

Writing Center

Writing Across Guidelines

Table of Contents	
ART HISTORY	2
AUTOMOTIVE SYSTEMS TECHNOLOGY	4
BIOLOGY	6
BROADCASTING	9
BUSINESS	
CHEMISTRY	14
COMMUNICATION	16
CREATIVE WRITING	
CRIMINIAL JUSTICE	
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION	
ENGINEERING	
GEOLOGY	
HEALTH AND FITNESS SCIENCE	
HISTORY	
LITERATURE	
MATHEMATICS	
MUSIC	
NURSING	
NUTRITION	
PHILOSOPHY	
POLITICAL SCIENCE	
PSYCHOLOGY	
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	51
PUBLIC RELATIONS	
RELIGION	
SOCIAL WORK	
SOCIOLOGY	60



People write about art to clarify and account for their responses to works that engage them emotionally. Writing about art helps people analyze their feelings and reactions to the work and its relationship to the larger world. Audiences include professors, museum—goers, historians, curators, dealers and collectors, non—artists, and ourselves.

- II. TYPES OF WRITING
 - Formal analysis (describing the work of art)
 - Opposition to formal analysis (examining the work's social/political context)
 - Comparison
 - Entry in an exhibition catalog (for museums)
 - Historical research
 - Criticism/Evaluation
 - Reflective essay

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources: subject of the study, artwork, what artist has said about work
- Secondary sources: critical or historical accounts about the artist or work, quotes from sources, descriptions, explanations, examples, details
- Gallery works or museum artifacts: installation, video art, performance, new media, graphic design, prints, drawings, paintings, photographs, sculptures, architecture

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Utilize fair, informed, and thorough sources from research Proofread for plausible, coherent, and effective writing Use past tense for biographical data about artist's life Use present tense when referring to artwork Write in active voice Ensure essays include thesis, evidence, organization and transitions, and appropriate documentation



V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Abstraction Assemblage Balance Bricolage Chiaroscuro Colonialism Constructionism Decontextualization Deconstructionism Expressionism Formalism Gender Criticism Impressionism Marxist Criticism Materialism Modernism Nonrepresentational Art Orientalism Perspective Positive and Negative Space Postcolonialism Postmodernism Style/Form Tromp-l'oeil

VI. CITATION STYLE

CMS (Chicago Manual Style) or Turabian are most common in formal publications. Instructor citation requirements may vary.



AUTOMOTIVE SYSTEMS TECHNOLOGY

I. GENERAL PURPOSE/AUDIENCE

Writing in the field of Automotive Systems Technology requires clear process analysis skills and fluency in the jargon used in this trade. The purposes of writing in this field are primarily to estimate the cost of labor and materials, to describe work that has been completed, and to communicate appropriately via email or other written correspondence. Audiences for this field include coworkers, shop managers/site supervisors, business owners, technicians, vendors, and customers.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

For students in the program and entry-level technicians:

- Material/labor cost estimates
- Work orders
- Repair descriptions
- Email correspondence
- Resumés

For shop managers/site supervisors:

- Business plans
- Proposals for funding for new equipment

For higher-level technicians:

- Warranties
- Instruction manuals

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Product research
- Cost analysis
- Experience in the field

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Templates/forms are prefabricated for estimates, work orders, and repair descriptions.

Most shops utilize specific software to complete forms electronically.

Clear, concise language is preferred.

Passive voice is used for process analysis.



Sentence fragments and abbreviations are acceptable for estimates, work orders, and repair descriptions.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

This is perhaps the most important aspect of writing in these trades. The discipline-specific vocabulary is extensive and cannot be completely covered here; however, it can be found through organizational websites such as the Inter-Industry Conference on Auto Collision Repair, or I-CAR (<u>https://www.i-car.com/</u>). Learning the jargon is an essential part of the curriculum in the Automotive Systems Technology program. Acronyms are especially important for the types of writing auto technicians will do, especially when it comes to estimates, work orders, and repair descriptions. The following is not a complete list, but contains some of the more commonly used acronyms:

FR (Flat Rate) O/H (Overhaul) LKQ parts (Like, Kind, and Quality) IO (Included Operations) NIO (Not Included Operations) **OEM** (Original Equipment Manufacturer) R&R (Remove and Replace) R&I (Remove and Install) D&R (Disconnect and Reconnect) DVOM (Digital Volt-Ohm Meter) ABS (Anti-lock Brake System) CNG (Compressed Natural Gas)

EV (Electric Vehicle) HEV (Hybrid Electric Vehicle) LPG (Liquefied Petroleum Gas) MSDS (Material Safety Data Sheet) SAI (Steering Axis Inclination) SLA (Short-long Arm) TCS (Traction Control System) VOC (Volatile Organic Compound) VIN (Vehicle Identification Number) PEV (Plug-in Electric Vehicle) PHEV (Plug-in Hybrid Electric Vehicle) **BEV (Battery Electric Vehicle)**

VI. CITATION STYLE

N/A—Most of this writing follows software-generated templates or otherwise prefabricated forms.



Biology is the study of living things: what they are, how they function, how they interact with each other, and how they evolve. Biologists write reports that analyze data from experiments, reviews of research performed by other scientists, and proposals for grants that may fund their research. They may write lectures and articles for books and magazines, and they may also consult with government agencies to offer opinions on various issues such as stem cell research or climate change. Biologists may write for a wide variety of audiences: fellow researchers and other academics, students, government officials, or business professionals.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Research papers and argumentative essays
- Lab reports and field reports, typically including an abstract, introduction (context and purpose), materials and methods, results (based on observations), figures and tables, discussion of interpretations, and references
- Lab notebooks, typically including a table of contents, data from each experiment, title of research, purpose, materials and procedures, results, analysis of data, discussion and assessment of experiments, conclusions, and acknowledgments
- Literature reviews (surveys of literature, evaluations, analysis, comparison/contrast of other research, perhaps presenting opposing theories or areas for future research)
- Research proposals and reports (develop background, pose a question, offer hypotheses, and present research plans to test the hypotheses)
- Oral and poster presentations (presented at conferences or conventions)
- Committee reports
- Popular science articles (condense complex material to an understandable language)
- Critique of research paper (usually presented in list form)
- Lectures and group presentations

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE



- Primary Sources: Original observations leading to experiments, including detailed information about how observations were made and experiments were conducted (Pechenik 34). These include descriptions, measurements, figures and tables, statistics, and experiment results. Quantitative and qualitative data.
- Secondary Sources: Summaries based on the primary literature, such as journal articles, popular science magazines, and textbooks; popular sources, such as *National Geographic, Natural History, Seed Magazine, Climate Change Report*, and *Science Today*; and peer-reviewed sources, such as *Environmental Etymology, Oeclogia, Journal of Insect Science*, and *Science*.
- Indexes like Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), Biological Abstracts, BIOSIS Previews, Basic BIOSIS, and Google Scholar to locate articles by topic. Medline is another useful database that can help you locate articles.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Write clearly and concisely, omitting unnecessary or redundant words. Use passive voice to describe the steps in studies and experiments in the Methods section.

Use active voice to convey information clearly and efficiently. (First person can be used to help with clarity, for example, in an abstract or discussion.) Direct quotation is very rare and discouraged; paraphrasing is more common. Use past tense to describe materials, methods, and results of experiments. Use present tense to describe published findings of other work. In lab reports or experiments, keep detailed, accurate notes. Cite sources and give intellectual credit to the original researcher(s). Collaborative writing is common.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Biodiversity Community Ecology Community Interactions Ecological Interactions Ecosystem Function Evolutionary Relationships Nutrient Cycling Plant and Insect Interactions Plant Chemistry Primary Productivity Genomics

VI. CITATION STYLE



While APA is sometimes used in Biology, citation formats differ from journal to journal, and for most writing you should follow the convention of a chosen journal. Use very recent issues of a journal to determine the format of citations in the text and the references page. In general, do not use footnotes to cite in-text; instead, cite parenthetically using the author's name and date. Example: (Coolidge and Roosevelt, 2012). See *Scientific Style and Format: The CSE Manual for Authors, Editors, and Publishers*, 7th edition.



