SENIOR THESIS GUIDE

ANTHROPOLOGY DEPARTMENT

*   Sign and turn in by week 2 of the first term of your thesis

**   Fill out and return to the Anthropology secretary by the end of the second term of your thesis.

Introduction to the Senior Thesis

The research and writing of a senior thesis is the most important project for completing your major in Anthropology. Since the thesis demands a great deal of independent thought and expression, it is a fitting culmination to your undergraduate education. More than any other project you have undertaken, the senior thesis will be *your* work. Most importantly, it is your choice as to how seriously you take the responsibility for research and writing. Your advisor may inspire, guide, cajole, and threaten, but you must ultimately make the commitment to excellence for yourself. You have chosen a major that requires that you will be able to some day say that the thesis was your best work.

The pages that follow provide guidance regarding the rules for writing your thesis.

I. Choosing a Topic

The selection of a topic need not be a painful experience if you recognize several key facts:

1. **Topics Evolve.** Virtually no topic springs full-grown or perfectly-formed from the head of the advisee in May of the Junior year. Usually, the basic idea comes first, followed by gradual refinements that may take hours, days, or weeks to develop. The objective should be to have a well-defined topic before you return to campus in September of your senior year.

2. **Define Anthropological Topics Broadly.** Union students have written on an array of subjects over the years. In past years anthropology seniors have examined such things as: cultural beliefs among teen mothers in Albany, views of menstruation at Union, models of success among small business owners in Schenectady, attitudes towards gambling casinos on Oneida reservation, homeopathic medicine in Schenectady, and so on.

3. **Favor Your Own Interests.** One of the best ways to start your search for a thesis topic is to think about your interests and social concerns. If your interests and concerns coincide with a topic relevant to Anthropology then you have a natural starting point. Something in your own background may provide you with a topic you care enough about to want to investigate in depth.

4. **Methods Matter.** Another thing to consider when choosing a topic is the kind of research methods you wish to use such as questionnaire surveys, in-depth Interviews, participant observation, case studies, etc. Different topics lend themselves to different kinds of research methods, so it makes sense to think about what methods you'd enjoy using the most, what kinds of data you'd be best at interpreting.

5. **Think In Terms of a Place.** Often it is easiest to have a specific location or organization that you are studying. It makes the domain easy to define, and it gives you a place to go regularly for observation. In the past students have studied at women's shelters, senior citizens' housing, Indian reservations, etc. We encourage you to choose a topic that can be researched in the Schenectady area, but outside the Union community. Anthropology terms abroad offer ideal opportunities for thesis topics with a strong cultural component. In a few cases, students have done research while on other kinds of terms abroad. If you want to try this, be sure to work out a VERY SPECIFIC plan in advance with your advisor.

II. Literature Review

An important element of the thesis is a review of the relevant literature. This should be completed by the end of the first term. You should expect to read the equivalent of 6-8 books or 40 articles. In most cases, you should expect to do a review that goes beyond your specific geographical area to cover the theoretical issues involved. For example, one student who studied attitudes toward gambling casinos on the Oneida reservation ended up reviewing literature on formation of ethnic identity since views of gambling were linked to their views about local culture.

Here are some pointers on doing literature review:

1. **Maintain a Bibliography.** Try to develop the habit of noting down references of potential interest as you are doing your reading or research. If you pay attention to the proper material for full citations then you can save yourself time later when you actually have to put together your References Cited list for your thesis. You can just copy and paste items from the bibliography you have maintained all along.

2. **Look for Review Articles.** Often a great resource can be an article done by an author that summarizes a lot of the relevant published research on a given topic. One great place to find these articles is in the *Annual Review of Anthropology,* published each year as a book. Inside each volume is a series of articles on a range of topics, and these topics change from year to year. The Annual Review also has a cumulative index so that you can find articles from volumes in past years.

3. **Schaffer Library Web Site for Anthropology Theses.** The Union College library maintains a web site as a resource for anthropology majors.

   http://www.union.edu/PUBLIC/LIBRARY/guide/anthro/anthrothesis.html

4. **Think in Terms of Arguments.** When you are doing a literature review, the aim is to identify what kinds of arguments people have made in the past about themes related to your topic. Every time you read an article or a book, ask yourself what arguments the author is making and what arguments the author is arguing *against.* Pay attention to the names of anthropologists associated with these arguments. By the end you should have a good sense of the points of view of several different authors who have addressed the subject you're studying.

III. Writing

The Department is unanimous in its insistence upon well-written theses. By this point, you have presumably learned enough about how to write that we should not have to reiterate the basics of grammar, punctuation, paragraph structure, and spelling. And yet each year we see drafts of chapters that are unworthy of a literate Union College graduate. We will require you to rewrite until such time as you have met the standards we expect. Quality of exposition reflects quality of mind and will be a factor in determining the grade assigned to the thesis. Each advisee weighs this factor as he/she sees fit. It is not, however, your advisor's job to proofread your work for the most elementary errors. You must accept that responsibility. In some cases, if the draft is excessively error-laden, your advisor may return it without reading it. It is a good idea to learn some of the more detailed elements of your word processing software, such as how to format and locate page numbers, how to separate chapters into sections, how to format quotations by changing the margins rather than using tabs for an indent, and so on. Learning these techniques will be of immense help to you in rewriting. Regarding bibliography, you should use the format used in the major anthropological journals, such as *American Anthropologist or American Ethnologist.* Get a copy of one of these journals and just copy the formatting used by the articles there. Pay attention to these details

early on, when writing drafts, so that you do not get swamped by it later.

IV. Library Resources

Electronic resources relevant to Anthropology researchers available through Union's library include: *Abstracts in Anthropology, Annual Review of Anthropology* (online), The Royal Anthropological Institute's *Anthropological Index Online, AnthroSource, EBSCOHost Academic Search Elite, ProQuest Research Library, Project Muse,* and *JSTOR.* More than 150 titles in the field are represented in *Academic Search Elite. JSTOR's* expanding full-text archive contains about two dozen Anthropology publications. There are about a dozen print anthropology titles in the collection, and many more are available via electronic resources that are linked to the campus network. Schaffer Library is also a subscriber to *AnthroSource,* the American Anthropological Association's online repository for more than thirty peer-reviewed journals and publications in the field.

Schaffer library supplements its holdings via interlibrary loan, document delivery, and the Capital Disrict Library's Direct Access Program, an arrangement that allows Union patrons to borrow directly from many area libraries. Union College is also a member of *ConnectNY,* a consortium of New York State libraries dedicated to sharing materials among participating institutions.

Some course-specific web guides may also be useful, including *Urban Anthropology; Sport, Society, and Culture; Tourists and Tourism;* and *Photographing Culture: Selected Primary Resources.* They can be found at http://www.union.edu/Library/research/subject_ant.htm, along with more information about Schaffer Library's Anthropology Resources.

V. Checklist of Requirements for the Senior Thesis in Anthropology

1. Attend a **meeting in the spring term of the junior year** to inform you of the procedures for writing a senior thesis. Before or at that meeting you will fill out a form with your preferences for an advisor and possible topics and fields in which you plan to write the thesis. When you receive your assigned advisor, in the week or so following the meeting, you should meet with your advisor before the end of the spring term.

2. **Arrange for and attend an initial meeting with your faculty advisor during the first week of classes the first term of your thesis (fall or winter term)**. Come prepared with 1 or 2 thesis topics.

3. **Attend regular—probably weekly-- meetings with your advisor throughout the first term of your thesis**, handing in materials on a schedule agreed upon between you and your advisor. If you are an I.D. major, it is up to you to check with your secondary advisor regarding meetings and thesis requirements in the other department.

4. **During the last week of class the first term of your thesis**, you will be required to make a brief (10-15 minute) **oral presentation** of your thesis topic and research to the anthropology faculty and other thesis students.

5. **Due the last day of class the first term your will submit**: a) **one chapter** typed with references properly cited, b) a chapter **outline of the entire thesis**, and c) a **working bibliography**. These will be turned into TWO professors (your advisor

and a second faculty member of their choice). You will receive a pass or fail for the first term.

6. **Attend regular meetings** with your advisor and submit materials on an agreed upon schedule during the second term of your thesis.

7. **Present your thesis at the Steinmetz symposium**.

8. **Complete a draft of your thesis** by the beginning of the **ninth week of the second term of your thesis,** or at the time designated by your advisor.

9. **Submit an abstract and complete an oral defense** of your thesis with your advisor and a second faculty member in the tenth week of final term of your thesis.

10. **Submit the final printed copy of your thesis to your advisor no later than the last day of the second term's final exams**. (You may of course submit it earlier.) remember to plan ahead for the final printing; it can be difficult to get time on the laser printer at the end of the winter term. You will also submit an electronic version of your thesis to JYBazar as an email attachment (bazarj@union.edu)

VI. Evaluation

Anthropology theses are awarded grades based on the following criteria:

1. We encourage students to show originality and intellectual ambition in framing an anthropological question to study.

2. Anthropology theses should involve original research (e.g., participant observation, interviewing, questionnaire or survey, content analysis). Original research offers you the rewarding and often exciting experience of generating your own data, encountering first-hand evidence, and developing with your own new ideas about what it means. The Department's field schools offer excellent experience and preparation for your thesis as does our required methods course (363) taught on campus. Depending upon when you go on term abroad, you may be able to conduct your thesis research in another culture. You also will be evaluated on the thoroughness of your research.

3. We encourage thesis-writers to construct sound anthropological arguments that are logically organized and analytically persuasive. You will have to assemble evidence and then reason about what that evidence does (and does not) demonstrate. You should avoid confusion, aim for clarity, and organize your thesis in a way that facilitates your reader's understanding.

4. We care about grammar and style. We expect your writing to be clear and grammatically correct. In the best theses, a lively intelligent voice seems to speak; It has something interesting to say, and it speaks clearly and gracefully.
5. Fulfilling all requirements outlined earlier (e.g., oral defense, Steinmetz presentation, regular meetings with advisor). Review checklist.
Grading: Thesis grades are based on a combination of these factors. A good, solid thesis

based on conscientious effort and hard work will normally fall in the "B" range. An "A" thesis requires a truly outstanding performance. To obtain department honors, you must have a 3.3. GPA overall, a 3.5.GPA in all anthropology courses, and receive at least an A- on your thesis.

