |
| Free-write on the topic in a logbook throughout reading and correspondence, noting discoveries, unanswered questions, concerns, or meta-dialogue about the topic. | 10/1-10/13 |
| Review compiled material often and organize articles, notes, interviews, emails, and free-writing into sub-topics. | 10/1 - 10/15 |
| Outline or plan the organization of the paper. | 10/17 |
| Write a first draft, after which ask if all the research has been done. | 10/20 |
| Revise draft for organization, development of ideas, and use of primary and secondary sources. Are all of the players in this discussion present? | 10/22 |
| Revise draft for transitions between sections, paragraphs, sentences, and ideas. Have I said that anything follows which doesn't? | 10/27 |
| Revise draft for citations or footnotes to avoid plagiarism. | 10/29 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| Edit paper for correctness of grammar, punctuation, and language usage. | 11/3 |
| Revise bibliography and works cited page to ensure there is a consistent format. | 11/5 |
| <i>DUE DATE</i> | 11/5-11/12 |

Research Paper Timetable

**“Life, however short, is made still shorter by waste of time.”
- *The Idler*, No. 91**

| Task | Due Date | Completed |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| Topic Approved | September 16 th | _____ |
| Prospectus & Working Thesis | September 27 th | _____ |
| Preliminary Bibliography | September 30 th | _____ |
| Revised Thesis & Working Outline | October 11 th | _____ |
| Research Notes | October 27 th | _____ |
| Revised Outline | November 2 nd | _____ |
| Introduction | November 8 th | _____ |
| Rough Draft | November 20 th | _____ |
| Works Cited Page | November 26 th | _____ |
| Complete Draft #2 | December 1 st | _____ |
| **Final Draft** | December 16 th | _____ |

Starting a Research Paper

Use the following format:

My paper topic is _____. I intend to argue

(or show) that _____, because

_____.

There may be many different varieties of philosophical essay, but here are some examples: (1) *the application essay* attempts to show that the writer understands a theory and can apply it to a particular case; (2) *the analysis essay* attempts to show that an argument is valid or invalid, sound or unsound, by focusing on the argument; (3) *the evaluation essay* attempts to agree or disagree with a theory, an argument, or a position on a topic; (4) *the synthesis essay* attempts to argue directly for a thesis (a positive or negative thesis) through entertaining the thesis, arguing for the thesis, detailing objections, and replying to objections.

Writing the Research Paper

1. Getting Started

- Read the assignment carefully and make sure you understand it.
- Make sure to leave enough time to do the work. Create a schedule of steps for yourself.
- If it is up to you to find a topic, try writing to generate ideas.
- If the assignment calls for original research, find other articles on the subject to determine what has already been done. Even a short essay can make an original and useful contribution.
- Narrow down your idea until it is specific enough to be interesting and manageable.
- Having a very clear question in mind will help you organize your research. Write it down.

2. Gathering Information and Thoughts

- Start by searching the library, online databases, and the Internet for relevant sources.
- Make sure your sources are appropriate and reliable. If in doubt, ask your professor.
- When you find a good source, check the bibliography for other leads.
- You should read widely on the subject, but good research also involves knowing what not to read. Concentrate on those sources that are the most relevant and useful.
- Keep a working bibliography: record the details of every source you find.
- As you read, write down quotations or paraphrase ideas from the source. Highlighting relevant portions on copies of articles might also be useful. Be sure to cite the sources you use properly, even in your notes, as this will save work later.
- You will probably have ideas of your own while you read – be sure to write those down too.
- It helps to write a short summary of the valuable information in each source.
- If applicable, keep careful records of the data from experiments and surveys.

3. Organizing Your Ideas

- Writing a review of the existing research will help clarify your understanding of the topic.
- As your research progresses, you may realize that your original idea needs to be altered.
- Formulate a tentative thesis once you have considered all aspects of the problem.
- Try writing a list of all the sub-topics you will have to address.
- Try making an outline that arranges the sub-topics in a logical pattern.
- Be open to revising your thesis and your organization throughout the process.

4. Writing a Draft

- Begin with the idea that intrigues you most or whatever motivates you to begin.
- Chances are your paper will start small, then gradually expand as you add evidence and quotations, and then finally shrink a bit in the editing process.
- Evaluate your argument as you go to be sure it makes sense.
- Make sure that each paragraph has a main point, that each point follows logically from what came before, and that they are linked by effective transitions.
- Ask yourself if each point is supported by evidence. Add material from your notes as necessary.
- You may find that you are missing important information, so further research may be required.
- Keep a working bibliography as you write.

5. Revising

- Once you have a complete draft, set it aside for a bit and then re-read it objectively. It may also help to have someone else read it or to talk through the ideas with someone.
- You will most likely want to rearrange some of your ideas or add new ones.
- Once satisfied with your argument, you can focus on editing: remove unnecessary asides and explanations and make your writing concise and readable. Vary your word choice and sentence structure. Use a thesaurus and dictionary.
- Watch for unprofessional diction.
- Double-check the accuracy of your citations and make sure that they adhere to the standard for the discipline (footnotes, or parenthetical citation).
- The final step will be to print out your paper and proofread it carefully.

Compare and Contrast Essays

The compare and contrast essay is one of the more common forms of college-level assignments. As the title implies, it involves comparing similar aspects of two different things on one hand, while also contrasting them on the other.

Often, the most difficult aspect of any essay is simply getting started. In this sense, the best place to begin with an introductory paragraph. The content of this paragraph should be relatively straightforward. For example, regardless of the topic, the three things below will be included:

1. A statement mentioning that two things are to be compared and contrasted.
2. A few brief details as to what these things are (i.e. Rationalism vs. Empiricism, Substance Metaphysics vs. Function Metaphysics, etc.).
3. A sentence or two that ties everything together. For example, "While a substance metaphysics focuses on the underlying stuff of reality, a function metaphysics focuses on the relations between things, but each attempts to determine their nature."

Once your introduction is complete, the direction of the next two paragraphs is clear. One will involve comparison, the other contrast. In each case, these paragraphs offer the chance to prove your argument using relevant details or textual evidence. For instance, in the comparison paragraph, you could describe any similarities between a substance metaphysics and a function metaphysics. If the topic is a compare and contrast of rationalists and empiricists, you could write about parallels in treatment of the problem of the external world. In the contrast paragraph, you will then take the opposite view, emphasizing the differences between your two metaphysics or attitudes towards knowledge.

Your final paragraph will be a conclusion. This represents your last opportunity to influence the reader's thinking. Here, what you want to do is to restate the main theme from your introduction while also repeating any details of particular importance you may have mentioned in the body of your essay.

Of course, when writing a compare and contrast essay, it is always a good idea to consult with your professor. Getting an early start and sending a draft before the deadline can be enormously helpful, especially as it can let you know for sure whether you are on the right track.

How to Write Essay Exams

Writing essay exams is challenging mostly because of the time pressure. When writing an essay during an in-class examination, you have to follow the standard guidelines for writing good essays, while using effectively the limited amount of time that you have available. Here are some tips that should help you to accomplish this.

Budgeting your time:

- First of all, *plan how you will use your time*. You will have to take some time to:
 1. Read carefully the essay question;
 2. Plan your answer;
 3. And write your answer.
- Rushing into writing the answer without taking the necessary time to understand what is asked, or without any previous planning of what to write, may be harmful rather than helpful.
- On the other hand, if you take too much time just planning you may run out of time to complete writing your essay.
- Use your time *smartly* and stay aware of your time constraints throughout the process.

Reading the Question:

- *Read your essay question carefully*. Make sure you understand exactly what is being asked and highlight or underline *key words* that you should address in your answer.
- Identify each of the parts of the essay question before planning and writing your essay.
- Essay questions sometimes have *several parts*. Not answering all of these parts will likely make you lose points.

Planning Your Answer:

- Plan your answer on scratch paper.
- Stay focused on answering precisely the question you have been given. Don't waste time and space on anything that doesn't go straight to the point. You are not going to get extra points just for writing unnecessary words or for filling in the space.
- Address *all* the key words and cover *all* parts of the question.
- *Prove* what you are saying. Make a special effort to *support* your claims with evidence, examples, facts, etc.