I. General Purpose/ Audience

Broadcast journalists report the news electronically or by radio transmission instead of in print format such as newspapers. Because of the medium, information is usually spread more quickly and is more accessible to a wider audience. In short, broadcast journalists investigate and disseminate. They provide the general public with similar information that an investigative print journalist would, and they reach a wide audience with a variety of technology. Modern journalists research, write, shoot, produce, and edit their own stories. Reporters need a solid understanding of all technical and creative aspects of the production process, from story idea to broadcast. Broadcast journalists communicate details of a story, along with the human interest involved, depending on the type of story covered. They must know the basic skills of proper news reporting, including how to locate sources, conduct interviews, write scripts for TV, radio, and Internet, record sound clips, and edit audio and video. They must know how to produce the news by using technology and must be able to work under the intense pressure of deadlines. They may work in front of or behind the camera or the microphone as the voice and face of the news or as the person in the production booth. There is a wide range of employment possibilities for graduates trained in electronic media: in business, sales, advertising, and careers in media news writing and editing, announcing, programming, directing and technical production, and digital journalism/announcing/production. Writers must be aware of legal components of broadcasting regulations and the law. Audiences include fellow professionals and the general public.

- II. Types of Writing
 - News stories (often based on research)
 - Creating interview questions and conducting interviews
 - Editorials/ Columns/ Opinion pieces
 - Reviews (evaluations of film, music, dance, theatre performance, art installation, video games, etc.)
 - Drafting, recording, editing and filming broadcast scripts
 - Digital news stories (Internet-based) with video and audio
- III. Types of Evidence
 - Primary sources (interviews, original documents, observations, etc.)



- Secondary sources (information or facts that come from journals, news reports, and other sources gathered from primary evidence)
 - Secondary sources should be avoided when possible and should always be fact-checked against at least three other sources.

IV. Writing Conventions

News stories

Write in third-person, present tense in straightforward, objective style. Answer the Five Ws (who, what, where, when, why) and how, but in a more holistic manner from print's inverted pyramid style.

Avoid slang or jargon.

Convey information quickly and simply to make text easier for an anchor to read.

Mention sources early to emphasize information for a listener.

Use imagery in broadcasts to engage the visual and auditory faculties of a listener.

Editorials/ column articles/ opinion pieces

Write in present tense and use first-person.

Conversational, informal language (including slang) may be acceptable, depending on the type of news outlet or broadcaster.

Editorials are typically the expressed opinion of a broadcaster, while commentary is an expressed opinion of an individual.

- V. Common Terms and Concepts Professional organizations
 National Association of Broadcasters (NAB)
 Radio-Television Digital News Association (RTDNA)
- VI. Documentation Style

AP style (Associated Press) is sometimes used. Generally, there is a specialized broadcast news style of writing taught in broadcast journalism courses.

SOURCES CONSULTED

"Broadcast Journalism Courses." *JD: Journalism Degree: Fostering Education and Career Development,* 2003-2017, <u>http://www.journalismdegree.com/broadcast-journalism-courses/</u>.

"Electronic Media and Broadcasting." *Career Exploration Office.* Appalachian State University, 2015, <u>http://</u> careerexploration.appstate.edu/pagesmith/132.



"Print vs. Broadcast Journalism: Understanding the Differences." *New York Film Academy*, 2015, <u>https://www.nyfa.edu/student-resources/print-journalism-vs-broadcast-journalism/</u>.

"What Is Broadcasting Journalism?" *Study.com*, 2013-2017, http://study.com/what_is_broadcasting_journalism.html.



Written communication is essential in business. Business writers may convey information about services or products of an organization; assign tasks; present a plan of action; instruct, persuade, inform, or convince audiences. Business writing tends to be concise, straightforward and clear. The consideration of audience and purpose is vital to the style and intent of the writing. Audiences include executives, managers, employers, employees (in accounting, research and development, clerical support), donors, stockholders, clients, potential customers, and colleagues.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Reports (factual information)
- Proposals (persuasive)
- Business Plans
- Executive Summaries
- Memos and Letters
- Emails
- Presentations
- Brochures and Newsletters
- Websites

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

Purpose and audience will determine the type of evidence used:

- With reports or proposals, interviews, observations, surveys, or questionnaires may be used.
- For investigative reports, use facts and statistics or researched sources.
- For job applications, include past experience and qualifications.
- To promote a service, use testimonials from satisfied customers.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Present information in easy-to-read formats with tables, graphs, charts, etc. Writing should be straightforward and professional, but not overly formal. Use respectful tone and project credible image.

Avoid passive voice and unnecessary words.



Use clichés and buzzwords only rarely as they can be seen as flippant, phony or insincere.

Refrain from offensive language based on race, gender, sexual orientation or disability; be inclusive.

Personal pronouns (you and I or we) can be used.

V. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association) MLA (Modern Language Association) Instructors typically indicate the style they prefer.



Writing is considered a "threshold skill" in chemistry, as it is the essential way chemists communicate with readers. Chemists ask questions about the physical world, consult the existing chemical literature for clues to answer these questions, design and implement experiments to answer questions, and communicate their results to others. Chemists present data clearly, interpret results thoroughly, and cite previous peer-reviewed work frequently. When chemists wish to include their results in the chemical literature, a research article is written which is then peer-reviewed by experts in the field. Chemists use clear, direct language in their writing. They may create arguments intended to persuade or convince readers that, for example, what the writer does is important and deserves funding and that the researchers are competent and credible. Audiences include other chemists, professors, students, the general public, fellow professionals at conferences and conventions, and grant-funding agencies.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Lab notebooks
- Research articles
- Lab reports
- Literature reviews
- Proposals
- Poster presentations
- Magazine articles

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Data from studies and surveys
- Observations and measurements of specimens and experiments
- Data from other published reports
- Quantitative and qualitative data

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Writing should be clear, precise, concise, and objective.

Use gender-neutral words.

Use strong verbs and avoid "to be" verbs.



Use active voice for notebooks and presentations. Use passive voice for formal lab reports and research proposals. Use past tense for lab reports. Avoid direct quotations; paraphrase instead. Avoid personal pronouns in reports, proposals, and poster presentations.

V. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association)



Communication studies examines all modes of communication, including theories of communication, group communication, information theory, intra- and interpersonal communication, marketing, organizational communication, propaganda, public relations, speech communications, rhetoric, mass communication, webbased communication, and social media. All industries and all human interaction depend on the ability to read, write, and communicate effectively. Therefore, critical thinking is important to ensure that information delivered both orally and in writing is accurate and free of biases. Audiences include educators, peers, various employers, voters, consumers, specifically targeted marketing groups, and others.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Abstracts
- Literature reviews
- Annotated bibliographies
- Research proposals
- Critical essays
- Outlines/scripts for speeches, written reports, or debates
- Analytical reports
- Case studies
- Business letters and memos
- Reflective essays

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Qualitative analysis (observations, case studies, interviews, focus groups)
- Quantitative analysis (surveys, experimentation, content analysis)
- Critical approaches (rhetorical criticism, discourse analysis, textual analysis)

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Utilize first person point-of-view when applicable Write clearly in a formal voice, applying critical thinking skills Demonstrate creativity and artistic expression Proofread writing carefully for any errors Establish credibility with the use of scholarly academic sources



V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Active Listening Active Public Ad hominem Agenda Asynchronous Communication Audience Analysis **Avoiding Style** Brainstorming Charisma **Collaborative Style** Communication Flow Community **Competitive Style Compromising Style** Conflict Orientation **Contentious Style** Covertly **Cultural Factors Defensive Communication Dominant Style** Empathic Listening Ethos **Evaluative Listening** Exit Response Fallacy

Flow Immediacy Intercultural Communication Interpersonal Communication Interview Language Logos Loyalty Response Mass Communication Mindful Listening Nonverbal Communication **Neglect Response** Overtly Pathos Perceptions Persuasion Points of Agreement Public Relations Public Speaking Self-disclosure Signal Speech Synchronous Communication Target Audience Voice Response

VI. CITATION STYLE

MLA (Modern Language Association) and APA (American Psychological Association) are the most commonly used. Instructor citation requirements may vary.