Grading a thesis is somewhat different from what you are used to in courses. Instead of being responsible for a body of material as shown through papers in exams, you are instead building your own work of original research. While the final grade depends significantly upon the quality of the final product, most advisors consider the whole process to a certain extent. It is to your advantage to be responsive to your advisor's suggestions and to be responsible about attending meetings and completing assigned work.

Also, students will be asked to hand in field notes and summaries of readings at regular intervals. This material will factor into the final grade. Advisors are also free to factor in the behavior of the advisee in terms of responsiveness to suggestion, demonstration of initiative and independence, and ability to meet deadlines. An oral defense of the thesis, after completion of written work, will also be factored into the final grade.

There is a tendency to want to avoid dealing with your thesis (or your advisor) if you fall behind. Please **RESIST** the temptation to allow your regular contact with your advisor to lapse. Try to think of the situation from the advisor's point of view. That person is devoting considerable personal time and energy to your project and it is easy to feel slighted by a student who is simply finding a way to avoid dealing with their project. The key is to remember common courtesies, prompt email responses, and consistent attendance at assigned meetings are a part of that.

We would ask you to be very clear on one point concerning grading: working hard does not automatically entitle anyone to a high grade. The thesis should be your major order of academic business during the senior year, and we expect everyone to do a lot of hard work. We expect careful research, clear thinking, insightful analysis, and lucid presentation.

In general the final grade reflects three categories: (1) the written document, (2) the effort and overall work experience, and (3) the oral defense.

The following is a guideline to criteria used in grading the written work:

A or A- Grades. Clear thesis (argument or analysis), organization, and continuity. Detailed understanding of the problem; sound organization; few or no mechanical mistakes; clear, unambiguous sentences, perhaps with a touch of elegance--in the best A papers, a lively and intelligent voice seems to speak; it has something interesting to say, says it clearly and gracefully to an appropriate audience, and supports the thesis fully. Because of the extent of collaboration and revision, it should be possible for any student to receive either an A or and A- on a thesis, but this requires that they do ALL the components well and that there be significant revisions of work along the way.

B+, B or B- Grades. These grades indicate a competent job but usually mean that there is some component of the thesis that was not as well completed as it could have been. Any of the following things can automatically move a thesis into the B range: limited primary research, limited literature coverage, failure to articulate a clear argument with relevant evidence, lapses in attending meetings or attending to deadlines, awkward writing, significant numbers of mechanical errors.

C+, C or C- Grades. These grades are applied to papers with significant and multiple lapses. Some problems may include: weak, fuzzy thesis (argument) and/ or perhaps

even illogical arguments; a certain amount of confusion about what the text at hand actually says; many minor mechanical errors and perhaps some major ones (such as incomplete sentences); examples given for their own sake or just to demonstrate that the writer has read the texts (i.e., a book report) and not to develop a point; rambling organization, misused words, weak proofreading; unclear intended audience. There are some ideas where, but the writer needs help and work to make them clear to another reader.

D Grade. This grade is assigned when significant work has gone into the thesis but the paper itself is fundamentally incomplete. Thesis (argument and analysis) missing; major mechanical problems; poor organization; serious misreading of texts and articles; stretches in which the writer simply gives a narrative account of a text for no apparent purpose; the paper is much shorter than the assigned length--the writer doesn't really have a point to make and has serious problems in writing and reading at an appropriate level.

F Grade. This grade is reserved for those that did not do enough work to have completed the assignment effectively.

The anthropology faculty does not want anyone to do poorly on a thesis. We would consider it an extremely successful year for US if all of our students received either an A or A- on their theses. We do **NOT** compare students against each other or grade on a curve. Your advisor will work out your grade solely on the basis of the work you yourself have done.

VII. Funding

IEF Funding. A major source of support for thesis research in recent years has been the Internal Education Fund (IEF), which provides small grants (on the average of a few hundred dollars) to students undertaking projects that cannot be completed without funding. In recent years, IEF money has been used to fund travel to archives or areas where research is to be done, data acquisition, postage, copying costs for questionnaires, and various other activities. They do NOT fund photocopying of articles for your research. The Office of the Undergraduate Dean has application forms with detailed instructions on what is and is not funded by IEF. The competition for funding (and it is competitive) occurs during the Fall term. Watch for notices in *Concordiensis* or consult your advisor. The Anthropology Department does not have its own funding for senior thesis research.

VIII. Interdepartmental Work

If you are an interdepartmental major, you write an interdepartmental thesis; you will have two advisors--one for each department. Encourage dialogue between your advisors, and make sure early on that your topic satisfies them both. Often it is best to have one advisor as your primary advisor while the other supplements. Because the Anthropology Department requires a thesis of all its majors, it is usually the case that the primary advisor for ID Thesis is in the Anthropology Department--especially when the other department (such as psychology) does not require a thesis of all its majors.

THE SENIOR THESIS- Structure

1. Introduction

This chapter should include the following:
> A. Introduction: What is the study about? Include your general objective(s).
> B. Significance: Why is your study worth doing?
> C. Previous work: What has been done on this problem or topic by prior investigators?
> D. Specific objectives: Precisely what research questions will you be addressing?
> E. Organization: Briefly discuss the organization of your thesis. What do you examine in each chapter?

Your research should be informed by the questions that earlier researchers have posed and the answers they have arrived at. This is why you do a literature review. You will need to discuss what is already known about your topic. What are some of the basic findings? What conflicting evidence, contradictions, or gaps exist in the scholarship on your topic? In order to describe why your study is significant--worth doing--you will need to know what has already been done.

II. Methodology

This can be a separate chapter, a section in your introductory chapter, or an appendix at the end of your thesis. This is a decision you will make. A lot depends upon how complicated your methodology was and how central it is to your findings. Is it important for the reader to know how you collected your data before s/he reads your results?

Some issues you may discuss in this chapter or section include:

> A. Research problem and analysis: What lines of analysis or perspectives did you have at the start of the study? What questions were you attempting to answer? When and why did they change? At what point did you arrive at or formulate the design or shape of the study as it now exists.
> B. Why you chose a particular location or social setting for your research? How did you select "informants?" How did you secure permission and cooperation? What problems did you encounter in doing the research?
> C. Data Gathering: What techniques did you use to gather your data? Why were they the appropriate ones to use?
> D. Private reactions and biases: How did you feel about the community when you first arrived? What emotional stresses did you experience doing the research? (Your thoughts may give the reader insight into your field work and how your experiences and background may have influenced the perspective you have adopted and possibly, your findings)

III. Substantive Chapters

This section forms the heart of your thesis--its real content--and should be subdivided into several topical chapters which correspond to your data and/or to your research objectives.

IV. <u>Conclusion</u>

In some theses this may be a recap of your major findings, highlighting the most important points you wish to make. In other cases, it is a systematic discussion of the implications of your findings. It may also include ideas for future research.

V. <u>Appendices</u>

Some material, such as the interview schedule or questionnaire that you used during your research, should be included as an appendix at the end of your thesis.

VI. <u>Bibliography</u>

A bibliography lists all the written sources you consulted during the research and writing of your thesis. (Some authors have a <u>References Cited</u> section instead which includes only those works referred to in the text.) You should keep a true bibliography.

Writing a Literature Review

The purpose of a literature review is to summarize and synthesize the arguments, studies, and ideas of others on a particular topic. The literature review <u>summarizes</u> the sources of information that relate to your research topic. It also <u>synthesizes</u> these sources of information, organizing them in a manner that is meaningful. You may also evaluate the sources, identifying ideas that are particularly pertinent to your topic, and even ways that sources may differ from your topic or be lacking.

Surveying the literature, selecting the most relevant studies, and composing a coherent literature review <u>helps you</u>, the thesis writer, understand better what is already known about your research topic and how researchers have investigated questions similar to your own. The literature review also is <u>useful for readers,</u> enabling them to see the relevant background to your study and the context out of which your research question has significance. Additionally, a solid literature review <u>gives the writer credibility</u> with readers as someone who is knowledgeable about the topic of the study.

<u>Planning to write the literature review</u>:
1. Clarify the requirements of your search:
    - How many sources should you include?
    - What types of sources are needed? What journals are recommended?
    - How current should the sources be?
2. Check out literature reviews in senior theses from previous years in Anthropology in Schaffer Library. This will help you get a sense of what the review should look and sound like and of ways to organize it and integrate it within your thesis. From the Schaffer Library homepage, select <u>Catalogs</u> and then <u>Thesis</u>.
3. Refine your literature search. If the search yields too many sources, you may need to narrow it. If your search yields too few sources, consider alternative search terms. Reading titles of articles in your search may give you ideas of the types of questions being studied-a possible way to organize your literature review. You want <u>sufficient</u> sources but also a <u>manageable range</u> of sources to read and select from in order to survey the literature on a topic. Remember, one good source will often lead to others, so check the bibliographies of your key sources.

<u>Writing the literature review</u>:
In some ways the literature review is like a mini-paper within your larger thesis. Think about the way you will focus and structure this mini-paper. Once you have selected your sources, consider the ideas that the sources represent. Find a focus that ties them all together, and look at ways in which they might be organized to present a coherent survey that relates to your topic or research question. Here are some questions to ask yourself:
    - Do the sources all represent the same theme or issue or different ones?
    - Do they all use the same methodology or different ones?
    - Do they present one solution or different ones?
    - Are they based on the same theoretical perspective or different ones?
    - Do they reveal a single trend or more than one trend?
Seeing these patterns will help you choose an appropriate organization for your literature review.

- Write your focus: Write a thesis-like statement that encompasses all of your sources. What perspective do the sources you have chosen represent?
- Decide on an organizational pattern for presenting the sources: What approach is the most effective way to present your sources? What are the main topics? What order should you use? The following are some of the options to consider.
  - Thematic: Order your sources by topic or issue. Within a theme or topic, sources may or may not be organized chronologically.
  - Methodological: Order your sources by the methods used by the researcher rather than by the content.
  - Trend: Order your sources by date of publication (chronologically) if that order demonstrates an important trend.

