FROM BRAINSTORM TO BIBLIOGRAPHY

Writing a Term Paper in the Social Sciences and Humanities

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(with contributions from Alexander Rooke)

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Introduction

1.1 About this book

This book aims to help students write a term paper. It was written for students in the Social Sciences and Humanities, but much of the material is relevant to students in other faculties as well. Since it was developed for students at Bilkent University in Ankara, it is designed particularly for the needs of students who do not have English as their first language, though most of it is also relevant to native speakers.

The book follows the process of writing a term paper, from choosing a subject all the way through to final proof-reading and layout. Unlike some writing textbooks, this book is based on what academic writing is actually like, not what the author thinks it ought to be like. Examples are given from journal articles, and I have also gone through the writing process with two example papers of my own. Although there is no one set way to write a paper, the techniques described here have all been found useful; it is up to you to decide which methods work best for you.

1.2 About academic writing

Not all writing is the same; it follows different *genres*. A genre can be anything from a detective story to a business letter, and each genre has its own conventions: you would not write a letter to your mother in the same way as a letter to your bank manager. The genre of academic writing has quite specific conventions that you need to follow.

To make things more confusing, there are different conventions for different *types* of academic writing (such as books, articles and conference papers) and different academic *disciplines* (such as humanities, social sciences or engineering). However, some principles are the same for any piece of academic writing, whether it is a journal article on molecular biology or a conference paper on English literature. The main features of academic writing are:

Objectivity. Although you may sometimes give your own opinions, excessive subjectivity is counter-productive. Opinions should not be confused with facts, but should follow logically from them. This means

that the way you express opinions is important; e.g., "We can conclude that ..." might be better than "In my opinion ..." since the latter implies that it is *only* your opinion.

Formality. This goes hand in hand with objectivity. Although academic writing is not as formal as it used to be, you need to avoid slang and language which is too conversational. "I shall ..." is better than "I'm going to ..."; "eliminate" is better than "get rid of"; "implausible" is better than "stupid" (see page 39).

Clarity. Although unfortunately not all academic writers keep to this principle, it is best to keep your arguments as clear as possible; the reader should not have to work to understand what you are saying. A good argument needs precise *language*: "inefficient", "harmful" or "unethical" all mean "bad", but they are more precise; i.e., they give the reader more information. Similarly, a good argument needs clear *organisation*: the reader needs to know what each part of the text is about. Finally, the *presentation* of the paper needs to be clear, which is why there are conventions about spacing, margins, fonts and so on.

Acknowledgement of sources. You can write an original novel, but you cannot write a completely original academic paper, because most of the ideas and information in it come from earlier writers. For this reason it is essential that you acknowledge all your sources by proper use of *quotation* and *citation* (formal references in the text and at the end of the paper).

NOTE: This book is *not* an example of academic writing. While I have followed some of the principles of academic writing, I have generally not written this in a very formal, academic style.

1.3 About term papers

A term paper is a kind of practice exercise in academic writing. In some ways it is a rather artificial exercise; real academic writing is designed to present original research and argument to the academic community, while a term paper is usually written for one person, your teacher.[1] Despite this, it is a very useful exercise, for the following reasons:

1. By researching a subject in detail, you get a much deeper knowledge of that area than your lectures can provide.

2. Writing a term paper teaches you to give information and express ideas in a clear, systematic way. This skill is useful for almost all kinds of writing, not just academic writing.

3. Unlike exams, a term paper is an opportunity to show that you are capable of researching and arguing about a subject independently.

[1] I have used the word "teacher" to include "lecturer", "professor", "tutor" or whichever term is used in your school or department.

4. If you continue your academic career after graduating, it is good practice for "real" academic writing.

5. If you produce a really outstanding term paper, there is always a chance that it may be suitable for publication in a journal or submission at a conference. You can also publish your paper online (in your own blog or a site like LinkedIn), so that other students and academics can benefit from your research.

However, to be realistic, at the moment what you are mainly interested in is getting a good grade for your paper! This means that you need to think about what a teacher is looking for while marking a student's work. Every teacher has their own preferences, but some factors always apply.

1. Your paper should show that you have a good knowledge of the topic and have done independent research—it should be clear that you have looked beyond your textbook and lecture notes.

2. You should have an argument or perspective that is clearly explained and supported by suitable evidence. Unless your teacher tells you otherwise, your paper should not be pure description.

3. The organisation should be logical and easy for the reader to follow.

4. Your language should be clear and accurate. If the reader has to stop to think "What is this student trying to say?", you will not get a good grade.

5. Your paper should be well-presented, and follow whichever convention for citation (e.g., APA, MLA, CMS) your teacher requests.

6. Most importantly, the paper must answer the question or stick to the topic which you chose or were given. If you have to write a paper on the Roman Republic, then even the best paper on the Roman Empire will get an F.

1.4 About sources

In researching and writing your paper, you will obviously use a large number of sources. Three things are important:

1. Quantity of sources. Put cynically: the bigger the bibliography, the better the grade! However, there are limits to this; if you have fifty sources for a ten-page paper, it will be impossible to use them properly, and may make the reader think that you have not really looked at all of them.

2. Quality of sources. Your sources need to be relevant to your subject, and be at a suitable academic level. Wikipedia is not a high-quality source, for example—it is useful for getting a general idea of a subject, but you wouldn't want to quote it. Encyclopaedias, basic textbooks and general-purpose Internet pages are academic junk-food: easy to prepare but not healthy for your grades.

3. Use of sources. There is no point in reading a paper which is only taken from sources with no original thought. For the same reason, there is no point in writing one. You need to evaluate your sources and respond to them critically.

The worst thing you can do in a paper is *plagiarise*: to use someone else's words or ideas without giving them credit (i.e., by putting quoted words in quotation marks and giving references for all quotations *and ideas* that you use).

Some types of plagiarism are more obvious than others, such as handing in someone else's paper, putting parts of someone else's paper in your paper, getting someone else to write your paper, or copying from a source. I assume that if you are serious enough about writing your paper to be reading this book, you probably wouldn't want to commit this kind of plagiarism anyway. However, many students are not aware that the following are also plagiarism:

- Getting someone else to translate your paper into English;[2]
- Translating from foreign-language texts into English without citing the original;
- Paraphrasing or summarising someone's ideas without giving a citation;
- Using parts of a sentence written by someone else without placing it in quotation marks and giving a citation (apart from standard phrases, of course).

On the positive side, the more sources you use, and the more citations you have in the text, the more authoritative your paper will look. Citation shows your knowledge of the literature on your subject. Information on how to use sources will be given in Chapters 3 and 5.

1.5 About the writing process

Serious writing is a long process involving research, planning and frequent revising. This book treats the writing process as though it consisted of stages corresponding to the sections in the book:

- generating ideas
- research
- outlining
- writing a first draft
- revision and proof-reading.

[2]There are a few cases where this is *not* counted as plagiarism, though even then, you would be expected to give the translator credit.

In fact, research and writing is never as simple as this. As the science fiction author William Gibson puts it, writing is "a crazy, sloppy process with thousands of false starts and painful backtrackings" (MacNair, 1989 p. 23, in Olson, 1992 p. 5). However, it is worth trying to follow the linear process here as closely as possible, at least for your first term paper.

1.6 Tools

Before you start writing, you need to think about the technical side of how you are going to write. Whether you love them or hate them, computers have become part of our lives, and most writing nowadays is done with the aid of a computer. Your paper probably needs to be written with a word processor; unless you are told otherwise, hand-written papers will not be accepted.

The first thing to do is choose the software you want to use. If you have a program that you are already using and are happy with, then it is probably best to keep to that one. However, it is worth remembering that you have a choice; Microsoft Word is not the only word processor in the world, and there is no point in spending money on it if you don't need it. There are several word processors which you can download from the Internet free which will do just as well, such as LibreOffice or LyX.[3]

You can save a lot of time and trouble by getting to know the word-processor you are using. On the positive side, it should have pre-set styles which you can use for headings, long quotations, tables etc. On the negative side, it may do strange things to your text and formatting.

The presentation of your paper is important, because you do not want the reader to be distracted by the format. Even when you are starting work on your paper, it is useful to keep to some conventions; for example:

- It is normal to use double or 1½ line spacing. This makes the paper easier to read and lets the teacher write comments between the lines. However, if you are submitting work online, this rule might not apply. If you double space, do it through the formatting menu; don't hit the Enter key twice at the end of a line!
- Use a normal-looking font in a normal size (e.g., 12 point). The default font in many word-processors is Times New Roman, but this is actually rather too compressed to be comfortable to read. I recommend Georgia, Bitstream Vera Serif, Bookman or New Century. Unless you have a specific reason to do so, do not use several different fonts, as they can confuse the reader.[4]
- Indent the first line of each paragraph (your word processor should do this automatically; if not, check the settings for paragraph styles).

[3] LyX was designed for academic writing, so it handles things like cross-references and citations well, and once you get to know it, it is much easier to use than other word processors. It is based on LaTeX, which is the preferred format for mathematics papers. LyX is included in most Linux distributions, and is also available for Windows and Mac; see www.lyx.org

[4] For example, some academic journals have subtitles in a different font; this book sometimes uses different fonts for different types of information.

- If you want to emphasise words, use *italics*, not **bold**, since bold makes words stand out more than you want them to (as you can see by looking at this sentence). Underlining is a relic of the days of typewriters, so only do it if you are told to.
- You may put sub-headings in bold, but keep them in the same font (maybe one or two points larger).
- Number the pages.

Always check first to see if your teacher / department has any requirements about formatting. You can find templates for the major formats (APA. MLA etc.) online.

In addition to writing, you will be using a computer for much of your research. Make sure you have a good, up-to-date browser, and look into research tools such as Zotero, Mendeley or RefWorks.

2

Generating Ideas

2.1 Choosing and analysing a title or question

You will normally be given a list of titles or questions to choose from, based on subjects covered in the course. It is important to choose carefully; after all you will be working on this subject for a long time. There are some points that are worth thinking about when you choose your title. If you are given the freedom to choose a subject, choose one —

- that interests you.
- that you think will interest the reader.
- that you have opinions about.
- that you already know something about.

Discuss the title with your teacher. Once you have chosen the title —

- be sure exactly what it means;
- find out if you are expected to narrow down the subject in some way;
- find out if you are expected to give your own ideas, or just to explain/analyse other peoples'.

The important thing is to answer the question; you need a paper that fits the title you are given (or have chosen). Be particularly careful about some words in titles, making sure you know exactly what they mean. Some key words occur frequently.

ANALYSE**:** give the main divisions or elements, show how they are related, and emphasise what is important.

COMPARE**:** point out similarities, or differences of degree.

CONTRAST**:** point out differences.[1]

[1]The difference between "compare" and "contrast" is not very clear, which is why many questions start "Compare and contrast…".

CRITICISE: give your opinion of positive/negative characteristics.

DISCUSS: examine ideas in detail, giving your opinions.

EVALUATE: judge how true, useful, beneficial or effective something is.

ILLUSTRATE: give examples.

INTERPRET: say what you think it means.

JUSTIFY: defend, show to be right.

REVIEW: examine widely.

SUMMARISE: briefly detail the important points.

TO WHAT EXTENT: how much.

Also look carefully at words which may have a specific meaning in your own departmental subject; for example, "legitimacy" has a specific meaning in Political Science, "alienation" means different things in politics, sociology, psychology and philosophy, and so on. If you are not sure about a word in the question, ask!

To illustrate the process of analysing a question, let's consider a Political Science essay. The title is:

> *To what extent is Anarchism relevant to contemporary political thought?*

In analysing this title, what went through my head was something like this:–

- *Anarchism* — "I'll need to define Anarchism and give some—but not too much—background information."
- *relevant* — "We are only talking about whether Anarchism is relevant, not whether it is true or practical, though obviously the latter may be worth mentioning briefly, since if an ideology is totally impractical, it can't be relevant."
- *thought* — "So this concerns political theory, not practice. I don't want detail on the historical Anarchist movement, but I need to consider Anarchist writers. It may also be worth looking at some other writers who have been influenced by Anarchist ideas."

Analysing the title will give you ideas not only for *what* you are going to write about, but *how* you will go about researching and writing the paper. It may also raise questions which need to be discussed with your teacher, as the second example showed in the case of "effects".

Remember: when looking at the wording of a title, always think about what you have been *asked* to write about, not what you would *prefer* to write about.

2.2 Designing your own title

Sometimes, instead of specific titles or questions, you may be able to choose the subject of your term paper. Here are some steps to follow in designing your own title.

1. Make sure that you know the limits of choice (e.g., a particular subject area, time period or region).
2. Think of several alternative topics. Choose topics that you are interested in, and which you know something about already.
3. Limit the subject if necessary.

Here are some questions to help this process:

1. What causes / caused your subject?
2. What are / were the effects of your subject?
3. Does your subject prove / disprove / contradict something?
4. What different ideas do people have about your subject?

For example, let's say that you want to write something about homosexuality. Each question gives a different focus for your paper:

1. What are the causes of homosexuality? Are they social, cultural or genetic?
2. How does being homosexual affect a person's life? How does homosexuality affect society?
3. Does research on homosexuality challenge our view of human nature?
4. How do different social / cultural / religious groups view homosexuality?

Most subjects need to be narrowed down in some way. If you choose a subject like *American Foreign Policy*, *The Renaissance* or *Schizophrenia*, you will not be able to write anything interesting about it, because you will only be able to give basic information that has appeared hundreds of times before. On the other hand, *American Foreign Policy in the Caucasus: 1980-1995*, *The Influence of Islamic Philosophy on Renaissance Thought* or *Cultural Factors in Schizophrenia* might be suitable subjects.