Creative writing may take many forms, such as fiction, creative non-fiction, poetry, playwriting, and screenwriting. Creative writers can turn almost any situation into possible writing material. Creative writers have a lot of freedom to work with and can experiment with form in their work, but they should also be aware of common tropes and forms within their chosen style. For instance, short story writers should be aware of what represents common structures within that genre in published fiction and steer away from using the structures of TV shows or movies. Audiences may include any reader of the genre that the author chooses to use; therefore, authors should address potential audiences for their writing outside the classroom. What's more, students should address a national audience of interested readers—not just familiar readers who will know about a particular location or situation (for example, college life).

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Fiction (novels and short stories)
- Creative non-fiction
- Poetry
- Plays
- Screenplays

Assignments will vary from instructor to instructor and class to class, but students in all Creative Writing classes are assigned writing exercises and will also provide peer critiques of their classmates' work. In a university setting, instructors expect prose to be in the realistic, literary vein unless otherwise specified.

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Subjective: personal accounts and storytelling; invention
- Objective: historical data, historical and cultural accuracy: Work set in any period of the past (or present) should reflect the facts, events, details, and culture of its time and place.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Writing will vary depending on the genre and intent of the text. Some forms of poetry (sonnet, sestina, or villanelle, to name a few) have very intricate styles and patterns to follow. (See below for a short list of poetic forms.) Writers may



want to submit their work to campus-based publications and contests as well as journals and writing contests beyond campus. Many universities invite professional creative writers to visit their campuses. Students attend readings and craft talks by visiting authors, which allows them to experience a wide, culturally diverse range of styles, genres, and approaches to creative writing. Creative Writing instructors expect their students to read like writers: to read and study contemporary and classic works of published writers on their own in addition to class assignments.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Prose is unlined writing, like the common paragraph, and should be doublespaced with no extra space between paragraphs unless the writer intends to mark a transition in time, place, or subject.

Verse is lined writing, often measured in meter as in poetry (formal or free verse) and is single-spaced.

Genre is the category of writing an author chooses to use as a medium for ideas; some genre-specific terms can be found below.

Poetry

Rhyme scheme (feet, iambs, trochees, dactyls, meter)Speaker (as opposed to "narrator" in fiction)StanzaSonnetSestinaVillanelle

Fiction

Foreshadowing

Round/complex or flat characters

Plot (a sequence of cause and effect or discovery and decision)

Dialogue

Characterization

Narrator (as opposed to "speaker" in poetry)

Plays/ Drama can include many of the common concepts of fiction writing and may use such terms as: Set/ Lighting/ Stage directions

Creative non-fiction is a literary, creative way of presenting factual events (including the memoir) and may use some of the following terms:

Scene Dialogue Plot Point of View Setting



Narrative

Characterization

Style: the way the author writes, including the elements of voice, tone, diction, and syntax, which all influence the writer's overall style

VI. CITATION STYLE

Creative Writing majors will not have a specific citation style for their writing. Creative Writing classes might use MLA style if they write formal research papers on literary subjects. MLA is commonly used in writing about published literature; therefore, it would relate most closely with creative writing.



The Criminal Justice field studies official and unofficial responses to criminal and delinquent behavior, while criminology focuses on theories that explain criminal and delinquent behavior. This is a multi-disciplinary field (combining sociology, political science, public administration, psychology, history, and/or law) with a focus on justice and justice policies. Writing is used to inform, explain, document, persuade, or make a request of an audience. Specialty fields within this discipline include law enforcement, juvenile justice, corrections, law and courts, homeland security, and justice administration. Audiences include peers, supervisors, readers of professional and academic publications, and members of the court system, such as defense attorneys, prosecutors, and judges.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Research papers
- Analytical essays
- Argumentative essays
- Investigative reports
 - Crime, Arrest, Incident and Accident reports; pre-sentence reports for court
- Administrative reports
- Policy memos
- Case briefs and legal briefs
 - Description of case with key issues, relevant facts, related court decisions; analysis and interpretation; legal principles
- Case plans/Case notes
 - Memos to public defenders, prosecutors, judges, probation officers, social workers, treatment providers

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Quantitative, qualitative, historical and legal evidence
- Interviews, observation, survey, narrative analysis, experiments
- Analysis of demographics, statistics, legalities, geography and history
- Theory-based evidence or history of theory and criminal justice policy
- Both primary and secondary sources



IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Incorporate independent thought within student papers and essays Focus on accurate and concise data in professional writing Gather, synthesize, and analyze evidence from various sources Interpret theory and apply it to practice and practice to theory Ensure writing is clear, concise, accurate, objective, and well organized with clear statement of purpose and main points Be mindful of using appropriate voice, tone and format in regards to both purpose and audience Present facts in an objective, balanced manner; accuracy is crucial Understand that factual description is important (dates, times, locations; identifiers of people involved) Remember first person is rarely used in research, reports memos, briefings or analysis Note that although memos may include *I*, recommendations must be based on analysis of evidence, not personal opinion or bias Use active voice; paraphrase rather than use long, quoted material

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

CONTRACT AND CONCEPTS		
Actus Reus	Lay Witness	
Acquittal	Legality	
Alibi	Mens Reas	
Appeal	Miranda Rights	
Arson	Misdemeanor	
Capital Punishment	Nolo Contendere	
Causation	Parole	
Concurrence	Plea Bargaining	
Criminology	Procedural Law	
Defense Counsel	Prosecution	
Due Diligence	Public Defender	
Ethics	Public Policy	
Evidentiary	Punishment	
Expert Witness	Recidivism	
Federal Court System	State Court System	
Felony	Subpoena	
Harm	Substantive Law	
Jurisdiction	Summons	
Judge	Vigilante	



VI. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association) or CMS (Chicago Manual of Style) *Bluebook* style may be used for briefs: used by courts, law schools, and attorneys



EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

I. GENERAL PURPOSE/AUDIENCE

Early childhood educators deal with the learning and competence of children. By exploring how children develop and learn in context, professionals work with children and families across a variety of settings, such as child development, childcare facilities, public or private schools, and other programs. Educators understand that people learn best when they are actively involved in their own education. Therefore, they collaborate with local agencies and programs to encourage social justice and cultural diversity, and to advocate for the rights of children and families. They provide opportunities for family members to develop the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors needed for success. Writing in this field should be concise, refer to empirical data, and must be sensitive to the concerns of various backgrounds and groups with special needs or representation issues. Educators often report their findings to school administrators, teachers, students, parents, and policymakers.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Reflective essays, journals, field notes
- Curriculum design and lesson plans
- Review of instructional materials
- Child development assessments
- Advocacy
- Practicums and internships
- Case studies
- Research papers
- Self-evaluations
- Portfolios
- Rubrics
- Individual Education Plans (IEPs)

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Quantitative data: statistics, facts, test scores, survey results
- Qualitative data: case studies, observation, personal experience
- Primary sources: observation, survey, interview, personal experience
- Secondary sources: published material, case studies



IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

The personal pronoun "I" is often appropriate in writing about education, especially with reflective writing and writing based on personal observation or qualitative data

Research papers, case studies, and papers based on quantitative studies are written in a formal, objective tone. In these cases the third person is appropriate. Educators typically use empirical data (data observed or experienced) that is presented in a clear manner.