Other sections you might include in your literature review:
  - Current Situation: Sometimes information on this may be needed to help readers understand the topic or focus of the literature review.
  - History: Chronological trends of the field or the literature that may be necessary to understand the literature review.
  - Methods and/or Standards: The criteria used to select or limit the sources in your literature review (e.g., only peer-reviewed articles, only articles after a certain date, only articles looking at adults, etc.).

Begin writing:
Here's how one section of your literature review might be introduced:

However, other studies have shown that even gender-neutral job classifications are more likely to attract men than women (Owenst1997). Roberts (2000) analyzed data from ....

- Use sources as evidence to make your point-just as in any other academic paper.
- Be selective. Highlight only key points in each source, selecting information related to the review's focus.
- Summarize and synthesize the sources. Highlight important features of a study, but also synthesize by relating the significance of the study to your own topic.
- Write in your own voice. Although you are presenting the ideas of others, your voice should dominate. Use your own words to summarize and evaluate sources.
- Paraphrase with caution. Make sure you are accurately representing the information from sources when summarizing. Identify the authors' ideas clearly so that readers can distinguish their ideas from your own comments on the studies.
- Use quotes sparingly. Many reviews use no quotes at all. Use quotes only to emphasize a point that the author states in a particularly powerful way.

Revise and edit
Put your literature review aside for a day or two. Then re-read it, preferably aloud, to hear whether the ideas and the language you use reflect your intentions. If proofreading and editing are difficult for you, visit the Writing Center in Schaffer Library, Room 227, where a tutor will work with you to proofread your paper.

Writing Center 11/05

Example 1: Literature Review from an academic article

Japanese Mothers and *Obentōs:*
The Lunch Box as Ideological
State Apparatus

Anne Allison

Japanese nursery school children, going off to school for the first time, carry with them a boxed lunch *(obentō)* prepared by their mothers at home. Customarily these *obentō* are highly crafted elaborations: a multitude of miniportions artistically designed and precisely arranged in a container that is sturdy and cute. Mothers tend to expend inordinate time and attention on these *obentō* in efforts both to please their children and to affirm that they are good mothers. Children at nursery school are taught they must consume their entire meal according to school rituals.

Packing food in an *obentō* is an everyday practice of Japanese. *Obentō* are sold at train stations, catered for special meals, carried to work, and sold as fast food. Adoption of the *obentō* at the nursery school level may seem only natural to Japanese and unremarkable to outsiders, but I argue in this chapter that the *obentō* is invested with a gendered state ideology. Overseen by the authorities of the nursery school institution, which is linked to, if not directly monitored by, the state, the practice of the *obentō* situates the producer as a woman and mother and the consumer as a child of a mother and a student of a school. Food in this context is neither casual nor arbitrary. Eaten quickly in its entirety by the student, the *obentō* must be fashioned by the mother so as to expedite this chore for the child. Both mother and child are being watched, judged, and constructed; and it is only through their joint effort that the goal can be accomplished.

I use Louis Althusser's concept of the ideological state apparatuses (1971) to frame my argument, briefly describing how food is coded as a cultural and aesthetic apparatus in Japan and what authority the state holds over schools in Japanese society. Thus situating the parameters within which the *obentō* is regulated and structured in the nursery school setting, I will examine the practice both of making and eating *obentō* within the context of one nursery school in T*okyo.* As an anthropologist and mother of a child who attended this school for fifteen months, I base my analysis. on my observations; discussions with other mothers; daily conversations and an interview with my son's teacher; examination of *obentō* magazines and cookbooks; participation in school rituals, outings, and Mother's Association meetings; and the multifarious experiences of my son and myself as we faced the *obentō* process every day.

Although *obentōs* as a routine, task, and art form of nursery school culture are embedded with ideological and gendered meanings that the state indirectly manipulates, the manipulation is neither total nor totally coercive. Pleasure and creativity for both mother and child are also products of the *obentō* process.

Cultural Ritual and State Ideology

As anthropologists have long understood, not only are the worlds we inhabit symbolically constructed, but also our cultural symbols are endowed with, or have the potential for, power. How we see reality, in other words, is how we live it. So the conventions by which we recognize our universe are also those by which all of us assume our place and behavior within that universe. Culture is, in this sense, doubly constructive: constructing both the world for people and people for specific worlds.

The fact that culture is not necessarily innocent and power, not necessarily transparent has been revealed by much theoretical work conducted both inside and outside the discipline of anthropology. The scholarship of the neo-Marxist Louis Althusser (1971), for example, has encouraged the conceptualization of power as a force that operates in ways that are subtle, disguised, and accepted as everyday social practice. Althusser differentiated between two major structures of power in modern capitalist societies. The first he called (repressive) state apparatuses (SAs), institutions, such as the law and police, that are sanctioned by a repressive state to wield and manage power through the threat of force (1971:143-145).

Contrasted with this is a second structure of power-the ideological state apparatuses (ISAs). These are institutions that have some overt function other than political or administrative: mass media, education, health and welfare, for example. More numerous, disparate, and functionally polymorphous than the SAs, the ISAs exert power not primarily through repression but through ideology. Designed and accepted as having another purpose-to educate (the school system), entertain (film industry), or inform (news media)-the ISA serve not only their stated objective but also an unstated one, that of indoctrinating people into seeing the world a certain way and accepting certain identities as their own within that world (Althusser 1971:143-147).

Although both structures of power operate simultaneously and in complementarily, the ISAs, according to Althusser, are the more influential of the two in capitalist societies. Disguised and screened by another operation, the power of ideology in an ISA can be both more far reaching and insidious than an SAs power of coercion. Hidden in the movies we watch, the music we hear, the liquor we drink, the textbooks we read, the ISA is overlooked because it is protected, and its protection-or its alibi (Barthes 1972:109-111)-allows the terms and relations of ideology to spill into and infiltrate our everyday lives .

A world of commodities, gender inequalities, and power differentials is seen, therefore, as the natural environment, one that makes sense because it has become our experience to live it and accept it. This common sense acceptance of a particular world is the work of ideology, and it works by concealing the coercive and repressive elements of our everyday routines but also by making those routines of the everyday familiar, desirable, and simply our own. This is the critical element of Althusser's notion of ideological power: Ideology is so potent because it becomes not only ours but us-the terms and machinery by which we structure ourselves and identify who we are.

Japanese Food as Cultural Myth

The author in one *obentō* magazine, the type of medium-sized publication that, filled with glossy pictures of *obentō* and ideas and recipes for successfully recreating them, sells in

the bookstores across Japan, declares: "The making of the *obentō* is the one most worrisome concern facing the mother of a child going off to school for the first time" (Shufunotomo 1980: inside cover).

Another *obentō* journal, this one heftier and packaged in the encyclopedic series of the prolific women's publishing firm Shufunotomo, articulates the same social fact: "First-time *obentōs* are a strain on both parent and child" *("Hajimete no obentō wa, oya* mo *ko* mo *kinchoshimasu")* (Shufunotomo 1981:55).

Any outside observer might ask, What is the real source of worry over *obentō?* Is it the food itself or the entrance of the young child into school for the first time? Yet as one looks at a typical child's *obentō-a* small box packaged with a five- or six-course miniaturized meal whose pieces and parts are artistically and neatly arranged and perfectly cut (see Figures 4.1, 4.2)-would immediately reveal, no food is "just" food in Japan. That is not so immediately apparent, however, is why a small child with limited appetite and perhaps scant interest in food is the recipient of a meal as elaborate and as elaborately prepared as any made for an entire family or invited guests?

Certainly in Japan, much attention is focused on the *obentō.* It is invested with a significance far beyond that of the merely pragmatic, functional one of sustaining a child with nutritional foodstuffs. Since this investment beyond the pragmatic is
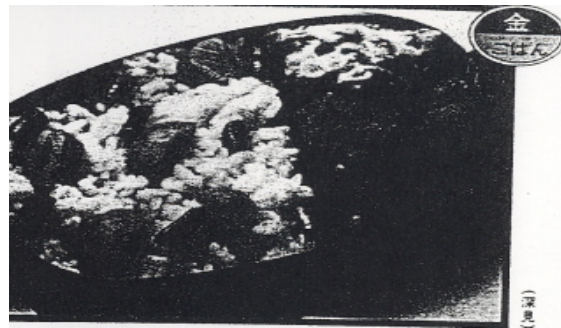

FIG U R E 4.1 Example of *obentōs,* signs of maternal love and labor. SOURCE: 365 *nichi no obentō hyakka* (Encyclopedia of lunch box for 365 days), 1981 (Tokyo; Shufunotomosha), p. 83

true of any food prepared in Japan, it is helpful to examine culinary codes for food preparation that operate generally in the society before focusing on children's *obentō.*

As has been remarked often about Japanese food, the key element is appearance. Food must be organized and reorganized, arranged and rearranged, stylized and re-stylized, to appear in a design that is visually attractive. Presentation is critical not to the extent that taste and nutrition are displaced, as has been sometimes argued, but to the degree that' how food looks is at least as important as how it tastes and how good and sustaining it is for one's body.

As Donald Richie points out in his eloquent and informative book A *Taste of Japan* (1985), presentational style is the guiding principle by which food is prepared in Japan, and the style is conditioned by a number of codes. One code is for smallness, separation, and fragmentation. Nothing large is allowed, so all portions are cut to be bite sized and served in tiny individual dishes.[1] There is no one big dinner plate with three large portions of vegetable, starch, and meat, as in American cuisine. Consequently, the eye is pulled not toward one totalizing center but away to a multiplicity of decentered parts.[2]

Visually, food is presented according to a structural principle not only of segmentation but also of opposition. Foods are broken up or cut up to make contrasts of color, texture, and shape. Foods are meant to oppose one another and...