Many students do not realise how long and detailed titles can be. Here are two examples from academic journals and one from a chapter in a collection of papers:

> Employee participation and assessment of an organizational change intervention: a three-way study of Total Quality Management (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999).
>
> Good Will hunting or wild goose chase?: masculinities and the myth of class mobility (Rees, 1999).
>
> "How do you know she's a woman?" Features, prototypes and category stress in Turkish *kadın* and *kız*. (Turner, 2006).

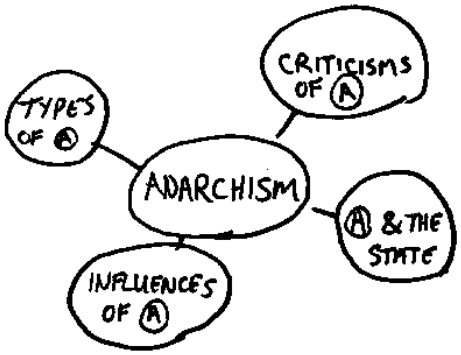
Note that a colon is often used to divide a title into two parts; the part after the colon gives extra information.

Brainstorming

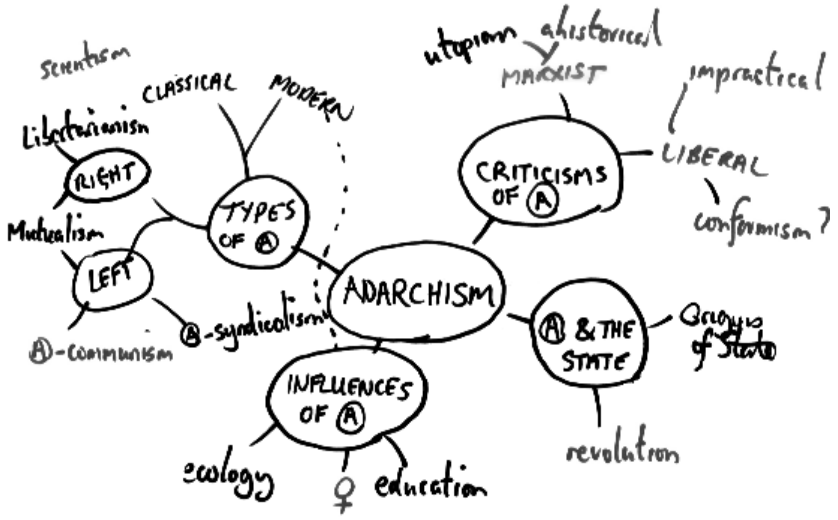
You are probably already familiar with the idea of brainstorming. This is a good way of generating ideas for writing, as it is a bit like tipping everything that's in your head onto the paper so you can look at it. The most popular method is called a "spider diagram".

Start by writing the subject you want to brainstorm in the middle of the paper like this:–

Whatever ideas come into your head, write them in balloons and join them to the subject like this:–



As you get other ideas, you can add strings to your existing balloons, so that the end result will look something like this:–



Some tips for brainstorming:–

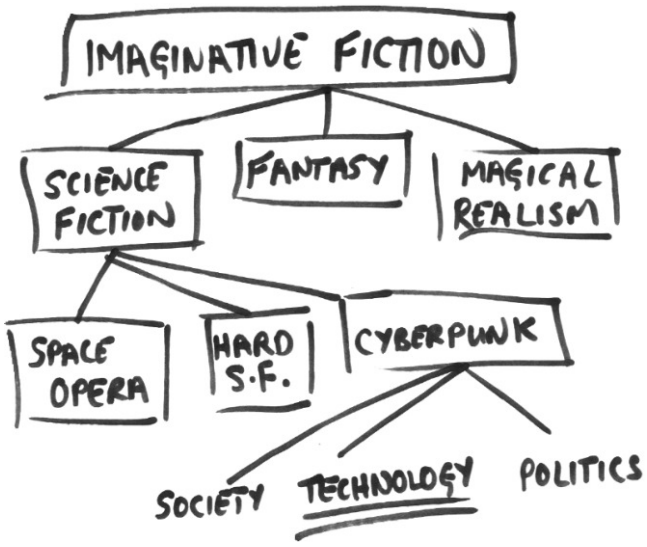
- Write down anything that comes into your head, even if it seems stupid or irrelevant.
- Don't think about what you've written until you've finished brainstorming. At this stage you just want to get ideas on paper, not evaluate them.
- Use drawings, symbols or abbreviations to speed up the process and make things stand out.
- Write quickly. This will stop you thinking too much about what you're doing, and allow ideas to come out more easily.

What to do with your brainstorm

First wait for a while, so that you have a chance to look at your brainstorm with fresh eyes. Then ask yourself which ideas are relevant, and cross out the ones which obviously have nothing to do with your paper (remember that in a brainstorm you write down anything that comes into your head, so a lot of it may be rubbish). Think again about the title of your paper, and ask yourself if the brainstorm you have done is on the right lines for the kind of paper you want to write. It may, for example, concentrate too heavily on one aspect of the subject while ignoring others, or it may be too general. If this is the case, do another brainstorm, starting with a more specific idea and trying as far as possible to make the main strings of the brainstorm correspond to possible sections of your paper (you don't need to decide exactly how you are going to organise your paper yet, but its worth having a general idea). When you have finished the second brainstorm, again cross out anything that you definitely don't want in your paper, and add anything else that you think of.

Narrowing down with tree diagrams

This is another type of brainstorming which is slightly more systematic. Write your general subject area at the top of the page, then a few lines down, write the major divisions of your subject. Subdivide ones that look useful, and continue until you get a subject which is specific enough for a term paper.



In the end, you should have something from which you can get a title. In this case it could be

> *Mind, Body and Machine: Cyberpunk's ambivalent relationship with technology*

2.3 Writing a working thesis statement

Writers and teachers disagree about what to call the part of a paper which tells you what the paper will be about; some call it a "thesis statement" while others prefer the phrases "focus statement", "statement of intention" or whatever. Furthermore, some writers argue that there is a difference between these terms. For the sake of convenience, I shall use the term "thesis statement" to mean anything that gives the reader some idea of the subject of the paper and what the writer intends to do with this subject matter.

The simplest kind of thesis statement just tells the reader what the purpose of the paper is. This is particularly common in papers presenting the writer's research; the findings of the research are often left to the end of the paper, while the introduction simply gives information about the aims or methods of the research. If you want, you can be quite explicit about your purpose, saying for example, "In this paper I shall ...". Alternatively, the paper itself can be the subject of the sentence, e.g.,

$$This \left\{ \begin{array}{c} paper \\ study \\ research \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} investigates \\ analyses \\ compares \end{array} \right\} ...$$

Here are some examples from two academic journals: *Gender and Society* and *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies* (titles are in capitals).

> THE IMPACT OF MIGRATION ON TURKISH RURAL WOMEN: FOUR EMERGENT PATTERNS
>
> This article investigates the varied experience of rural-to-urban migration women in secular Muslim Turkey.
>
> (Erman 1999, p. 146)

> IS THE MIDDLE EAST DEMOCRATISING?
>
> This article aims to highlight the continuing tensions between the processes for democratisation and the strategy of gradually opening up of political systems in the Middle East.
>
> (Ehteshami, 1999, p. 199)

This type of thesis statement therefore has the structure:

SUBJECT + PURPOSE.

However, in most papers it is a good idea to give the reader an idea of your main argument. The minimum structure of this kind of thesis statement is:

SUBJECT + CLAIM.

Here are a few examples of this kind of thesis statement, again taken from academic journals (don't worry if you don't understand some of the terms used; look at the *structure*).

> A TWO-TIERED COGNITIVE ARCHITECTURE FOR MORAL REASONING
>
> I shall argue that moral reasoning in a biologically normal and mature individual is subserved by a two-tiered cognitive architecture.
>
> (Bolender, 2001, p. 399)

> EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION AND ASSESSMENT OF AN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE INTERVENTION: A THREE-WAY STUDY OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT
>
> TQM, as set out by its founders, is a coherent philosophy with a distinctive set of interventions, but ... the reality of organizational practices does not mirror that philosophy.
>
> (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999)

> GOOD WILL HUNTING OR WILD GOOSE CHASE?: MASCULINITIES AND THE MYTH OF CLASS MOBILITY.
>
> Perhaps one of the reasons that 1997's *Good Will Hunting* received such warm critical and popular receptions is because its narrative is for many viewers another telling of America's most dominant myth.
>
> (Ress, 1999, p. 228)

Note that the authors introduce their assertions in different ways. In the first example, the author is very explicit, saying "I shall argue ...". The second is more indirect, saying "but ... the reality", which implies that the normal view of Total Quality Management is incorrect, and his view is correct. In the last example, the author is making a claim that the film uses a popular American myth (that a poor but talented person can always improve their social position), and makes a cautious connection between this and the film's popularity, using the word "perhaps". In general it is a good idea to make your thesis statement explicit; if you are going to argue that a particular point of view is correct, say "I shall argue that ...".

If you already have a good idea of the content of your paper, you can include the main sections or subject areas in your thesis statement, e.g.,

> Cyberpunk is characterised by a fascination with the possibilities of technology on the one hand, and impatience with technical details on the other. I shall discuss this ambivalence with reference to three works: William Gibson's *Neuromancer*, Tad William's *Otherland* series, and the film *The Matrix*.

This has the structure:

> SUBJECT — cyberpunk
>
> CLAIM — there is a contradiction in attitudes to technology
>
> STRUCTURE — the three works mentioned.

At the moment all you need is a sentence or two which will give your paper focus and direction—in other words, a working thesis statement. You will probably change this or add to it as you write; new ideas may occur to you as a result of your research, and you may find better ways to word your thesis statement.

3

Research and Outlining

3.1 Research strategies

Before you start research, have a clear idea of what you need to know in order to write your paper. Your time is valuable, so do not waste time reading things you don't really need. Start research with a research strategy.

Research Questions

A good way to start is to write down some questions that you need to write answers to. If you have done a brainstorm, you will probably have written down some ideas which you don't know very much about. For example, in the Anarchism brainstorm, I wrote down "Right-wing Anarchism". I actually knew very little about this topic at the time, except that the most prominent modern writer was called Nozick and he had written a book called *Anarchy, State and Utopia* (Nozick, 1974). This generated the following research questions:

- What is Nozick's view of the market?
- If he allows for capitalism but not the State, how does he deal with the problem of security of property?

You may not actually need a question, even. Sometimes it is enough to just list areas which you need to research, or subjects which you need to find.

Using what you already have

You already have a lot of the information you need for the paper in your own head (remember that you should choose a subject that you already know something about). In addition, your course notes are a useful source of information. Lecturers often recommend books on the subject or refer to standard authors. If a lecturer has referred to a book in class, it is probably a good idea to refer to it in your paper. You may also have been given a reading list for the course, which should contain useful sources for your paper. Remember, however, that these are likely to be standard works (i.e., books

which everyone is expected to have read), so they will not be enough on their own.

Human Sources

People are useful. If you are writing a paper on a political party and your aunt is a member of parliament, she is obviously the first person to go to! Other students can help; for example, if you have been asked to write a paper on ethnic or religious minorities, talk to friends who are members of minority groups and see what *they* think about it. You may be surprised.

Talking to your teacher is also helpful; she or he can explain terms which you don't understand and also tell you where to find the relevant books. You can also ask lecturers from other departments or other universities. If you have an intelligent question that relates to their area of research, most academics will be happy to answer it for you. On the other hand, please don't waste people's time by asking them questions which could be answered by a Google search.

Encyclopaedias, Textbooks and Dictionaries

As a general rule, don't use encyclopaedias in your research. If you know so little about a topic that you need to look it up in an encyclopaedia, it's the wrong topic for you. However, some specialist encyclopaedias can be a useful starting point (e.g*., the Internet Encyclopaedia of Philosophy*).

Textbooks are useful for getting general information about a subject. However, it is usually a bad idea to refer to a standard textbook in your paper, since this makes the reader think you have been lazy and not read the primary sources.[1] A textbook is a good place to start, but a bad place to finish.

Dictionaries can occasionally be useful when you need to define a term precisely. You may want to adopt the definition given in the dictionary, or you may want to change it to meet the specific requirements of your paper. If you use a dictionary like this, make sure you use a good standard one, such as *Webster's* or *The Oxford English Dictionary*, not a school dictionary or one designed for learners of English. There may also be specialised dictionaries in your subject, such as *The American Dictionary of Political Thought.*

Using the library

The best place to start library research is the library's computer database. However, it is not always enough to go looking for one keyword of the term paper title in the computer. A good example would be if you were going to do a term paper on the philosopher Ibn Rushd: there might be only one book in the library with "Ibn Rushd" in the title, but several with sections or chapters about him. Thinking about associated subjects helps: Islamic

[1] A primary source is one written to express original ideas; a secondary source is a summary of, or commentary on, primary sources. For example, Plato's *Republic* is a primary source; *Plato's Theory of Ideas* would be a useful secondary source, but *An Introduction to Greek Philosophy*, while it might be worth reading for background information, would not be a good source to refer to in your paper.

thought, other Islamic philosophers (Ibn Sina, al-Ghazali), Andalucia etc.. Remember to try variations of the name you are looking for: Ibn Rushd is also known as Averroes; "Mao Zedong" is also written "Mao Tse Tung". Teachers often hear the cry "I can't find any books!" from students who only put one word in the computer, and believe there are no books available because the computer says "0 records found".