Form Guide for a Literature Review

A. The Introduction

1. Defines and identifies your topic.
2. Gives an overview of the state of research on the topic.
3. Establishes your reason for reviewing the literature.
4. Explains the criteria used in analyzing and comparing literature.
N.B. You may wish to write the introduction last after you have written the body of your paper.

B. The Body of the Review

1. Groups research studies (articles) into clusters or subtopics.
N.B. Each cluster will likely comprise one paragraph. Arrange them in a logical order: by the publication date, importance, subtopic, etc.
2. Summarizes the main findings or arguments of each article.
3. Places each article in the context of the field as a whole.
3. Points out trends in what has been published about your topic.
4. Identifies conflicts or gaps in the research.

Questions to ask yourself about each article or source:

- In what context did this appear?
- What are the main ideas?
- What is the focus?
- Who is the author?
- Is the article convincing?
- Is the article current?
- What does the article attempt to do?
- Is the argument sound?
- How is this article an
- Does the article inform, debate, propose?
- What strategies does it use?
- Are there any biases that you detect?

Words and phrase and phrases you might use in relating arguments to one another:

on one hand
on the other hand
contrary to
in line with
parallel to
related to
linked to
responds to
elaborates
undermines
explores/investigates
new territory
contributes to the
research on
enters the debate
re-emphasizes the
categories

in agreement with
in opposition to
in confirmation of
in response to
in reaction against
in contrast to
influenced by
rejects
confuses
reinforces
a similar
focus/approach/tone
a slightly different
focus/approach/tone
a broader scope
a narrower scope

more specific/more
general
in the same vein
in a different sphere
adapts
goes beyond
misses
misinterprets
supports
criticizes
revisits the same subject
revolutionizes the field
of
bypasses the debate
breaks out of the
paradigm

The Research Paper: Some Things to Consider

1. The Topic

- How much choice will you give your students in finding a topic?
- Will all students write on the same topic? Will all students use the same materials?
- Is the assignment practical given the class level and the timeframe?
- Could the essay easily be recycled? How will you guard against plagiarism?
- Are you giving your students a topic or a problem/question?
- What will motivate your students in responding to the assignment?

2. The Context

- What role do you want students to assume for this project? Do you want them to...
 - a. present a synthesis of current research on a subject?
 - b. answer a question or solve a problem with original analysis?
 - c. design and conduct an experiment or study and report the results?
 - d. evaluate a controversy and declare their own position?
 - e. persuade others to adopt their position in a controversy?
 - f. conduct a meta-analysis of the research methods in a certain field?

3. The Assignment

- Will you give your students a written version of the assignment?
- Does it include all the necessary information, including due dates, length, format, bibliographic style guidelines, suggested resources, general expectations, etc.?
- Are you sure your students understand all of the terms that you have used?
- Is the assignment carefully revised and edited? Have you considered having a colleague look it over?
- Will you set aside time in class to present and discuss the assignment with your students?

4. The Stages

- Will you set up a series of deadlines for various stages or drafts of the paper?
- Will you spend time in class explaining each of the steps?
- Will you have a chance to evaluate the process as well as the product for each student?
- For example, will each student pass in a working bibliography, summaries, or notes?

5. The Research Process

- What skills will your students need in order to conduct the research?

- Would it be helpful to visit the library with your class to practice finding sources?
- Will you explain to your students what should be considered a reliable source?
- Do your students need help in learning how to take notes?
- Are your students familiar with the citation style you expect before their note-taking begins?
- Do your students know how to collect, analyze/interpret, and present data?

6. The Community

- Do your students have access to appropriate models to emulate, such as exemplary professional articles?
- Have your students had sufficient practice with the stylistic conventions of your discipline? For example, would it help to spend time on professional diction?
- Would your students benefit from peer review of their thesis statements, outlines, or drafts?
- Do your students know what writing help is available to them if they need it?

7. The Feedback

- How much feedback will you give your students?
- Will you use minimal marking techniques?
- Will you allow your students to rewrite the paper after it has been graded?

§7: Using Writing to Read

How to Read Your Textbook

Most philosophy classes require reading from an anthology textbook. For those of you just starting out, the basics are as follows: it's going to be big, heavy, and expensive. You are also going to have to read most of it. This being the case, here are a few bits of advice.

1. In an ideal world, you would read every word on every page and marvel at the author's writing. More likely, you will be pressed for time. This would force you to try to understand as much information as possible in the shortest amount of time. There are proven ways to do this successfully.
2. The first step involves a careful reading of the first few sentences of each paragraph. This will give you a clear idea of that paragraph's main point. If you are short on time, you can scan the middle portion of the paragraph to quickly make sure it follows the same line of reasoning introduced in the first sentences.
3. When you reach the end of an excerpt, the author or authors will almost certainly review its main points. This being the case, it is wise to pay close attention to this section of the reading. In this way, you will be able to learn the main points and make sure you have not missed anything important in your previous reading.
4. While you are going through steps 1 through 3, it is also important to take notes. The concentration required to write things down will help you remember the main points later on. It is especially advisable to write down the page number of each main point. This enables you to go back to the main points later. Taking notes will also give you a study sheet that will come in handy before exams.
5. Lastly, don't be afraid to do things that work for you. If writing notes in the margin of your textbook helps, by all means do so. Some people prefer to use index cards. Others find highlighting to be helpful. Try different methods until you find something you are comfortable with that proves useful.

Using Writing to Read Difficult Texts

A Difficult Text:

“...Virtue is distinguished by the pleasure, and vice by the pain, that any action, sentiment or character gives us by the mere view and contemplation. This decision is very commodious; because it reduces us to this simple question, *Why any action or sentiment upon the general view or survey, gives a certain satisfaction or uneasiness*, in order to shew the origin of its moral rectitude or depravity, without looking for any incomprehensible relations and qualities, which never did exist in nature, nor even in our imagination, by any clear and distinct conception?” (David Hume *A Treatise of Human Nature* III.1.ii).

Ways to Improve Reading: Writing To Read

- Ask your instructor to provide information about the author, the audience, the occasion, the influences, and the author's purpose.
- Write in a notebook next to you: Don't merely copy what the text says, respond in your own words.
- Do not use a highlighter; instead, when you want to highlight, WRITE in the margins why you think that passage is important.
- Draw diagrams, flowcharts, maps, or outlines of the text.
- Play the game of believing and doubting: read a text and try to agree with everything the author says; then, the second time, read the same text and try to disagree with everything.
- Read with a dictionary close by, or if you do not have a dictionary, write 'dict.' in the margins, and look the word up later.
- Translate difficult texts into your own words.
- Read something with different amounts of engagement: first, skim, then read again with more concentration for detail.

For Students

Challenges Student Face with Reading

1. *Understanding the Reading Process.* Texts require various reading speeds and levels of concentration; most importantly, the number of times you need to read a text varies.
2. *Understanding Different Reading Strategies.* There are different purposes for reading, for example: to get the gist, to abstract the argument, to analyze meanings.
3. *Perceiving Structure.* There are different functions of different parts of texts, for example: conclusions, premises, rhetoric, examples, introductions.
4. *Assimilating the Unfamiliar.* Don't assume that writers are using words, allusions, or ideas that are familiar to you. Assume that you will need to become familiar with the unfamiliar.
5. *Appreciating Rhetorical Context.* Every text has a political, cultural, or literary context in which it was written.
6. *Cultural Literacy.* Writers come from all varieties of different cultures and do not always have the same background assumptions and references.
7. *Inadequate Vocabulary.* The vocabulary required differs with different texts. Students should use a dictionary to look up difficult words.
8. *Complex Syntax.* Often texts present difficult syntax.
9. *Differences between Disciplines.* There are various formal and stylistic differences between disciplines.