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Review of the Literature and Statement of the Problem

K.E. Rudestan and R.R. Newton

THE INTRODUCTION

The Review of the Literature is generally preceded by a brief introductory chapter. The Introduction consists of an overview of the research problem and some indication of why the problem is worth exploring or what contribution the proposed study is apt to make to theory and/or practice. The Introduction is usually a few pages in length. While it may begin. by offering a broad context for the study, it quickly comes to the point with a narrowly focused definition of the problem. The form of the Introduction is the same for both the research proposal and the dissertation itself, although there are likely to be some changes made to the understanding of the research problem after the study has been completed. Ironically, it is usually impossible to write a final Introduction chapter prior to completing the literature review and method, since those chapters will inform the problem and its operationalization.

The wording of the research problem should be sufficiently explicit to orient the most inattentive reader. There is nothing wrong with beginning the chapter with a sentence such as, "In this study I attempted to evaluate the impact of environmental protection legislation on atmospheric pollutants in the chemical industry." The chapter would proceed to stipulate the assumptions and hypotheses of the study, identify the key variables, and explain the procedures used to explore the questions. It should include a synopsis of the arguments that explain the rationale for the research question and the study. It is perfectly acceptable to cite one or more studies that are directly relevant to the proposed investigation and may have inspired it or lent it empirical or theoretical justification. But this is not the place to conduct a literature review. Avoid technical details and keep the Introduction short.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Often the lengthiest section of the research proposal, the Review of the Literature is placed just after the introductory overview of the study. This chapter of the dissertation provides a context for the proposed study and demonstrates why it is important and timely. Thus this chapter needs to clarify the relationship between the proposed study and previous work conducted on the topic. The reader will need to be convinced that not only is the proposed study distinctive and different from previous research, but that it is worthwhile doing. This is also the place where the student's critical abilities as a scholar are tested and evident. Many students erroneously believe that the purpose of the literature review is to convince the reader that the writer is knowledgeable about the work of others. Based on this misunderstanding, the literature review may read like a laundry list of previous studies, with sentences or paragraphs beginning with the words, "Smith found … ," "Jones concluded … ," "Anderson stated … ," and so on. This is

not only poor writing but misses the whole point of an effective review of the literature.

A colleague of ours, Jeremy Shapiro, has noted that much of the labor that goes into writing is often wasted effort because it is not based on a clear understanding of the purpose of an essay or thesis (Shapiro & Nicholsen, 1986). As a general rule, if you have difficulties in your basic writing skills, that is, in constructing grammatical sentences, using appropriate transitions, and staying focused and concise, a research dissertation will glaringly reveal these weaknesses and the logic and persuasiveness of your arguments will be diminished. One basic suggestion is to obtain remedial help in strengthening basic writing skills. Furthermore, the style of writing that is appropriate with literary prose. Scientific writing tends to be more direct and to the point and less flowery and evocative. Effective writing is an acquired skill that is taken up as a separate topic in Chapter 9.

A good way to formulate a question that is appropriate to a research study is to determine what bothers you (Shapiro & Nicholsen, 1986). As you consider one or more possible questions and draw upon the observations and ideas of others who are interested in the same and related questions, you are in fact formulating the argument. The forum for the argument is the literature review, which is played out in the form of a dialogue between you and the reader. In order to dialogue effectively, the writer must anticipate the kinds of questions and apprehensions that the reader might have in critically examining your argument. It is common for critical evaluations of academic papers to be peppered with comments such as, "What is your point here?" "What makes you think so?" "What is your evidence?" "So what?" The more you can anticipate a reader's questions the easier it will be to formulate your arguments in a way that produces mutual understanding. Dissertations go through many drafts and the revision process consists of asking and responding to these questions from the point of view of a circumspect and knowledgeable reader.

The literature review is not a compilation of facts and feelings, but a coherent argument that leads to the description of a proposed study. There should be no mystery about the direction in which you are going ("Where are you going with this?" is a good question to ask yourself repeatedly in a review of the literature). You always need to state explicitly at the outset the goal of the paper and the structure of the evolving argument. By the end of the literature review, the reader should be able to conclude that, "Yes, of course, this is the exact study that needs to be done at this time to move knowledge in this field a little further along." The review attempts to convince the reader of the legitimacy of your assertions by providing sufficient logical and empirical support along the way. You will continually need to decide what assertions it is reasonable to assume the reader accepts as common understanding and what assertions require data as a support. For instance, if you were to assert that survivors of suicide need professional help, a peer reader would probably want to know on what basis you are making that assertion, and request some evidence about the needs of survivors of suicide and why professionals (as opposed to nonprofessionals, for instance) are necessary. On the other hand, the claim that, "Freud was the father of psychoanalysis" is likely to be well established as a fact within the professional psychological community and thus not require further backing.

Becker (1986) reminds us that there is no need to reinvent the wheel and that it is perfectly permissible to draw upon the thoughtful arguments of others

and incorporate them into your own research project. This is very much in keeping with our understanding of the incremental, cumulative process that characterizes the development of normal science (Kuhn, 1962). On the other hand, a skillful researcher draws upon original source material rather than relying upon review articles and secondary sources. Becker uses the image of a jigsaw puzzle, in which some of the pieces have been designed by you while others are borrowed in their prefabricated form from the contributions of other scholars. On the other hand, it is worth noting that becoming overly preoccupied with the literature can deform your argument so that you lose your privileged place at the center of the study. In any case, do not neglect to give proper credit to the source of ideas by citing complete references in your writing.

COMMON PROBLEMS

A principal failing of novice researchers at every stage of a project, and especially evident in the review of the literature, is giving away their own power and authority. As a researcher, you need to accept that you are in charge of this study and that, in the case of dissertations, it is likely that you will ultimately be the world's leading expert on the narrow topic you have selected to address. One way of giving away authority is to defer to the authority of others in the review, assuming, for instance, that because Emile Durkheim or John Dewey said something, it is necessarily valid. You need to adopt a critical perspective in reading and relaying the work of others. The main reason why sentences beginning with "Jones found …" are best kept to a minimum is that it shifts the focus of the review from your own argument to the work of others. A preferable strategy is to develop a theme and then cite the work of relevant authors to buttress the argument you are making or to provide noteworthy examples of your point or counterexamples that need to be considered. Another way of limiting your own authority is by using quotations in excess. The overuse of quotes tends to deflect the argument away from the control of the author. Restrict the use of quotations to those that are particularly impactful or that are stated in a unique way that is difficult to recapture. Besides, using your own words to present difficult concepts will help convince you (and others) that you really understand the material.

Once you have read the literature in an area, it may be tempting to report everything you now know. Avoid this temptation! A good literature review needs to be selective and it is taken for granted that the majority of source material you have read will not make it directly into the literature review. That does not mean that it wasn't necessary to read all of those books and articles; they provide the expertise required to make your contribution. But remember, in the dissertation itself your task is to build an argument, not a library. One of our colleagues likens the process to a courtroom trial, where all admissible testimony by the witnesses must be relevant to the case and question at hand. Consistently ask yourself, "Why am I including this study or reference?" Similarly, each sentence in the dissertation needs to be there for a purpose, sometimes to provide relevant content and sometimes to facilitate communication to the reader, but never as filler.

The relevant studies need to be critiqued rather than reported. The critique serves to inform the reader about the status of reliable knowledge in the field and to identify errors to avoid in future research. Although the primary task is to build an argument, and you are expected to present your own point of view, it is not fair to

exclude references that contradict or question your case. You must be objective enough to present both sides of an argument and acknowledge where the weight of the evidence falls. Throughout the review, leave enough signposts along the way to help orient the reader. One way is to inform the reader of what you have done and what conclusions you have drawn on the basis of the available evidence. You also need to convince the reader that your knowledge of the existing literature is extensive and intensive enough to justify your proposed study.

CRITIQUING A RESEARCH ARTICLE

As you read the available research in an area, you need to maintain a critical perspective, evaluating the study on its own merits and in comparison to other studies on the same or a similar problem. A critique does not imply that you must discover and identify a major flaw or weakness in every study you read. You are evaluating the content for its application to your research. The following outline consists of a rather comprehensive set of recommendations for critiquing a research article. Not all of these items will be included in any given citation within the literature review. The amount of attention a study receives will depend upon its direct relevance to the proposed research question and should not detract from the flow of the argument. Nonetheless, this list can act as a reminder for how to read and evaluate critically a research article's contribution to a proposed study:

1. Conceptualization
   a. What is the major problem or issue being investigated?
   b. How clearly are the major concepts defined/ explained?
2. Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses
   a. Is there a clearly stated research question?
   b. Are there hypotheses? Are they clearly stated?
   c. Are the relationships among the main variables explicit and reasonable?
   d. Are the hypotheses stated in a way that makes them testable and the results, no matter what, interpretable?
3. Research Design
   a. What is the type of research design?
   b. Does the research design adequately control for extraneous variables?
   c. Could the design be improved? How?
   d. Are the variables clearly and reasonably operationalized? Is the choice of categories or cutting points defensible?
   e. Are the reliability and validity of the measures discussed? Is the choice of measures appropriate?
   f. Is the population appropriate for the research question being studied? Is the sample specified and appropriate? Can the results be reasonably generalized on the basis of this sample?
4. Results and Discussion
   a. Are the data appropriate for the study?
   b. Are the statistical techniques appropriate and adequately described?
   c. Are the control variables adequately handled in the data analysis? Are there other control variables that were not considered but should have been?
   d. Are the conclusions of the study consistent with the results of the statistical analyses?
   e. Are alternative conclusions that are consistent with the data discussed and accounted for?
   f. Are the theoretical and practical implications of the results adequately discussed?
   g. Are the limitations of the study noted?
5. Summary
   a. What is your overall assessment of the adequacy of the study for exploring the research problem?

b. What is your overall assessment of the contribution of the study to this area of research?