If you are looking for books

First use the computers in the library, or log in through the Internet. Try a simple keyword or author search first. The only problem with this is that sometimes you get too many books. In this case, look for a "free form search", "advanced search" or "narrow serach" option, which allows you to specify, for example, both the author and the title, or a keyword and type of publication. Take the reference numbers of books that look useful.

Now, go to the shelves, and examine the books you find.

- Look for the publication date—if you are studying the social effects of information technology, a book written in 1990 will not be very useful.
- Look at the Contents page and the Index—does the book contain enough information on the subject you want?
- Look at the Bibliography; maybe you can find useful books listed here.
- Look at the books on the same shelf as well, since you might find something useful that the computer did not tell you about.

If you are looking for journal articles

Academic journals are one of the most important sources of information. The only problem is that there are so many of them, so it is not always easy to find the articles you want.

The best ways to search for journal articles are online databases. Your library may have a custom search engine for journals; if not, go straight to a specialist search engine like Google Scholar. When you have found articles that look useful, download them. If they are not available online, go to the Bound Journals section of the library. When you find the article you want, skim it to check that it is useful. If it is, then photocopy the relevant parts, making sure to write the reference details (author, journal name and number/date) on the top of the photocopy if necessary.

Some journal articles require payment to view. If you see demands for money, check:

- that you are logged in on campus—sometimes the library has a subscription to the journal but your location won't allow you to access it;
- if there are alternative sources for the same text;
- if the library can order it for you.

Web Searches

As I have just said, the best way to search the web is through the library. However, you may sometimes need a more general search. There are a number of search programs available (e.g., Google, Duck Duck Go), but most of them are fairly similar. When you search, it is best to be as specific as possible, otherwise you will waste time looking through a lot of irrelevant data. For example, I entered a search on Anarchism, which produced over four million results![2] Most search programs allow you to put a minus sign or a NOT in front of words which *mustn't* turn up in the search; join words with OR, and search for exact phrases using quotation marks. Here is an example of selective searching:

"second life" -program -avatar -virtual -online -linden

Here I am looking for texts that include the phrase "second life" but I am trying to avoid the hundreds of thousands of pages about Second Life, the virtual world program from Linden Labs.

When the search program turns up something that looks interesting, make a note of the author and title (if they are mentioned) and, most importantly, the URL. It is also worth saving articles to disk while searching, as this means that you can later go straight to the article, rather than having to go into the Internet again. If you are using your own computer, bookmark the page. Better still, use a combined bookmarking / note-taking / bibliography program like Zotero or RefWorks.

Remember that, unlike journal articles, anyone can write a web page, so most of what is written online is not useful. Ask yourself what kind of a page you are looking at. Is it:–

- ... an academic journal?
- ... a page by an expert in his/her field?
- ... the site of a governmental or professional organisation?
- ... a commercial website?
- ... political or religious propaganda?
- ... a personal blog or home page?

Sometimes the domain name (in the URL) can give you clues: ".edu" or ".ac" mean that the site is hosted by a university (though it is not always an official university site—it could be a student's home page); ".gov" is for government departments; ".org" is for organisations; ".com" could be anything.

Be selective, and don't get sidetracked into following an endless chain of links. If you are not disciplined about your Internet research, you can start off looking for critical articles on science fiction and end up watching *Star Trek* videos on YouTube.

[2] In 1995, when I wrote the first version of this book, it was only 487, which shows how the Internet has grown.

3.2 Evaluating Sources

This is an essential part of the research process; time is limited and you do not want to waste valuable hours by reading through a chapter or article that is useless for your task.

In evaluating a text, do the following:–

1. Consider who wrote it. Is the writer a scholar, a journalist or a propagandist? If you do not know anything about the author, there may be some information about him/her at the front of the book or on the back cover. In the case of articles on the web, you may well find a link to the author's home page. This is also one case where Wikipedia *can* be useful!

2. Check the publication date. Was your text written at a time when information on the subject was incomplete (as in the information technology example above), or at a time when objectivity might be difficult (e.g., a book about the Vietnam War written in 1972)?

3. Check the publisher. Generally academic journals and university presses (e.g., OUP, MIT Press) will give you the most reliable information, followed by major publishing houses (e.g., Penguin, Routledge). Some publishers, such as Kluwer and John Benjamin, specialise in academic work. In the case of web pages, check to see if it is an official page of some academic, scientific or medical body, a home page or a page hosted by a political organisation.

4. Scan the introduction. Does the writer have any particular thesis or argument?

5. Look at the Table of Contents and the Index. What focus does the text have? What does it include and what does it leave out?

In other words, do not assume that every source you find on your subject will be relevant, accurate or objective. Your evaluation will affect both *whether* you use a source and *how* you use it; for example, *Mein Kampf* is a good source to quote in a paper on Nazi ideology, but you would not use it as a source of facts.

3.3 Creating a working bibliography

While you are carrying out your initial research, you need to make a working bibliography. This has two purposes: it helps you find sources when you need them again, and it will eventually become the reference page in the final version of your paper.

There are various ways to organise your working bibliography, but whichever method you use, you will need the same information for each source. This is:

- author's full name[3];
- title;
- place and date of publication;
- publisher.

You may also want to make a note of the library code to make it easier to find the source later. In addition, if the source is part of a larger work (e.g., a journal or a collection of essays) you need that information as well.

It is best to start keeping your working bibliography in the same format your final paper will use, so check to see if a particular format is required. The most popular format in the social sciences is APA (American Psychological Association), while in the humanities, Chicago style and MLA (Modern Languages Association) are more common. Full details of these formats are given in Appendix C.

3.4 Taking notes

If your notes are good, they can be tidied up and organised to form the basis of your paper. In other words, you are writing as you research. Furthermore, note-taking helps to focus your mind on the different aspects of the subject.

In researching a term paper you are only looking for information which can be used in the paper, so you will be reading and taking notes very selectively; a two-hundred-page book may actually only provide two lines of notes!

If you make your notes selectively and thoughtfully, these can later be organised into the outline, which will form the basis of your paper. If it is practical, it is best to write your notes on a computer, since then it will be easy to cut and paste quotations and bibliographical information into your paper. For each source, write the bibliographical information at the top of the page, as well as in your working bibliography.

You will make three types of notes: quotation, summary and personal observations.

Quotation

Probably the majority of your notes will be quotations. Here are some points to remember when using quotation in your notes:

- Remember to put the whole quotation in quotation marks, so that you won't forget that it is not your own words.
- In parentheses, include the page number (and the date, if you plan to use APA referencing). If the quotation runs over two pages, mark

[3]Some bibliography formats only need the surname and initials (e.g., Smith, J.E.) but in a working bibliography it's best to include the name as it is given in the book (e.g., Smith, Jane E.). I once prepared a paper using APA format, which only requires initials, only to find later that my publisher wanted full names; going back to the original sources to find the authors' full names was not enjoyable.

where the page break occurs, so that if you later decide to only use part of the quotation, you will know which page to write as a reference.

- If you do not use the whole quotation, mark the missing section(s) with three dots (...), and if you add your own words, put them in square brackets; for example, "TQM [Total Quality Management] ... is a coherent philosophy with a distinctive set of interventions" (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999, p. 439).

Summary

After reading a few pages, write down in note form the main points that you remember and consider relevant to your research. Some people recommend doing this with the book closed. As with quotations, include references.

Examples of summary notes:

> Criticism of Nozick
>
> > Property rights not nec. absolute rights.
> > Prob. of voluntary transaction not leading to vol. result.
> >
> > (Taylor, 1982, p. 96)
>
> Types of soc. control:–
>
> 1. retaliation/feuding
> 2. reciprocity
> 3. approval/disapproval
> 4. supernatural sanctions
>
> N.B. small stable groups ⇒ fissioning
>
> (Taylor, 1982, p. 78–91)

Personal notes

These are your own comments/opinions/ideas resulting from the texts you are reading. It is worth marking these in some way (e.g., with a *P*) so that you remember that they are your ideas and not the author's. Personal notes are particularly important, since they form the basis of your arguments and conclusions.

Example:

> Freedom must be rational + moral (Crowder, 1991, p. 10)
> ***P*** compare with Stoicism

Two important points when note-taking:

1. When taking notes, do *not* "paraphrase" by taking the original sentence and changing a few words. This is a waste of time, and may lead to plagiarism. *Either* quote *or* summarise in note form.

2. Make sure you include citations for all notes. You will need these when you write your paper.

3.5 Preparing an outline

A good outline helps the writing process in a number of ways.

- It helps you to organise your ideas.
- In particular it makes you think about the type of organisation you are going to use in your paper.
- It makes it easy to see if there is any information which should be added or left out.
- It is something to refer to while you are writing, rather like looking at a map when you are on a journey.
- It gives you something you can show to teachers and friends so that they can give you feedback.

This last point shows that there are different types of outline. If you are just writing an outline to get your thoughts organised, you can write it how you like, but if you are going to show it to someone else, you need to make it as clear and detailed as possible.

Parts of the outline

Like your paper, the outline will be divided into three main parts: introduction, body and conclusion. In addition, the body will be divided into a number of main sections corresponding to the main arguments or logical divisions of your subject. You can continue subdividing as much as you want. The best way is to subdivide until you get something that looks like it will occupy one or two paragraphs, but there is no need to be rigid about this; you won't know exactly how long your paragraphs will be until you write them. You may even make some major changes to your outline if you find out that some sections do not fit together well. Similarly, teachers or friends may suggest changes.

From brainstorm to outline

The best way to start writing your outline is to have another look at your brainstorm. Now that you have done some research, you are in a better position to decide what should and should not be included in your paper. Like you did before, cross out anything that you don't want to go in your paper, and add any new ideas that came up as a result of your research. The final result will probably look rather messy; what you need to do now is to group it into the main sections of your outline. Here is an example from the Anarchism paper:–

1. Introduction
2. The Anarchist critique of the State
3. Marxist criticisms of Anarchism
4. Liberal criticisms of Anarchism

5. Influence of Anarchism
6. Conclusion

Before you go any further, ask yourself the following questions:

- Have I left anything out?
- Is anything unnecessary or irrelevant?
- Have I thought of all the arguments for and against my position?
- Have I really answered the question?

Once you have the main sections worked out, you can start to subdivide them to add details. For example, I expanded section 2 of this rough outline as follows:

2. The Anarchist critique of the State
    - 2.1. State of Nature theory
        - 2.1.1 Philosophical background: Zeno, (in Laertius, 1983:121) Rousseau (1988:137)
        - 2.1.2. State as unreasonable and immoral (Godwin)
        - 2.1.3 Scientism and anthropology (Kropotkin)
    - 2.2. Explanation of the State
        - 2.2.1 Not as systematic as Marxist explanations

Notice that there are no full sentences here; everything is in note form. I have put the names of authors I intend to refer to in parentheses, sometimes with a specific reference for a quotation I can then find easily in my notes. When filling in the details, remember the following points:–

- Always have your thesis statement in mind. Can all your points be related to it?
- Does each section have a clear topic? Is there enough evidence to support it?
- Have you considered counter-arguments (i.e., points against your arguments)?
- Are the relations in your outline clear?
- Have you indicated where quotations/information from your notes will be used?
- Have you *really* answered the question? (sorry to keep repeating this, but not answering the question is the main reason for papers failing!)

Don't worry if some sections of your outline aren't very detailed at the moment; you can always add more detail later (this is one reason why you may want to write with a computer even for the outline). The introduction and conclusion may need more detail than the rest of the paper.

See Appendix A for an example outline.

Alternatives to outlines

Some people just don't like outlines. One alternative is to expand on your spider diagram or tree diagram, keeping only the parts you are sure you want to use in your paper, adding detail and organising the branches to follow the organisation you want for your paper.

Another alternative is free writing. This is different from a proper first draft, which should still be as close to the final form of your paper as you can make it; rather, you are writing a very rough sketch of your paper, putting in much less detail and not worrying too much about style or organisation. After you have written this rough essay, show it to a teacher or friend for comments, then re-organise it, putting in section headings, and use it as the basis for your first "real" draft.

4

Drafting

No one can produce a good paper straight away. It is therefore necessary to write at least one draft (possibly several) which you will change and correct later. If you have written a good outline, the first draft shouldn't be too hard, as it just a matter of expanding your outline into a paper. It is a good idea to paste your outline into the document you will use for your first draft.

There are some general considerations that apply when writing a first draft. The first is that you do not need to write it in the same order that it will eventually appear in; i.e., you do not need to begin at the beginning and continue to the end. For example, I often write the introduction *after* I have written the body of the paper. You can also write comments that will eventually be replaced; for example, I sometimes write things like find a reference for this or expand this part (it's a good idea to put these in a different font or colour so that you won't forget to remove them).

A draft does not necessarily mean a *rough* draft, though. It is an opportunity to show your work to friends and teachers to get feedback. For this reason, you should not write carelessly. You do not need to pay so much attention to fine points of style, but your writing should still be clear and grammatical. For the same reason, your draft should be well-presented (double-spaced with wide margins etc.). Remember to save your document frequently (e.g., after each paragraph) and keep backups. I recommend using *two* cloud backup services: one which is synchronised with your computer, and one for more permanent backups.[1] "My computer had a virus" is not a good excuse for not submitting work on time.

4.1 Things to avoid

Certain things will nearly always lower the quality of your paper, and should be avoided, even at the drafting stage.

[1] Actually I use three services because I'm paranoid: Copy to keep all my devices in sync, DripBit for periodic backups, and Box for occasional manual backups.

