STUDENT WRITING GUIDELINES

Sioux Falls Seminary
Sioux Falls, South Dakota
January 2013
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Introduction

This writing guide is a gift to you from your professors. The goal of the guide is twofold: to assist you in improving your writing skills and to provide some degree of uniformity in what is expected from you. This short guide doesn’t attempt to cover all grammatical, style, and usage rules. It is a quick review of the areas that students most often find difficult or confusing, and it gives guidance on questions with more than one answer, such as how to abbreviate state names in the bibliography. The guide also addresses issues that come up in theological writing that students might not have encountered in undergraduate training.

Good writing is the result of hard work: research, planning, writing, revising, proofreading, and more revising. Writing skills are important, not only in graduate school, but throughout your life. You don’t want misspelled words in your seminary papers, letters, or church bulletins, and certainly not on your next job application! Begin now to have excellence as your goal.

Research and Writing

During your seminary years, you will be asked to write different types of papers, including reflection papers, sermons, book reviews, and research papers. Each of these has different goals, different procedures, and different writing styles. For example, both reflection papers and sermons may be written in an informal style in first person: My reaction to . . . was that . . . . In contrast, a research paper will use formal language—it will not use contractions, slang, or other informal words such as kids or okay—and most often it will be written in the third person. (As you have noticed, this guide is written in an informal style.)

The first step in producing any paper is to understand the professor’s instructions and the goals of the paper. Carefully read the syllabus and listen to the oral instructions. If you don’t understand, ask for clarification.

A review of the research and writing process is beyond the scope of this short style and usage guide. Be sure to review your notes from your SFS Developing Your Research Skills course. Three good resources for seminary students are Badke (2000), Core (2000), and Vyhmeister (2001). If it has been some time since you graduated from college, and/or if you didn’t take many college courses that included writing components, it is highly recommended that you enroll in a writing refresher course. For an online do-it-yourself review, see Purdue University’s Online Writing Lab (2003b) or Hardy (1999). Each chapter of Hardy’s book has five interactive quizzes which immediately give the correct answer. Chapter six is on common word choice errors; chapter eleven is on common punctuation errors, for example.

Two writing style guides have been adopted by SFS professors. Marriage and Family Therapy and Counseling courses follow the American Psychological Association’s Publication Manual, fifth edition (commonly referred to as “APA style” or “APA”). Written assignments for all other seminary courses follow Kate Turabian’s A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations, sixth edition (referred to as “Turabian”). For questions not answered by Turabian, consult the fourteenth edition of The Chicago Manual of Style (referred to as “Chicago”). For issues related to theological writing that are not covered by either Turabian or Chicago (or APA style, for MFT/Counseling courses), follow the Society of Biblical Literature’s SBL Handbook of Style (1999). For grammatical questions not covered in these style guides, follow William A. Sabin’s Gregg Reference Manual, ninth edition (2001).¹

¹ This document follows the style given in Turabian/Chicago and uses parenthetical referencing, one of two choices given there. Use parenthetical referencing unless instructed differently. The rules summarized here
Unless your professor instructs you differently, papers should be double-spaced (not single spaced like this document), in a twelve point basic font such as Arial or Times New Roman. Margins should be one or 1¼ inches on the sides, one inch top and bottom. Block quotations (Turabian: two or more sentences that are eight or more lines of text; APA: more than forty words) should be indented and single-spaced. (See the glossary: “block quotation.”) Tables, reference list, bibliography, and notes should be single-spaced.

Editing and Proofreading

It is easy to overlook the importance of rewriting, revising, and proofreading, but a paper is never finished without careful proofreading and editing. Your editing will be more objective if you can lay your paper aside for a few hours or overnight before you begin the revisions. Reread the assignment, then reread your paper.

The Big Picture

Ask yourself these questions about the overall paper:
1. Did I respond to all parts of the assignment?
2. Did I follow the instructions?
3. Are my thesis, introduction, main points, and conclusion clear?
4. Is the paper well organized?

After revising the paper for the details (see below) and printing out the final copy, take one quick overview of the final paper. Did any section headings inadvertently get moved to the bottom line of a page? Are the tabs all correct? Does the bibliography or reference list begin on a new page?

The Details

1. Look at your past assignments to determine what grammar or punctuation mistakes you commonly make, then look especially carefully for these types of errors in the paper. (Most of us aren’t too creative in our mistakes. We make the same ones over and over.)
2. Always use spell-check on everything you do, but don’t rely on this alone, because it won’t find all the problems. You may either have written a theological word that the computer doesn’t know, or you may have made typos or misspellings that are real words, but the wrong word (see “commonly misspelled words,” page ten).
3. One of the best ways to find missing words and typos that the spell-check didn’t find is to slowly read your paper out loud. Reading your paper out loud will also show you awkward sentences that need to be rewritten for improved clarity or better word choice. It will also help you find misplaced modifiers.
4. Look for words, phrases, or sentences that can be omitted to make the paper more concise. Concise means brevity with completeness. “Calvin Coolidge’s wife learned about [completeness] when she asked him what the preacher had spoken about at church. ‘Silent Cal’ replied, ‘Sin.’ When his wife then asked, ‘Well, what about it?’ he answered, ‘He was against it.’ That’s brevity but not conciseness; Coolidge’s report is frustratingly incomplete. . . . Don’t just be brief; be complete—as briefly as possible” (Brooks and Pinson 1993, 92).
5. Finally, after revising your paper and reprinting it, read it carefully one more time before turning it in. While fixing one section, did you inadvertently insert a new typo?

are from Turabian/Chicago, SBL Handbook of Style, then Sabin’s Gregg Reference Manual, in that order, with significant APA style differences noted.

2 Words underlined in this text are explained in the glossary at the end of this paper.
Punctuation

Colons and Semicolons
You know when to use periods and question marks. What about those pesky colons and semicolons? A colon is used to indicate an illustration or clarification will follow: something that explains the first part of the sentence, like this. It can mean “to be specific.” It is also used between the title and subtitle of a book, and after an independent clause (a complete sentence) to indicate that a list follows.