LONG SHOTS AND SHORT SHOTS

Our colleague Joseph Handlon has drawn an analogy between doing a literature review and making a movie. In film-making there are "long shots," "medium shots," and "close-ups," which refer to the relative distance between the camera and the subject matter. As a metaphor, a long shot suggests that the material is background for a particular topic. Background material needs to be acknowledged but not treated with the same detail as foreground; it is not figural. A study on the stressful impact of relocation, for instance, might begin with the following observation:

There have been three basic ways of approaching the topic of stress empirically. One is by regarding stress as an independent variable and focusing on the nature and strength of the stressor, exemplified in the empirical contributions of Holmes and Rahe (1967). A second approach is to view stress as a dependent variable, focusing on the physiological and psychological impact of stressful events, illustrated by the seminal work of Hans Selye (1956). An alternative approach is to view stress as a transaction between a stimulus and a response, which is moderated by a set of cognitive variables. This approach, elaborated in the work of Lazarus and his colleagues (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), forms the conceptual foundation for this study. In this way, considerable literature can be referenced without attending to details or critical evaluations of each study.

The medium shot is somewhere between the long and the short focus and requires a bit more descriptive material. As an example, let us assume that a researcher wishes to explore the effect of social protest and threats of violence on the well-being of workers in abortion clinics. It would be appropriate to obtain a good overview of the impact of potentially violent social protest in other contexts, as well as a good understanding of the emotional demands of working in a clinic serving women with unwanted pregnancies. Studies that bear on these relevant issues may not need to be presented in critical detail, but certainly need to be summarized sufficiently to give the reader a clear indication of the status of the research as it pertains to the orientation of the proposed study.

Finally, the close-up requires a careful examination of the research and is reserved for those studies that have the most direct relevance to the proposed research question. In some cases, this might refer to one or two studies that are being modified or amended in some critical way to form the basis for the current study. More frequently, it refers to a collection of work on a relatively narrow topic that is clearly central to the proposal. These studies are not merely referenced but critically examined, so that the reader obtains a clear sense of what is already known about the phenomenon, how reliable and valid the conclusions based on that work are apt to be, and how the proposed study will deal with previous limitations and move the field ahead. The researcher who is interested in exploring the impact of infertility treatments on communication between husbands and wives might present the following close-up statement after having carefully described the samples, measures, and procedures of the two most relevant (fictitious) studies in that literature. Of the two studies that bear directly on the proposed question, Sterile (1986) found that couples reported improved communication after experiencing prolonged infertility treatment, while Ripe and Fertile (1987) concluded that behavioral exchanges between infertile couples more frequently escalated into arguments the longer that medical interventions continued. Of particular concern in Sterile's study is the fact

that because men and women were interviewed together, the couples may not have been totally honest and their responses may have been prejudiced by one another. Beyond this threat to validity, the conflicting findings of the two studies suggests the need for a more definitive investigation of the impact of infertility treatment on communication patterns within couples.
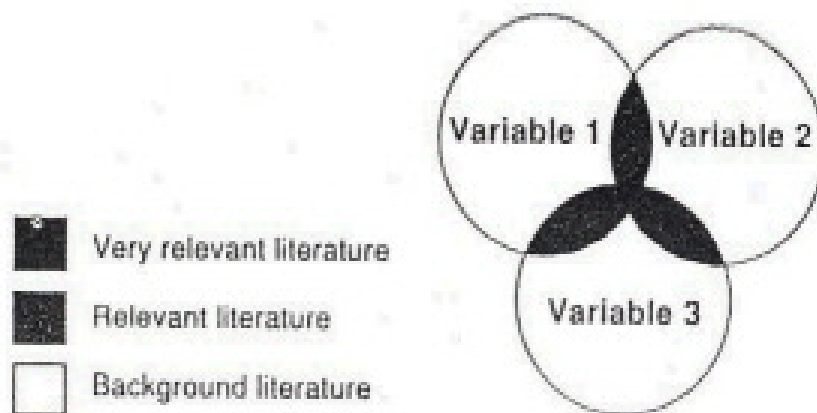

Figure 4.1. Venn Diagram Guide to the Literature Review

A good strategy for reviewing the literature can be found by referring to a Venn diagram (see Figure 4.1) of three intersecting circles, which is derived from the previously discussed exercise on formulating research questions. The long shots, or wide angle lenses, are represented by the portions of the three primary variables that are independent of the other two variables. The medium shot is illustrated by the intersections of any two variables. The close-up, or narrow-angle lens, refers to the joint intersection of all three variables. As a general rule, any studies in the existing literature that incorporate all of the major variables or constructs that are present in the proposed study will require very careful scrutiny because they are particularly relevant. Studies that relate some of the variables (e.g., two) also deserve a short description. Studies that deal with only one of the selected variables, perhaps in conjunction with other, less relevant variables, are merely background. They are generally too numerous to examine in detail and include a great deal of content that does not pertain to the current study. Certainly, one need not review all studies dealing with sexual dysfunctions, for instance, in order to focus Oh male impotence in mid-life. Nor will one need to consider all previous work on men or mid-life. Yet gender issues and mid-life development issues may provide important background material and a theoretical foundation for the proposed study. Moreover, the researcher will not have to introduce every study on impotence but will probably need to be familiar with a broad range of previous work in the area.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

At the conclusion of the literature review, the reader should have obtained a fairly clear idea of the study. By this time you will have carefully crafted your argument and moved the reader along as you build your case. You will have convinced your reader of your mastery of the subject matter by having reviewed and critiqued the existent literature that pertains to your study and gives it a suitable context. The next immediate challenge is to form a transition between the literature review and the next section of the dissertation, the Statement of the Problem. One way to build this transition, so that the literature review chapter appears connected to the proposed study, is to write a summary of the review you have conducted. This summary would highlight your main conclusions, including reference to the most relevant literature (which you have previously reviewed), and leave the reader anticipating the next steps.

The Statement of the Problem is sometimes written as a separate chapter and sometimes located at the very end of the Review of the Literature. Although you have probably offered a general statement of the problem early in the introductory chapter of the dissertation, this is the place for a more specific statement. The specificity of the problem statement is very important. A research problem consists of much more (and less) than a misunderstood collection of unidentified relationships. The statement is usually framed in the form of one or more research questions and research hypotheses. Although we recommend the inclusion of formal hypotheses as a general standard, whether or not to include them may depend on the type of study, what is known about the question, and the conventions of your discipline and department. Similarly, the statement of the problem may contain conceptual definitions of major concepts. This is particularly true when competing definitions of the concepts exist within the field of inquiry (e.g., it might be important to point out that the study will focus on trait anxiety as opposed to state anxiety or other conceptualizations of the construct of anxiety).

It is critical that a research question have an explanatory basis. This means that the statement of the problem contains a brief summary of the conceptual underpinnings for the proposed research. *Dust bowl empiricism* is the derogatory term used to refer to a shotgun approach to research, in which the investigator levels his or her Sights to see what is out there without developing a convincing chain of presuppositions and arguments that lead to a prediction. There is no research problem in "wondering" how the variables of gender, voice quality, and persuasion intercorrelate, so this will not pass for a suitable problem statement. Hypotheses have the virtue of being explanatory expressions of research questions because they imply a commitment to a particular understanding of how variables relate.

An example of a research question without a specific hypothesis is, "What is the role of male significant others on the criminal activities of female criminals?" This research question implies a study that obtains information from or about women who have been convicted of crimes regarding the influence of boyfriends and male acquaintances in their criminal activities. A study that poses this question without predictive hypotheses (perhaps because of a lack of available information about this topic) might be termed "exploratory."

In most instances it is possible to project hypotheses, even in those

instances where there is a relative lack of research in an area. This is because there are apt to be studies and theories on related topics that can inform the proposed study. In the above example, the investigator may have developed some reasonable hunches about the research question from her knowledge of women's developmental theory and the role of the peer group in criminal behavior. These hunches would be reflected in one or more hypotheses. An example of a research hypothesis is: "There is a negative relationship between positive body image and motivation for" augmentation mammoplasty." A second example is: "Couples in stable, unhappy marriages use more conflict avoidance methods than couples in stable, happy marriages." The first hypothesis suggests a study in which the variables of body image and motivation for breast augmentation will be statistically correlated, while the second hypothesis suggests a study using two groups of couples who will be compared on how they manage conflict. In either case, the variables specified in the hypotheses will need to be *operationalized,* that is, clarified with regard to how they are to be measured. Such specification usually takes place in the Method chapter. In the first example, the researcher might predict, as did one of our students, a negative relationship between scores on the Jourard-Secord Body Cathexis Scale and a 10-item Likert-type scale of motivation to seek augmentation mammoplasty (Ewing, 1992). It is obviously important to specify each and every variable. In the second example, the terms *stable/unstable marriage,* and *conflict avoidance methods* would need to be articulated, and the two groups of couples would need to be identified.

It usually takes several rewritings in order to come up with research questions and hypotheses that are optimally clear, concise, and meaningful. Note that hypotheses are typically written in the present tense and they are written as positive assertions. They are not written as "null" hypotheses. The reader may be aware that inferential statistics work on the assumption of rejecting null hypotheses, that is, hypotheses that assume there are no significant differences between or among groups or no significant relationships among variables. Research hypotheses, on the other hand, should not be stated as null hypotheses, but as directional hypotheses (or hypotheses that specify relationship between variables) that follow from the argument that has been established in the preceding chapter. As research hypotheses, null hypotheses are only confusing, since they reflect the opposite of the argument you have been proposing. If the logic behind the stated hypotheses is not totally evident, it is always a good idea to follow or precede each hypothesis with a short rationale that reminds the reader how it emerged out of theoretical propositions established in the review of the literature.

One recommended statement of the criteria for a good hypothesis is that it (a) be free of ambiguity, (b) express the relationship between two or more variables, and (c) imply an empirical test (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 1987). A common pitfall is to have more than one hypothesis embedded in a single, complex statement (e.g., "Women who earn more than their husbands have more self-confidence, more friends, and receive more help on household tasks than women who earn less than their husbands").

Some dissertations contain both research questions with hypotheses and research questions that stand alone. The hypotheses might cover those relationships that directly challenge previous work or test a theory, while research questions without hypotheses are more open-ended opportunities to satisfy your curiosity. For instance, a student studying self-disclosure patterns

among psychotherapists might have specific hypotheses about the relationship between self-disclosure and friendship (e.g., "Therapists who are high in self-disclosure with their patients have fewer personal friends") but no clear expectations about the relationship between self-disclosure and stages of therapy (e.g., "What is the relationship between therapist self-disclosure with patients and the stage of psychotherapy?").