Obvious information

Your reader is an intelligent and well-educated person. Do not insult their intelligence by telling them obvious facts. While background information can be useful, nobody wants to be told that Tolstoy was Russian or that China is a large country.

Over-generalisation, clichés and platitudes

While the introduction is a good place to include general information which might be out of place in the body of your paper, you should not include statements which are so general that they do not say anything useful. This is a very common problem in student writing, and leads to platitudes (things which are so obvious that you do not need to say them) and clichés (phrases that have been used so much that they become stale). Some examples:

> From the dawn of civilisation, people have struggled to improve the conditions of their lives.
>
> Now we have reached the twenty-first century ...
>
> Human beings need freedom.
>
> War is a serious problem in the world.
>
> Third World countries have many economic problems.
>
> Turkey is a bridge between Europe and Asia.
>
> All over the world ...[2]

Dogmatic statements

While holding strong opinions on your subject is perfectly acceptable, you should avoid sounding dogmatic. Some examples:

> Privatisation is the only way to bring prosperity and justice.
>
> Privatisation is the last attempt of the capitalist robbers to prevent the people's revolution.

It is obvious that if the reader is against privatisation, he or she would react negatively to the first sentence; similarly, the second sentence would not be received well by a right-wing reader. Even if the reader is sympathetic to your ideas, however, they may well be annoyed by a dogmatic statement.

A note on "I" and "we"

Some teachers and textbooks say that in academic writing you should never use the first person ("I", "we" etc.). As we saw in the section on thesis statements, this is not true in most types of academic writing. You should avoid sounding too subjective, but you can still use the first person to explain your purpose. It is perfectly acceptable to say:

> I shall examine / argue that / analyse / refer to / define

[2] In case you're laughing, consider that these examples are taken from real student papers.

On the other hand, avoid telling the reader about yourself or why you chose this particular subject, and leave strong opinions until the conclusion. Similarly, while it is sometimes useful to explain why your subject is important, you don't want statements like "I chose this subject for my term paper because . . . ".

In general, the first person is found most frequently in introductions, is less common in the body of the paper, and is rarely found in the conclusion (since this is where you want to appear most objective).

"We" can mean "the authors" if the paper is written by more than one person, but it is also used to include the writer and reader, or indeed the whole academic community, as in phrases like "we have seen that . . . " or "we can conclude that . . . ".

Some other pseudo-rules

Similar to the "rule" about not using the first person, you may encounter other pseudo-rules which are taught in writing classes but do not reflect the reality of academic writing.

"Do not split infinitives" An infinitive is "to" with the bare form of a verb, e.g., "to go". A split infinitive occurs when another word comes between them, e.g., "to boldly go". Since the nineteenth century some writers have claimed that this is ungrammatical, but in fact there is no reason why this is should be the case; many respected authors split infinitives.[3] However, since some people still react violently to split infinitives, they are probably worth avoiding unless the effect is ugly; for example, you can replace "to boldly go" with "to go boldly" (the textbook form "boldly to go" sounds rather clumsy, though). On the other hand, if you are writing about *Star Trek*, then it is deinitely "to boldly go"; never correct another author!

"Do not end a sentence with a preposition" This was another favourite of nineteenth-century grammarians, who would insist on writing "the pen with which I am writing" instead of "the pen I am writing with". Again, it has no basis in fact.

"Do not start a sentence with a co-ordinate conjunction" Co-ordinate conjunctions are the short conjunctions: "and", "but", "so", "for", "yet" and "nor". The normal practice is to use these in the middle of a sentence, usually with a comma separating the two clauses, e.g.,

> Most cyberpunk authors are rather vague about how technology works, *but* there are some, such as Greg Bear, who are more enthusiastic about technical details.

However, even in formal writing, it has become increasingly common to start a new sentence with "and", "but" or "so". This has the effect of emphasis-

[3] The origin of this pseudo-rule was the assumption that English should be like Latin. In Latin it is impossible to split an infinitive because the infinitive is one word (e.g., *amare*, "to love").

ing the conjunction, and may be used sparingly (see page 43). Nevertheless, if you overdo this, it can disrupt the flow of your writing; if you find too many "and"s, "but"s and "so"s starting sentences, you might want to consider using alternative linking words, like "additionally", "however" or "consequently".

"Do not use contractions" A contraction occurs when two words are shortened into one, e.g., "can't", "I'll", "let's". In practice, these are used in academic writing, though not nearly as commonly as in spoken English. As a general guide to formal writing style, though, it is not a bad principle to avoid contractions, since writing the words out in full tends to make your meaning clearer (e.g., "does not" for "doesn't" or "cannot" for "can't").[4]

With all the above points, the most important consideration is your audience; who will read (and probably grade) your paper? Do they have any particular preferences or prejudices? If your teacher tells you that splitting infinitives is a sin, there is probably no point in arguing about it. And please don't say, "Well I read this book by Robin Turner that says this rule is stupid," as that will only make me unpopular.

4.2 Using sources

By now you should have a mass of notes from different sources. Your task now is to decide which sources you want to refer to in your paper (you probably won't want to use all of them) and how they will fit into your first draft. If you have made a detailed outline, you should have a good idea of *which* sources to use, *what* information you want to use from them, and *when* you will use this information; the only thing remaining is to decide *how* you will use them.

The first thing you need to decide is whether to quote, paraphrase or summarise. Many students are not aware of how much quotation is used in academic writing, and feel that they have to use their own words whenever possible; others go to the opposite extreme and produce a patchwork of quotations held together with a few of their own sentences. Between these two extremes there is no strict rule; the general principle is to quote when the original words express the idea clearly and without unnecessary detail, but quotations should not normally make up more than 20% of your text.

Quotations with parenthetical citation

Short quotations should be included in the body of your text, and are often part of another sentence e.g.,

> As Taylor (1982, p. 167) points out, "Communities are necessarily small, and 'universal community' impossible."

[4] A common question is whether the full form of "can't" should be "cannot" or "can not". It is most common to write it as one word, unless you want to emphasise the negative, in which case "can not", or even "can *not*", is useful.

> According to Rousseau (1988, p. 137), "government mounts a continual war against sovereignty."

Note that each quotation includes a citation, giving information about the work the quotation comes from. In this case, the citation is in parentheses; the other main way of citing, using footnote, is explained further on.

If you are using APA format (as above), the information you need is the author's surname, the year of publication and the page number(s) (except for Internet sources, which do not usually have page numbers). If the author's name does not occur in the sentence, put it in parentheses with the date and page, e.g.,

> A similar view is that "government mounts a continual war against sovereignty" (Rousseau, 1988, p. 137).

Notice the punctuation; there is a comma after the author, and the full stop comes after the reference, not before. If you refer to more than one page, use "pp." instead of "p.".

You may also want to refer to a work as a whole, e.g.,

> *A Theory of Justice* (Rawls, 1971) had a considerable influence on Liberal thought.

For republished works, give both dates, e.g. (Kant, 1785/1981).

Sometimes you may want to quote something that is already a quotation in your source. If you do this, cite both the original source (if the author gives it) and the source you actually took it from, joining them with "in". Don't forget to put *both* references as separate items in your bibliography. You may remember this example from the Introduction:

> As the Science Fiction author William Gibson puts it, writing is "a crazy, sloppy process with thousands of false starts and painful backtrackings" (MacNair, 1989, p. 23, in Olson, 1992, p. 5).

Other parenthetical citation styles

Some other styles use parenthetical citation. Harvard style is more-or-less the same as APA, except that there is no comma between the author and the date, e.g. (Rousseau 1988, p. 137). The Chicago Manual of Style has a parenthetical ("sciences") style which is like APA without the "p." before the page number, e.g. (Rousseau, 1988 137).

MLA is even simpler, since neither the date nor the "p." is required, e.g.,

> "Jason grabbed her roughly and pressed his swollen lips to hers" (Haywain 89).

As with APA, if you have already included the author's name in the sentence, you do not need to repeat it in parentheses as well, e.g.,

> Barbara Haywain's *Love's Revenge* has no less than five occasions where a hero "presses his lips" to the reluctant heroine (20, 44, 89, 165, 201).

If you are quoting something which is already quoted in another book, do it like this:

> Some critics have praised Haywain for "deconstructing the romantic narrative" (Krestova qtd. in De Barth 145).

If you refer to two or more books by the same author, give the title (or a shortened version of the title) in quotation marks as well, e.g.,

> "Sheila trembled at Bruce's rough advance" (Haywain, "Love Down Under" 143).

Footnote citation

In MLA format you have a choice between citing with parentheses and with footnotes.

If you prefer (or are required) to use footnotes, give a full reference the first time you cite a book, using the following format:

> 1. Barbara Haywain, *Love's Revenge: a tale of passion and intrigue* (Walthamstowe, Bodice Books, 1980) 89.

For the other footnotes, just give the author and page number, e.g.,

> 2. Haywain 20, 44, 89, 165, 201.

If you cite more than one work by the same author, give the title (or a shortened version of the title if it is very long), e.g.

> 4. Haywain, "Love Down Under" 143.

Chicago and Turabian full footnotes are similar to MLA footnote style, except that there is a colon after the place of publication, e.g.,

> 1. Barbara Haywain, *Love's Revenge: a tale of passion and intrigue* (Walthamstowe: Bodice Books, 1980) 89.

In Chicago style, you only need full footnotes if there is no bibliography and only for the first footnote; otherwise, use short footnotes containing only the author's surname, the title (or a shortened version if it is very long) and the page number, e.g.,

> 1. Haywain, *Love's Revenge*, 89.

For a full explanation of Chicago-style footnotes, see p. 63.

There is much argument about whether it is better to cite with parentheses or footnotes. Parentheses are generally preferred in the social sciences because of the need to refer explicitly to large numbers of studies in the text. In the humanities, footnotes are often preferred, as they are less likely to distract the reader by breaking up the flow of text. However, in all disciplines, it is largely a matter of personal preference.

Long quotations

Whichever format you use, long quotations should be separated from the rest of your text. Leave a blank line before and after the quotation, and indent it, i.e., write it about 2 cm in from each margin. Some word processing / publishing programs have special paragraph styles that do this automatically for you. If you do not want to use all of a quotation, you can use three dots ... to indicate that there is material missing. You can also insert comments of your own in square brackets [like this]. For example:

> In such a [democratic] society I assume the principles of justice are for the most part publicly recognized ... By engaging in civil disobedience one intends, then, to address the sense of justice of the majority and to serve fair notice that in one's sincere and considered opinion the conditions of free cooperation are being violated.
>
> (Rawls, 1973, p. 382)

Paraphrase and summary

As I have said, quotation on its own is not enough; you will be referring to many ideas from many sources, and to quote all of them would be impossible. It is therefore necessary to summarise writer's ideas, and occasionally you may need to paraphrase them (i.e., express the same idea using your own words).

Even if you paraphrase or summarise an author's ideas you still need to cite it as explained above, since if you do not, it may be counted as plagiarism. On the positive side, citation proves that you have actually read the author, thus making your paper more impressive. Again, you should have the author's surname (and the year of publication, if you are using APA style). If you are commenting on the book as a whole you obviously do not need a page number; otherwise include it as you would do with a quotation.

> Right-wing libertarians such as Nozick (1974) also invoke "state-of-nature" theory. This view has been criticised on the grounds that voluntary transactions do not necessarily lead to voluntary results (Taylor, 1982, p. 96).

If you really want to impress the reader, you can have two or more citations for the same idea. If you do this, separate the citations with a semicolon.

> By the end of the '80s, Gibson was a popular feature in both the general and the literary press (Hamburg, 1989, pp. 45–46; MacNair, 1989, p. 12).

If your source is in a language other than English, it is generally best to paraphrase or summarise ideas, rather than trying to translate individual sentences; direct translation is difficult and can often lead to inaccurate, awkward or even comic English. With some key words it may be useful to give both the English and the original term. Foreign words are normally printed in italics; e.g.,

> Stoic philosophy draws a distinction between that which is morally bad (*kakon*) and that which is simply to be avoided (*alepton*).
>
> An important element of the Welfare Party's ideology was the 'just order' (*adil duzen*).

WARNING! Do *not* paraphrase sources by taking the original sentence and changing a few words. The effect is usually ugly and, as I mentioned in Chapter 3, can lead to accidental plagiarism.

4.3 The introduction

The introduction and conclusion of your paper are its most important parts, since they contain the most important aspects of your argument, and they are the parts that the reader is most likely to remember.

With a paper, as with people, you need to make a good impression at the start. A good introduction will make the reader want to continue reading. Conversely, a bad introduction will give the reader a negative attitude, so that he or she will not pay enough attention to the good points of your paper, and be more critical of its weaker points.

Content of the introduction

In a very short essay (500–1000 words), a thesis statement might be enough for an introduction. However, in a term paper you need a more detailed introduction. The question, then, is what to put in it apart from your thesis statement. This will depend largely on the subject of your paper and the type of organisation you have decided to use. Things that you might want to put in the introduction include:

- Background information.
- Definitions of key terms.
- Indication of the scope of the paper (what you are and are not going to include).
- Reasons why your chosen topic is worth examining.
- Any misconceptions (wrong ideas) about the subject that you want to get out of the way quickly.

The first sentence is usually the hardest to write—it's a bit like when you go over to an attractive boy or girl in a bar and have to think of something to say—you don't want to start with a cliché like "Do you come here often?" or "Do I know you from somewhere?" Fortunately there are some standard methods for writing first lines.