Some Techniques for Reading Philosophy

1. Give Yourself a Lot of Time: Philosophical writing is often dense and hard. It is not the type of writing that you can digest in little chunks. You might try to read an entire work, whether an article or chapter for understanding first, by first digging out the main point, while secondly reading the entire piece again more slowly, engaging in a more thorough analysis of the author's reasoning and evidence.
2. Use Any and All Study Aids: Some books come with study aids and some do not. But, even with those that do not, there are available study aids for reading philosophy:
 - Philosophical dictionaries and encyclopedias
 - Introductions or summaries of a topic
 - Tables of contents, glossaries, and the index, all of which help orient you in the work
 - Headings or emphasized passages
 - Introductory, summarizing, or concluding paragraphs
3. Read with the principle of charity in mind: When reading, assume that the author of the article or book is making arguments or claims that are largely valid and true. If you think that the arguments or claims are invalid or false, then make sure you FIRST understand what they are saying, and SECOND explain why you think their arguments are invalid/unsound and claims are false.
4. Read in the Best Environment: Reading philosophy requires attention and concentration. Try to find the environment that best enables you to keep focus while reading.
5. Read Actively: When you are reading enter into a dialogue with the author. Some tips:
 - Underline and highlight
 - Write in the margins of the essay
 - Use special marks for specific reasons, for instance, brackets for authors, single underline for important claims, squiggly underlines for confusing passages, numbers and letters for organizing passages, etc.
6. Stop Reading Occasionally to Summarize what You've Read: Keep a notebook handy for summarizing key passages of the article or book. Put it into your own words by thinking about how you would explain the article or chapter to a friend at a cafe. If you cannot summarize or paraphrase the passage in this way, you probably haven't understood it. Keep these notes for further writing.

7. **Spot the Conclusions:** Always be on the lookout for the main points or conclusions that the author is trying to get across. Ask yourself, "What's the point?" Then try to consider whether the point is well defended.
8. **Identify the Premises:** Figure out the author's reasons or evidence. Ask yourself whether the premises actually support the conclusion.
9. **Talk to Your Peers and Your Professor:** Ask your fellow students to hear a summary or paraphrase of an article or chapter they have read. Also, consult with your instructor about the material by email, during or after class, or in office hours. Philosophy instructors usually like to be asked what they think the main point, argument and premises are in the text.

§8: Informal Writing

Informal Writing

Suggested Activities for Writing to Learn

Journals

There are several ways to approach this low-stakes writing exercise that can help your students assimilate course content while practicing writing.

- **Open-Ended Journals/Learning Logs:** Ask students to write a certain number of pages per week about any aspect of the course. This leaves them free to write about the material in a number of ways. They can summarize lectures, explain why the textbook is difficult to understand, disagree with a point made by someone in class, raise questions about class discussions or reading material, apply some aspect of the course to a personal experience, or make connections between different strands of the course. The journal becomes a record of the student's intellectual journey.
- **Guided Journals:** Students respond to content-specific questions developed by the instructor. Students are asked to respond in writing to one or two questions designed by the instructor two or three times a week for fifteen minutes. This helps to get students engaged with the assigned readings or class discussions/lectures.
- **Semi-Structured Journals:** These journal assignments provide guidance in helping students think of things to write about. For example, some teachers ask students to begin each entry with an important idea that the students learned after the previous entry, either from class or from the readings. Or a teacher can ask students to respond to additional questions such as:
 - What confused you in today's class or today's readings?
 - How does your personal experience relate to what you studied today?
 - Many teachers develop a generic set of "writing probes" appropriate to their discipline. Examples for journaling for mathematical thinking:
 - What does the equation say in plain English?
 - Why are you stuck?
 - What information do you need to get unstuck?

**How do I correct all these journals?* You can collect a few at each session to make sure students are keeping up. Grade only for completion, not for grammar or content. Establish in your syllabus that students will be accountable for completing all the entries and will lose points for not doing so.

Dialectical Notebooks

This exercise requires students to reflect on course material and then reflect on their

own reflections. It operates on the premise that putting course material into one's own words enhances learning. **Instructions:** On the right-hand page of a standard spiral notebook, ask students to make copious lecture and reading notes. Then on the left-hand pages, ask students to create an interactive commentary on the material—posing questions, raising doubts, making connections, expressing confusion, and so forth. An in-class variation on this exercise is to have one student take copious notes on the top half of a page of one side of the journal and then have him/her pass it to a classmate for the interactive commentary on the lower half of the page. The second student will pass it to the next classmate, who uses the opposite page of the journal to engage with and respond to the commentary.

Free-Writing Prompts

One way to encourage students to engage more deeply with class material is to encourage exploratory writing through free-writing prompts in class. Some suggestions for in-class writing:

- Prompt students to write at the beginning of class with a question that reviews previous material or stimulates interest in what's coming. (*What questions do you want to ask about last night's readings?*) Use a question to prime the pump for the day's discussion: (*How does Plato's allegory of the cave make you look at knowledge in a new way?*)
- Write during class to refocus a lagging discussion or cool off a heated one.
- Write during class to ask questions or express confusion. If you are lecturing on tough material, stop for a few minutes and ask students either to summarize the lecture so far or to explain what is confusing to them at present.
- Ask students to write at the end of class to sum up a lecture or prepare questions for the beginning of the next period. (*What is the most significant thing you learned today? Or What question is uppermost in your mind at the conclusion of today's session?*)

**How do I avoid "correcting" all those free-writes?* You can collect a few at random each time and mark them with a simple check plus/minus system, or randomly collect all of them but only occasionally. Let students know on the syllabus they are accountable for completing all free-writes, and that they will be collected intermittently. Establish a grading rubric that will penalize students primarily for not doing the writing.

Bi-Weekly Emails

You can also establish a pattern of emails with your class to encourage exploratory writing. Pose a question to students via email and ask students to respond and make comments. To minimize "correcting" time, have half the class respond to you directly every other time.

Summary and Annotation

Another way to engage students with materials through writing is to ask them to write

summaries of texts they have written. This will also help them understand their reading process. A variation on this assignment is to ask students to write an annotation, which is not as comprehensive as a summary, but notes the key ideas, strengths, and weaknesses in the text. You might also ask students to write a synthesis paper, in which they remark on the similarities and discuss differences between two or more texts or articles. * *WAC Fellows can present a micro-lesson on synthesis.*

Instructions for Blogs (See Below)

Using Writing Technology

Suggestions for Incorporating Discussion Boards, Website Authoring, Blogs, and Wikipedia Editing in Your Course

What is Writing Technology?

Writing Technology is any technological tool that is used as an arena for student writing. This might involve something as simple as the editing tools available in word-processing programs such as Word or something as multifaceted as Wikipedia editing. Incorporating discussion boards, website authoring, blogging, and Wikipedia.com editing into your course enables students to both learn the skills required to master these writing platforms while simultaneously engaging course content. Given that many students already have the interest in using writing technology, it is beneficial to incorporate these tools into the classroom.

What are the benefits of Writing Technology?

For students, writing technology allows them the opportunity to write informally in a context in which some students already feel comfortable. Online discussion boards enable students the opportunity to mull over ideas that they may not have felt comfortable expressing during class time. Students may also discover they have a vested interest in authoring personal websites, which inspires them to find their original voices. Blogging offers a platform for interactive dialogue, where students can find their ideas challenged by others and also confront others about course content. Students that write as Wikipedia contributors get to publish on specialized subjects. They also have the opportunity to have their work critiqued and revised by editors, which enables them to see what was durable about their writing.

For faculty, writing technology provides a stage for engagement with course content beyond in-class discussion, assignments and paper preparation. Faculty may want to encourage students to become familiar with the track changes tools in Microsoft Word. Faculty may wish to inspire discussion on discussion boards or chat rooms by asking questions not raised in class or preparing for class discussion by encouraging discussion online. Faculty may make a course website that involves student writing which allows a repository for future sections. Faculty may monitor blogging posts from office or home and incorporate key discussions into class time. Faculty may hone in on strengths and weaknesses on each of these platforms without students feeling exposed to direct criticism. Sites like Wikipedia allow students without faculty input to explore and attempt to write something enduring on a subject they find interesting.

Writing Technology Platforms and Activities

Discussion boards: The college website offers Blackboard for courses through which discussions can be held. There are also several public websites that enable chat rooms for college classes.

Website Authoring: Every Brooklyn College professor has the opportunity to build a website and provide students with the opportunity to contribute to the course website.

Blogging: There are many websites that offer free blogging such as Blogger.com, Wordpress.com, and others.