Another way of combining research questions and hypotheses is to use research questions as more general investigatory themes, which are then followed by specific hypotheses that make predictions in a testable form. This example is very loosely based on a recent dissertation by one of our students (Davenport, 1991):

Research question: How do dyslexic adolescents cope with the effects of their learning disabilities?

Hypothesis #1: Dyslexic adolescents who accept the diagnosis of having a learning disability use more problem-focused coping strategies than dyslexic individuals who reject or deny the diagnosis.

Hypothesis #2: Dyslexic adolescents who accept the diagnosis of having a learning disability rely more on social support than dyslexic adolescents who reject or deny the diagnosis.

Hypothesis #3: Dyslexic adolescents who reject or deny the diagnosis of having a learning disability use more avoidant coping strategies than dyslexic adolescents who accept the diagnosis.

Hypothesis #3: Dyslexic adolescents who reject or deny the diagnosis of having a learning disability use more avoidant coping strategies than dyslexic adolescents who accept the diagnosis.

The statement of the research problem, together with the precise exposition of the research questions and/or hypotheses, serves as a transition between the review of the literature and the description of the methods of the study. The following chapter offers guidelines and suggestions for presenting the methods.

NOTE

1. Kuhn has also identified "paradigm shifts" as discontinuous more disruptive changes in the evolution of scientific thinking.

Taking on the Role of Writing as a Professional
Dr. Mary Mar, Director of Writing Center

Writing like a professional to other professionals differs from a student writing to a teacher.

Rhetorical roles:

Who you are as <u>a writer</u>: A professional adding to the scholarly conversation
Who the intended <u>readers</u> are: Write to interested professionals, not just teachers.
What your <u>purpose</u> is: To communicate to other professionals

How do you enter the professional conversation intelligently? How do you avoid being rude or naïve?

- o Show that your <u>knowledge of recent professional conversations</u>. Connect your ideas to what has been said (written about) before. The Literature Review, what other professionals have said, serves this function.
- o Know and use <u>genre conventions</u>: the way professionals communicate. Use the accepted "rules" of the conversation (format, referencing, etc.).
- o Take responsibility for <u>accuracy</u> and <u>clarity</u>.

Writing like a professional: what you say, how you say it, knowing why you say it.

Thesis Structure in Anthropology

- **Introduction:**
  - o Topic
  - o context
  - o research question
  - o purpose or objectives
  - o significance,
  - o preview of the organization (what each chapter includes)
  - o May also include the literature review and methodology
- **Methodology:**
  - o Your process of analyzing the problem and your perspective
  - o research setting
  - o Informants
  - o methods of gathering data
  - o personal reactions and biases
- **Substantive Chapters:** by topic related to your data and research objectives
- **Conclusion:**
  - o Summarize major findings or highlight the most important findings.
  - o May discuss implications of the research or suggestions for future research
- **Appendices:** interview schedules, questionnaires, etc.
- **Bibliography:** all written sources consulted during research. in alphabetical order, in Chicago style

Literature Review

What the literature says (previous studies) about this research question/problem. Providing this shows readers that you know what has already been found about the topic and have started from that previously established knowledge in formulating your own question; it also provides readers with background information on the topic.

- Organize by issue or topic
- Introduce each study by author's name with citation of the publication year (no titles of articles).
- Include a brief summary of key findings from each study that relate to your question/problem.

Reading Professional Articles
Introductions to research articles: Usually present a **problem-solution structure**
Set up a problem (or gap in knowledge). Propose a solution. They seek to persuade with reasoning and evidence. They situate themselves within previous studies done.

- Often starts with <u>background</u> on the <u>general topic area</u>, referring in some way to the
academic "conversation" on this topic that this article will add to
- Identifies the <u>problem or question</u> the article will address (or the gap in knowledge)
- States the <u>purpose</u> of the article
- States or suggests <u>why this question/problem is significant</u>
- May provide an overview of the article by summarizing its argument
- May discuss method or theoretical framework
- May state the conclusion, the claim being put forth

The Process of Writing a Thesis: Beginnings

<u>The research question</u>: Explore it thoroughly.

> What's the key issue?
> What broader context is this question/problem a part of?
> Analyze the problem/question: What are the sub-problems or related issues?
> Why is it significant? Are there any consequences of <u>not</u> answering the question/solving the problem? What will your study contribute?
> These questions are answered in the <u>introduction</u>.

To start: Talk it out. Write it in note form. Diagram the problem and its parts. Write.

<u>The research literature</u>: Explore it thoroughly as well.

> What studies have been done relevant to your question?
> Find ones that are relevant. Summarize the key findings. Read <u>according to the structure</u> of the article. Note the following for each.
>
> - What's the research question?
> - What's the significance of the question?
> - What method is used?
> - What data is examined?
> - What are the findings?
> - What are the conclusions/limitations?
> - How does it relate to <u>your</u> research question/ study?

Strategy: Use point form to note these. *Read* a *section-Look up and* say *it-Write it.*

> After you have done this for a number of articles, try to *organize* the studies, grouping them in some way that makes sense for <u>your research question</u>: usually by topic or issue, sometimes by method or setting or findings.

Smart Strategies for Writing:
- Start simple. But start with a plan in mind. Aim for clarity.
- Begin writing in whatever way you find easiest: notes, brainstorm, sketching a diagram of the ideas, talking it out, whatever works for you. Just START.
- Write small sections to get started: summaries of articles, for example, or an explanation of the problem. Get feedback along the way.
- Read your paper <u>aloud </u>to hear the sound of it. Have others read it or listen to it so that you find out what's clear and what isn't.

Selected List of Anthropological Journals at Union

1. Annual Review of Anthropology-major review articles on different subjects in all fields of Anthro.; good place to start research since each article contains a large bibliography; in library, call number: GNI. A623

2. Journal of Popular Culture-the perspectives and experiences of "common folk" offer compelling insights into the social world; many articles on media (e.g. comics, film, TV), consumer products, and more; in library.

3. Journal of Contemporary Ethnography-examines a broad spectrum of social practices - subcultures, cultures, organizations, and societies; in library.

4. American Anthropologist-major journal, includes different fields of Anthro., plus book reviews; in library.

5. Human Organization-articles in applied Anthro.; includes case studies, comparative studies, theoretical essays, and new methods; in library and Anthro. office.

6. Practicing Anthropology-career oriented Journal of the Society for Applied Anthropology; articles on applied Anthro.; in Anthro. Office.

7. AT: Anthropology Today-articles on world cultures and contemporary issues; publication of the Royal Anthropological Institute (UK); in Anthro. Office.

8. Cultural Survival-quarterly articles on the current status of indigenous peoples around the world; in Anthro. Office.

9. American Ethnologist-major journal in cultural anthropology, theoretical articles and case studies; in library and on JSTOR.

10. Anthropological Quarterly-focus on public debates; essays on theoretically informed development anthropology, and public intellectual thought and commentary; in library.

11. Anthropos-journal from the Anthropos Institute (Germany); includes book reviews and articles in cultural anthropology, as well as linguistics and religious studies; in library.

12. Social Forces-journal of social research, includes articles of interest to social psychology, anthropology, political science, history, and economics. Each issue usually includes 11 to 14 articles and 15 to 30 full book reviews; in library.

14. Current Anthropology-major journal, includes articles in social, cultural, and physical anthropology as well as ethnology and ethnohistory, archaeology and prehistory, folklore, and linguistics; in library.

15. Ethnohistory-emphasizes the use of documentary materials and ethnographic or archaeological data, as well as the combination of historical and anthropological

approaches. Past focus on the history of native peoples in the Americas; in recent years, it expanded to include cultures and societies throughout the world; in library and on JSTOR.

16. Ethnos-promotes theoretical, methodological and empirical developments in the discipline of socio-cultural anthropology; in library and on JSTOR.

17. Int. Migration Review-covers all aspects of human migration and refugee movements. Through articles, research notes, book reviews, and reports on key legislative developments. The International Sociological Association's International Newsletter on Migration; in library and on JSTOR.

18. Man-part of Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute (UK)-major journal, articles cover all fields of Anthro.; includes book reviews; in library and on JSTOR.

19. American Sociologist-focuses on how sociologists shape and influence social policy and intellectual issues; examines the history, current status, and future prospects of sociology; in library.

Statement of Professional and Ethical Responsibilities
Senior Thesis
Department of Anthropology

This statement is adapted from the guide to professional behavior for the members of the Society for Applied Anthropology. As an anthropology student conducting individual research, I recognize the importance of maintaining the highest ethical standards regarding work with human subjects. I shall act in ways consistent with the responsibilities stated below irrespective of the specific circumstances of my research.

1. To the people I study I owe disclosure of my research goals and methods. The participation of people in my research activities shall only be on a voluntary basis. I shall provide a means through my research activities to maintain the confidentiality of those I study. The people I study must be made aware of the likely limits of confidentiality and must not be promised a greater degree of confidentiality than can be realistically expected under current legal circumstances. I shall, within the limits of my knowledge, disclose any significant risks to those I study that may result from my activities.

2. To the communities ultimately affected by my research lour respect for their dignity, integrity, and worth. I recognize that fundamental human rights demand that each research subject be treated with respect. I vow to consider at all times the possible implications of my research on the individuals that agree to help me.

3. I understand that to society as a whole I owe the benefit of my special knowledge and skills developed through the course of my research. I vow to work to communicate my findings in all ways that seem appropriate.

* Signed,

_____

Department of Anthropology, Union College

* Turn in to the Anthropology Secretary by week 2 of the first term of your thesis.