A relevant quotation

Most of your quotations will be in the body of the paper, since this is where you will be covering the subject in detail. However, it is common to include

a particularly striking quotation (preferably by a well-known writer) in the introduction as a way of getting your readers' attention. Although it does not even need to be from a writer in the subject you have chosen, you should make sure that it fits well into the introduction.

> George Clemenceau's statement "I feel sorry for anyone who wasn't an Anarchist when he was twenty" encapsulates a common attitude towards Anarchism: it is attractive and romantic, but not particularly practical.
>
> If, for Shakespeare, "all the world's a stage", for cyberpunk writers it is more like a complicated video game where no one is quite sure what the rules are.[5]

A summary of the main theories on the subject

Often you will be writing about a subject where there are different opinions or theories, so it is a good idea to summarise them in the introduction.

> In dealing with the subject of Anarchism, we also need to be careful which kind of Anarchism we are talking about. The most common division is into Left-wing Anarchism (Anarcho-communism, Anarcho-syndicalism etc.) and Right-wing Anarchism (the libertarian Right, as represented by Nozick (1974), for example). However, we can also see a difference in philosophical outlook between what is often called "classical Anarchism", as exemplified by such nineteenth-century writers as Bakunin, Proudhon and Kropotkin, and more recent developments in Anarchist theory, where the basic principles have been restated by writers in such areas as Feminism and ecology, as well as more theoretical analyses made in the light of modern political science. While the basic definition of Anarchism remains the same, modern theorists have altered or even discarded such associated beliefs as revolutionism, atheism or scientism.

Interesting facts and figures

This is particularly useful in sociological writing. If your subject is approaches to the problem of poverty in the USA, for example, you would probably want to include some statistics on poverty (don't get too enthusiastic though; you don't want tables and graphs in the introduction).

> In the sober corridors of political science departments, Anarchism is generally regarded as an interesting but ultimately unimportant phenomenon, maybe worth one lecture in a course on political philosophy or history, but hardly warranting serious consideration in discussion of contemporary politics. As an example, a standard textbook, Ponton and Gill's (1988) *Introduction to Politics*, contains only one sentence on Anarchism, and seems to regard it as an offshoot of Marxism!

[5] For short, well-known quotations such as these, it is not generally considered necessary to give a formal reference.

> The year 1984 was made famous by George Orwell's novel of that name; however, for a new generation of Science Fiction writers and fans, it was more significant for two events: the publication of William Gibson's first novel, *Neuromancer*, and the launch of the Apple home computer. Ironically for a book based around computer technology, *Neuromancer* was written on a manual typewriter with a broken key, and Gibson did not buy a computer until he was half-way through his second novel (Olson, 1992).

Some examples of introductions are included in Appendix B.

4.4 The conclusion

In the conclusion you need to draw together the main points you made in the body, and show how they support your thesis. In addition, you can bring in some more general points. As in introduction writing, there are no hard rules as to how you should write a conclusion, but there are a number of popular closing methods.

Using a quotation

As with the introduction, if you can get somebody famous to do your work for you, this is an advantage.

> While Anarchism may not seem practical at present, the majority of people would probably prefer a society which, in the words of the novelist Iain Banks (2005, p. 161), "could not imprison itself with laws, impoverish itself with money or misguide itself with leaders."

Ending with a prediction

If your paper is about a present problem, policy or movement, you can suggest how it might develop in the future. Because this is academic writing, not popular journalism, you should, however, be careful not to make your predictions sound too certain: phrases such as "might expect" "might conclude", "appears" and "seems", are useful here.

> Up to this point, cyberpunk has been to a large extent identified with its more superficial features, whether they are the particular technologies which are popular at the time (e.g., virtual reality or body modification) or even fashion accessories such as sunglasses. We might therefore conclude that the genre has a limited future. However, as new technologies create new personal and cultural stresses, with the accompanying need to integrate them into popular culture, we might expect cyberpunk of some form to remain popular for the foreseeable future.

A suggestion for further research

If your paper is research-based (either your own research or an evaluation of other research), you can suggest what further research needs to be done in the field.

> This treatment of the problems faced by migrant workers rests largely on research carried out in Germany between 1985 and 1998. However, since the position of migrant workers in the EC is constantly changing, research in this field needs to be updated, and findings from more countries are necessary to give a complete picture.

For and against

Here you simply sum up the advantages and disadvantages of the theory, policy or movement which you evaluated in the body of your paper. If more than one viewpoint has been discussed, you can say which you think is stronger.

> While the prices and incomes control policy of the Labour Party in the 1970s was vulnerable to obstruction from the trade unions and did not achieve the drastic reduction in inflation that marked the early years of Conservative rule, two decades of monetarist policies under the Conservatives were accompanied by economic stagnation and massive unemployment. It is therefore possible that the Labour Party did indeed have a more practical approach.

Summary

An extended summary is often used in longer papers (20 pages or more). The writer restates the main points raised during his/her discussion. However, in most undergraduate term papers, you are unlikely to need this. Nevertheless, you may want to restate a few of the main points.

> We have seen, then, that the causes of depression may be physiological, cognitive or interpersonal, and, furthermore, that it is often hard to distinguish between them, since they are closely inter-related.

Answering the Question

Obviously if you are given a question, the whole of your paper should be an answer to that question. However, some types of question are particularly suitable for definite answers. If you are asked, for example, to say what Plato would have thought about virtual reality, your conclusion should end with just that—what (in your opinion) Plato would have thought.

Things that you should *not* do in the conclusion

Ending suddenly

Just as when stopping a car, you should slow down before parking, rather than just hitting the brakes, in a paper you should let the reader know that you are coming to the end, rather than continuing with your argument right up until the last sentence.

Getting personal

It is very tempting to slip out of an objective style in the conclusion and overuse phrases like "In my opinion ..." or "I think ...". These do occur in academic writing, but, as I mentioned earlier, the effect is to imply "This is *only* my opinion." The end of your paper, where you are trying to imply that your conclusions follow inevitably from the evidence you presented earlier, is not usually a good place to do this. In addition, be careful about sentences with words like "should" and "must"; these often show a lack of thought.

Over-enthusiasm

While the conclusion is a good place to sum up the strengths of the theory you have supported in the body, try not to sound as though you think that it is the most wonderful thing since the invention of the wheel. Avoid sentences like the following:–

> William Gibson is the greatest living science fiction writer.
>
> The economic theories of John Maynard Keynes are not only brilliant, they are also supremely practical.

Apart from the fact that the reader may *not* like Gibson's novels or agree with Keynes' theories, this kind of writing makes you seem naive.

Introducing entirely new material or opinions

Although it is permissible to make more general comments in the conclusion than you do in the body, you do not want to introduce a new subject altogether. If your paper is, for example, about human rights in China, the conclusion may contain an assessment of the human rights situation in China in the context of human rights in the world, but you should not talk about human rights in Papua New Guinea.

Another common mistake is to introduce ideas which do not follow logically from the argument in the body. I have seen several papers on abortion, for example, which have a body describing abortion law in different countries, then conclude with totally unjustified moral statements for or against abortion.

5

Revising

5.1 Content and organisation

When you have completed your first draft, it is necessary to revise it, possibly several times. The first revision concerns content and organisation. This in turn can be broken down into stages.

Cutting unnecessary material

If you have planned your paper well, all the main points should be relevant to your argument. However, there may be some supporting points, details and examples which are not really necessary. Readers are always looking out for padding—material which is not really relevant but has been put in to make the paper longer and bring it up to the minimum number of words. If something does not look important, cut it out.

Adding detail

Add detail that is necessary to fully support or clarify a point you have made. Every main idea needs to be backed up with logical argument or evidence. If some of your arguments seem rather weak, go back to your notes, and if necessary your original sources, to find supporting detail. It may also be necessary to clarify some of your ideas by further explanation or definition. Make sure that you have not used terms (such as "liberal", "postmodern", "alienation" etc.) in such a general way that the reader may ask "What does he/she really mean here?" Ask a friend to read your paper so that they can tell you if there are any points which they do not understand.

Changing the order

If you have planned your paper carefully, you should not need to make major changes to the order of sections. However, you may still want to change the order of some points to make your paper clearer.

Paragraphs

As a general rule, each paragraph should have one main idea, which is expressed by its *topic sentence* (usually the first sentence of the paragraph). Although one- or two-line paragraphs are occasionally possible, you should avoid them most of the time. Where possible, join very short paragraphs together, and if necessary add a few words to join them (e.g., "In addition ...", "A further point is that ..."). Conversely, if a paragraph takes up most of the page, it is probably a good idea to break it up into two or three shorter paragraphs.

Cohesion

Cohesion means joining ideas so that they flow smoothly. If writing lacks cohesion, readers have to jump from one idea to another as though they were playing *Super Mario*. There are a number of ways you can improve the cohesion of your writing.

Linking sentences

Sentences can often be linked by one of the following methods:

1. conjunctions ("and", "because", etc.);
2. relative clauses;
3. participle phrases ("Having demonstrated that ...");
4. adverbial phrases ("In addition ...", "On the other hand ...", "In contrast ...").

Note that in 1. and 2., the two sentences are joined into one, whereas in 3. and 4. they remain two separate sentences.

Linking ideas

Consider the following sentences:

> William Gibson is generally regarded as the first cyberpunk writer. His first and most influential novel was *Neuromancer*, which gave us the word "cyberspace".

Here "his" obviously refers back to William Gibson, and "which" refers to *Neuromancer*. However, pronouns like these are not the only way to refer back to ideas. A very common type of reference in academic writing is "This" + NOUN, as in the following example:

> In addition to his work in linguistics, Noam Chomsky is well-known for his political writing and speeches. *This activism* has not made him popular with the US government.

Here "this activism" is a paraphrase of "his political writing and speeches". It avoids repeating the phrase, but is still more precise than simply using "this".

Discourse markers

These are words and phrases that let the reader know where they are and what is coming next. Some examples of these are:–

> Firstly, ...
>
> Finally, ...
>
> Another point worth considering is that ...
>
> An alternative view is ...
>
> In marked contrast to this view, ...
>
> This can be summarised as ...
>
> A further consideration is ....

Your own reading is the best source of discourse markers.

5.2 Style

All academic writing is fairly formal, and nearly all of it has an impersonal style. It is therefore very different from the type of essays you may have written in school or in creative writing classes. When researching your paper or doing general reading for your courses, it is a good idea to look closely at the kind of language these sources use. Much academic writing uses standard phrases, such as "It can be concluded that ...", "Research indicates ...", "... can be seen as ..." and so on. If you make a note of phrases that come up fairly regularly, you can then use them in your paper. However, remember that not everything you read will be in an academic style; many of your sources will be journalism or propaganda, which have a more informal and subjective style (a good way to tell whether what you are reading is in an academic style is if it is full of citations). Good style is not just a question of taking what you normally write and adding a bit of academic language, however. The main thing is to write *clearly*, *objectively* and *accurately*.

Here are some points which might help improve the style of your paper.

Use precise words

If you have used a word which has a very general meaning, try to replace it with a word that has a more specific meaning. In particular be careful with vague words like "good" and "bad". Think "good in what way?" or "bad in what way?" When you say something is good, do you mean that it is accurate, ethical, or efficient?

> The increase in immigration was *good* for Germany. ⇒ The increase in immigration was *beneficial* for the German *economy*.
>
> Many doctors think that euthanasia is *bad*. ⇒ Many doctors think that euthanasia is *unethical*.

Use complex sentences (but not too complex)

As we have seen, it is often a good idea to link two or three simple sentences into one complex sentence.

> RELATIVE CLAUSE AND REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSE
>
> The First Reform Act was passed in 1830. It only increased the electorate slightly. ⇒
>
> The First Reform Act, which was passed in 1830, only increased the electorate slightly. ⇒
>
> The First Reform Act, passed in 1830, only increased the electorate slightly.
>
> PARTICIPLE PHRASE
>
> After America was defeated in Vietnam, it suffered a crisis of confidence. ⇒
>
> Following its defeat in Vietnam, America suffered a crisis of confidence.

Don't go to the opposite extreme, though, and make your sentences so complex that you confuse the reader.

Use formal expressions of quantity

> not any ⇒ no
>
> not much ⇒ little
>
> not many ⇒ few
>
> not enough ⇒ insufficient
>
> too much ⇒ excessive
>
> a lot ⇒ considerably
>
> a lot of ⇒ many

For example:

> There are *a lot of* reasons for adopting this policy, but *not many* governments have chosen to do so because *they do not have enough* resources to implement it. ⇒
>
> There *many* reasons for adopting this policy, but *few* governments have chosen to do so because *there are insufficient* resources to implement it.

Avoid slang

Slang is a kind of ultra-informal language which is usually specific to a particular group (e.g., young middle-class Americans or Italian street gangs). Apart from snobbishness, there are two good reasons to avoid slang. Firstly, slang is rarely international; for example, the word "fag" would mean "cigarette" to a British reader, "homosexual" to an American reader, and probably nothing at all to someone who had never lived in these countries. Secondly, slang

terms go in and out of fashion or change meaning very quickly; in the 1950s most people knew what a "hep-cat" was, but now most of us would have to guess.

Be particularly careful about using vocabulary from online sources, since they are likely to contain more informal language and slang than printed sources (e.g., "kids" for "children"), and the the world of computers also generates its own slang ("flame", "troll", "n00b" and so forth). If you need to use a slang term for your paper, it is sometimes a good idea to define it; for example, when you talk about "hackers", do you mean people who are good at writing or altering programs, or people who break into computers (more properly known as "crackers")?