Wikipedia Editing: Professors and students can research topics on Wikipedia, find underdeveloped and missing posts and begin editing in their disciplines.

Examples in Areas of Philosophy

Create an online debate forum about a topic on Blackboard. Encourage students to write weekly in the debate forum throughout the semester.

For instance: <http://forums.philosophyforums.com/>

For Students

Blogging

In this course, we will be writing on a weblog, or blog, about the content covered in the readings, in class lectures, or in other materials like websites and podcasts. There are two groups, A and B. The first group, group A, is made up of students with last names that start with A-M. The second group, group B, is made up of students with last names that start with N-Z.

On the weeks that you are not blogging, you are responsible for reading the other group's entries and responding, for which you will receive extra credit, and maybe cake or cookies.

The task ahead of you is to write a short entry of about 500 words that does any of the following: makes a point, summarizes a passage, presents an argument, highlights an important definition, makes an observation about something related to the philosophy of cognitive science.

Most importantly, it should arise out of the texts we're reading and the discussion in class.

Here are good examples of philosopher's blogs that you can use as a model:
the philosophers' carnival picks the best blog posts:

<http://philosophycarnival.blogspot.com/>

some others that have good writing about X:

[find good blogs in the subject...]

The point is to get your thoughts about whatever your reading into words in an INFORMAL setting. I don't care about grammar, punctuation, spelling, though you should try your very best. I want to see that you are engaging with the ideas in the text and in class, asking questions, presenting arguments, reasons and evidence, and interacting in a kind and friendly manner with your classmates. However, if someone has posted on a topic, then you cannot post on that same topic, but must choose a different one.

Here are step-by-step instructions for signing up as an author for our course blog.

1. Make sure that the professor has your correct email address. You will be invited to join the blog as an author through email.
2. Once the professor has sent you an email inviting you to join the blog, go to your email account and find the email. The email will say something like the following:
"The Blogger user 'professor' has invited you to contribute to the blog: INSERT

TITLE HERE. To contribute to this blog, visit:

<http://www.blogger.com/inviteIDXXX...> You'll need to sign in with a Google Account to confirm the invitation and start posting to this blog. If you don't have a Google Account yet, we'll show you how to get one in minutes. Click on the necessary links to open up a web browser and connect to blogger.com."

3. You will be brought to a page that says, "PROFESSOR has invited you to contribute to the blog INSERT BLOG NAME AND URL. To join this blog as an author, accept the invitation by signing in with your Google Account below. Don't have a Google Account? Create your account now."
4. To sign up to become an author on the blog, you will need to create an account. To create an account, go to Blogger.com and click on "create a Google account." If you already have a Google account, simply sign in. To create a Google account, you will need to sign in with an email address, either an address of your own "student@university.edu" or an email address that is supported by Google, for example, "student@gmail.com. You will also input a password, which you will use to access the site. You will also choose a display name that will appear in the list of authors and under each of your posts to the blog. PLEASE choose a name that your professor and fellow students will recognize as yours.
5. Once you have either signed into an already existing Google account or created a new account, you will be brought to the page to sign in again and accept the invitation to post on the blog as an author. Input your username (email) and password and click on "ACCEPT INVITATION."
6. To sign back into the course blog after you set up your account, go to <http://blogger.com>. Sign in with your username (email) and password in the upper right hand side. Once you sign in, you will be brought to a webpage called "Dashboard." This is where you will manage your blog. You can view and edit your profile, edit your photo, and change settings to your Google account. Also, under the heading "Manage Blogs," you will find your course blog. Here, you can create new posts, edit old posts, and view your blog. You can also use the "Reading List" tool to follow any other blogs that you find interesting.
7. To post to the blog click on "NEW POST" on the Dashboard page. From here, you can create a post by inserting a title and posting in the text box on the page. You may either save posts or publish posts. Saved posts can be found again by going to the Dashboard page and clicking "Edit Posts." When you successfully publish a post, Google will tell you, "Your Blog Post Published Successfully!" You can view your blog by Clicking "View Blog," if you don't trust them.
8. To comment on other students' posts click on "View Blog" and after reading a post, click on "comments." This will open up a page that says, "Post your comment." You can write a comment here and then click "PUBLISH YOUR COMMENT," although you may want to preview your comment first by clicking "PREVIEW."
9. You should follow the Blogger's Code of Ethics:
 - a. Be Honest and Fair: Never plagiarize. If you are discussing a lecture or text, make sure to represent the lecture or text as faithfully as possible, distinguishing between paraphrase and your own commentary or opinion.

- b. Be Considerate of Others: Make sure to consider whether your posts and comments are written with reasonable care and concern for others.
- c. Remain Accountable: If you post or comment, allow others to ask you to be accountable for the claims and arguments in your writing.

§6: Peer Review and Collaborative Learning Tasks

For Faculty

PEER REVIEW AND COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Questions to ask when planning a peer review session:

- What is the goal of the peer review session? The goal one chooses constrains one's answer to many of the questions below. Possible goals include:
 - Choosing or revising a topic for an upcoming essay.
 - Writing or revising a thesis statement.
 - Structuring an argument.
 - Evaluating evidence.
 - Organizing ideas that are present in a preliminary draft.
 - Transitioning between paragraphs.
 - Correcting a particular point of grammar, style, or diction.
 - Making sure that citations are in order.
- At what point(s) in the course would it be good to conduct a peer review session?

Peer review can be helpful at nearly every stage of a course. It is, however, particularly effective to have students review each other's written work prior to submitting a midterm or final paper. Other forms of collaborative learning can take place at any time.

- What written materials will the students be asked to prepare for peer review?

If the goal of the session is to have students evaluate each other's writing, they should be required (and reminded) to bring the relevant written materials to the session. Examples of manageable materials include essay introductions, short stories, bibliographies, and thesis statements.

- How much time should be devoted to this peer review session?

A peer review session lasts anywhere from twenty minutes to a full class session. The length of time depends heavily on the nature of the task and the amount of material students are asked to bring to the session. For instance, if the task is to determine whether an introductory paragraph contains a workable thesis statement, the session may be short. Other tasks may take longer to complete.

If you plan to devote only twenty minutes, make sure to work on a small, manageable task, and do everything on a tight, regulated schedule. If, on the other hand, you plan to devote a full class session, make sure you have enough tasks for the students to complete. (It's awkward if the students are done with the assigned tasks but cannot leave the classroom until the period is officially over.) In any event, it may be best to devise a strategy for transitioning from the peer review into a lecture or another activity.

- Will the students be required to hand in something that demonstrates what they accomplished during the session? If so, it is best to inform them about this, and to remind them at the end of the session.
- How many students should make up each group?

Peer review groups can have from two to five students. Groups larger than five are, by and large, ineffective.

- Should the groups be selected ahead of time, or “randomized”? Some considerations:
 - If students are already working in groups for other projects, then it may be good to keep the groups together, provided they are doing well.
 - Selecting groups allows the professor to make sure that people working on similar topics work together (or that they don’t, if that’s preferable).
 - Selecting groups also allows one to distribute the stronger students more effectively.
 - For all its advantages, selecting groups takes a lot of time and planning.
- What should one do with students who come in late, or who don’t have their work ready for peer review? (The students who come late are often the ones who don’t have their work.) Some possibilities:
 - Have an alternative task prepared for latecomers.
 - Have latecomers join a group and observe the interaction.

Having settled the questions above, the next step is to create a handout that contains instructions for the peer review. Peer review sessions work best when students have a copy of the instructions in front of them, and can refer to it at will.

During the Peer Review:

Divide the students into groups. If group membership is “randomized” rather than pre-determined, count the students off, giving each one a number. The count should correspond to the total number of groups. For instance, if you want to have four groups, assign each student the number one, two, three, or four. When this is done, have all of the ones go to some part of the room, all of the twos to another, and so on.

Distribute the handout that contains the instructions for the peer review. When all of the students have the handout, review the instructions, and answer any questions the students might have concerning the tasks.

During the session, some professors will prefer to walk around and eavesdrop. In some cases, one finds that students are not discussing the relevant material. It may be best, in such cases, to approach the group and ask them if they need help.

At the end of the session, collect whatever materials they were told would be collected.

If appropriate, tell the class they did a really great job, and thank them for participating.