UNION COLLEGE

STATEMENT ON PLAGIARISM 2004

Plagiarism

One of the most common and serious forms of academic dishonesty is plagiarism. The *Oxford American Dictionary of Current English* defines plagiarism this way:
— take and use (the thoughts, writings, inventions, etc., of another person) as one's own.
— pass off the thoughts, etc., of (another person) as one's own.[3]

Plagiarism is the theft of written material or ideas, usually with the intent of presenting the work of another person as one's own. This kind of theft can range from deliberate, wholesale copying from a book, a journal, or an Internet site to a failure to supply sufficient or accurate information about quoted or derived material. When important words or ideas are not your own, you must give credit and acknowledge the extent of your debt. Word-for-word copying is only one form of literary theft. Much more common is the use of ideas, phrases, and expressions from other works and authors without credit. Extensive paraphrasing is just as bad as literal copying.

Among other things, this definition covers at least the following misbehaviors:

"1. Submitting a paper, examination, lab report, computer program, or assignment written completely or in part by another;

2. Word-for-word copying portions of another's writing without enclosing the copied passage in quotation marks and acknowledging the source in the appropriate scholarly convention;

3. The use of a unique term or concept that one has come across without acknowledging its source;

4. The paraphrasing or abbreviated restating of someone else's ideas without acknowledging that person or source;

5. Falsely citing something that was never actually consulted, or making up a citation;

6. Falsely reporting data that was never actually collected or which actually showed contrary results;

7. Unacknowledged multiple submissions of the same paper for several purposes without prior approval from the parties involved;

8. Unacknowledged multiple authors or collaboration on a project or paper."[4]

It is possible to be excessively paranoid about this. Almost none of us ever has a completely original thought, or writes something no one has ever written before. In fact, many research projects and papers require that you consult and evaluate the work of others. Everything depends on how you incorporate these ideas and words into your own results. A good rule of thumb is this: When an idea or expression really did not come from you (and isn't something everybody knows anyway), give credit. And give credit in the proper form.

When Should I Footnote?

1. When you use the exact words or sentences from a source or author;

2. When you use facts, information, ideas, or lines of argument from a source or author (including anything from the Internet);

3. When you paraphrase another person's spoken or written words;

4. When you use any form of media (such as pictures or recordings) from another person or source.

It is obvious that whenever you use the same words or sentences as another author, you should enclose those words or sentences in quotation marks (or use some other form of citation, such as an indented paragraph). If most of your paper consists of quotations, however, you won't get much credit for originality—however careful you are to footnote each quotation or passage. Many students believe that the art of the paraphrase is the way around this difficulty. They are wrong. If all you do is change some words in a text, or even reword the text to avoid strict copying but retain the main idea or ideas, you are still in debt to someone else. Unless you credit the source you may be accused of plagiarism.

Not every idea, fact, or phrase needs to be credited. Something that may be considered common

3. "plagiarize, v.tr." *The Oxford American Dictionary of Current English.* Oxford University Press, 1999. Oxford Reference Online. Oxford University Press. Union College (NY). Retrieved 3 March 2004 from http://www.oxfordreference.com/views/ENTRY.html?subview=Main&entry=t21.e23247.

4. Wheaton College *Student Handbook.* Retrieved 3 March 2004 from http://acunix.wheatonma.edu/kmorgan/Animal_Communication/plagiarism.html.

support. In general, commonly accepted facts and dates don't need documentation, but interpretations and arguments (when taken from others) always do. What is common knowledge may not be the same for everyone, however, so when in doubt, give credit.

It is never sufficient acknowledgement merely to list in a bibliography the sources consulted for a paper, unless these sources were used only for background, with no specific material having been derived from them. But when these sources are used for part of your own argument or discussion, they must also appear in footnotes or endnotes. A bibliography is a guide to other writings on your subject, not an excuse for literary theft.

Finally, be familiar with the form and standards of bibliographic citation required by your instructor in a particular class or for a particular paper or project. Following these rules will help you not only decide when it is appropriate to credit another source, but also how to do it.

Some Examples[5]

Source: Creeds are the intellectual source of the conflict between religion and science, but the bitterness of the opposition has been due to the connection of creeds with Churches and with moral codes.[6]

You: Creeds are the intellectual source-of the conflict between religion and science, but the bitterness of the opposition has been due to the connection of creeds with Churches and with moral codes.

Problem: This is an exact copy of the original text. Quotation marks are required (or an indented paragraph), along with a footnote and bibliography entry.

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5. Some of these examples and the commentary are based on Harold C. Martin, Richard M. Ohmann, and James H. Wheatley, The *Logic and Rhetoric of Exposition,* 3rd. edu. New York, NY: Rinehart and Winston, 1969, pp. 268-277. Martin was President of Union College from 1965-1974. Quotation marks have been omitted for the sake of readability, but a glance at the original will reveal the extent of the borrowing. This would not necessarily be a good model for a research paper.

6. Bertrand Russell, *Religion and Science.* Oxford: Oxford University press 1997, p. 9.

Source: Creeds are the intellectual source of the conflict between religion and science, but the bitterness of the opposition has been due to the connection of creeds with Churches and with moral codes.

You: The intellectual source of the conflict between religion and science are creeds. The opposition has been bitter due to the connection of creeds with moral codes and with Churches.

Problem: This is a mosaic (patchwork) of the original, taking various phrases and words and shifting them around to give the impression of originality. It would not help to put every stolen word or phrase into quotation marks; the text would become unreadable. The entire paragraph remains a case of plagiarism.

Source: Creeds are the intellectual source of the conflict between religion and science, but the bitterness of the opposition has been due to the connection of creeds with Churches and with moral codes.

You: The Conflict between religion and science is caused primarily by the conflict between the conceptual content of the two. But the opposition is so bitter because the beliefs and ethical codes of different Churches are so completely different.

Problem: This is a straightforward paraphrase of the original. Most of the sentences have been broken up and rearranged, and at least some words have been replaced by others with a similar meaning. So, while the words have changed and there is no literal copying, the ideas and general expression are the same. The paraphrased version remains a case of plagiarism. This could be fixed, in some instances, *by* simply beginning the paragraph with a qualification like "As Bertrand Russell argues .... " and including a footnote and bibliography entry. Being able to paraphrase a text successfully can sometimes be a good indication of comprehension, but it should not be resorted to as a tactic for presenting a thought as original.

Source: Again we see the crystallizing force of Locke's writing.

You: The Second Treatise of Government is a veritable quarry of liberal doctrines. In it the crystallizing force of Locke's writing is markedly apparent.

Problem: The odds that you would come up with a turn of phrase like "crystallizing force" (or "veritable quarry of liberal doctrines") are quite small. Nor is the phrase a common one; that is what makes it so striking. This use of an apt or unusual expression needs to credit the original author. A simple qualification such as " .. .in [the author's] words ... " would be sufficient, again with a footnote and bibliography entry.

UNION COLLEGE

THESIS LOAN CONTRACT

DATE:_____   NAME:_____

CAMPUS BOX#:_____   I.D. NUMBER:_____

PHONE#:_____   DATE THESIS IS DUE:_____

- Loan period is for a maximum of two terms.
- Union College Library Books and Government Documents are available for this special loan. These items are due the last day of exam week in the term your Thesis is due. Fines of $.25 a day on each item will be assessed after that date.
- **Extensions of the loan period must be negotiated with the Head of Circulation.**
- Interlibrary Loan Material does not apply.
-

I agree to abide by the following regulations:

1. I am responsible for letting the Circulation Staff know which material is to be charged out on Thesis Loan.

2. If I receive an overdue notice on an item which I believe to be on Thesis Loan I will inform a member of the Circulation Staff. If this matter is not straightened out I understand I will be fined as if the material is out on normal loan.

3. I am responsible for returning (within the timeframe specified on the Recall Notice) any item which is RECALLED. I will personally hand the item to the person on duty at the Circulation Desk.

4. If a given item is in great demand, the library will place it on regular Reserve.

5. I understand that failure to comply with the provisions of this contract may result in the suspension of my borrowing privileges.

STUDENT
SIGNATURE:_____

ADVISOR
NAME:_____   ADVISOR
SIGNATURE:_____

BARCODE NUMBER:_____   CIRC. STAFF MEMBER:_____

CELEBRATING OUR BICENTENNIAL
1795-1995

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Departmental Equipment and Data

Tape Recorders (standard cassette and digital disc) - these can be checked out from the department upon leaving a deposit.

National Geographic (on CD, covers 11 0 years).

Ethnographic Film Collection -- can be checked out upon leaving a deposit.

Other Sources

International Channel, TV 5 -- ChannelS7 (news, sports, entertainment in 2S+ languages) .

Some Points to Consider Before Writing Your Thesis

The secret of good writing is to strip every sentence to it's cleanest components. Every word that serves no function, every long word that could be a short word, every passive construction that leaves the reader unsure of who is doing what weaken the strength of a sentence.

The writer must constantly ask: What am I trying to say? He or she must look at what has been written and ask: Have I said it?

Writing is hard work, a clear sentence is no accident. Very few sentences come out right the first time, or the third. Thinking and rewriting until you say what you want to say.

The reader wants the person who is talking to him to sound genuine. Therefore a fundamental rule is: Be yourself.

Write in the first person; use I, me, we and us. Believe in your own identity and your own opinions.

Audience: Who am I writing for? This is a fundamental question and the fundamental answer is: You are writing for yourself. Simplify, prune and strive for order.

You will never make your mark as a writer unless you develop a respect for words and a curiosity about their shades of meaning. Take the time to root around and find the ones you want.

Bear in mind when you are choosing words and stringing them together, how they sound. Readers may read with their eyes but they also hear what they are reading-in their inner ear.

Read your sentences aloud. You will begin to hear where the trouble lies.

An occasional short sentence can carry a tremendous punch. It stays in the reader's ear.

You learn to write by writing.

All writing is ultimately a question of solving a problem. The problem may be where to obtain the facts, or how to organize the material Whatever it is, it has to be confronted and
solved.

Unity is the anchor of good writing. Therefore, choose from among the many variable and stick to your choice. One choice is unity of pronoun, are you going to

write in the first person as a participant or in the third person as an observer? Another choice is tense. You must choice the tense in which you are principally going to address the reader. There is also unity of mood. You can use a casual and chatty voice or a formal voice, but don't mix the two. Before you begin writing, therefore, ask yourself some basic questions: In what capacity am I going to address the reader? What pronoun and tense am I going to use? What style? What attitude am. I going to take toward the material-involved, detached, judgmental, ironic, or amused? How much do I want to cover? What one point do I really want to make?