Abbreviations

When using abbreviations, make sure they are found in academic writing. Some common formal abbreviations are:

i.e.	that is (Latin *id est*)	used to put something in different words
e.g.	for example (Latin *exempli gratia*)	precedes an example or short list of examples
et al.	and others (Latin *et alii*[1])	used to indicate mulitple authors
etc.	and the rest (Latin *et cetera*)	indicates a series is incomplete
ibid.	in the same place (Latin *ibidem*)	sometimes used instead of repeating a citation
op. cit.	in the work cited (Latin *opere citato*)	used to cite a work referred to earlier[2]

Most capitalised abbreviations common in electronic communication have not yet found their way into academic writing (OTOH, IMHO, ROTFL etc.).

When using more specialised abbreviations, write the words out in full the first time and put the abbreviation in parentheses; e.g., "The European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) . . . " If you make up an abbreviation, use "henceforth"; e.g., "*Super Mario Brothers* (henceforth *SMB*) . . . "

5.3 Proof-reading

Having revised your draft for content, organisation and style, all that remains is to proof-read it. This means checking for any mistakes in grammar, spelling and punctuation. While friends or teachers may point out some of your more serious grammar and vocabulary problems, you cannot expect them to check every single word in a paper which is full of basic errors, so it is up to you to spend time proof-reading your draft. Simple and repetitive errors are extremely annoying, and even the most objective reader is likely to be influenced badly by a paper which is full of careless mistakes.

Spotting errors in your paper is not always easy, especially if English is not your first language. However, some errors are extremely common, so it is worth looking for these first.

Subject/verb agreement

Check that third person singular (he/she/it) subjects have the necessary *-s* in Simple Present verbs. If you are not a native speaker, a reader may forgive an error in an obscure tense like the Future Perfect Continuous, but getting the Simple Present tense wrong simply makes you look careless.

Be particularly careful with subjects where it may not be clear whether it is singular, plural or uncountable e.g., "The United States" (singular, even though "states" is plural!), "criteria", "media" and "data" (plural), "information" (uncountable).[3]

Tense

While you do not have time to think about every tense you use, it is worth looking at problem areas. In particular, make sure that you are consistent about tense: do not start a sentence in the present, then switch to the past. One thing to be careful about is that when referring to what people have written, it is more common to use the present rather than the past tense, even if they were writing a hundred years ago; for example,

> Proudhon's view of women contradicts his libertarian principles.

Articles

If you are not a native speaker of English, articles can be tricky. Look particularly carefully at collective nouns ("the press", "the media", "the police" but not normally "the society") and proper nouns made of several words ("the Democratic Left Party", "the European Union", "the USA"). Abstract nouns (i.e., things you can't touch) usually take no article ("voting behaviour", "love", "partition") when they are general; if they are specific, they take an article ("the voting behaviour of migrants", "the love of God", "the partition of Bosnia").

Punctuation

Some points you should be careful about are the following:

Relative clauses

Remember that defining (restrictive) relative clauses are not separated by commas; non-defining relative clauses are. This can sometimes affect the meaning of a sentence, as in the following example:–

> The MPs who voted against the motion were expelled from the Party.
>
> The MPs, who voted against the motion, were expelled from the Party.

In the first sentence, only those MPs who voted against the motion were expelled; in the second sentence all the MPs referred to earlier were expelled (and all of them voted against the motion).

Conjunctions

[3] Where a singular noun refers to a group of people (e.g., "the government") there is a slight difference between US and UK English: Americans tend to follow the grammar of the word more strictly, whereas the British tend to follow the intended meaning, using a singular verb when they mean an organisation as a whole and plural one if they think of them as a collection of people (a Google search shows "Manchester United are" to be half as popular again as "Manchester United is").

There are two types of conjunctions: co-ordinate and subordinate.

The co-ordinate conjunctions are *for, and, nor, but, or, yet* and *so*. When they go between two clauses, they are followed by a comma, e.g.,

> Inflation rose sharply, and unemployment also increased.
>
> John Major was not popular within the Conservative Party, nor did he make a good impression on the public. (Note the changed word order here.)
>
> Men and women have different conversational styles, so they may not always mean the same thing by the same words.

However, these conjunctions do not usually take a comma when they are only linking nouns or adjectives (e.g., "fish and chips", "neither rich nor famous").

As we have seen, it is sometimes possible to start a new sentence with a co-ordinate conjunction. But sometimes this is not a good idea, as it is rather informal. And it breaks up your text. So try not to do it too much.

Subordinate conjunctions such as *because, if, although, despite, whereas, while* and *as*, unlike co-ordinate conjunctions, can come either between two clauses, as in

> The government fell because they could not stop inflation

or in front of two clauses, as in

> Because they could not stop inflation, the government fell.

In the second example, a comma is necessary in order to separate the two clauses. When you use these conjunctions, they *must* be part of a two-clause sentence; a common mistake is to use "because" on its own.[4]

Other connectors

Other connectors, or linkers, usually start a new sentence. Examples of these are single-word connectors (adjectival adverbials) such as *however, conversely, moreover*, and *furthermore*, and adverbial phrases such as *in addition, in contrast, as a result* and so on. In many cases the connector can also be put after the subject e.g.,

> Greg Bear, *on the other hand*, is far more concerned with technical details than is normal in cyberpunk writing.

If the connector is at the beginning of the sentence, put a comma after it ("On the other hand, Greg Bear ..."). If it is after the subject, separate it using a comma before and after as above.

If you want to sound really academic, try putting a connector between the auxiliary and main verbs:

> This depreciation *has, however, been* ameliorated.

Colons and semi-colons

[4] This does not, of course, apply to informal writing. Because informal writing often imitates speech (where sentences often start with "because"). And because in informal writing you can do pretty much whatever you want. But I wouldn't recommend doing this in your papers. Because it's annoying. See?

Colons are mainly used to introduce lists, long quotations and explanations.

> Copying your term paper is not a good idea: you will fail the course, and waste an opportunity to develop valuable skills.

Semi-colons are often used to join two related sentences instead of using a conjunction.

> Lenin was in favour of seizing power; Karensky did not think that a Socialist revolution was possible.

They can also be used to separate long items in a list.

If in doubt, keep your punctuation simple, and avoid colons and semi-colons, since even experienced writers often find it difficult to use them correctly.

6

Presentation

The format and layout (i.e., what goes where) of your paper are important, and there are rules about how you can do this. Some teachers do not care much about what a paper looks like so long as they can read it easily; others may be fanatical about proper presentation and will deduct marks from what they consider to be poorly presented papers. It is worth asking to see if your teacher has any particular preferences.

6.1 Cover Page

Often a cover page (sometimes called a cover sheet) is required for your paper. You should check to see what information is required and what format it should be in, since different teachers, departments and style guides will have different rules for cover pages.

In APA style, the cover page contains the title of the paper, your name and the name of your institution in the centre of the page, like this:

Does Anarchism have any relevance to contemporary political thought?

Robin Turner

Bilkent University

It should be in the same font as the rest of the paper.

Chicago style is flexible about cover pages. A popular way to format the cover page is to put the name of your institution title at the top of the page, the title about a third of the way down, your name in the middle and the course, instructor and date near the bottom.

If you are following MLA style, there is no cover page, but the following information goes at the top left of the first page, above the title:

- Your name
- The teacher's name

- The course name
- The date.

For example,

> Aliye Ahmedova
> Dr. June Taylor
> Introduction to Game Theory (ECON 303)
> 24 January 2010

6.2 Headers

Sometimes you will need a header at the top of each page. In APA style, the first header contains the words "running head:" followed by your title in capitals; e.g.,

> running head: Does Anarchism have any relevance to contemporary political thought?

After this, omit "running head".

The header should also have the page number on the right. Do not number pages manually—your word processor can do this for you! Depending on your software the command will change, but it will probably be something like Insert > Field > Page Number.

In MLA, the header just contains your surname and the page number, both on the right. In Chicago style you just need the page number. As always, check with your teacher / department.

6.3 Reference page / Bibliography

Some writers use the terms "references" and "bibliography" to mean the same thing; for others, the difference between a reference page and a bibliography is that a reference page (titled "References" or "Works Cited") contains *only* the sources you have referred to in the paper, whereas a bibliography may also contain other sources that you have consulted in your research, or which you think may be of interest to the reader. Generally term papers use the former, but ask your teacher which is required if you are not sure.

If you prepared a working bibliography while you were researching, and kept it up to date, all you need to do is:

1. check that you have included *all* the sources which you have referred to in your paper;
2. if necessary, delete sources which you did not refer to;
3. put it in the order which is required by the bibliography format you are using. This is usually alphabetical order (most word processors have a "Sort" feature which will do this automatically) but may be the order in which sources are cited in the paper.

4. check that the reference formats are correct, and that there is no missing information (see Appendix C).

Bibliography entries are normally formatted with a hanging indent. This means that the first line starts up against the left margin, while following lines are indented. See Appendix C for examples.

6.4 Final Formatting

If you have been writing following the suggestions given in the Introduction, there shouldn't be much left to do now.

1. If the word processor you use has a spell-checker, use it! Spell-checkers are not perfect (e.g., they can't tell the difference between "their" and "there") but they can eliminate some typing mistakes you didn't notice when you were proofreading. Use the spell-checker, but use your brain at the same time. In particular, do not change spelling just because the spell-checker suggests it, and never use the "Replace All" option. I have seen, for example, papers where every case of "Plato" has been replaced with "plateau", and the political philosopher Thomas Hobbes has become "Thomas hobbies".

2. Make sure the page breaks come in the right pages. Sometimes you may have a section heading with no text after it at the bottom of the page; if so, insert a page break before the heading.

3. Make sure your pages are numbered. If you have referred to page or section numbers in your text, make sure they haven't changed since you wrote the reference.[1] Include a table of contents if you are required to; if not, don't.

4. Print your paper and read it again before you submit it. Often you will notice mistakes in print that you didn't notice on the computer screen.

6.5 Submission

Just one last thing—don't forget that the best term paper in the world is no use if your teacher doesn't read it! Make sure you get it to him or her before the deadline passes, and if you need an extension to the deadline, ask for one *before* the deadline has passed, and have a good excuse ready. If you are physically handing your paper in rather than submitting it electronically, please remember that teachers do not provide 24-hour service; no one will be impressed by an excuse like "I came to hand in my paper at ten o'clock last night, but your office was locked." Keep a backup of your paper in case it gets lost somewhere in the system.

When you get your paper back, read the comments and criticisms carefully (we put them there to help students, not just to be nasty). You may

[1] Some programs allow you to insert cross-references such that the page or section you refer to is automatically updated.

want to revise your paper and publish it on the web, or even in a journal, but for the time being—

—relax!

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Appendix A

Sample Outline

Does Anarchism have any relevance to contemporary political thought?

1. Introduction.
    - 1.1. Common views of A. (violent, idealistic, impractical, utopian)
    - 1.2. Definition of Anarchy and Anarchism

        Anarchy = society without the State
        Anarchism = belief that State is undesirable + unnecessary
    - 1.3. Scope of paper: theoretical more than historical/sociological
    - 1.4. Thesis statement
2. The Anarchist critique of the State
    - 2.1. State of Nature theory (different from Hobbes, Locke)
        - 2.1.1 Philosophical background: Zeno (in Laertius, 1991, p. 121) Rousseau (1988, p. 37)
        - 2.1.2. State as unreasonable and immoral (Godwin, 1992)
        - 2.1.3 Scientism and anthropology (Kropotkin's *Mutual Aid*, 1989 & *Ethics*, 1992)
    - 2.2. Explanation of the State — not as systematic as Marxism.
        - 2.2.1. State as armed gang (Malatesta)
        - 2.2.2. Economic explanations similar to Engels.
3. Marxist criticisms of Anarchism

3.1 Utopian/ahistorical

3.2 Impractical

3.2.1. Problems of organising A. society

3.2.2. Revolutionary organisation — democratic centralism (Lenin)

4. Liberal criticisms of Anarchism

4.1. Liberal concept of freedom and rights

4.2. Anarchist society would be repressive / conformist

4.3. Adherence to the market (doesn't apply to Right-wing libertarianism e.g. Nozick)

5. Influence of Anarchism

5.1. On the Left (Chomsky)

5.2. On Feminism

5.3. On ecology (Bookchin, 1971)

5.4. On education (Herbert Read, in Nash, 1944, p. 50-67)

6. Conclusion

6.1. Ideological vacuum after collapse of Communism

6.1.1. Left in confusion

6.1.2. need for libertarian left current?

6.2. Is Anarchy practical? Classical A. not feasible.

6.2.1. problems of lifestyle Anarchism (Bookchin)

6.2.2. towards an organic view (Ward)

6.3. Anarchists of value as critics

Appendix B

Sample Introductions

B.1 To what extent is Anarchism relevant to contemporary political thought?

George Clemenceau's statement "I feel sorry for anyone who wasn't an Anarchist when he was twenty" encapsulates a common attitude towards Anarchism: it is attractive and romantic, but not particularly practical. Anarchism as a political philosophy is rarely taken seriously, either by political scientists or by the general public. In the sober corridors of political science departments, Anarchism is generally regarded as an interesting but ultimately unimportant phenomenon, something worth maybe one lecture in a course on political philosophy or history, but hardly warranting serious consideration in discussion of contemporarypolitics. As an example, a standard textbook, Ponton and Gill's (1988) *Introduction to Politics*, contains only one sentence on Anarchism, and seems to regard it as an offshoot of Marxism! Anarchists are seen as idealistic, impractical and utopian by serious thinkers of both Right and Left. While it is true that at times Anarchists have been guilty of all these charges, it cannot be said that this invalidates all Anarchist thinking; after all, these charges could be levelled at adherents of almost any ideology from time to time.