A semicolon indicates a parallel remark will follow. It is used between parts of a compound sentence (two or more independent clauses) that are not joined by a conjunction (and, or, but, nor, for). If a compound sentence is long and includes commas, it should be separated by a semicolon even if it is joined by conjunctions. A semicolon is also needed when clauses of a compound sentence are joined transitively by hence, thus, however, otherwise, indeed, or then (see Turabian 1996, 56-57).

Commas
Commas signal a pause in the reading, but it is a shorter pause than indicated by a colon, semicolon, or period. Use a comma when independent clauses are joined with conjunctions, but the comma may be omitted if the clauses are very short. If a dependent clause or prepositional phrase begins a sentence, it too must be set off by a comma. No comma is needed to join the parts of a compound predicate (two verbs with the same subject).

Commas are used to set off parenthetical material within a sentence, such as these words, and they are necessary when a pause is needed to prevent misreading a sentence. Commas are needed to set off three or more elements in a series: beans, rice, and tortillas are necessary ingredients in nearly every Mexican meal. For more details and examples of comma use, see Turabian (1996, 52-56) or APA’s Publication Manual (2001, pp. 78-79).

Parentheses and Ending Quotation Marks
“You might think [punctuation] would be easy since there are only seven marks (excepting parentheses [and brackets, which are used . . . for your insertions into someone else’s words]). But feelings run strong on the matter” (McCloskey 2002, 61). Note how punctuation works in the previous sentence with parenthetical referencing. Don’t do what first-year students do, putting the period after the quotation mark “and then the lonely citation”. (McCloskey 2002, 61) Follow the first example, not the second.

A period or comma always precedes an ending quotation mark, but an exclamation mark or question mark precedes the quotation mark only if it is part of the quotation. They follow the quotation mark if they are part of the whole sentence, not just the quotation. Semicolons and colons follow the closing quotation mark.

“Where are we going?” said the boy.
Will we accept her argument “Mothers should not work outside the home”? Cameroon is “Africa in microcosm”: it has rainforests, mangrove swamps, high savanna, and desert ecosystems.

When only part of a sentence is in the parentheses, the sentence punctuation is outside the parentheses (such as in this example). (When a complete sentence is enclosed in parentheses, the ending punctuation is within the parentheses, like this.)

Plurals
You remember the rules from grade school: for most nouns, just add s to make the plural; if the noun ends in s, sh, j, x, or z, or soft ch, then add es. If the word ends in a consonant and y,
then change the y to i and add es (baby, babies). Proper nouns follow the same rules as other nouns, except never change a y to i and add es to make the plural.

I promised not to eat any French fries for a month.

But: The Frys are coming to have dinner with us.

Never add apostrophe s to make a plural of a name. The plurals of numbers and single or multiple letters are formed by adding s: ABCs, 1920s, in threes and fours. The plurals of most abbreviations add s before the period: yrs., vols. Exceptions are abbreviations with multiple internal periods (Ph.D.’s, M.D.’s) which add apostrophe s, and the abbreviations for page, note, and line which double the letter: pp., nn., ll.

Remember that in addition to mouse/mice, leaf/leaves, woman/women, and other common irregular plurals, the following words are also irregular and frequently misused.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>Appendixes 5</td>
<td>Diagnosis</td>
<td>Diagnoses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumnus (male)</td>
<td>Alumni (m. or mixed)</td>
<td>Hypothesis</td>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alumna (female)</td>
<td>Alumnae (all f.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis</td>
<td>Crises</td>
<td>Parenthesis</td>
<td>Parentheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criterion</td>
<td>Criteria</td>
<td>Phenomenon</td>
<td>Phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>Curricula</td>
<td>Stimulus</td>
<td>Stimuli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Datum</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Syllabus</td>
<td>Syllabi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some words look plural, but take a singular verb: news, ethics, measles, mathematics. Some collective nouns can take either a singular or plural verb, depending upon whether the word is treated as a unit or as a group of individual parts: committee, faculty, staff, jury, team, audience. The committee is going to vote on three recommendations. (For more irregular plurals and other plural rules, see Sabin 2001, 156-167).

**Possessives**

As you know, to show possession with singular nouns, plural nouns that don’t end in s, and indefinite pronouns, add apostrophe s: cat’s collar, women’s Bible study, one’s books. Exceptions because of euphony: Jesus’ teachings, Moses’ staff, names of more than one syllable ending with eez sound and some common nouns: Xerxes’ army, for conscience’ sake

For plural nouns ending in s, add only apostrophe: trucks’ tires, Andersons’ house.

*Note* that possessive pronouns (his, hers, its, theirs, yours, ours) have no apostrophe; thus it’s means “it is” and its is a possessive pronoun.

**Capitalization**

Capitalize names for deities, sacred works and their special sections, particular creeds and biblical events of major importance: God, Allah, Diana, Bible, Qur’an, Septuagint, Beatitudes, Passion of Christ. Do* not* capitalize pronouns referring to these deities, nor most adjective or noun derivatives: God in his mercy, Jesus and his brothers, messianic hope, biblical, talmudic, christological, but Christology, Christlike, Christian.

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4 This is the only time to make a plural by adding apostrophe s.
5 Appendixes (a regularly formed plural) is now the preferred plural form, not the previously preferred irregular appendices.
**Foreign words and phrases**

Italicize foreign words and phrases in the text. Do not italicize foreign place names, titles, and words that are considered anglicized or commonly used: the Puerto del Sol, Mlle Patneau, de facto, milieu.

**Grammatical Notes**

**Verbs**

Generally speaking, wherever possible, use active verbs rather than passive ones. The active voice is more powerful. Remember that in the active voice, the subject of the sentence does the action, and in passive voice, the subject receives the action of the verb.

**Active:** James threw the ball far.
**Passive:** The ball was thrown far.

Use passive voice if you want to emphasize the receiver of the action.

**Active:** Because of its many grammatical errors, the professor gave the paper many red marks.
**Passive:** Because of its many grammatical errors, the paper received many red marks.