Professional writing should be brief, to the point, and thorough, but not wordy. Writers should keep their audiences in mind, explaining any questionable jargon. Re-checking information for accuracy is key.

When introducing sources, one should include the full name initially, and then abbreviate titles of agencies, programs, models, and professional roles. Teachers must maintain student confidentiality at all times.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Accommodations **Achievement Tests** Assessment **CPIR** (Center for Parent Information and Resources) Consent Constructivism Curriculum DACA (Deferred Action on Childhood Arrival) Developmental delay DREAM (Development, Relief, Education for Alien Minors) Early intervention services ECTA (Early Childhood Technical Assistance)

EOG (End-of-Grade Testing) DEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act) IEP (Individual Education Plan) IFSP (Individual Family Service Plan) Multidisciplinary Natural environments NCLB (No Child Left Behind) NEA (National Education Association) Pedagogy Portfolio Prior written notice Service coordination services

VI. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association) Instructor requirements may vary.



Engineers use the language of mathematics, the methods of science, and the experiences of society. They design tools, machines, processes, or systems to solve problems and accomplish tasks efficiently. Writing is often collaborative, and writers create reports and recommendations based on research and design ideas, devise technical reports, and provide real solutions to real problems. The field of engineering includes industrial, mechanical, chemical, electrical, civil, geological, environmental, aerospace, and computer engineers. Audiences include other engineers, policy experts, school administrators, government leaders, corporate clients, and the general public. Research and design occurs in universities, non-profit research institutions, private industry, and government.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Project Notebooks
- Technical Reports
- Lab reports
- Proposals
- Progress Reports
- Articles for publication
- Presentations

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Data from studies and surveys
- Observations and measurements from models and computer simulations.
- Data from other published reports
- Quantitative (countable) and qualitative (observable) data

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Use specialized vocabulary and technical detail.

Use standard sections with headings and subheadings in reports and proposals. Provide visuals like diagrams, charts, tables, graphs, and illustrations.

Use past tense for lab reports; future tense for proposals; present and past in progress reports.

Use third person and active voice (avoid passive voice).

Minimize use of acronyms; use only the most often cited.



Writing must be clear, concise, and logically ordered.

V. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychological Association)



Geology is a multi-disciplinary science, which incorporates the aspects of chemistry, mathematics, and physics important to understanding the Earth and its history. Because Geology is multidisciplinary, geologists may do a variety of tasks: search for minerals, fuels, and natural materials that society needs; develop plans for environmental protection and restoration; evaluate infrastructure for stability; work with engineers on waste disposal sites or in road and dam construction; and work to minimize the effects of floods, volcanoes, or earthquakes. Geologists study the movements of continents and the evolution of the biosphere as well. Audiences may include individual landowners, elected officials, CEOs of Fortune 500 companies, fellow geologists, researchers in other fields, and the general public.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

Students

- Literature reviews
- Term papers
- Lab reports

Professional

- Geotechnical reports (consulting and industry)
- Presentations at regional, national, international, and professional meetings and conferences
- Peer-reviewed research papers tend to follow the following format:
 - Introduction (where/ when/ how/ why/ previous work done on the subject)
 - Identification of a problem and presentation of hypotheses
 - Methods used to address the issue
 - Data collected
 - Interpretations and discussion
 - Acknowledgments, References, Appendices

Other

- Grant proposals
- Educational materials (K-12, professional and public)
- Media (press) releases



III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Qualitative data
- Quantitative research: measurements, facts, statistics, lab work
- Primary research: laboratory observations, field research
- Secondary research: books, journal articles (peer reviewed)
- Deduction and inference based on data collected
- Graphs, charts, tables, and other visuals

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Primary sources (interviews, observations, surveys) Secondary sources (books, newspapers, magazines, biographies, journal articles) Charts, graphs, maps, videos, brochures

Quantitative data (facts, statistics, numbers) Research presentations

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Atmosphere Asthenosphere Carbon Dating Coastal Dynamics Convergent Boundary Core Divergent Boundary Fluvial Processes Igneous Rock Lithification Lithosphere Mantle Metamorphic Rock Plate Tectonics Sedimentary Rock The Rock Cycle Transform Boundary

VI. CITATION STYLE

GSA (Geological Society of America) Find an example here:

http://www.geosociety.org/pubs/documents/GSA_RefGuide_Examples_000.pdf

• In-text citations should include the author's last name and date of publication: (Smith and Jones, 2015).



HEALTH AND FITNESS SCIENCE

I. GENERAL PURPOSE/AUDIENCE

Writing in the field of Health and Fitness Science requires clear and concise language. The purposes of writing in this field are often to share data collected, inform about an issue, or document an approach. Audiences for writing in this field include student peers, faculty, field scholars, medical and allied health professionals, and exercise practitioners.

- II. Types of Writing
 - Research papers (formulate hypotheses and reach conclusions based on the appropriate literature)
 - Literature review (with introduction, body, summary, and references/citations)
 - Books
 - Journal articles
 - Dissertations
 - Reviews
 - Abstracts
 - Grant proposals
 - Technical reports
 - Conference presentations
 - Journals and reflective writing

III. Types of Evidence

- Data collection
- Data smoothing
- Experimental model
- Data calculations
- Data analyses
- Quantitative and qualitative research

IV. Writing Conventions

Most publishers prefer active voice, not passive.

First-person point of view is preferred over third person.

Writing should be clear and concise.

Common format includes an abstract, introduction, methodology, results, discussion, references.



- V. Common Terms and Concepts
 SOAP (Subjective, Objective, Assessment, Plan) medical documentation
 Charting refers to different ways that medical notes can be documented
- VI. Citation Style APA (American Psychological Association)

Sources Consulted

Department of Health, Leisure and Exercise Science. Appalachian State University. (2013). Retrieved from <u>http://hles.appstate.edu/academic-majors</u>

- How to write a scientific paper in the exercise sciences. Pepperdine University. Retrieved from <u>http://faculty.pepperdine.edu/mfeltner/Classes/</u> Paper/index.html
- Hyllegard, R., D. Mood, J. Morrow. (1996). Interpreting research in sport and exercise science. St. Louis: Mosby-Year Book, Inc.



Historians analyze data to develop theories about past ideas, experiences, or movements, in order to explain why or how previous events occurred and how they fit into larger historical contexts. They are expected to use both primary and secondary sources to do thorough authoritative research with a clear and concise argument. Audiences include peers, teachers, students, and the general public.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Critical essays
- Research papers
- Book reviews
- Historiographical analysis (examining assumptions, biases, or methods of other historians)
- Primary source analysis
- Secondary source analysis

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources: material/artifacts, government documents, public records, debates, numerical data, eye-witness accounts, interviews, speeches, diaries, letters, photographs, maps, newspapers
- Secondary sources: books, journal articles, or documentaries which make arguments based on primary sources

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Address counterarguments, conflicting theories, or biased interpretations Utilize multiple, credible, reliable, and authoritative sources

Establish validity by being fair and unbiased

Avoid first person point-of-view (I/we) and opinion words (think, feel, believe) Be mindful of sexist language which excludes female contribution (ex. "When a historian writes a paper, he affects all of mankind." vs. "When a historian writes a paper, he or she affects all of humanity.")

Use past tense for writing about past events

Use present tense when writing about another author's work



V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Agency Approach Bottom-Up Approach Consensus History Cultural Approach Discourse Economic Determinist Environmental History Essentialize Ethnohistory Feminist Gender Historiography Labor History Leftist Marxian Marxist New Left Old Left Political History Postmodernism Presentist History Progressive School Revisionist History Social History Structuralism Teleology Top-Down Approach Traditional Transnational

VI. CITATION STYLE

CMS (Chicago Manual Style) Instructor citation requirements may vary.