Some literature on peer review:

1. Brooklyn College Writing Across the Curriculum, Peer Review Pamphlet.
2. Bean, John C. (2001). *Engaging Ideas*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco: CA, Ch. 9.
3. Bruffee, Kenneth A. (1999). *Collaborative Learning: Higher Education, Interdependence, and the Authority of Knowledge*, 2nd ed., Johns Hopkins University Press, Ch. 2.

Peer Review

Peer review produces clear and precise writing. It is a **productive exercise** for students and instructors. **For the student**, peer review suggests different perspectives and provides valuable feedback on what is successful and what requires more attention in a piece of writing. **For the instructor**, peer review is efficient: it permits readers other than the instructor to read and comment on written assignments. In order to cultivate the most benefit, peer review exercises should be used only when they result in genuine, substantial revisions.

PREPARATION: Instructors **MUST formulate** a plan for the implementation of peer review exercises in order to gain the efficiency and positive results that peer review exercises can provide. As with all assignments, instructors **MUST articulate** their expectations to the students. The peer reader should consider the same elements of writing that the instructor will use to evaluate a writing assignment and assign it a grade. Perhaps the most difficult element of implementing peer review exercises is **matching students** who shall work together. It is best to match students of similar ability in sets of two or three. This can be accomplished in a number of ways. For instance, ability can be gauged based on class participation or performance on past writing assignments that were not subject to peer review.

Instructors **MUST train** their students on how to evaluate writing: indicate which elements of writing to focus on as a peer reader, and how to frame comments. Peer review is most effective when students know what **questions** to ask and how to pose them graciously. Peer readers should focus on the **expression of ideas** and not on the technical aspects of writing, e.g., grammar. Instructors could create a list of questions that prompt peer reader **comments**. **First**, is the purpose or thesis (depending on the type of writing assignment) expressed with clarity? **Second**, does the writer demonstrate an understanding of the assignment and any readings associated with it?

Third, is the paper well organized? Can the reader follow the logic of the writer? All peer reader comments should be backed up with specific examples. The organization of these criteria might be placed in the form of a chart for increased clarity. The headings might read across: "CRITERIA," e.g., "main idea," or "organization"; "QUALITY" (strong, satisfactory, weak); "READER'S COMMENTS."

RESPONSE-CENTERED READING: The purpose of peer reading is not to give advice on writing; rather, it is to indicate where problems of communication and expression are located in a piece of writing.

STUDENT RESPONSIBILITY AND EVALUATION: Make students responsible: incorporate the comments that a student made for his partner into the grade for his own writing project. And make a student responsible for responding to the comments of his peer reviewer. For instance, a writer should indicate which comments were useful and why. And, perhaps more importantly, a writer should also indicate which comments he did not find useful, and why.

Peer Review Exercises

Peer Review #1

To be done in a group of three. Pass your paper to your left.

Step #1: Silently and attentively read through your partner's draft without making any marks on the paper.

Step #2: Reread the draft one paragraph at a time. **Underline the thesis statement**, and note whether or not it seems clear and complete. It should include: 1) the overall argument or topic of the paper, and 2) references to the evidence that will be used to support the argument.

Step #3: On a separate sheet of paper, note (in a couple of words) the **topic of each paragraph**. If a paragraph seems to cover more than one topic, list each one. If a topic appears in multiple paragraphs, list it separately each time.

Step #4: Indicate why you listed the topic(s) you did. If you thought there was more than one topic in a paragraph, write down what made you think so. Were there two sentences in the paragraph that seemed to be about very different things? If so, underline those sentences.

Step #5: Discuss any areas in the text where you were confused or where you think more support would be helpful to back up a general statement. Perhaps ask questions to prompt the author to provide the kinds of evidence you, as a reader, would like. (You may do this directly on your partner's paper or write your comments/questions on the back of the page.)

Step #6: Let your partner know if any quotes seemed clunky or too extensive. You may help her cut the quote to the essential point that she is trying to make. Also circle any glaring errors in style or grammar, just to notify your partner. Don't dwell on these too much, though, because this is a first draft.

Debatable statements: Your research paper is your particular and creative perspective on your primary or secondary text. It should contain a thesis statement, with paragraphs of evidence to back the statement up.

- ❖ List one debatable statement that your partner has made. (Remember: this doesn't mean that you have to choose a statement that you disagree with. You can choose a statement you are in complete agreement with, as long as it is a statement that someone *could* reasonably disagree with.)

- ❖ List two different pieces of evidence that your partner has listed. Are they convincing?
- ❖ Now, list every argument you can think of for the opposite viewpoint. What questions would an opponent of this viewpoint ask? What arguments might he make?

Peer Review #2

Step #1: Exchange papers with your partner. Silently and attentively read through your partner's draft without making any mark on the paper. Answer the following questions:

1. What do you think is the paper's strongest quality?
2. What strikes you as the most important aspect of the paper the author needs to work on in revision?

Step #2: Reread the paper. This time address the following questions on the draft (in the margins or between lines, etc.) and/or on this sheet.

1. Does the paper have a clear focus? YES NO

If yes, underline the thesis in the draft. If no, can you pinpoint what the most interesting or important aspect of the draft is and suggest how your partner may revise it to make this her focus?

2. Is there anything you don't understand? YES NO

Locate any confusing passage(s) and write a question in the margin that will direct your partner toward explaining what is unclear.

3. Does the author provide sufficient specific evidence (examples, etc.) to convince you of her ideas? YES NO

Mark anywhere in the text where the author needs more support to back up a general statement. Perhaps ask questions to prompt the author to provide the kinds of evidence you, as a reader, would like.

4. Does the author make connections to course readings? YES NO

If no, can you make suggestions as to where in the text the author might include relevant material from readings?

Step #3: The draft you are reading is probably incomplete. Based on what has already been written, what do you, as a reader, expect the remainder of the paper to do? What else needs to be covered?

Step #4: In the time remaining, speak with your partner. Explain your comments and suggestions. Listen to her feedback on your draft. Ask any questions that you think will help guide your revision.

Using Interviews in the Transition from Topic to Thesis

Process: What to Do and When...

- 1) Introduce the idea of transitioning from topic to thesis (two minutes).
- 2) Give out handout, explain process, and break into groups of two (three minutes).
- 3) Have students go through interview procedure (twenty minutes or longer).
- 4) Have students share thesis statements (five minutes).

Introduction: What to Say

Sometimes it is difficult to get a paper going. You have a question and you have a basic topic, but you cannot decide on the central thesis, the argument, or what type of evidence to use in the paper. Often you are given a general topic or question, which could turn into a book-length manuscript. And writers usually struggle to write a paper when they have picked a thesis out of thin air. The goal is to find a specific topic, such as the issue of free will/determinism, human cloning, or the mind/body problem, and select a manageable thesis statement from which to write a paper. For instance, if you focus on the general topic area of the existence of God, consider the difference between the following thesis questions/statements:

(1) Does God exist? No, because there is suffering in the world; (2) Does Swinburne's response to the problem of evil for God's existence adequately address the problem of natural evil?

The latter question is likely to generate a more focused and manageable thesis statement. The purpose of this exercise is to hone in on a topic and generate a thesis statement. When academics want to write a paper on a topic or position, they will sometimes get together with colleagues and have discussions about the prospects of the paper. This exercise provides you with the opportunity to discuss your paper topics and theses with fellow students. (The assumption of the exercise is that every student has already decided on a topic area and has read the assigned material for that topic area.)

Writing Issues:

The writing issue that this module is meant to address is students' difficulties turning a problem area, question, or topic into a thesis statement. Often students pick too broad a problem area, question, or topic. This makes it difficult for students to develop a thesis statement that is manageable. The paired interview strategy reduces the writer's load by dividing the work between two writers. Also, the very structure of interviews—question and answer—provides a collaborative dynamic that generates discussion

between writers. The ultimate goal is to get the writer to find a specific “answer” or thesis statement for which she can provide arguments and evidence.

Handouts: What to Give Out and When

One handout given at stage two (attached below).

Rubric handout given after exercise (if the professor elects) for peer grading.