Avoid the weak “It is. . . .” and “There are. . . .”

Be sure that you do not change verb tenses within a sentence or paragraph without a good reason. Watch out for subject-verb agreement, especially when a phrase comes between the subject and verb.

**The parts of this contract are** so confusing that I had to get a lawyer to interpret it for me.

Whenever possible, do not put an adverb between the parts of an infinitive (to plus a verb). Usually the adverb will sound better after the object of the infinitive (unless the object is long), or before the infinitive.

**Poor:** I was going to quickly finish my paper.
**Better:** I was going to finish my paper quickly. (The adverb quickly is after the object of the infinitive (my paper).)

**Pronouns**

Be sure that each pronoun has a clear antecedent, and that it agrees in number (singular or plural) and gender with the antecedent. If two or more antecedents are joined by or or nor, the pronoun agrees with the closest one.

**Neither her mother nor her sisters have any understanding of Susan’s missionary call.**

Remember that most indefinite pronouns (anybody, everyone, nobody, somebody, something, none, each, either, neither, one) are singular. Relative pronouns (who, whom, which, that) can be singular or plural, depending upon the antecedent. Many people, when speaking informally, use the plural they or their as a gender-indefinite referent when the antecedent is a singular indefinite pronoun (each, every, one, neither, nobody, anybody, everyone, etc.)

Prestigious writers used this form two centuries ago; it went out of fashion, and now is gaining usage in some circles. It is still not accepted in any of the style guides consulted for this document, so it is better not to use it. There are better options.

**Poor** (most say incorrect): Each person likes their paycheck to arrive on time.
**Better:** All people like their paychecks to arrive on time.

(Their is plural, but it doesn’t agree with its antecedent each.)
**Prepositions**

Can we correctly have a preposition at the end of a sentence? Yes, sometimes. In informal speaking and sometimes in informal writing, we hear or see sentences ending with prepositions. In fact, Winston Churchill is said to have had this reply when someone tried to “correct him” after he used a preposition to end a sentence: “This is the sort of English up with which I will not put.”

Informal: Which journal did that article appear in?
Formal: In which journal did that article appear?

The general rule (and *always* in formal papers) is to rewrite the sentence if possible; otherwise, leave the preposition at the end of the sentence. Sometimes it is too awkward to put the preposition anywhere except at the end.

Stilted: About what are you dreaming?
Better: What are you dreaming about?

Unclear: On how many volunteers can I count?
Better: How many volunteers can I count on? 6

Just don’t try to compete with the small child quoted by Sabin (2001, 274) who didn’t want to listen to a certain book at bedtime: “What did you bring that book I don’t want to be read to out of in for?” 😊

**Phrases and Clauses**

Misplaced modifiers give us some of our best “church bulletin bloopers.” Carefully proofread your papers to be sure all phrases and clauses clearly modify the word you desire. Otherwise, move the phrase or rewrite the sentence.

Incorrect: For those of you who have children and don’t know it, we have a nursery downstairs.
Better: We want you who have children to know that we have a nursery downstairs.

Incorrect: The music for today’s service was all composed by George Friedrich Handel in celebration of the 300th anniversary of his birth.
Better: The music for today’s service was all composed by George Friedrich Handel; we selected it to celebrate the 300th anniversary of his birth.

**Indefinite Articles**

In choosing which indefinite article (*a* or *an*) to use, the determining factor is the initial *sound* of the word that follows the article, not the actual letter with which the word begins. Use *a* before words that begin with a consonant sound (including a pronounced *h*, as in a hotel; long *u* [yu] sound, as in a uniform, a euphoric feeling; and *o* that sounds like *w*, as in a *one-day conference*). Use *an* before words that begin with any vowel sounds except long *u* (*an umbrella, an honor*). Choose the appropriate article to use with an acronym or initialism according to whether it is read as a word or a series of initials: *a NAFTA* deadline, but an *NAACP* meeting.

**Numbers and Abbreviations**

Numerals are used in scientific and statistical data; otherwise, spell out all numbers through one hundred (Turabian 1996, 25ff.). In APA style, however, the general rule is to spell out only the numbers below ten, and use numerals for ten and above (*Publication Manual* 2001, p. 122ff.). Fractions alone should be spelled out, but when combined with whole numbers, they

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6 For more help see Brooks and Pinson 1993, 59; *Merriam-Webster’s Concise Dictionary* 2002, 610-611; Sabin 2001, 274. For a history of this topic and a list of classic literary quotes with preposition-ending sentences, see *Merriam-Webster’s Concise Dictionary of English Usage* 2002, 609-611.
should be expressed in numerals: two-thirds, but 8 1/3d. Spell out any number that begins a sentence (or rewrite the sentence). For more examples and additional guidelines, see Turabian (1996, 15-37) or APA’s Publication Manual (2001, 122-130).

In general, abbreviations should not be used in written assignments. Exceptions include abbreviations of people’s titles and academic degrees, and A.M./P.M., B.C./A.D. In addition, abbreviations should be used in parenthetical references, bibliographies, reference lists, tables, and other closely set matter.

Abbreviations for companies, government agencies, and organizations should be put in parentheses after first spelling out the name, and then may be used subsequently.

In the 1960s the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA). . . . By 1990, the TVA had changed its focus to . . .

Abbreviations with internal periods (A.M., Ph.D.) should have no space after the internal periods. Personal names should have a space after the initials: P. F. Hutton.

State abbreviations (Follow the postal code form.)