Quotation used to gain the reader's attention.

Unusual fact, and a position against which to argue.

Before asking ourselves what relevance or value Anarchism may have for modern political theory, we need to say what we mean by words like "Anarchy" and "Anarchism". We can define anarchy simply as the absence of government, but most Anarchists would exclude temporary breakdowns in government—the political chaos that the press describe as "anarchy"—and many would exclude areas nominally within the jurisdiction of a government which happen to be ungovernable for economic or military reasons. Perhaps a better definition of anarchy is "Society without the State". To qualify as an anarchy, we must have a society which is self-contained (that is, not dependent on a larger society) and has no State apparatus. Anarchism is consequently the belief that anarchy is both desirable and possible, or in other words, that the State is both undesirable and unnecessary. Critics of Anarchism, on the other hand, have argued either that the State is a beneficial institution, or that it is a necessary evil.

Defining terms.

In dealing with the subject of Anarchism, we also need to be careful

which kind of Anarchism we are talking about. The most common division is into Left-wing Anarchism (Anarcho-communism, Anarcho-syndicalism etc.) and Right-wing Anarchism (the libertarian Right, as represented by Nozick (1974), for example). However, we can also see a difference in philosophical outlook between what is often called "classical Anarchism", as exemplified by such nineteenth-century writers as Bakunin, Proudhon and Kropotkin, and more recent developments in Anarchist theory, where the basic principles have been restated by writers in such areas as Feminism (e.g., Ursula LeGuin) and ecology (Bookchin, 1971), as well as more theoretical analyses made in the light of modern political science. While the basic definition of Anarchism remains the same, modern theorists have altered or even discarded such associated beliefs as revolutionism, atheism or scientism.

Clarifying the main views.

In assessing the validity and relevance of the Anarchist position, I should emphasise that the scope of this paper is theoretical rather than historical or sociological; I do not propose to give a detailed history of the Anarchist movement or look at examples of primitive or utopian Anarchist communities, except in passing. Rather, the purpose of this paper is to analyse Anarchist theory and criticisms of it. I shall argue that while classical revolutionary Anarchism may seem to be nothing more than nineteenth-century romanticism, the Anarchist critique of institutionalised authority remains pertinent, and its visions of alternative social forms remain appealing. Criticisms of Anarchism from both Right and Left may have some validity, but are not sufficient to dismiss it entirely, and while Anarchism remains a small movement, its influence is greater than its numbers would suggest. For these reasons, Anarchism is worth taking more seriously than has previously been the case.

Limiting scope.

Thesis statement.

B.2 Mind, Body and Machine: Cyberpunk's ambivalent relationship with technology

The year 1984 was made famous by George Orwell's novel of that name; however, for a new generation of science fiction writers and fans, it was more significant for two events: the publication of William Gibson's first novel, *Neuromancer*, and the launch of the Apple home computer. Ironically for a book based around computer technology, *Neuromancer* was written on a manual typewriter with a broken key, and Gibson did not buy a computer until he was half-way through his second novel [**?**].

Unusual fact used to introduce topic.

Despite his self-confessed naivity about computer technology, Gibson gave us a word which is now commonplace: "cyberspace". He also, along with writers such as Bruce Sterling, Rudy Rucker and Pat Cadigan, helped to form a new movement in science fiction known variously as "Radical Hard SF", "the Neuromantics" or "the Mirrorshades Group", and eventually as "cyberpunk". The dominant theme of this movement is the interaction of people and technology, but this is common enough in mainstream science fiction, so it is hard to say what makes cyberpunk different.

Background.

One feature of cyberpunk which may differentiate it from mainstream SF is a preoccupation with style. Traditional "hard" SF is, as has often been said, a literature of ideas, and style took second place to science; in the

Introducing the main theme.

1970s, literary innovation was for the most part left to "speculative fiction" writers such as Michael Moorcock. In contrast, *Neuromancer* is full of outrageous metaphor which owes more to Raymond Chandler than to science fiction: in the first line of the book the sky is "the color of a television tuned to a dead channel" [**?**, 1]. Style is not just a matter of words, though. Cyberpunk fiction interacted with popular music and fashion to produce a small but influential subculture.

The driving force is still science and technology—computers, neurology, genetic engineering—but the emphasis is not on how it works but on how it looks and feels. In some cases the technology forms the central theme of the story, while in others it may provide little more than decoration, but it is rarely explained in detail. Cyberpunk is characterised by a fascination with the possibilities of technology on the one hand, and impatience with technical details on the other. I shall discuss this ambivalence with reference to three works: William Gibson's *Neuromancer*, Tad William's *Otherland* series, and the film *The Matrix*.

Thesis statement.

Appendix C

Citation Formats

Unfortunately there are so many different citation formats used in academic publishing that they can be very confusing for writers. However, some are more common than others, notably the APA, MLA and Chicago formats. This is not a complete guide to these formats; if in doubt, go to their official websites or consult the printed edition of their style guides.

NOTE: many of the works used as examples are not real sources!

C.1 APA (American Psychological Association)

This format is very popular in the social and behavioural sciences. Citation in text is done by giving the author, date and page number in parentheses, as explained in Chapter 4. For citations at the end of the paper, a similar principle applies: all entries start with the author's name, followed by the date of publication. For this reason, APA is known as an "author-date" system. Some general points to follow are:

- Cite all the sources that you refer to (and no others) on a separate page at the end of the paper.
- The page has the title References at the top centre (in strict APA style, there is no special formatting such as bold or underlining for this).
- Citations are in alphabetical order by author's surname; titles (such as Dr., Prof., Sir, PhD.) are not included.
- Normally, the author's surname comes first, followed by their initials (e.g., "Smith, A. I.). A variation which is becoming popular is to give the author's full name rather than just initials (e.g., "Smith, Alfred Ian"). [1] If there are two authors, joing them with "&"; if there are three to six authors, separate them with commas (e.g., "Smith, A. I., Taylor, P. Q. & Turner, B."). If there are more than six authors (it happens!), write the first six then "et al." (meaning "and others").

[1] This is one reason why, when doing your research, you should write down all the bibliographical information you can find, whether or not you think you will need it. I once wrote a paper in APA style, only to find, when I submitted it for publication, that my publisher wanted full names; it took me a long time to find them!

- Citations are in hanging indent format (i.e., the second and subsequent lines of a citation are indented, not the first one).
- If you have more than one article by the same author, put the citations in order by the year of publication, starting with the earliest. Write the author's name each time.
- Titles of complete works (books, journals, etc.) go in italics. If you are writing by hand, underline the title instead.
- Unlike some other citation styles, titles of articles, chapters etc. do not go in quotation marks.
- For titles other than names of journals, only use capitals for
  - the first letter of the first word of a title,
  - the first word after a colon or a dash in the title,
  - words which would have a capital letter anyway, such as names.

Examples

Books

> Surname, Initials. (year). *Title of Book*. Place of publication: Publisher.

Smith, A.I. (1997). *Ghosts in the machine: Artificial intelligence in film*. New York: Critical Press.

If the book has different editions, put the edition you are using in parentheses after the title like this: *Principles of pharmacology* (3d. ed.).

If it is translated, give the translator's name as it appears on the title page in parentheses with "Trans.", like this:

> Lafayette, P. (1997). *A history of French cinema* (John Jones, Trans.). London: Penguin. (Original work published 1986).

Note that the date of the original book's publication is included.

Treat editors like translators, but putting "Ed." instead of "Trans."

Chapters or essays in books

> Surname, Initials. (year). Title of essay. In Editor's Name (ed.) *Title of Book.* Place of publication: Publisher.

Obscurant, G. (1972). Phrase structure in Nepali counterfactuals: a preliminary survey. In David J. Plough and Leslie Threwitt (ed.) *Developments in post-generative linguistics*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Note that name(s) of the editor(s) are written as they appear on the title page, not in Surname, Initials format.

Articles in academic journals

> Surname, Initials. (year). Title of article. *Name of Journal, Volume number*(Issue number), pages.

Kugelschreiber, E. (2001). Is celibacy inherited?: A longitudinal survey. *Sociobiology Review, 3*(12), 21–25.

The volume / issue distinction is confusing. An issue of an academic journal is like an issue of a magazine, but journals also have volumes; the idea is that when you've collected enough issues, you bind them together to make a nice book. (You will see these in the "Bound Journals" section of your library if it still has one.) The example above is for a journal where the pages start at 1 at the beginning of each issue. Some journals don't do this, but carry on until the end of the volume, so if issue 1 finishes on page 82, then volume 2 will start on page 83. In cases like this, you do not need to give the issue number in APA format. Some journals very sensibly don't bother with volumes and just have an issue number, in which case you obviously just write that number.

Note: you do not need to write "p." or "pp." for pages in journals.

Articles in magazines

Treat a popular magazine just like an academic journal, except that you give the full date, not just the year. Give the issue number if there is one.

> Surname, Initials. (year, month day). Title of article. *Name of Magazine*, *Issue number,* page(s).

Piglet, J. (1999, July 12). Why facts don't matter. *The New Statesperson, 322*, 21–25.

Articles in newspapers

These follow the same format as for magazines, except that there is normally no volume or issue number and you put "p." before the page number (or "pp." for multiple pages).

> Surname, Initials. (year, month day). Title of article. *Name of Newspaper*, p. / pp. page(s).

Worsetorn, P. (1999, May 1). Labour's Lunatic Fringe. *The Daily Torygraph*, p. 12.

With many newspaper articles there is no author named. In this case, treat it the same; just leave out the author e.g.,

> Elvis Found on Mars! (1995, April 1). *National Speculator*. p. 3.

Film, video and television

For films shown in cinemas or otherwise widely available, use the following format:

Surname, Initials (Producer), & Surname, Initials (Director). (year). *Name of Film* [Motion picture]. Country of production: Company.

Bates, N. (Producer) & Kruger, F. (Director). (1988). *Night of the Teenage Vampires* [Motion picture]. United States: Gore Films.

If it is not nationally distributed, you are supposed to write where it is available from in parentheses instead of the country and publisher; e.g., "(Available from Bilkent Productions, Bilkent Üniversitesi, Ankara 06533, Turkey)".

If you want to cite a TV programme, things get complicated. If it is just a one-time broadcast, use this format:

Surname, Initials (Producer). (year, month day). *Title of programme* [Television broadcast]. City of origin: Studio or distributor.

Knight, R. (2010, October 31). *The lost yaks of Tibet*. San Francisco, CA: National Geographic Society.

More often, though, what you want to cite is an episode in a TV series.

Internet sources

Academic journals retrieved from online databases (JSTOR, ScienceDirect etc.) are cited in exactly the same way as their print versions. In the case of academic journals which only appear online, or where the online version is not exactly the same as the print version, you should give either the DOI[2] or URL, preferably the former. Here is the journal article cited above in the two formats:

Kugelschreiber, E. (2001). Is celibacy inherited?: A longitudinal survey. *Sociobiology Review, 3*(12), 21–25. doi:10.1034/00386758490223418

Kugelschreiber, E. (2001). Is celibacy inherited?: A longitudinal survey. *Sociobiology Review, 3*(12), 21–25. Retrieved from http://www.mit.edu/sr/19890502.html

Note that citations that end in a URL do not have full stop at the end.

The same principle applies to newspaper articles accessed through the web: give a normal citation, then "Retrieved from" and the URL. Online news sites and magazinescontaining articles are treated in the same way.

For web pages which are not part of an online journal/magazine, the following format is recommended.

Surname, Initials (year). Title. Retrieved from URL

Stallman, R. (n.d.). GNU's Not Linux. Retrieved from http://www.linuxfan.org/rants/hategates.html

"n.d." here stands for "no date".

If the format is something other than a normal article, such as a blog post, a post to a discussion forum, or lecture notes, it is normal to include the format in square brackets after the title; e.g.,

[2]Digital Object Identifier—a unique number given to academic, technical and governmental documents on the web. Where a DOI exists, it is preferable to a URL, since URLs can change, but DOIs don't.

> Smith, W. (1999, April 1). Re: Gnomes of Zurich [Forum post]. Retrieved from http://www.conspiracy.net/forum

E-mails count as personal communications, and are not included in the References page.

C.2 MLA (Modern Languages Association)

MLA is a popular format in the humanities. In-text citation is done by giving the author and page number, either in parentheses or as a footnote, as explained in Chapter 4. For citations at the end of your paper, use the following formats. Some general points to follow are:

- Cite all the sources that you refer to (and no others) on a separate page at the end of the paper. The page has the title Works Cited at the top centre (in strict MLA style, there is no special formatting such as bold or underlining for this).
- Citations are in alphabetical order by the first element—usually the author's surname. If there is more than one work by the same author, only give the name for the first entry; after that use three hyphens and a full stop (—.).
- Titles are in *Title Case*; i.e., all the important words start with a capital letter. (This is different from APA format, which uses sentence case for most titles.)
- Citations are in hanging indent format: the second and subsequent lines of a citation are indented, not the first one. Look at the end of this syllabus for examples.