Variations for Different Disciplines

This module was created for the philosophy department, but it could be extended to work in the social sciences and humanities. Also, in other discipline areas, such as the sciences, a similar exercise might enable students to create hypotheses and generate models for experiments. In the arts and performance disciplines, the questions could be revised (considerably) to generate ideas for creative projects or performance pieces.

Difficulties: What Didn't Work

Before the module, you will need to check that the students have chosen their topics and read the material assigned for their specific topic areas. Students should come to class with any notes on the reading they have done. This may be an issue for classes that do not usually have assigned readings, but collecting summaries/abstracts or reading notes for a grade might remedy this problem. There may be the issue of either the interviewer or interviewee not playing her part or holding up her end of the deal. This issue can be addressed by both roles giving the other a grade for participation in the process. I have attached a rubric for this purpose, if the professor elects to have students grade each other.

Handout for the Interview as an Instrument for Peer Review

1. Break up into groups of two, making sure that your partner's topic is different from yours.
2. In the first part, one student plays the role of the interviewer and the other student plays the role of the interviewee; in the second part, students swap roles.
3. The interviewer asks the questions, the interviewee answers, and the interviewer records the answers. Also, the interviewer plays the role of devil's advocate.
4. After both parts have taken place, each student collects the interview that refers to his paper and writes a thesis based on the interview.
5. After the exercise has been completed, students may elect to share thesis statements.

What problem or question is your paper going to address? Is the problem area or question focused enough? Could the problem area or question be more specific?

Why is this question controversial or problematic? Why is it significant in general?

Why are you interested in the problem area or question?

Who are the authors you are using in your paper? What are the main sources? What are their main claims and arguments? Why are the authors' main claims and arguments significant in answering the problem area or question?

What are the problems with the authors' claims and arguments? What else needs to be addressed in order to properly answer your question?

What is your one-sentence answer to this question? What arguments or evidence will you use to show this answer is true?

Interviews Rubric

Rate your partner from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest mark.

Interviewer

Asked questions effectively.

1 2 3 4 5

Asked clarifying questions.

1 2 3 4 5

Proposed thesis statements and arguments.

1 2 3 4 5

Played devil's advocate.

1 2 3 4 5

Interviewee

Was prepared with topic and research.

1 2 3 4 5

Answered questions and offered arguments.

1 2 3 4 5

Understood claims and arguments.

1 2 3 4 5

Provided a thesis statement.

1 2 3 4 5

§10: Averting Plagiarism

Plagiarism

The following must be credited or documented:

- Words or ideas presented in a magazine, book, newspaper, song, TV program, movie, webpage, computer program, letter, advertisement, or any other medium;
- Information you gain through interviewing or conversing with another person face-to-face, over the phone, or in writing;
- When you copy the exact words or a unique phrase;
- When you reprint any diagrams, illustrations, charts, pictures, or other visual materials;
- When you reuse or repost any electronically-available media, including images, audio, video, or other media.

The following should not be credited or documented:

- Writing your own lived experiences, your own observations and insights, your own thoughts, and your own conclusions about a subject;
- When you are writing up your own results obtained through lab or field experiments;
- When you use your own artwork, digital photographs, video, audio, etc.;
- When you are using "common knowledge," things like folklore, common sense observations, myths, urban legends, and historical events (but not historical documents);
- When you are using generally-accepted facts—e.g., pollution is bad for the environment.
-

What is Common Knowledge?

You can regard something as common knowledge if you find the same information undocumented in at least five credible sources. Additionally, it might be common knowledge if you think the information you are presenting is something your readers will already know, or something that a person could easily find in general reference sources. But when in doubt, cite; if the citation turns out to be unnecessary, your teacher or editor will tell you.

from owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/589

Creating Effective Writing Assignments that Avert Plagiarism

One strategy to help students avoid plagiarism is to create effective assignments. Often students plagiarize because the assignment either did not prevent them from doing so or inadvertently encouraged plagiarism. The goal as an instructor is to create a writing assignment that is well-planned, designed, and presented. If this is done, the instructor will decrease the likelihood of plagiarism.

Planning to Avoid Plagiarism

- Does the assignment have a clear and precise purpose and goal?
- Do the students possess the skills/abilities and resources required to complete the assignment?
- Do students have the time required to complete the assignment?
- Is the assignment set up in stages?

Designing to Avoid Plagiarism

- Are the instructions clearly stated, especially in terms of what the student needs to do to complete the assignment?
- Have you explained the discipline-specific concepts and conventions for writing in your discipline?
- Did you define the writing style and the audience that the students should assume in writing the assignment?
- After you've written the assignment, think about how you would approach it with special consideration of where a student might give up and give in to plagiarism.

Presenting to Avoid Plagiarism

- Did you explain the assignment to the students, discuss the possible problems or concerns, and respond to questions about it?
- Did you model the process of completing the assignment by either describing what the student needs to do at each stage or giving them an example of a model assignment?

Teaching Effective Note-taking, Summarizing, and Paraphrasing

- Sometimes students struggle with writing papers because they are unclear about how to effectively take notes, summarize, and paraphrase.
- One way to discourage plagiarism is to offer students exercises on how to take notes on reading, how to summarize texts, and how to paraphrase.
- Encourage students to use a system for note-taking: tell them to mark their notes with "Q"s for quotes, and "S"s for from a source but not quoted, and "M"s for written by "me" the student.

- One way to ensure that students are taking notes properly is to suggest that they use two different notebooks:
 - (1) The first is a double-entry notebook: On either the left-hand page or side of a double notebook ask students to provide a summary or paraphrase with page numbers of material, and on the right hand page or side, have students write commentary or reflection in their own words;
 - (2) Use guided journals or what I like to call “logbooks” in which students are responding to context-specific questions created by the instructor to engage with course content. If this question-answer dialogue is well organized and prepared in advance, then students will have all the material they need to write a paper. Logbooks also provide the instructor with the opportunity to gauge the students actual writing ability, which is important for determining whether work is plagiarized, but logbooks also remove the tendency of students to write for the professor.

What Students and Faculty Should Do to Prevent Plagiarism

Students should understand research assignments as opportunities for genuine and rigorous inquiry and learning.

Such an understanding involves:

- Assembling and analyzing a set of sources that they have themselves determined are relevant to the issues they are investigating;
- Acknowledging clearly when and how they are drawing on the ideas or phrasings of others;
- Learning the conventions for citing documents and acknowledging sources appropriate to the field they are studying;
- Consulting their instructors when they are unsure about how to acknowledge the contributions of others to their thought and writing.

Faculty need to design contexts and assignments for learning that encourage students not simply to recycle information but to investigate and analyze its sources.

This includes:

- Building support for researched writing (such as the analysis of models, individual/group conferences, or peer review) into course designs;
- Stating in writing their policies and expectations for documenting sources and avoiding plagiarism;
- Teaching students the conventions for citing documents and acknowledging sources in their field, and allowing students to practice these skills;
- Avoiding the use of recycled or formulaic assignments that may invite stock or plagiarized responses;
- Engaging students in the process of writing, which produces materials such as notes, drafts, and revisions that are difficult to plagiarize;
- Discussing problems students may encounter in documenting and analyzing sources, and offering strategies for avoiding or solving those problems;
- Discussing papers suspected of plagiarism with the students who have turned them in, to determine if the papers are the result of a deliberate intent to deceive;
- Reporting possible cases of plagiarism to appropriate administrators or review boards.