<table>
<thead>
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</table>

Modern Versions of the Bible
ASV        American Standard Version  
CEV        Contemporary English Version  
GNB        Good News Bible

7 Turabian and Chicago write A.M. and P.M. in small capitals; the APA style is a.m., p.m.
Goodspeed The Complete Bible: An American Translation, E. J. Goodspeed
JB Jerusalem Bible
KJV King James Version
LB Living Bible
MLB Modern Language Bible
NAB New American Bible
NASB New American Standard Bible
NAV New American Version
NEB New English Bible
NIV New International Version
NJB New Jerusalem Bible
NLT New Living Translation
NJPS Tanakh: The Holy Scriptures: The New JPS Translation according to the Traditional Hebrew Text
NKJV New King James Version
NRSV New Revised Standard Version
OEB Oxford English Bible
PHILLIPS The New Testament in Modern English, J. B. Phillips
REB Revised English Bible
RSV Revised Standard Version
RV Revised Version
TEV Today’s English Version (= Good News Bible)
TNIV Today’s New International Version
WEYMOUTH The New Testament in Modern Speech, R. F. Weymouth

Books of the Bible

When citing a whole chapter or book of the Bible, spell out the name. When citing a verse or verses, whether in the text, parenthetical references, footnotes, tables, etc., always abbreviate the book. Note that abbreviations for the Hebrew Bible/Old Testament, New Testament, Apocrypha, and Septuagint do not require a period and are not italicized.

Genesis chapter three tells us how sin entered our world.
First Peter 3:15 instructs us always to be ready to explain our faith. (In this example, 1 Pet 3:15 is spelled out because it is incorrect to begin a sentence with a numeral.)
In 1 Pet 3:15 we learn always to be ready to explain our faith.
We should always be ready to explain our faith (1 Pet 3:15).
### Hebrew Bible/Old Testament Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old Testament Abbreviations</th>
<th>Old Testament Full Name</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>Genesis</td>
<td>Eccl (or Qoh)</td>
<td>Ecclesiastes (or Qoheleth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exod</td>
<td>Exodus</td>
<td>Song (or Cant)</td>
<td>Song of Songs (Song of Solomon or Canticles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lev</td>
<td>Leviticus</td>
<td></td>
<td>Isaiah</td>
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<td>Num</td>
<td>Numbers</td>
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<td>1-2 Kings</td>
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<td>3-4 Kingdoms (LXX)</td>
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<td>Psalms</td>
<td>Zech</td>
<td>Zechariah</td>
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<td>Prov</td>
<td>Proverbs</td>
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<td>Malachi</td>
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### New Testament Abbreviations

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<td>1-2 Thess</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Jude</td>
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<td>Rev</td>
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### Apocrypha and Septuagint Abbreviations

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<td>Additions to Daniel</td>
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<td>Pr Azar</td>
<td>Prayer of Azariah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bel</td>
<td>Bel and the Dragon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg Three</td>
<td>Song of the Three Young Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sus</td>
<td>Susanna</td>
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<td>1-2 Esdras</td>
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<td>Judith</td>
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<td>1-2 Macc</td>
<td>1-2 Maccabees</td>
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<td>3-4 Macc</td>
<td>3-4 Maccabees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pr Man</td>
<td>Prayer of Manasseh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ps 151</td>
<td>Psalm 151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sir</td>
<td>Sirach/Ecclesiasticus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tob</td>
<td>Tobit</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Commonly Misused Words

In a pseudoscientific poll (not pole) of the SFS faculty, the following words win the prize as the words that are most often misused in students’ papers. How many times have you also seen them used incorrectly in the church bulletin or song overhead? Don’t be guilty, too. It’s not going to bring Armageddon, but don’t do it. Your professor will see it and so will your congregation. As you’re going to notice, many of these misused words are homonyms, words that sound alike but are spelled differently. Even though you know which word to use when, it is easy to type the wrong word.

How do you find these typos, misspellings, and misuses? When you’re reading your paper out loud, stop every time you come to one of these words and be sure you have used the correct word. Reading contractions as the two original words can also help. If you have written you’re but meant your, it will become quite obvious to you when you read out loud, You are seminal theory on the relationship of ex nihilo creation to . . . . (Remember, though, that contractions should not be used in formal papers.)

The winners (that is, losers) in the misused word contest are these boldfaced words (used correctly here):

- It’s none of my business, but doesn’t your car need its windshield washed?
- They’re going over there to purchase their new books.
- It is too early to eat lunch, so we’ll just get two cups of coffee to drink while we talk.
- You’re going to get better grades if you carefully proofread all your papers.
- Who’s going to find out whose turn it is to lead the Bible study on Wednesday?

Other easily confused or misused words:

- We would accept you in our club, except for the fact that there are no more chairs.
- I can assure you that the president has insured our company against loss from hail, fire, floods, and lawsuits to ensure the company’s protection.
- Which criterion will you choose out of the many criteria available?
- One effect of canceling a reading week is that it would negatively affect both students’ and professors’ morale; it would be immediately reflected in their affect.
- The eminent author said we were in imminent danger from the coming apocalypse, but since we believed that God is immanent we chose to trust his providence.
- Although he implied that he was too busy to help us, I inferred that he just wanted to be begged.
- The prosecutor demanded, “Lead me there,” so the former manager led the way to the deserted lead mine in the desert. (After the trip, they stopped at Starbucks for dessert and coffee.) The evidence thus gathered led to a conviction of the CFO, who received his just deserts from the judge.
- If she isn’t careful, she’ll lose those loose papers and the dog will eat them.
- That blue stationery on the desk will remain stationary as long as you don’t turn on the fan.
- We were going to the museum, but now we’re going to someplace where we can enjoy the sunshine.
- Whether or not we go to see the Canaries will depend on the weather.

Is it all right to use the word alright? No. In spite of the fact that you will see alright in print occasionally, it is still considered nonstandard usage.

Being that should not be used in place of because or since.

Incorrect: Being that it is raining so hard, I am not going to the grocery store now.
Correct: Since it is raining so hard, I am not going to the grocery store now.

The winners for confusing us for the longest time must be lay and lie. “Lay (‘to put, place, or prepare’) and lie (‘to recline or be situated’) have been confused for centuries; evidence exists that lay has been used to mean ‘lie’ since the 1300s. Why? First, there are two lays. One is the base form of the verb lay, and the other is the past tense of lie” (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 2000). Remember that lay is a transitive verb: it must have a direct object. Its principal parts are lay (present tense), laid (past) and has or have laid (past participle). Lie is an intransitive verb: it doesn’t have a direct object. Its principal parts are lie (present), lay (past) and has or have lain (past participle).