Writing about literature (fiction, non-fiction, drama, prose, poetry) explores, investigates, interprets, applies, and expands upon the literature, often examining connections between literature and other aspects of culture. People write about literature to understand their own responses to it, convince others of a position, explain or introduce new concepts, compare authors or eras, or connect to a culture or field. Audiences include scholars, professors, and peers.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Literature reviews
- Poetry explications
- Critical analysis
- Close readings
- Journal articles

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources (pieces of literature, letter by or to the author)
- Secondary sources (reviews, critiques, biographies, books and articles about the subject)

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Use third person, though first person is acceptable when making an argument (I will argue...).

Avoid conversational or informal language.

Use present tense when discussing literature.

Use active voice.

Support interpretations with textual evidence.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Formalism Structuralism New Historicism Marxist Criticism Cultural Criticism Feminist/Gender Criticism Postcolonial Criticism Psychoanalytic interpretation Genre Tone Style Voice



Meter Diction Plot Climax

VI. CITATION STYLE

Modern Language Association (MLA) Chicago Manual of Style (CMS)



I. GENERAL PURPOSE

Mathematicians write research articles that may contain theorems, proofs, and other investigations, short letters, lectures, grant proposals, letters of recommendation, committee reports and critiques, progress reports, internal memos, and public oral presentations. Writing should be clear, concise, and logical in creating convincing arguments. Audiences include fellow researchers, professors, students, government or business communities, or the general public. Mathematicians may also respond to editors and reviewers.

II. RESEARCH ARTICLE COMPONENTS

- Short, exact title
- Abstract
- Introduction
 - Opening attention-getter in the form of a question
 - Succinct statement of the mathematical problem
 - Explanation of how the problem was approached
- Statement of main result
 - Statement of answer
 - Statement of assumptions related to formula used
- Proof of theorem (if needed)
 - Logical demonstration of connections between steps
 - Provision of tables, graphs, and charts with concise labels
 - Definition of variables
 - Explanation of how each formula was derived
- Citations of sources used to solve problem
- Conclusion, summary, or implications
- Acknowledgments
- References

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Prerequisites: references identified in proofs as precedents
- Proper use of terms and symbols
- Proof itself, which is accurate, direct, and calculable

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS
Writing Center τοΝ

Correct grammar and punctuation Correct mathematics For proofs over eight pages, divisions in numbered sections and numbered theorems used serially within each section Active voice, first-person plural (the writer and the reader) point of view, following standard grammatical rules of English Symbols are meaningful, simple, and direct, with no contractions Abstracts are written in passive voice, with no notation, tables, or symbols.

V. CITATION STYLE

Applied mathematicians may use one of several citation styles, depending on the collaborative discipline, such as mathematics biology or mathematics education. *Citation-sequence* system: Each source is assigned a number, which identifies the source each time it is used, and listed numerically in the bibliography.

[32] S. Kihara, On the rank of the elliptical curves with a rational point of order 4, *II*, Proc. Japan Acad. Ser. A Math. Sci. 80 (2004), pp. 158-159.

See the AMS website for abbreviations and examples: http://www.ams.org/msnhtml/serials.pdf.



Music has two different types of writing—scholarly research writing and more casual, practical writing—each with its own audience and conventions. Research writing explores a topic and makes an argument based on evidence from both primary and secondary sources. Audiences include students, professors, scholars, and performers. Practical writing is geared more toward the general public. Other audiences include musicians, music historians and researchers, concert audiences, businesses, and nonprofit organizations.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Response papers (personal reflections)
- Concert program notes
- Reviews/criticism/performance study (evaluation, commentary)
- Journal articles (research and analysis)
- Press releases (publicity)
- Grant proposals
- Term papers/research

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources: Materials that come directly from the piece, composer, performer, or time period you are studying. Examples include musical scores, recordings of performances, letters, reviews, and newspapers.
- Secondary sources: Material that analyzes, synthesizes, or evaluates an event, which may support an argument. Examples include books, articles, reviews, documentaries, or newspapers about the event.

Some sources, such as newspapers and reviews, can be both primary *and* secondary sources. For example, if a musicologist were writing about the public's initial rejection of Stravinsky's *Rite of Spring*, he or she might cite reviews from the time period as primary sources.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

In academic writing, use specialized vocabulary from music theory and history, but in practical writing, do not use specialized vocabulary that would be foreign to a layperson unless you define it.

Compositions are characterized by detailed, specialized titles



First person is acceptable in reflective pieces and in grant proposals but used sparingly in reviews.

Use third person in press releases, program notes, or research papers. Reviews should be fair and analytical, not based on personal taste Past tense is used for review or analysis of a piece of music Active voice and active verbs are preferred Specific examples are used for support

V. CITATION STYLE

MLA (Modern Language Association), CMS (Chicago Manual of Style) or Turabian

Citation styles are up to individual teacher, but Author-Date System for in-text citations is often used.

Bibliographies are not included for reviews and less formal writings but often required for class assignments.

Footnotes or end notes are up to discretion of author, instructor, and/or editor/publisher.

Sources Consulted

The Garland Encyclopedia of World Music The New Grove Dictionary of Music and Musicians, 2nd ed. RILM, *Répertoire International de Littérature Musicale* (Music bibliography) <u>http://www.rilm.org/</u>

Wingell, Richard J. *Writing about Music: An Introductory Guide.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1990.



Nurses create medical, legal, and academic knowledge through workplace documents in the form of charts, lab reports, and nursing research. On the job, the health of a patient may depend on a nurse's ability to speak or write. Communication with colleagues is crucial in nursing since it can affect the quality of care for patients/clients. Writing must be supported with accurate observation and up-to-date researched evidence. Writing in this capacity is for audience that includes health care providers, nurses, patients or clients, and staff and administrators at clinics and hospitals. As a nursing student, writing assignments are an important part of the learning to communicate effectively. There are three major writing assignments in the nursing program for which instructors are the primary audience.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

Professional:

- Nursing Processes (care plans with client history, diagnosis, interventions and outcomes)
- Health Histories
- Statements of Philosophy (principles and experiences that have shaped career, implementation of principles, field of specialization)
- Lab reports and Case Studies (analyses of data, interpretations of lab results)
- Research Papers (Formulate a relevant research question and reach a conclusion based on review of published research; or synthesize information from sources to answer questions about a nursing practice)
- Position Papers (take a stance on relevant controversy in field; construct argument based on research)
- Literature Reviews (synthesis of published work on a nursing issue; summary of arguments or findings of recent scholarship; critical review or analysis of findings)
- Experiential/Reflective Narratives
- Charts:
 - Flowcharts: context-dependent



- Care-plans: a) definition of the problem; b) interventions and/or solutions; and c) evaluation of success of interventions and solutions
- Narratives: nurses' notes and observations of patient's treatment history; descriptive assessments of patients' conditions
- Nurse leaders and managers write evaluations, reports, other correspondence
- Nurse educators write teaching plans and tests, as well as scholarly work (manuscripts/research)

Academic:

- Operating Observation paper
- Childbirth/Maternity paper
- A resume, cover letter, and resignation letter in preparation for graduation.
- III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE
 - Empirical evidence
 - Quantitative (measurable data)
 - Qualitative (observable behaviors)
 - Lab test results
 - Data from nurses' charting of patient information
 - Research finding in journals
 - Direct observations of patients' physical or mental health

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Professional:

- Record communications with others; all components of a patient's history must be properly recorded.
- Data-driven evidence must be based on accurate, detailed information.
- Clear, objective tone, and confidentiality and sensitivity are important.
- Avoid first person except for reflective writing.
- Use third-person objective voice for research, reviews, case studies, position papers, and when describing nursing practices.
- Passive voice is often used to record observations and procedures.
- Direct quoting is rare; however, when pertinent, direct quotes are used to reflect client statements. Generally, paraphrasing is used to show knowledge and to be more concise.
- Use standard abbreviations.
- Use plain language for clients, avoiding medical jargon.