From the Council of Writing Program Administrators brochure “Defining and Avoiding Plagiarism” at www.wpacouncil.org/positions/plagiarism.html

Strategies for Preventing Plagiarism in Student Papers

1. Teach about plagiarism, don't just warn against it! Make sure your students know what it is and give them help in avoiding it.
2. Give the students a "plagiarism quiz" (counting toward their grade) on defining plagiarism. Some professors have students sign an agreement stating that they are clear on the definition of plagiarism.
3. Give assignments that are not easily satisfied with plagiarized papers. Make the topic somehow specific to the individual student, or require a unique combination of topics.
4. Probably the best way to discourage plagiarism is to insist that students show their work: have them pass in notes, outlines, drafts, etc.
5. Schedule interviews with your students to discuss the issues they are facing in dealing with their topics.
6. Hold an elaborate brainstorming session in class, so you can actually see the students creatively putting their own ideas down on paper. Then have them pass in that paper for comments.
7. If possible, demonstrate in class the appropriate and inappropriate uses of Google and other Internet search tools. As an assignment, have students Google a phrase related to their topic, and then produce an annotated list of the top results.
8. Have your students comment on the Wikipedia article related to their topic, and challenge them to add to it or correct it as a step toward the completion of their project.
9. Make sure your students submit summaries of at least two major secondary sources on the topic so you can see that they have done the research, understand the material, and are able to summarize it.
10. After they have passed in their papers, have your students write a journal entry on the process they went through in writing them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY: APA FORMAT

1. References page must begin on a new numbered page after the last page of text.
2. Title your bibliography References, centered at the top of the page, without quotation marks, italics, or underlining.
3. List only works you cited in your paper, not everything you read.
4. List works alphabetically by author's last name, or if no author is given, the first main word of title. In listing names of authors, use last name followed by initials of first and other names.
5. The first line of an entry starts at the margin; subsequent lines are indented one half inch. Do not number the entries.
6. If you have more than one article by the same author—single-author references or multiple-author references with the exact same authors—are listed in order by the year of publication, starting with the earliest.
7. In titles of books and articles, capitalize only the first word of the title or subtitle and any proper nouns or adjectives.
8. Italicize the titles of books and journals but not of articles. Do not italicize, underline, or use quotation marks around the title of articles.
9. The list of references should be double-spaced throughout.

Book with one author. Include name of author, followed by year in parentheses, title in italics, place of publication, and publisher. Use a period and one space to separate main parts.

Kneen, B. (1999). *Farmageddon: Food and the culture of biotechnology*. Gabriola Island, B. C.: New Society.

Book with two to six authors. List all author's names in order in which they appear on title page. Reverse the order of each name (Last name followed by initials). Separate all names with commas and insert an ampersand (&) before the last name.

Jordan, J.V., Kaplan, A.G., Miller, A.J., & Surrey, J.L. (1991). *Women's growth in connection: Writings from the Stone Center*. New York: Guilford Press.

NOTE: If the work has more than six authors, list the first six authors and then use et al. after the sixth author's name to indicate the rest of the authors.

Edited book, no author. Identify editor(s) with Ed. or Eds. if more than one in parentheses after their names.

Duncan, G.J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Consequences of growing up poor*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Edited book with an author or authors. Use editor's name with the "Ed." abbreviation in parentheses after title.

Plath, S. (2000). *The unabridged journals* (K.V. Kukil, Ed.). New York: Anchor.

A Translation.

Laplace, P. S. (1951). *A philosophical essay on probabilities*. (F. W. Truscott & F. L. Emory, Trans.). New York: Dover. (Original work published 1814).

Article or chapter in an edited book.

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Article in journal paginated by volume. Journals that are paginated by volume begin with page one in issue one, and continue numbering issue two where issue one ended, etc.

Harlow, H. F. (1983). Fundamentals for preparing psychology journal articles. *Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology*, 55, 893-896.

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Scruton, R. (1996). The eclipse of listening. *The New Criterion*, 15 (30), 5-13.

Article in a Magazine.

Greenberg, G. (2001, August 13). As good as dead: Is there really such a thing as brain death? *New Yorker*, 36-41.

Article in a Newspaper. Unlike other periodicals, p. or pp. precedes page numbers for a newspaper reference in APA style. Single pages take p., e.g., p. B2; multiple pages take pp., e.g., pp. B2, B4 or pp. C1, C3-C4.

Schultz, S. (2005, December 28). Calls made to strengthen state energy policies. *The Country Today*, pp. 1A, 2A.

An Entry in An Encyclopedia.

Sturgeon, T. (1995). Science fiction. In *The encyclopedia Americana*. (Vol. 24, pp. 390-392). Danbury, CT: Grolier.

Government Document. Any document available from GPO should show GPO as publisher.

National Institute of Mental Health. (1990). *Clinical training in serious mental illness* (DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1679). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Report From a Private Organization.

American Psychiatric Association. (2000). *Practice guidelines for the treatment of patients with eating disorders* (2nd ed.). Washington, D.C.

Article From an Online Periodical. Online articles follow the same guidelines for printed articles. Include all information the online host makes available, including an issue number in parentheses. Then add retrieval date and web address.

Bernstein, M. (2002). 10 tips on writing the living Web. *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*, 149. Retrieved May 2, 2006, from <http://www.alistapart.com/articles/writeliving>

Online Scholarly Journal Article.

Kenneth, I. A. (2000). A Buddhist response to the nature of human rights. *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 8. Retrieved February 20, 2001, from <http://www.cac.psu.edu/jbe/twocont.html>

If the article appears as a printed version as well, the URL is not required. Use "Electronic version" in brackets after the article's title.

Whitmeyer, J.M. (2000). Power through appointment [Electronic version]. *Social Science Research*, 29, 535-555.

Article from a Database. When referencing material obtained from an online database (such as a database in the library), provide appropriate print citation information. Then add information that gives the date of retrieval and the proper name of the database.

Smyth, A. M., Parker, A. L., & Pease, D. L. (2002). A study of enjoyment of peas. *Journal of Abnormal Eating*, 8(3). Retrieved February 20, 2003, from PsycARTICLES database.

Website.

Lynch, T. (1996). *DS9 trials and tribble-ations review*. Retrieved October 8, 1997, from Psi Phi: Bradley's Science Fiction Club Web site: <http://www.bradley.edu/campusorg/psiphi/DS9/ep/503r.html>

CHICAGO STYLE REFERENCE GUIDE

The note and bibliography style presented in *The Chicago Manual of Style* has three parts: 1. Numbered in-text citations; 2. Numbered footnotes or endnotes; 3. A bibliography of works consulted. The first two parts are necessary, but the third is optional, so be sure to check with your professor regarding his/her expectations. The most common types of citations you will need are listed below. The first numbered entry under each topic is the footnote/endnote; the second is the entry that would be used in the bibliography.

Book with one author.

1. C. Dallett Hemphill, *Bowing to Necessities: A History of Manners in America, 1620-1860* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1999), 114.

Hemphill, C. Dallett. *Bowing to Necessities: A History of Manners in America, 1620-1860*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.

Multiple books by the same author.

2. Steven Hood, *The Kuomintang And The Democratization of Taiwan* (Boulder: Westview Press, 1997), 92.

3. Steven Hood, *Dragons Entangled: Indochina and the China-Vietnam War*. (Armonk, New York: M.E. Sharpe, 1992), 152-153.

Hood, Steven. *Dragons Entangled: Indochina and the China-Vietnam War*. Armonk, New York: M.E. Sharpe, 1992.

---. *The Kuomintang And The Democratization of Taiwan*. Boulder: Westview Press, 1997.

Book with two or three authors.

4. Michael Aiken, Lewis A. Ferman, and Harold L. Sheppard, *Economic Failure, Alienation, and Extremism* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1968), 331-342.

Aiken, Michael, Lewis A. Ferman, and Harold L. Sheppard. *Economic Failure, Alienation, and Extremism*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1968.

Book with more than three authors.

5. Bernard Bailyn et al., *The Great Republic: History of the American People* (Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1977), 107.

Bailyn, Bernard, et al. *The Great Republic: History of the American People*.
Lexington, Mass.: Heath, 1977.

Corporate authorship (can sometimes also be the publisher).

6. World Bank, *Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001), 241.

World Bank. *Engendering Development: Through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources, and Voice*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2001.

Book with no author listed; Edition after the first.

7. *The World of Learning*, 47th ed. (London: Europa, 1997), 734.

The World of Learning. 47th ed. London: Europa, 1997.

Book with a translator or editor.

8. Albert Camus, *The Plague*, trans. Stuart Gilbert (New York: Knopf, 1948), 62.

Camus, Albert. *The Plague*. Translated by Stuart Gilbert. New York: Knopf, 1948.

Reprint (give the dates of the original and the reprint).

9. Edward S. Corwin, *Liberty Against Government; The Rise, Flowering and Decline of a Famous Juridical Concept* (1948; reprint, Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1978), 14.