She laid the book on the table. (It is the past tense of lay.)
He lay down on the bed but couldn’t sleep. (It is the past tense of lie.)


Commonly Misspelled Words

a lot catalog expense
absence campaign eyeing
accommodate canceled facsimile
acquaint cancellation fascinating
acquire Caribbean fatigue
adapt cemetery February
advantageous chief fiery
advertise colonel forty
advisor commitment fulfill
affect committee grievous
aggravate condemn guarantee
all right connoisseur harass
alleged coincidence holistic
alignment conscience homogeneous
amateur conscientious humorous
among conscious idiosyncrasy
analyze controlled illogical
anomalous consensus imaginary
antecedent de-emphasize immediately
appall deity inasmuch as
apparatus dependent independent
apparent dilemma indispensable
architect disappear interim
auxiliary disappoint interruption
awkward disapprove invariably
battery dissprove irresistible
beginning dissimilar judgment
beneficiary dividend knowledgeable
benefited effect laboratory
benign embarrassed ledger
bureaucracy exaggerate leisurely
calendar exhausted license
Inclusive Language

“Political correctness” taken to the extremes deserves the bad rap and jokes it has received, but we all should try to use language that includes others and tries to avoid the prejudices that are present in English.

Language which demeans or in any way shows prejudice against persons because of gender, race, ethnicity, class, socio-economic status, religion, age, or physical or mental ability reflects our distance from God’s intent of good relationships. God’s grace in redemption is inclusive (Gal 3:28). Just as human language can reflect brokenness, so can it reflect redemption and dignity.

Using inclusive language involves being aware of ways our words can exclude people, connote racism, or show prejudice against the old, young, disabled, or poor. We should adjust our words appropriately. Do not use words such as mailman, chairman, foreman, waiter, etc., to refer to men and women together; instead choose letter carrier, chair or chairperson, supervisor, server, etc. Do not use the term black to indicate something bad or evil. Do not use ethnic slurs or stereotypes.

Poor: Everyone stand and sing page thirty-seven. (Not everyone is able to stand or to sing.)
Better: Those who are able may stand to sing page thirty-seven.

Poor: I’ve never seen so many people with such lame excuses.
Better: I’ve never seen so many people with such poor excuses.

Poor: She is the black sheep of the family.
Better: She has the poorest work ethic in the family.

Poor: Next Sunday is Policemen’s Day at our church. (This excludes female police officers.)
Better: Next Sunday is Police Officers’ Day at our church.
Avoid using *he or man* as a generic word to mean both men and women. There are several alternatives.

1. Rewrite the sentence using the plural (they, them, themselves, their).
   
   **Poor:** Each student should have his photo taken immediately after registering.
   
   **Better:** Students should have their photos taken immediately after registering.

2. Substitute the first or second person (I, we, ours, you, yours) for the third person singular.
   
   You should have your photo taken immediately after registering.

3. If possible, rewrite the sentence to avoid the pronouns.
   
   **Poor:** A pastor must work hard if he wants to succeed.
   
   **Better:** As a pastor, one must work hard to succeed.
   
   **Better:** A pastor must work hard to succeed.

4. Use a translation that accurately translates the meaning of the original.
   
   **Traditional translation:** “And Jesus answered, ‘It is written, “Man shall not live by bread alone”’” (Luke 4:4 RSV).
   

   Occasionally, if options one through four do not work, you may use *he or she*, use the passive voice, or repeat the noun instead of using a pronoun. These three options should be considered your last choice.

   Avoid using the combined forms he/she, his/hers, s/he, he (she). They are too awkward and unnecessary.

   In writing and speaking, work to include the full range of biblical images for God rather than focusing exclusively on masculine images such as Father.

### Plagiarism

Plagiarism is using another’s words, theories, or ideas without acknowledgment. It is seen as both stealing (another’s idea) and lying (by passing it on as your original thought). Although plagiarism may be deliberate, it may also come about accidentally through sloppy research, note-taking, and writing. These steps can help you avoid plagiarism.

When taking notes while researching for a paper, be meticulous in indicating whether what you’ve written is a direct quote or paraphrase.

In your written work, enclose in quotation marks all direct quotations, including not only complete sentences but also unique phrases and terminology. Reference the source directly after the quotation with a footnote or parenthetical reference (including the page number).

Remember that you must also include a reference when summarizing or paraphrasing an author’s idea. When paraphrasing an author, be sure you rewrite everything in your own words. Just changing a few words or phrases is not sufficient, especially if you keep the same sentence structure and/or the same sentence order of the paragraph. For excellent examples see Indiana University (n.d.), Purdue University (2003a), and Northwestern University (1996).

No citation is needed for generally known facts, and for information found in many sources.

### Documentation

**General information for all papers**

The form for your paper’s reference citations (using either parenthetical references and reference list or using footnotes or endnotes and a bibliography) will depend upon which course the paper is for. Courses in the MFT and Counseling department follow the American Psychological Association’s *Publication Manual* (2001) which is summarized in Appendix A. All other courses follow the citation documentation given in Turabian (1996), which follows
here. There are two variations: the first uses parenthetical references and a reference list, and the second uses footnotes (or endnotes) and a bibliography. Use the **Turabian form of parenthetical references and a reference list unless your professor tells you differently. Use the APA style of parenthetical references (Appendix A) for all MFT and Counseling courses.**

The reasons for citing your sources and the basic information needed are the same no matter which documentation style you use. The first reason for careful citations is to give credit where credit is due. Secondly, you want others to be able to look at your sources and be able to continue your research, to look at the information in a wider context, etc. You, too, might want to find it again.

Your documentation should include all the information needed to find the quote or reference. Documentation forms are concise and use abbreviations that are not normally used in the body of the paper. Biblical references should be abbreviated (see page nine), and states should be abbreviated using the postal code abbreviations (see page seven). For other items normally abbreviated in the documentation, see the examples. The bibliography or reference list always begins a new page and is the last item in the paper.