For health care professionals, be precise and use relevant medical terminology

Academic:

- Use APA American Psychological Association formatting for papers.
- Use third-person objective voice; however, first person narrative voice may be used for reflection for the operating observation paper.
- Document all direct quotes and paraphrased information.
- Define words/terms prior to using abbreviation, i.e. North Carolina Board of Nursing (NCBON).
- Do not use contractions, i.e. don't.
- Cite only sources used. Article abstracts are not considered a reliable source in and of themselves.
- Use of reliable and valid resources, published within the preceding 5-year time period.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

EMR—Electronic Medical Record HIPAA—Health Insurance Portability Accountability Act PSQIA—Patient Safety and Quality Improvement Act PHI—Protected Healthcare Information OSHA—Occupational Safety and Health Administration DHHS—Department of Health and Human Services http://nursing.flinders.edu.au/students/studyaids/clinicalcommunication/page_glo ssary.php?id=13(contains a long list of acronyms used in clinical communication)

VI. CITATION STYLE

APA-American Psychological Association



Writing in Nutrition falls under the larger heading of "writing for health sciences." Nutrition majors will write for a variety of academic audiences as they take classes in a variety of specialized fields (biology, chemistry, and food systems management, among others). Being able to communicate effectively with both a professional audience and the general public is necessary. Regardless of the audience, writers in Nutrition should be able to communicate their ideas with precision, clarity, and objectivity in a voice appropriate for the assignment, task, and audience.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Diet plans, pamphlets, and handouts (usually for the public): Language should be clear, objective, and uncomplicated.
- Lab reports (dependent on the instructor or specific subject): The central goal of a lab report is to present findings clearly and logically. Proper organization is central to that presentation, and organization can vary from one discipline to another.
- Short reports: Include proposals and evaluative reports; may require the following sections: title page, abstract, introduction, background, methods, results, discussion, recommendations, conclusion, and sources consulted.
- Summaries: Based on books or articles; should clearly state the central thesis and condense the major points efficiently with minimal interpretation.
- Critical reviews: Evaluate or assess a writer's position; may include brief summaries but only enough on which to base an analysis.
- Research papers: Follow wider standards of research papers by including a clear, concise, manageable thesis; an arguable position; and thorough, properly documented support. Support should include both primary and secondary sources.
- Grant proposals: Vary in form according to audience and organization involved. Attention to detail is required, as close reading of the grant is necessary so that the proposal clearly and succinctly addresses specific intentions. A budget is usually included, as grants are often highly competitive.

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE



- Scientific evidence gathered through empirical research
- Primary research gathered by listening to and observing individuals and responsibly recording responses and behaviors
- Secondary research gathered from current, peer-reviewed journals, books, and studies
- Quantitative evidence is preferred over qualitative evidence, though both are utilized and valued.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Writing about procedures should include specific details about materials, theories and treatments utilized, and any other information needed to replicate procedures or experiments.

Writing should be clear and concise and maintain a great deal of audience awareness since nutritionists often need to communicate current research and diet trends to the general public. Writers should be fluent in disciplinary jargon and be able to clearly convey information to the general public.

Writing should be in the third person, and passive voice is acceptable, especially when describing experiments. Contractions should be avoided. Theories that are established but still in use can be written about in present tense; however, theories no longer in use should be written about in past tense.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

amino acids antioxidants beta carotene bio-availability calories carbohydrates folic acid free radicals homocysteine metabolism obesity oxidation riboflavin saturated fats selenium trans fatty acid

VI. CITATION STYLE

APA (American Psychology Association) AMA (American Medical Association) is the style used by the discipline in their *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics.*



Philosophy is the study and practice of argumentation. The process of statements working to support conclusions and then developing new statement results in a deeper understanding of and search for the truth. The study of philosophy should result in students being able to effectively assess and analyze the arguments of others as well as being able to produce solid arguments of their own. Philosophers write primarily for other philosophers in an academic setting. Writers should always assume that their readers are educated, well-read intellectuals.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Argument Reconstruction
 - The presentation of complicated philosophical concepts in simpler terms.
- Objections and Replies
- Original Arguments
- Applications
 - Summarizations or reapplications of philosophical ideas.
- Thought Experiments
 - Hypothetical explorations of theoretical principles in real or imagined scenarios.

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Logical proofs
- Deductive and inductive reasoning
- Definitions of terms
- Primary sources (works of great importance in the field)
- Secondary sources (academic articles and books studying great works)

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Writing should be in active voice and avoid a conversational tone. First and third person are both acceptable; second person should be avoided. Grand introductions and conclusions are frowned upon in favor of appeals to the rationality of an audience and the logic of the argument.



Anticipate the objections to your argument and address those theories or concerns instead of ignoring them. Avoid overstatement: Words that limit such as "never," "none," "always," "no," or "all" should be used minimally if ever. Carefully consider the fallacies in the argument when writing. Remain consistent and focused rather than general and vague. Do not attack other philosophers personally or engage in excessive praise. Philosophy is about ongoing dialogue.

Do not attempt to appeal to faith, bias, authority, or tradition.

Be careful to define controversial or debatable terms.

Concluding the paper with your final argument or thesis can be acceptable.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Belief Concept Conceptual competence Epistemology Ethics Intersubjectivity Justification Ontology Rationality Semantics Subjectivity Warrant

VI. CITATION STYLE

Chicago Harvard Modern Language Association (MLA) Use style recommended by professor or organization



Political scientists study the interactions between different power groups and their desire to have those interests heard and their needs recognized. These struggles can either be on a local scale or on an international platform. The writing in political science attempts to rectify issues of power and to identify the underlying relationships between groups who battle for power and recognition of political goals. Political scientists create hypotheses and develop theories to better understand how interactions between power groups evolve. Writers may develop theories of how politics works; study political behavior of institutions; analyze fundamental concepts (such as *power* or *democracy*); explain political relationships, predict outcomes, or explicate power struggles between rivals and allies on local, national, and international scales; or examine how governments make decisions and how policies are implemented. Political theorists may also write about the relationships that exist between political entities. Audiences vary in political science from the general public, educators, and peers, to administrators, politicians, and lawmakers, plus those involved in political action or those who are merely interested in politics. Writers should be aware of the goals and aims of the audience(s) and also be mindful of the purpose(s) of their writing.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Abstracts (Succinct summaries that describe a research problem under investigation, including methods and findings)
- Research paper—which may include these sections:
 - Introduction/ Problem/ Methods of inquiry/ Literature Review/ Description & Evaluation of data/ Summary of findings/ Documentation
 - Introduction (including the research question)/ Literature review/ Data & Methods/ Findings/ Discussion/ References/ Appendices (if needed)
- Political Theory paper
- Case Studies
- Proposals
- Reviews
- Commentary

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE



- Empirical data gathered through scientific methods
- Qualitative evidence
- Quantitative evidence
- Methodical and accountable data collection
- Hypotheses to explain or test theories

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Writing should be clear, concise, precise, objective, and unbiased.
Scientific method is used.
Avoid jargon.
Writing should be gender-neutral.
Present tense is almost always preferred.
First person references may be used, but only sparingly.
Use consistent documentation methods.
Clearly define terms used. ("Operational terms" must always be defined according to the way the user is using them. For example, "justice" or "freedom" may have vague, subjective definitions and must be presented precisely so that they can be tested against a stated hypothesis.)

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

democracy	state
representation	authority
ideology	party system
liberalism	pluralism
conservatism	justice
interest groups	socialism
sovereignty	communism

VI. CITATION STYLE

American Political Science Association (APSA) recommends the Latest Edition of the Chicago Manual of Style (CMS) and indicates a preference for the Authordate system, such as (Smith 1995).

American Psychological Association (APA) may also be used.