Corwin, Edward S. *Liberty Against Government; The Rise, Flowering and Decline of a Famous Juridical Concept*. 1948. Reprint, Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1978.

Pamphlets, corporate reports, and other free-standing publications are treated as books, insofar as possible.

Untitled volume in a multivolume work.

10. John M. Wickersham, ed., *Myths and Legends of the World* (New York: Macmillan Reference, 2000), 3: 81-83.

Wickersham, John M., ed., *Myths and Legends of the World*. New York: Macmillan Reference, 2000.

Titled volume in a multivolume work.

11. Gwinn Harris Heap, *Central Route to the Pacific*, vol. 7 of *The Far West and the Rockies Historical Series, 1820-1875* (Glendale, Cal.: Arthur H. Clark, 1957), 237-239.

Heap, Gwinn Harris. *Central Route to the Pacific*. Vol. 5 of *The Far West and the Rockies Historical Series, 1820-1875*. Glendale, Cal.: Arthur H. Clark, 1957.

Chapter in a book or article in an anthology.

12. Hugh R. Clark. "Overseas Trade and Social Change in Quanzhou through the Song," in *Emporium of the World: Maritime Quanzhou, 1000 – 1400*, ed. Angela Schottenhammer (Leiden: E.J. Brill, 2001), 52-53.

Clark, Hugh R. "Overseas Trade and Social Change in Quanzhou through the Song," in *Emporium of the World: Maritime Quanzhou, 1000 – 1400*, edited by Angela Schottenhammer, 47-94. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 2001.

Book in a series.

13. Robin Clouser, *Love and Social Contracts: Goethe's Unterhaltungen Deutscher Ausgewanderten*, Germanic Studies in America 62 (Bern: Lang, 1991), 134.

Clouser, Robin. *Love and Social Contracts: Goethe's Unterhaltungen Deutscher Ausgewanderten*. Germanic Studies in America 62. Bern: Lang, 1991.

Early American Imprints, ERIC, or other full-text information service.

14. W. D., *The Plain Dealer, No. III*, (Philadelphia: n.p., 1764), 8. Early American Imprints no. 9879.

D. W. *The Plain Dealer, No. III*. Philadelphia: n.p., 1764. Early American Imprints no. 9878.

An introduction, preface, forward or afterward.

15. Jeana Yeager, foreword to *Amelia Earhart: A Biography*, by Doris L. Rich. (Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution, 1989), ix.

Yeager, Jeana. Foreword to *Amelia Earhart: A Biography*, by Doris L. Rich. Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution, 1989.

World Wide Web—include as much information as possible. Identify as many of the following items as you can: author, title, kind of source (in brackets), publication date, and URL.

16. Barbara W. Fash and William L. Fash, "Saving the Maya Past for the Future: Copan's New Sculpture Museum," *Peabody Museum of Archaeology*, 1996, www.peabody.harvard.edu/profiles/default.html (17 September 1999).

Fash, Barbara W., and William L. Fash. "Saving the Maya Past for the Future: Copan's New Sculpture Museum." *Peabody Museum of Archaeology*, 1996, www.peabody.harvard.edu/profiles/default.html (17 September 1999).

Dictionary or encyclopedia.

17. *Encyclopedia of World Biography*, s.v. "Jefferson, Thomas."

18. *Webster's New International Dictionary*, 3d ed., s.v. "prolocutor"

Well-known reference books are not usually listed in bibliographies.

Journal article paginated by volume.

19. Stewart Goetz, "The Choice-Intention Principle." *American Philosophical Quarterly* 32 (1995): 178.

Goetz, Stewart. "The Choice-Intention Principle." *American Philosophical Quarterly* 32 (1995): 177-85.

Journal article paginated by issue.

20. Daniel Sanjiv Roberts, "The Missing Letters of Thomas DeQuincey to Samuel Taylor Coleridge." *English Language Notes* 36, no. 2 (1998): 21.

Roberts, Daniel Sanjiv. "The Missing Letters of Thomas DeQuincey to Samuel Taylor Coleridge." *English Language Notes* 36, no. 2 (1998): 21-27.

Online article from a full-text subscription service. Pages in InfoTrac are not numbered, so only the first page can be given, with a plus sign to indicate a multi-page article. In JSTOR and Project Muse, the same pages are used as in the print version, so you can give the exact page number.

21. Paul Stern, "Tyranny and self-knowledge: Critias and Socrates in Plato's 'Charmides,'" *American Political Science Review* 93 (1999):399+. (InfoTrac).

Stern, Paul. "Tyranny and self-knowledge: Critias and Socrates in Plato's 'Charmides.'" *American Political Science Review* 93 (1999): 399+. (InfoTrac).

Article in a weekly or monthly magazine.

22. Malcolm Walker, "Discography: Bill Evans," *Jazz Monthly*, June 1965, 22.

Walker, Malcolm. "Discography: Bill Evans." *Jazz Monthly*, June 1965, 20-22.

Signed article in a newspaper.

23. Ralph Blumenthal, "Satchmo with His Tape Recorder Running," *New York Times*, August 3, 1999, sec. E.

Blumenthal, Ralph. "Satchmo with His Tape Recorder Running," *New York Times*, August 3, 1999, sec. E.

Unsigned article or editorial in a newspaper.

24. *New York Times*, "A Promising Cloning Proposal," October 15, 2004.

New York Times, "A Promising Cloning Proposal," October 15, 2004.

Sources: http://myrin.ursinus.edu/help/resrch_guides/cit_style_chicago.htm and *A Writer's Resource: A Handbook for Writing and Research*

Formatting Citations and Bibliographies:
Modern Language Association (MLA) Style

Introduction

Another method for formatting citations and bibliographies is the style derived from the Modern Language Association (MLA). This method is typically used in the arts and humanities, except for some departments like music, religion, philosophy, and history.

Designing an MLA bibliography

The guidelines for designing an MLA bibliography are the same as APA's with a few exceptions as follow:

- You may use underlining or italics for book titles but be consistent with your choice.
- The year of publication comes at the end of reference.
- Begin with capital letters for all significant words in all titles and subtitles.

For example:

Hennesey, Thomas J. From Jazz to Swing: African-American and Their Music 1890-1935. Detroit: Wayne State UP, 1984.

- Use the quotation mark for the article name, underline for the journal (book) name.

For example:

Tirro, Frank. "Constructive Elements in Jazz Improvisation." Journal of the American Musicological Society 27 (1974): 285-305.

Designing an MLA citation

- Type 1: Include author's last name and page number for both quotation and non-quotation (summarizing or paraphrasing ideas) if the author is not named in the sentence. Do not use comma to separate the name and the page number.

For example:

In the late nineteenth century, the sale of sheet music spread rapidly in a Manhattan area along Broadway known as Tin Pan Alley (Campbell 63)

- Type 2: If the author is named in the sentence, include ONLY the page number in the parentheses. Do not use p., or pp., or page(s), but only the page number(s). When the page spans over 100 and the following page(s) have the same first digit, use only the last two digits of the second number, such as: 236-38

For example:

Campbell argues that the sale of sheet music spread rapidly in a Manhattan area along Broadway known as Tin Pan Alley (63).

- MLA does not indicate the year of publication in in-text citation.

In-Class Exercises

1. Create a reference for the same journal article in MLA style.

2. Read the abstract. Cite a piece of information that you find important in MLA style. You can summarize it or directly quote it.

Sample answers:

Bibliography

Dymond, Stacy K, Christie L. Gilson, and Steve P. Myran. "Services for children with Autism Spectrum Disorders." *Journal of Disability Policy Studies* 18.3 (2007): 133-47.

Citations

We need increased level of individualization of services for children with Autism Spectrum Disorders (Dymond, Gilson, and Myran 133).

Some research suggests "the need for increased individualization of and accessibility to services" (Dymond, Gilson, and Myran 133).

References

American Psychological Association. (2001). "Publication manual of the American Psychological Association," Fifth Edition. Washington: Author.

Dymond, S. K., Gilson, C. L., and Myran, S. P. (2007). Services for children with Autism Spectrum Disorders. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, 18 (3), 133-147.

Peritz, J. H. & Maimon, E. P. (2003). "A writer's source: A handbook for writing and research." New York: McGraw-Hill.