The footnotes used in this paper are an example of how content notes may be used along with parenthetical referencing in a paper. Content notes should be limited; it is better to include the information in the text, where feasible.

Personal interviews or correspondence (including e-mails) should be cited in the text or footnotes, but not in the reference list or bibliography, since they can’t be retrieved by another person.

In citing biblical references, do not make an entry for the Bible version in the bibliography or reference list. If you use one version throughout the document, simply make a content note at the first entry, like this: (Hos 2:4). 8 This footnote will eliminate the need to keep including the version in each reference. If you use various versions in the paper, then your footnote might read something like this. 9 Then where exceptions occur, put the abbreviation of the version in the text following the reference (Jas 4:7 NIV).

General encyclopedias and dictionaries are not listed in the reference list or bibliography. General encyclopedias are not used in scholarly papers.

In the documentation of electronic sources include, as much as possible, the same information as for print sources. If there are no page numbers, date of publication, et cetera, as in print sources, give the information you have, adapt it where necessary, and note omissions. For example, if there is no publication date given, write n.d., just as you would for a print source. If an online journal has issues instead of volumes, then give that information in place of the volume number. If it has no page numbers, but instead the paragraphs are numbered, you can reference a quote by giving the paragraph number: para. 23. If there are no paragraph numbers, then reference the headline or section under which you found the quote: sect. four: Historical Background.

If a source is available both in printed form and electronic form, cite the form you actually consulted. You may mention the availability of the other form if you think it might be helpful to the reader. See examples in this document’s reference list.

If you use an electronic version of a print article and you have a choice of formats when you read the article, choose the .pdf file (some InfoTrac and ProQuest documents) or graphic file (ATLAS) format if it is available. In this way, you will have the same layout, charts, pictures, and pagination as in the print version, and both reading it and referencing your quotes will be easier. For example, if you use the ProQuest database in the library, many articles have two or three

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8 The New International Version (NIV) is used throughout this paper.
9 Scripture passages are from the New Revised Standard Version (NSRV) unless noted differently.
different icons indicating abstract, text only, or photo image of the journal pages. Choose the camera icon to get the photo image .pdf file.

In addition to the information included in documentation for print documents, the documentation for electronic sources includes the format [online database, CD-ROM] (in square brackets), availability (identifier number, URL or other information so the reader can find it), and date of access (for online sources only). It is not necessary to underline the URL, as shown in this document, but it makes it easier for the reader to identify it. If your word processing program automatically underlines the URL, then it is easier to leave it underlined. Whichever style you choose, be consistent.

If the URL does not fit on one line, divide it after a slash (/) or double slash (//); or before a period, hyphen, underline (_), number sign (#), question mark, or percent symbol; or either before or after an equals sign or ampersand (&). Do not put a hyphen at the division point, because the reader might try to include the hyphen when trying to access the site.

Turabian Documentation

Both Turabian styles use the authors’ whole names, not just the initials.

There have been many changes in the types and availability of electronic documents since the latest editions of Turabian and The Chicago Manual of Style were published. Consequently, these guides do not give forms for citing many of the types of electronic documents currently available. There are numerous recent online and printed documents that give examples of citing electronic documents, claiming to follow the Turabian style; however, they differ greatly in the order of the elements and other details. The examples given here for citing electronic sources in the Turabian style follow the APA order, since there is no official Turabian order.

Turabian Documentation Using Parenthetical Referencing and a Reference List

This form of documentation, uses the author-date system of in-text parenthetical references (in lieu of footnotes or endnotes). This information refers the reader to the complete information given in the reference list at the end of the paper. This writing guide is an example of this form of documentation.

The form for the parenthetical references is this: (Anderson 1999, 198). Note that the sentence punctuation is after the parenthesis, not before the reference or inside the parenthesis. The only exception is for block quotations (see the glossary: “block quotation”). The page number should be omitted in a reference only if the reference is to the whole book or article. If the author’s name is given in the text in a nearby sentence, it does not need to be repeated.

Elmer even suggests that cross-cultural training can help married couples to better understand themselves (2002, 17).

For two or three authors, give all names, the last two joined by and (not &): (Anderson and Michaels 1988, 166). For more than three authors, give the first author’s name followed by et al.: (Smith et al. 1998). For more examples of the parenthetical form, see Turabian, chapter ten.

In the following sample entries for the reference list you will note several distinctives of the Turabian reference list style. The author’s complete names are used (if known). Only the names of the first author are reversed; all other names are in first-name, last-name order. The publication date follows immediately after the author’s name (for ease in locating, if one author has several entries). The name and date are each followed by a period. Book and periodical titles are italicized (or underlined). Book and article titles are capitalized sentence style (only the first word, the first word after a colon, and proper nouns are capitalized). Periodical titles are capitalized headline style: capitalize the first and last words, the first word in a subtitle following a colon, and all words except articles, prepositions, to used as part of an infinitive, and coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, for) (Turabian 1996, 65-66). List all authors. Article
titles and chapter titles are not enclosed in quotation marks. Dates are written 17 March 2001. (For additional examples, see Turabian 1996, 179-213).

**Turabian reference list examples** (The parenthetical reference form, if different from the first example, is given underneath each reference list example.)

**Book, one author**

(Colson 1999, 244)

**Book, two or more authors** (List all authors; note that only the first name is last-name-first.)

(Hofstede, Pedersen, and Hofstede 2002, 355) [Two or three authors]

**Book, irregular entry**

(Beecher n.d., 39) [No date]

**Article/essay taken from a multi-authored book**

**Journal article**

**Magazine article**

**Signed article from specialized encyclopedia or dictionary**

**Online version of a print article or abstract** (If you think the online version has been modified, or if there is no pagination, add the date retrieved and the URL address, as with an online-only journal. If the abstract only has been retrieved, note abstract accessed 14 March . . . . This example is text-only and not .pdf format with the pagination of the original, so the URL is included.)