Confirm the preferred citation style with individual instructors.



Psychologists investigate the human mind and human behavior and write for a wide audience. Some audiences are researchers, psychotherapists, teachers, students, clients, government entities, the criminal justice community, business leaders, and the general public. Writing about psychology involves inquiry, discovery, evaluation, and communication.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Literature reviews: Thematically organize and summarize existing studies and important themes in order to highlight the need for more research.
- Research papers
- Lab reports
- Poster presentations (can be for conferences): A collection of empirical studies conducted by different people or groups presented in graphic format
- Theory papers: Discuss the origins of advances in some topical area of research, while offering a new way of thinking or interpreting
- Meta-analysis: Uses an advanced statistical technique to summarize the effects of independent studies examining the same psychological phenomenon
- Case studies: Thorough history of individual cases or studies
- Methodological papers: New procedures for tackling research problems
- Daily journals
- Empirical reports: Based on observations and experimentation; describe theory, methodology, results, and implications of original research

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Case studies
- Experimental results
- Empirical research
- Quantitative Data (numerical measurement; facts and statistics)
- Qualitative Data (examples and illustrations; descriptions of interviews or researcher observations)

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Write in a logical, objective, concise, and straightforward manner



Be confidential and respective of client Use charts, diagrams, and tables to support and illustrate evidence Use thorough research to demonstrate credibility Present empirical data provable through quantitative evidence, not statement of experts Use qualitative information based on observation and the statements of research subjects

Use past or present perfect tense for reporting conclusions and present tense when discussing results

Avoid ambiguous, outmoded, or inappropriate language when referring to ethnicity, gender, and/or sexual orientation

Use first person sparingly, typically to avoid using passive voice Keep focus on the results of research, not the writer or researcher

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Diagnostic Statistical Manual (DSM) Diagnosis

Abstract (a one-paragraph summary of the paper with optional keywords used in APA Style before the introduction)

Social Sciences Index (SSI)

Social Science Citation Index (SSCI)

Evaluation vs. Critique

- Evaluations: imply a more general discussion of a program or a theory's strengths and weaknesses
- Critique: a detailed judgment

VI. CITATION STYLE

American Psychological Association (APA) APA Thesis Style (for research design and results) APA Journal Style (for research papers)



PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

I. GENERAL PURPOSE/AUDIENCE

Public administration focuses on the development and management of public agencies and nonprofit organizations. As an academic field, public administration focuses on issues such as responsiveness to citizens, accountability for serving the public, and building expert management knowledge. Public administrators serve in local, state, national, and international organizations. Writers in this field manage public agencies by creating organizational policy documents to guide decision-making, developing justifications for resources, and communicating with employees, lawmakers, and the public.

People in public administration should be skilled at writing, presentations, decision-making, research, and collaboration. They should communicate clearly, be creative, take initiative, use good judgment, and have self-confidence. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017), public administrators also analyze information, oversee expenditures, draft and implement government policy, manage people and resources, conduct safety inspections, investigate internal activity, and consult with the public.

Jobs in public administration cover a wide range of fields, including city and county managers, auditors, consumer safety inspectors, criminal investigators, customs inspectors, industrial relations specialists, management relations specialists, systems analysts, budget analysts, human resource managers, and nonprofit managers.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Press releases: post-event summaries with details, such as contact info, potential story lines, and other similar information.
- News releases: focus on the "news" aspect of a communication
- Policy proposals: formal writing
- Meeting agendas: set items for discussion and vote
- Policy documents: short opinion pieces
- Fact sheets: numbers, stats, facts (summaries)
- Budgets: detailed budgets for organizations, usually for a fiscal year
- Statements: direct quotes outlining policies



- Grant proposals: documents the need for funding, presents evidence for that need
- Memos and emails
- Business letters

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources (interviews, observations, surveys)
- Secondary sources (books, newspapers, magazines, biographies, journal articles)
- Charts, graphs, maps, videos, brochures
- Quantitative data (facts, statistics, numbers)
- Research presentations

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Use headings and subheadings when writing long pieces.

Provide data and statistics.

Use quotations sparingly.

Use active voice and strong verbs.

Target genre and style to specific audience.

Write the way people think; a down-to-earth approach works best.

Avoid over-use of acronyms when writing to external audiences. Always spell out acronyms with their first use.

Include an introduction and conclusion in academic writing.

Define key terms for the audience.

Avoid long sentences.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS PAR (Public Administrations Review)

Networking Publics: audiences to reach

VI. CITATION STYLE

American Psychology Association (APA) is the primary citation style. Chicago Manual of Style (CMS) may be preferred by some professors or organizations. Modern Language Association (MLA) may be preferred by some professors or organizations. Always verify which citation style is preferred.



Public relations is defined by the Public Relations Society of America (PRSA) as "a strategic communication process that builds mutually beneficial relationships between organizations and their publics." Writers in this field inform and persuade the public through newspapers, radio, television and the web, and they also share information internally with an organization's employees. Often, a PR campaign can be developed around a particular ad or for a specific occasion such as the Super Bowl. Celebrities and business owners utilize public relations to handle media requests, or they may use PR to create and manage their public identities.

People in public relations should be skilled at writing, problem solving and decision-making, have good research skills, and be able to work collaboratively. They should communicate clearly, be creative, take initiative, use good judgment, and have self-confidence. They should also be adept at public speaking, as they often serve as spokespeople for their company or organization. They must be outgoing, participate in interviews, and attend conferences, exhibitions, trade shows and press launches. They may write to persuade, inspire, convince, inform, decide or evaluate as they utilize multi-media technologies such as TV, radio, newspapers, web sources and digital media. They organize news conferences, issue press releases, produce company newsletters, and serve as liaisons between media and their employer.

Jobs in public relations cover a wide range of fields, including sports, employee relations, finance, speech writing, politics, retail business, travel and tourism, and health care, among many other fields. Understanding audience is a key factor for writers in public relations.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Press advisory: pre-press conference information; details to entice, create interest in an event, product, etc.
- Press release: post-event summary with detail, such as contact info, potential story lines, etc.
- News release: focuses on the "news" aspect of a communication



- Pitch letter: attempt to get coverage (story idea, not event); short, provocative selling of an idea
- Backgrounder: summary of mission, goals, history, or issue
- Op-ed: opinion, position paper, editorial
- Letter to the editor: short opinion piece
- Fact sheet: numbers, stats, facts (summary)
- Press kit: FAQs, photos, graphs, brochures, or bios that provide specific information about an event
- Talking points: list of points to make
- Statement: direct quote

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary sources (interviews, observations, surveys)
- Secondary sources (books, newspapers, magazines, biographies)
- Charts, graphs, maps, videos, brochures
- Quantitative data (facts, statistics, numbers)
- Multi-media presentations
- In-house research
- Analysis of the competition
- Focus group data

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Follow AP (Associated Press) style guidelines. Use the inverted pyramid when writing for news outlets.

- Most newsworthy facts
- Story
- Supporting details

Avoid passive voice whenever possible.

Be honest and fair and don't mislead people.

Provide claims and support the claims with evidence.

Write the way people think; a down-to-earth approach works best.

Before writing, do research that will show why people buy a product or service.

Ad copy should be clear, concise, to the point; avoid jargon and hype.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

PRSSA (Public Relations Student Society of America) Networking



Publics: audiences to reach

Earned media: media coverage earned through publicity and promotional events

VI. CITATION STYLE

Associated Press (AP) style is most common.

Individual professors may require American Psychological Association (APA) or Chicago Manual of Style (CMS). Always ask the professor which style is preferred.