For a citation, include as much of this information as is possible and relevant, in this order:

1. **Author(s).** First names are given as they appear in the publication (so it's "Meyer, Stephanie" but "Tolkien, J. R. R."). Do not include titles (such as Dr., Prof., Sir, PhD.). For the first author only, put the *surname* first.
2. **"Title of Source."** The source is the particular text you use—article, web page, chapter in a compilation etc. (Does not apply with complete books or films.) The source title goes in quotation marks.
3. ***Title of Container*,** The container is the publication where you found the source—book, journal, newspaper, website etc. (Also used for complete books or films.) The container title goes in italics.
4. **Other contributors,** Editors, translators etc.
5. **Version,** Rarely used—editions of books, versions of software etc.
6. **Number,** Mainly for academic journals and magazines. May also include a volume; e.g., vol. 2 no. 10.

7. **Publisher,** (Note that the place of publication is not now required except for books printed before 1900.)
8. **Publication date,**
9. **Location.** For print sources, the page numbers; for electronic sources, the URL or DOI.

Examples

Unlike previous versions of MLA, the formats for different media are not rigid; so long as you follow the principles above you should be OK. However, the formats in the examples below are strongly recommended, and will help you understand how MLA works.

Book

If all of the book is by the same author, then the source and container are the same.

> Surname, First Name(s). *Title of Book*. Publisher, Publication Date.
>
> Haywain, Barbara, J. *Love's Revenge*. Bodice Books, 1988.

If there is more than one author, give the first author's name in the format above, and other authors as they appear on the title page, e.g.,

> Morpheus, John, and Lucy N. Trinity. *Ghosts in the Shell, Daemons in the Kernel: Artificial Intelligence in Japanese Film*. Penguin, 2008.

For e-books, add the DOI or URL (the former is preferable).

Chapter or essay in a book

> Surname, First name(s). "Title of Essay / Chapter." *Title of Collection*, edited by Editor's Name(s), Publisher, Year, pp. page numbers.
>
> Kristova, Juliet. "The submerged feminine in Haywain's novels." *Postmodernism and Popular Romance,* edited by Roland O'Rorty, Cambridge University Press, 1996. pp. 23–45.

Article in an academic journal

> Surname, First name(s) "Title of Article." *Title of Journal*, vol. Volume number, no. Issue number, Year, pp. page numbers.
>
> Johnson, Marcus. "The Bodice in the Mind: Conceptual Metaphor in Haywain." *Cognitive Literary Studies,* vol. 2, no. 1, 1999, pp. 231–250.

If you accesed the journal online, add the DOI or URL (the first is preferable) and the date you accessed it. If you accessed it from an academic database like JSTOR, include that as a second container before the URL / DOI.

> Johnson, Marcus. "The Bodice in the Mind: Conceptual Metaphor in Haywain." *Cognitive Literary Studies,* vol. 2, no. 1, 1999, pp. 231–250. *Wiley Online Library,* doi:10.1017/S0015246X06003576. Accessed 17 Mar. 2016.

Article in a newspaper or magazine

> Surname, First name(s). "Title of Article." *Title of Newspaper / Magazine*, Day Month Year, pp. page numbers.
>
> Muddreicker, Gordon, O. "Was Haywain Jeffrey Archer's Mistress?" *Daily Drool* 31 Jul. 1987: pp._13.

Note that the date format is day month year, and that months can be abbreviated. With monthly magazines, just miss out the day.

If there is no author given, just miss it out and start with the title of the article.

Film

Like a book, for a film the source and container are the same.

> *Title* Directed by. Director's name, performances by main performers' names (if relevant), Film company / distributor, year.
>
> *Cyborg Warriors 3*. Directed by. Frank Buick, performances by Juliette Binoche, Leonardo DaCaprio, Dolph Lundgren, Beta Movies, 1995.

TV

TV series are containers; episodes are sources. For live broadcasts, use the following format:

> "Episode Title." *Show Title.* TV Station, Call letters, City, day, month year.
>
> "Going for the Jugular." *The Vampire Chronicles*. Fox, WXIA, Atlanta. 19 Aug. 2009.

Note the odd letters ("call letters") and the name of the city. This is not necessary for non-American TV shows.

If you watched it online, the format is a little different:

> "Episode Title." *Show Title,* season number, episode number. TV Company, day, month year. *Website/service*, URL.
>
> "Going for the Jugular." *The Vampire Chronicles*, season 4, episode 11. Fox 19 Aug. 2009 *Dizibox*. www.dizibox.com/vampire-chronicles-4-sezon-11-bolum-izle/.

If a TV series is released in a physical format like DVD or Bluray, then the format changes again.

> "Episode Title." *Title of DVD etc.,* written by Writer(s), directed by Director, episode number. Publisher, year.
>
> "Going for the Jugular." *The Vampire Chronicles*: *The Complete Fourth Season*, written by Rupert Giles, directed by Spike Lee, Fox 2011.

Web page

For web pages, use as much of the following format as you can find and is relevant.

> Surname, First Name(s). "Title of page." *Name of Website*, Name of publisher (if different). Date of creation (day month year), URL. Accessed Date of access (day month year).
>
> Constable, Tom. "Guide to Haywain's Fiction" *The Modern Novel*, Cambridge University, 29 Nov. 2002, www.cu.ac.uk/modernnovel/guide_to_hay. Accessed 14 Aug. 2015.

Treat a forum post as though it were a web page. Use the writer's user name in the author position, and add their real name (if known) in square brackets; e.g.,

> nerdymcnerdface [Wayne Mooney] "Re: Did Jon Snow break his oath?" *Castle Black*, 15 Oct. 2015, www.castleblack.com/forum/68541. Accessed 11 Jun. 2016.

For other electronic sources (tweets, YouTube videos etc.) see a more comprehensive guide, such as OWL at Purdue.

C.3 Chicago Manual of Style

The Chicago Manual of Style, usually shortened to "CMS" or "Chicago style", is not quite as widespread as APA or MLA, but it has a strong following in some academic disciplines. If citation styles were dress styles, then MLA would be corduroy trousers and a baggy sweater, APA would be clean, pressed jeans and a lab coat, and Chicago would be an Armani suit.

Chicago is actually three styles: a sciences style, which uses author-date parenthetical citation, the "notes and bibliography" style, and full footnote style. Parenthetical citation is explained in Chapter 4. If you use the notes and bibliography style, use short footnotes as explained in Chapter 4; the footnote formats given for here are full footnotes.

Chicago style has three alternatives for citations at the end of your paper.

1. If you cite all sources you used while researching the paper, even if you didn't refer to them, use the title Bibliography.
2. If you only cite the sources that you refer to in your paper, use the title References or Literature Cited.
3. If you give *full* footnote citations, it is not necessary to include citations at the end of the paper, unless you are specifically required to do so.

Make sure you know which is required of you; option #3 looks attractive but could lose you grades if your teacher wants a full bibliography!

Some general principles:

- Citations are in alphabetical order by author's surname. First names are given as they appear in the publication; titles (such as Dr., Prof., Sir, PhD.) are not included.
- If there are two authors, then in a footnote you just join them with "and", e.g. "John Smith and Gordon Brown". In the bibliography, only the first author has the surname first, e.g., "Smith, John, and Gordon Brown". If there are four or more authors, then in the footnote use "et al." (e.g., "William Friedman et al.") but in the bibliography give all of the authors.

- Citations are in hanging indent format (i.e., the second and subsequent lines of a citation are indented, not the first one).
- Titles of complete works (books, journals, etc.) should be in italics.
- Titles of articles, chapters etc. go in quotation marks.
- Titles should be capitalised as they appear in the original source, except in the science style, in which case they are normally capitalised in sentence case, like APA.
- The format is generally the same as that for a footnote, except that
  - authors' surnames come first, not first names;
  - items are separated by full stops, not commas;
  - there are no parentheses;
  - page numbers are only used for articles in journals, chapters in books etc.

Books

Footnote

Footnote#. Author's First name(s) Surname, *Title* (Place: Publisher, Year), page(s).

1. Barbara J. Haywain, *Love's Revenge: a tale of passion and intrigue* (New York: Bodice Books, 1988), 25.

Bibliography Entry

Author's Surname, first name(s). Title. Place: Publisher, Year.

Barbara J. Haywain, *Love's Revenge: a tale of passion and intrigue*. New York: Bodice Books, 1988.

If there is a translator or editor, mention this after the title, e.g., "Tranlated by Jim Johnson" or "Edited by Pat Roberts".

Chapters or essays in books

Footnote

Footnote#. Author's First name(s) Surname, "Title of essay.", in Title of Book, ed. Editor's name (Place of Publication: Publisher, year), page(s).

2. Juliet Kristova, "The submerged feminine in Haywain's novels," in *Postmodernism and Popular Romance*, ed. Roland O'Rorty (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996), 27.

Bibliography Entry

> Author's Surname, first name(s). Title of essay. In Title of book, edited by Editor's name, pages. Place: Publisher, Year.

Kristova, Juliet. "The submerged feminine in Haywain's novels." In *Postmodernism and Popular Romance*, edited by Roland O'Rorty, 23–45. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996.

Notice how in the footnote, the page number comes at the end, while in the bibliography entry, it comes before the publication information. It's just one of those Chicago things.

Articles in academic journals

Footnote

> Footnote#. Author's First name(s) Surname, "Title of article," *Name of Journal* Volume# no. Issue# **or just** Issue# (date): page(s).

3. Marcus Johnson, "The Bodice in the Mind: conceptual metaphor in Haywain," *Cognitive Literary Studies* 2 no. 1 (1999): 244.

Bibliography Entry

> Author's Surname, first name(s). "Title of article." *Name of Journal* Volume# no. Issue# **or just** Issue# (date) pages.

Johnson, Marcus "The Bodice in the Mind: conceptual metaphor in Haywain." *Cognitive Literary Studies* 2 no. 1 (1999): 231–250.

If you accessed the journal on-line, then it is normal to add the URL and the date you accessed it (in parentheses), e.g..

> Johnson, Marcus "The Bodice in the Mind: conceptual metaphor in Haywain." *Cognitive Literary Studies* 2 no. 1 (1999): 231–250. `http://www.brummage.ac.uk/cls/vol2/1/johnson.pdf` (June 18, 2009).

The Chicago Manual of Style does not require URLs to be printed in a fixed-width font but it is good practice in general.

Articles in popular magazines

Footnote

> Footnote#. Author's First name(s) Surname, "Title of article," Name of Magazine, month day, year, page(s).

4. Janice Fluff, "Barbara Haywain, a Reborn Romantic," *Readers' Digest*, April 15, 1989, 12–13.

Bibliography Entry

> Author's Surname, first name(s). "Title of article." *Name of Magazine*. month day, year.

Fluff, Janice. "Barbara Haywain, a Reborn Romantic" *Readers' Digest*, April 15, 1989.

Note that page numbers are not needed for popular magazines, only for academic journals.

Articles in newspapers

Footnote

> Footnote#. Author's First name(s) Surname, "Title of article," *Name of Newspaper*, month day, year, Section, Edition.

5. James S. Liebestod, "Haywain's New Novel Breaks Best-seller Record," *New York Times*, November 23, 2001, Arts section, Midwest edition.

Bibliography Entry

In Chicago style, it is not considered necessary to put newspaper articles in the bibliography, but if you need to do it ...

> Author's Surname, first name(s). "Title of article." *Name of Newspaper*. month day, year, Section, Edition.

Liebestod, James S. "Haywain's New Novel Breaks Best-seller Record." *New York Times*, November 23, 2001, Arts section, Midwest edition.

Note that, like magazines, page numbers are not needed for newspapers.

Film, video and television

Footnote

> Footnote#. *Title*, medium, directed by Director (Original release year; City: Studio/distributor, Video/DVD Release Year.)

6. *Love Down Under*, DVD, directed by Bruce J. Gibson (2003; Sydney: Oz Home Video, 2005).

Bibliography Entry

> Title. Medium. Directed by Director. Original release year. City: Studio/distributor, Video/DVD, release year.

Love Down Under. DVD. Directed by Bruce J. Gibson. 2003. Sydney: Oz Home Video, 2005.

Website

Footnote

> Footnote#. Author's First name Surname, "Title of page," *Name of website*, URL (accessed date).

7. Penny Jejeune, "Julia's Fate," Haywain Fanfic, http://www.hayfic.com/juliasfate.html (accessed February 3, 2009).

If you can't find all of that information, so just put in as much as you can. The Chicago Manual of Style does not require the access date, but I put it in here because some publishers or teachers want it.

Bibliography Entry

In Chicago style, it is not considered necessary to put web pages in the bibliography, but if you need to do it ...

> Author's Surname, First name. "Title of page." *Name of website*. URL (accessed month day, year).

Jejeune, Penny. "Julia's Fate." *Haywain Fanfic*. http://www.hayfic.com/juliasfate.html (accessed February 3, 2009).

Comments on blogs, forums etc.

Footnote

> Footnote#. Author's First name Surname, comment on "Title of blog entry / forum thread," *Name of website*, comment posted month day, year, URL (accessed month day, year).

8. Graham Smith, comment on "Is the Romantic Novel Dead?" *LitBlog*, http://litblog.livejournal.com/495876.html (accessed May 23, 2009).

As with websites, the Chicago Manual of Style does not require the access date.

Bibliography Entry

Again, according to the CMS it is not considered necessary to put blogs and forums in the bibliography, but if you need to do it ...

> *Name of website*. URL (accessed date).

LitBlog, http://litblog.livejournal.com/495876.html (accessed May 23, 2009).

Other Formats

These days it seems like every university or publisher has its own preferred format, which is one reason to learn to use a citation database like BibTEX

or Endnote if you intend to do a lot of writing (since you can just enter a different format name and the program will do the rest for you). Many universities have websites with details of these and other formats. Remember that it is the person you are submitting your paper to who chooses the format, not you; if they have no particular preferences, use whichever one you prefer, but be consistent.