(Edwards et al. 2001, n.p.) [More than three authors and no pagination]
**Internet-only journal or newsletter** (This example has issues instead of volume numbers, so that information is substituted in place of the volume number.)
(Gullestrup 2003, 12)

**Internet-only article from organization Web site**
(Barna Research Online 2003, sect. 4, Personal Faith Commitment)

**Document (or abstract) accessed from an online database** (The URL is not needed because to access the article, the reader would just go to ProQuest database and type in the name of the article.)
(Edwards et al. 2001, 569) [More than three authors]

**Article from CD-ROM (and more than three authors)**

**Book or document from CD-ROM**

**Turabian Documentation Using Notes and a Bibliography**
The format illustrated here gives examples of the note form (footnote or endnote) and its corresponding bibliography entry. **Distinctives of this style are**: capitalize English titles of books, articles, journals and magazines in headline style: “Capitalize the first and last words and all other words except articles, prepositions, to used as part of an infinitive, and coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, nor, for)” (Turabian 1996, 65). Notice that in the note, the sequence for the author’s name is first-name, last-name. For the bibliography, the author’s last name is given first (for ease of alphabetizing and then locating it). If there is more than one author, only the first author’s name is last-name-first. Titles of articles and book chapters are enclosed in quotation marks. For situations not described below, refer to Turabian, chapters eight, nine, and eleven.

**Book, one author**
Note
^1Charles Colson, *How Now Shall We Live?* (Wheaton, IL: Tyndale House, 1999), 54.
Bibl.

**Book, two or three authors**

Note

Bibl.

**Book, irregular entry**

Note

Bibl.

**Article/essay taken from a multi-authored book**

Note

Bibl.

**Journal article**

Note

Bibl.

**Magazine article**

Note

Bibl.
Note


Bibl.


Online version of a print article (If you think the online version has been modified, or if there is no pagination, add the date retrieved and the URL address, as with an online-only journal. If the abstract only has been retrieved, note abstract accessed 13 March . . . This example is text-only and not .pdf format with the pagination of the original, so the URL is included.)

Note


Bibl.


Internet-only journal article or newsletter (This example has issues instead of volume numbers, so that information is substituted in place of the volume number.)

Note


Bibl.


Internet-only article from organization Web site

Note


Bibl.

Document (or abstract) accessed from an online database (The URL is not needed because to access the article, the reader would just go to ProQuest database and type in the name of the article.)

Note


Bibl.
Edwards, Gwenyth, Russell A. Barkley, Margaret Laneri, Kenneth Fletcher, Lori Metevia.

Journal article from CD-ROM database and more than three authors (list only the first author in the note, but all in the bibliography.)

Note


Bibl.

Book or document from CD-ROM

Note


Bibl.
APPENDIX A

APA STYLE DOCUMENTATION

Those following the APA style of documentation should also read the general comments beginning on page fourteen. APA documentation format utilizes the author-date system of in-text parenthetical references (in lieu of footnotes or endnotes). These short references refer the reader to the complete bibliographic information found in the reference list at the end of the paper. There are several style distinctives in APA.

The form to use in parenthetical references is: (author’s last name, date, p.XX). Note that the sentence punctuation is after the parenthesis, not before the reference or inside the parenthesis. Two or more authors are joined with & (Anderson & Baker 1998, p. 26) and both names are cited in each entry. For three to five authors, all are cited the first time, then only the first name followed by et al. (Van der Built, et al., 2000, pp. 133-134). For over five authors, cite only the name of the first followed by et al. Personal communications (including e-mail) are cited in the text, but not listed in the reference list since they are not retrievable by the reader.

Richard Foster (personal interview, October 3, 2002) explained that.

All sources that are referenced in the body of the paper (and only those sources) are listed in the reference list, in alphabetical order by the first author’s last name. If there are several entries by the same author, they are arranged chronologically.

In the following sample entries for the reference list you will note these distinctives of the APA style. Only the initials of the authors’ first and middle names are used, and the publication date follows in parentheses after the author’s name. Book and periodical titles are italicized (or underlined). Book and article titles are capitalized sentence style (only the first word, the first word after a colon, and proper nouns are capitalized), but periodical titles are capitalized headline style. (Capitalize all words except articles, short conjunctions, and short prepositions; capitalize all words over three letters.) List all authors up to, and including six; for seven authors and more, list the first six, followed by et al. (but not in italics). For additional examples, see APA’s Publication Manual (2001, pp. 215-281) or a summary at http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocAPA.html.

In general, documentation of electronic sources should follow the same format and include the same information as references to corresponding print sources. In addition, add each of these elements that apply: version of software program, electronic format [online, CD-ROM, et cetera] (in square brackets), date retrieved (for online sources, but not for CD-ROM), and the URL address. There are no periods after the URL of electronic sources, including at the end of the sentence. For more information, see APA’s Publication Manual (2001, pp. 207-214).

**Book, one author**

(Colson, 1999, p.34)

**Two to six authors** (In this example, two authors have the same last name and same first initial. Their names are spelled out to avoid confusion.)
(Hofstede, Pedersen, & Hofstede, 2002, p. 244)

**Book, irregular entry**

(Stowe, n.d., p. 35)

**Article/essay taken from multi-authored book**

**Journal article**

**Magazine article**

**Signed article from specialized encyclopedia or dictionary**

**Online version of a print article or abstract, three to five authors (If you think the online version has been modified, or if there is no pagination, add the date retrieved and the URL address, as with an online-only journal. If the abstract only has been retrieved, note abstract retrieved March . . . . The above example is text only and not in .pdf format with the pagination of the original, so the URL is included.**

(Edwards, Barkley, Laneri, Fletcher, & Metevia, 2001, para. 4) [First citation]
(Edwards, et al., 2001, para. 6) [Subsequent citations]

**Internet-only journal or newsletter** (This example has issues instead of volume numbers, so that information is substituted in place of the volume number.)

(Gullestrup, 2003, p. 15)

**Internet-only article from organization Web site**

(Barna Research Online, 2003, sect. 4, Personal Faith Commitment)
Document (or abstract) retrieved from an online database (Note that the URL is not needed because to access the article, the reader would just go to ProQuest database and type in the name of the article.)