I. GENERAL PURPOSE

Religious studies is a secular, academic field that employs theories and methods for inquiry from a diverse array of academic disciplines, such as anthropology, history, literature, philosophy, sociology, psychology, and geography. Conclusions should be based on sound, rational, evidence-based practices that can be understood by different groups of individuals through empirical inquiry, not faith. Since religious studies is an interdisciplinary field, writers and researchers should be aware of multiple audiences.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Thesis paragraph: Stating and supporting a thesis precisely and succinctly
- Critical book review: Concise, descriptive summaries of content and critical evaluations
- Comparative essay: Comparing two or more practices based on one theory or comparing an analysis of the same practice employing different theories
- Critical exposition of religious texts: Analysis of texts employing one or more literary-critical methods (e.g., source criticism, form criticism, socio-scientific criticism)
- Ethnographic study: Systematic descriptive study of people and their cultures
- Historical analysis: Exploratory and descriptive study of the historical settings of a religion and its texts as well as the historical development of a religion
- Journal entry: Informal writing that is often used as a way to allow students to think critically about their own ideas and engage with their own biases and prejudices; a good way to keep notes if one is doing ethnographic research or reading primary texts

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

Context is extremely important when making arguments and understanding the rituals and practices of belief systems. Culture often reveals the underlying reasons for traditions, belief systems, and religious practices. Scholars in religious studies should be alert to and respectful of customs disparate from their own. Likewise, personal beliefs and biases should be left out of the academic conversation. When regarding research, academic arguments should be based on a fresh assessment of the evidence. Primary sources are often sacred or historic texts. When doing ethnographic work, primary sources are observer



notes and data collected in the field. When doing ethnography, both qualitative evidence and quantitative evidence are valued. Secondary sources are texts written about sacred texts and religious practices.

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Religious studies is an academic field in which discourse is written for secular audiences. Writers should not attempt to engage in scholarship that seeks to prove or disprove supernatural phenomena, such as the existence of a god or gods.

Students and scholars are likely to have religious biases but should be alert to them.

Assessment should focus on rational arguments.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

There are entire dictionaries dedicated to religious terminology, and the terms used may be specific to the particular religion or sect being researched and written about. Consult the resources below for more terms and define terms in the context in which they will be used.

VI. CITATION STYLE

Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS), 17th Edition

Sources Consulted

Smith, Jonathan Z., William S. Green, and Jorunn J. Buckley. *The HarperCollins Dictionary of Religion*. San Francisco: HarperSanFrancisco, 1995.

- Taliaferro, Charles, and Elsa J. Marty. *A Dictionary of Philosophy of Religion*. New York: Continuum, 2010.
- The Writing Center at UNC Chapel Hill. "Political Science." UNC College of Art and Sciences. 30 April 2014. <u>http://writingcenter.unc.edu/handouts/religious-studies/</u>



The field of Social Work is concerned with promoting social change, social justice, and the welfare of others. Social workers take a unique approach to thinking and writing in that they view social issues and problems from a broad perspective. Writing reflects their awareness of practice at multiple levels and the ways in which theory and practice inform one another. Audiences include scholars, scholarly journals, practitioners, politicians, behavioral scientists, community organizers, lawmakers, newspapers, other social scientists, and the general public. Academic writing in social work prepares future professionals to write case notes, treatment plans, grants, and public policy.

II. TYPES OF WRITING

- Research Papers
 - May summarize scholarly literature on a topic
 - Compare opinions of social workers and the public about an issue
 - Apply social work theory to current and critical social issues
- Social Policy Analysis
 - Describe a social policy
 - Use research to argue how the policy is beneficial or harmful to society and vulnerable populations
- Quantitative Research
 - Present a problem, question, or hypothesis to be tested
 - Report format with Title / Abstract / Review of Literature / Methods / Results / Discussion / Conclusions / References / Appendices
- Ethnographic/Field Research
 - Based on observational research, participant research, and interviews (sometimes)
 - Answers what has happened in a group setting, how social relationships are formed, and what it means
- Case Studies/Treatment Plans
 - Provides background of client(s) and a thorough description of their history
 - Describes present issues/problems/diagnoses
 - Uses scholarly and evidence-based research to determine appropriate treatments



- Formulates a realistic and timely treatment plan for the client(s)
- Process Recordings
 - Records dialogue verbatim that occurs between the student and the client
 - Student writes self-evaluation and responses to each portion of the dialogue
 - Field instructor or professor records their responses and suggestions to the student

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary Sources (interviews, observations)
- Secondary Sources (scholarly journal, books, newspapers)
- Library research

IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS

Concise, direct, and to the point Typically uses Report Format (Title page, Abstract, Introduction, Methods, Discussion and Conclusions, Notes, References)

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS

National Association of SocialQuarWorkers (NASW)QuarNASW Code of EthicsDeperCultural competencyvariaField researchStremProcess recordingEBT/EBP (Evidence-based Treatment/Practice)

Quantitative data Qualitative data Dependent / independent variables Strengths-based

VI. CITATION STYLE

American Psychology Association (APA)



Sociologists study human social behavior and write to explain how people are shaped by social groups (families, nations, etc.); how the world is experienced through various lenses (of gender, race, religion, sexual orientation, etc.); how groups are created and maintained; and who someone is as defined by the group he/she belongs to. Sociologists look for connections between individuals, their stories, and their relations to the wider world. Audiences include scholars and scholarly journals, psychologists, politicians, behavioral scientists, economists, community organizers, lawmakers, newspapers, other social scientists, and the general public.

- II. TYPES OF WRITING
 - Critical Thinking/ Social Issues:
 - Examine an issue from social, political, economic perspectives
 - May apply theory, take a position with supporting evidence, and/or critique an existing position
 - Literature Review:
 - Identify a question or topic to be investigated
 - Conduct library research for relevant scholarly articles, books, Internet sites
 - Create a synthesis of material to develop a new way of considering the issue or offer suggestions for further research
 - Quantitative Research Paper:
 - Present a problem, question, or hypothesis to be tested (as above)
 - Conduct original research that includes quantitative and qualitative analyses of data
 - o Compare opinions of sociologists and the public about an issue
 - Apply sociological theory to current events
 - Analyze socio-historical changes (interpretive analysis)
 - Ethnographic/field research (observational research, participant research, interviews)
 - Write in report format with Title, Abstract, Introduction, Review of Literature, Methods, Results (analysis of data), Discussion, Conclusions, References, Appendices



The following writing assignments may be incorporated in the papers listed above or may be preparation for the above:

- Abstracts (outline of essential elements of a work; typically 250 words, 1-2 paragraphs)
- Annotated Bibliographies (five sentences or fewer with bibliography)
- Summaries (concise outline of main ideas and their relevance to topic)
- Textual Analysis
- Summary/Analysis/Evaluation
- Explain main points of a text; critique an argument
- Develop relationships between evidence and conclusions, between concepts in text, or compared to other texts
- Use logical reasoning to examine rhetorical devices and determine how effectively an author makes his/her argument
- Proposals:
 - Frame a question and propose a method of answering the question
 - o Include 1- to 2-page statement of intent (or abstract)
 - Explain why the topic is important or relevant with Thesis, Hypothesis, Methods, References

III. TYPES OF EVIDENCE

- Primary Sources (questionnaires, surveys, interviews, observations)
- Secondary sources (books, scholarly journals, newspapers, Internet)
- Library research (using scholarly sources)
- **IV. WRITING CONVENTIONS**

Quote only when it is essential to make a point; be sure to explain a quote's relevance or significance.

Substantial evidence and support is required.

Active voice is preferred.

Analysis and summary are two different skills; analysis should help readers understand topic, text, or data.

V. COMMON TERMS AND CONCEPTS American Sociological Association (ASA) American Sociological Review

ASA Code of Ethics Ethnography



Field research (Interviews, observations, surveys) Textual analysis Logical fallacies Hypothesis Quantitative data

Qualitative data Dependent/independent variables Control Tautology Positivism

VI. CITATION STYLE

American Psychology Association (APA) American Sociology Association (ASA) Writers may also write in the format of the journal(s) in which they wish to publish.