Journal article retrieved from CD-ROM database (6 example of six or more authors)


(Ou et al., 2002, p. 20)

Book or document from CD-ROM


For more examples of documentation of electronic sources, see the online summary (APA, 2003) at [http://www.apastyle.org/elecref.html](http://www.apastyle.org/elecref.html), or (for the most examples), the APA’s *Publication Manual* (2001) pp. 268-2
APPENDIX B

EXEGESIS PAPERS

Most seminary students are required to write exegesis papers during their course of study, typically in Bible classes. An exegesis paper is a scientific study in which one extracts the meaning of the biblical text by investigating it in-depth. A student is to interpret a passage by gathering information and reasoning inductively (that is, arguing from raw data to general conclusions). By doing so, one looks to interpret the Bible accurately and faithfully.

Studying God’s word involves patience. To examine the text scientifically, a student should read the text multiple times, read it in its literary context, and try to find historical background information. In coming to informed interpretations, one will likely need to consult with scholarly resources such as concordances, lexicons, Bible dictionaries, atlases, and scholarly commentaries.

To write an exegesis paper is to write a biblical commentary of sorts. An exegesis paper is not a topical paper or a place for devotional reflection. Rather, every exegesis paper exhibits basic features:

- A linear (verse by verse, or scene by scene) investigation of the passage
- Attention to relevant literary context (word studies, literary forms, recurring themes)
- Attention to relevant historical context (date, place, customs)
- A summary statement of the main interpretive conclusion(s)

A professor may specify other requirements for an exegesis paper, including:

- The process one should use in exegeting the passage
- How many secondary sources one should have cited
- The extent to which one needs to work with the original Hebrew/Greek words
- Whether one needs to draw up your own translation from the original languages
- Whether one needs to draw up an outline of the passage
- Whether literary and historical contexts should be analyzed in discrete categories up front or integrated more organically
- Whether issues of higher criticism (source criticism, form criticism, redaction criticism, etc.) should be considered
- If doctrinal/worldview issues need to be identified
- If the paper is to include a self-reflective hermeneutical statement
- If an application section is required
Antecedent. The noun or phrase to which a pronoun refers. The pronoun must agree in number (singular or plural), person (subject or object), and gender with its antecedent.

Mary will speak first, because she must leave early. (Mary is the antecedent of she.)

Block quotation. Long quotation which should be indented and single spaced in the text. A block quotation does not have quotation marks, and the punctuation is before, not after the parenthetical reference, as is normal for all other parenthetical referencing. In the Turabian style, use a block quotation for two or more sentences that are eight or more lines of text; in APA style, use a block quotation for forty or more words. Show new paragraphs, italicized words, quotations, etc., exactly like the original.

The issue for us today is not whether the gospel will be inculturated in this electronic age, but how; not whether our social context shapes the experience of the gospel, but how. The core technology of the Postmodern Reformation is the screen—or what Walter J. Ong calls “secondary orality,” the subjection of literacy to the demands of orality. The modern world made us text-trained, with the book our chief icon. The postmodern world needs us to be light-trained, with the screen the chief icon.

Phyllis A. Tickle argues that “more theology is conveyed in, and probably retained from, one hour of popular television than from all the sermons that are also delivered on any given weekend . . .” But the “screen” is less television than computer. (Sweet 1999, 32)

Bibliography. A list of the sources used to write the paper. A bibliography is used when footnotes or endnotes are used in the text. Since most bibliographies are not complete bibliographies on the subject, a more precise heading is “Selected Bibliography” or “Sources Cited.” See also “reference list.”

Compound predicate. Two or more predicates joined by a conjunction that have the same subject. (No comma is needed before the conjunction.)

She closed her book and began the exam.

Compound sentence. A sentence made up of two (or more) independent clauses.

We went to town, and we bought groceries.

Dependent clause (subordinate clause). Has a subject and predicate (verb) but cannot stand alone as a sentence. See also “independent clause.”

(Incorrect sentence): If we went to town.

Electronic source. Information which comes from an online database, the World Wide Web (WWW) or from a CD-ROM source.

Endnotes or footnotes. References to sources quoted or referred to are given at the end of the text (endnotes) or at the bottom of each page (footnotes). When either of these is used, the list of sources at the end of the paper is a bibliography (not a reference list).

Independent clause. Has a subject and predicate (verb); gives a complete thought so can stand alone as a sentence. See also “dependent clause.”

(Correct sentence): We went to town.
**Misplaced modifier (dangling modifier).** A word, phrase, or clause that is so far from the word it modifies (describes or limits) that confusion or misreading results. See examples on page six, phrases and clauses.

**Parenthetical references.** References to sources quoted or referred to are given within parentheses in the text, and not in footnotes or endnotes. Use either the Turabian style or the APA style, depending upon the course.

**Phrase.** A group of words (without a subject and predicate) that is used as a noun, adjective, or adverb in the sentence.

Seeing her opportunity, Michelle brought up her idea about cell groups.

**Predicate.** The part of the sentence that tells the action or state of being of the subject of the sentence. The simple predicate is the verb alone. The complete predicate is the verb along with all modifying words and phrases. See also “compound predicate.”

Simple predicate: Bob drove all the way home yesterday.
Complete predicate: Bob drove all the way home yesterday.

**Preposition.** A word which connects a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence. Prepositions include at, for, from, in, of, on, and with.

Give your ticket at the door.

**Prepositional phrase.** A phrase that begins with a preposition. Prepositional phrases that begin a sentence should be set off with a comma. A pronoun that follows the preposition is in the objective case, not the subjective.

After all that discussion, we still do not have a clear plan of action.
Incorrect: Give the lesson books to Gary or I.
Correct: Give the lesson books to Gary or me.

**Reference list.** A list of all sources, but only those sources, that are quoted or referred to in the paper. The reference list is used when parenthetical referencing is used in the text. See also “parenthetical referencing.”

**URL** (pronounced you-are-el). Uniform resource locator. A World Wide Web address.

http://www.SFS.edu/library/index.cfm
REFERENCE LIST