Every successful piece of non-fiction should leave the reader with one provocative thought that he didn't have before. Not two thoughts, or five-just one, So try to decide what one point you most want to leave in the reader's mind.

The most important sentence in any essay is the first one.

Use active verbs, The difference between an active verb style and a passive verb style-in pace, clarity and vigor-is the difference for a writer. For example, "Joe hit him" is strong. "He was hit by Joe" is weak. The first is short and vivid and direct; the second is longer and insipid.

Verbs are the most important of all your tools. They push the sentence forward and give it momentum.

Most adverbs are unnecessary. Don't tell us that the radio blared loudly; blare connotes loudness. Don't write that someone clenched his teeth tightly-there's no other way to clench teeth.

Most adjectives are also unnecessary.

Use the semicolon sparingly. Rely instead on the period and the dash. Mood changers. Learn to alert the reader as early as possible in a sentence to any change in mood from the previous sentence. At least a dozen words will do this job for you: but, yet, however, nevertheless, still, instead, thus, therefore, meanwhile, now, later, etc.

Contractions. Your style will be warmer and truer to your personality if you use contractions like "I'll" and "won't".

Plurals are weaker than singulars. He is stronger than they.

Do not overwrite. Rich, ornate prose is hard to digest and generally unwholesome.

Do not overstate. When you overstate, the reader will be instantly on guard, and everything that has preceded your overstatement will be suspect.

Avoid the use of qualifiers. Rather, very, little, pretty-these are the leeches that suck the blood of words.

Sources: <u>On Writing Well</u> by William Zlnsser; <u>The Elements of Stvle</u> by Strunk and White

Steve's Pet Peeves in Writing

What follows is a list of common errors in student papers that tend to get on my nerves (even though these mistakes are easy to make). It is NOT a comprehensive list; rather, it lists only a few things that come to mind.

Word Usage:

"Affect" vs. "Effect"
These are confusing because the rules in English seem arbitrary and both words can be used as a noun or a verb. Substitute the gloss in your sentence to see if you've used the word correctly.

As Nouns
Affect - gloss: "emotion"   "The patient showed very little *affect* in the interview."
Effect - gloss: "result"   "They had no idea whether their petition would have any *effect."*

As Verbs
Affect - gloss: "to influence"   "Using good grammar will *affect* your grade."
Effect - gloss: "to bring about"   "Use good grammar to *effect* a change in your grade."

(notice here how similar these seem at first, but try substituting the wrong gloss in the sentences above to see how bad the sentences sound; e.g. "Using good grammar will *bring about* your good grade" makes no sense (if it does make sense to you, your sense of grammar is deficient).

Their, There and They're
Their - possessive   "They ate *their* books in protest."
There - location   *"There* were three jailed protesters over *there."*
They're - contraction of "they are"   *"They're* throwing *their* books over *there."*

Its and It's   "Try to find the switch on *its* back panel."
Its - possessive   "We're finding that *it's* a hard task to complete."
It's - contraction of "it is"

Semi-colon vs. colon vs. comma
There are many rules for the proper use of commas, and I will not go into them here. Semi-colons are used to separate two complete sentences, much like a period. One may use a semi-colon instead of a period to give a sense that the second sentence is closely related to the first.

Example: He felt invigorated by the protest's success; he celebrated with his friends afterwards.

Note that each sentence could stand on its (not it's) own. Occasionally, semi-colons are used to separate items in a list when there are already commas embedded in each item on the list.

Colons
Colons are used to make a pronouncement that something is to follow. Sometimes this is a list (such as "Here were the items he brought: a placard, a water bottle, and a blow horn"). It is a stylistic device used to say, in effect, "Here is how it goes." It is often used to introduce a quote such as Myerhoff does in the example on direct quotes below. There is NO requirement for complete sentences on either side of a colon.

Using Quotes in Papers

Proper use of quotes is one of the most important parts of writing a paper. People use direct quotes to offer strong evidence for a point they are (they're) making. The best guide for dealing with quotes is any published book (such as *Peyote Hunt).* There are some changes in fashion over time, but mostly the grammatical usage remains constant.

Citing a Work

Direct Quotes
There are two ways to use quotes. One is to integrate the quote into your own paragraph, and the other is to present the quote "in body," separating it out physically. The "in body" technique developed to help remind the reader that he or she is reading a quoted passage and not the prose of the author. A good rule is: if the quoted passage is more than three lines long, then quote it in body; otherwise, put it in your paragraph.

Example from Myerhoff of integrating a quote into a paragraph:

This signifies the individual's refusal to enter the world, encounter the universal principle of opposites, come to terms with the difference between the inner and outer world and thus avoid "the essential tasks of human and individual development" (Neumann 1954:35).

Notice:
- the quote is seamlessly integrated into the grammatical structure of her own sentence
- the period (.) comes *outside* the quotes and *after* the citation.
- the grammatical structure of the citations itself, no comma after author's name, colon
    separating date and page number. There is some variation in how this is done, but this is the form that I
    prefer.

Example from Myerhoff of citing in body:

Nadel (1954) and Goody (1961) have indicated that rituals are typically highly rigid, characterized by exactitude, precision, and repetitiveness. In order to be considered a ritual, an action must be replicated many times, mechanically, unvaryingly, almost obsessively, with mindless attention to the strongest detail. Nadel has defined ritual this way:

> When we speak of "ritual" we have in mind ... actions exhibiting a striking or incongruous rigidity, that is, some conspicuous regularity not accounted for by the professed aims of the action. Any type of behavior may thus be said to turn into a "ritual" when it is stylized or formalized, and made repetitive in that form [1954:90].

Notice:
  - the passage is indented on right and left (Myerhoff's book uses a smaller font to achieve the same
    effect (not affect). If you use a computer, you can do that if you wish. The key is to separate out
    the text from your own paragraph. Most often papers still use indentations rather than font
    changes.

  - no quotation marks around the whole quote. Quotation marks are not necessary because you have
    already physically separated it out.

  - brackets instead of parentheses for the citation, and inside the sentence. There is a lot of variation in
    how this is done. A more recent change is to use parentheses

instead and put them after the period. (such as: made repetitive in that form. (1954:90)) The point with both techniques is to *preserve the integrity* of a quotation cited in body. Brackets are often used to indicate an author's insertion. Notice that when the dates are part of Myerhoff's own sentence ("Nadel (1954) and Goody (1961) have indicated ... ") that she uses parentheses and not brackets. That is because those dates are not author's insertions but parts of her actual sentence. This is very confusing, and there is room for variation in how this is done. That is why it is a good idea to just consult a book to follow their usage.

More recently, people have begun using parentheses consistently (no brackets at all), but they then have to put the citation outside the sentence. Myerhoffs quote would from Nadel would have ended like this:

> blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah blah and made repetitive in that tonn. (1954:90)

Here the period is *before* the parentheses to preserve the integrity of the quote. The period is Nadel's and not Myerhoffs.

 - notice that since she has introduced the author's name at the beginning of the passage, she does not have to repeat it in the citation. If the author is completely clear by context, you do not have to repeat his or her name at the end of their quote.

 - note how she also includes a date after each author's name to flag a specific publication. No page number is given because she intends you to assume she's referring to the basic point of the entire work.

Some Rules about Citing Work

1. Use citations even when you are paraphrasing what the author said. A common place to put the citation is right after you mention the author's name.

2. **VERY IMPORTANT**!!! ALWAYS embed the quote into your own sentence flow. It is very common for students to drop in a quote expecting it to stand alone as a sentence in the paragraph. NEVER do that. Every quote has to be introduced, even if it is only to say:

> Myerhoff argues, "………… etc."

Notice how Myerhoff introduces the quote from Nadel in a simple but effective way. (She writes, "Nadel has defined ritual this way:").

3. Any time you cite a work in a paper, you have to include a References Cited list or a Bibliography at the end of the paper. A References Cited lists only those works specifically cited in the paper. A Bibliography lists all the works that the author has consulted in putting together the paper, whether they are actually cited in the paper or not. Usually a References Cited list is sufficient.

MOST IMPORTANT ADVICE: Proofread your paper, but even more importantly read **your paper OUTLOUD** as a strategy for improving your word choice. Errors and awkwardnesses will pop out at you when you read aloud.

AAA **Style Guide**

AAA uses *The Chicago Manual of Style* (14th edition, 1993) and *Merriam- Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (10th edition, 2000, with some exceptions). This guide is an outline of style rules basic to AAA style. Where no rule is present on this list, follow *Chicago.* In *Webster's,* use the first spelling if there is a choice and use American spellings. (This guide does not apply to newsletters, which deviate frequently from these guidelines in the interest of space and tend to follow many Associated Press style rules.)

Article Titles and Section Heads
❖ Don't put any endnote numbers on display type such as titles, section heads, or epigraphs.
❖ Don't number section heads.

Tables, Figures, and Appendixes
❖ Every table and figure should have a callout in running text.
❖ Place appendixes at the end of the article, after the references cited.

Running Text
❖ Abbreviations: Do not use in narrative text in most cases (see *Chicago 14.32).*
❖ Avoid sexist language: See Casey Miller and Kate Swift's *The Handbook of Nonsexist Writing* (New York: Lippincott and Crowell, 1980).
❖ Commas: Use serial commas (ex: cats, dogs, and birds). Use a comma to separate the clauses of a compound sentence but not a compound predicate unless there are three or more elements (The two men made dinner and cleaned the dishes). Use commas around parenthetical elements.
❖ Lists: Generally, run lists into text with (1), (2), (3), etc. not (a), (b), (c), etc. Use pairs of parentheses, not singles.
❖ Spelling: Where alternate spellings exist, use the first spelling in *Webster's* unless otherwise noted. Do not use British spellings (there may be some exceptions for anthropological terms, e.g., Neandertal*).*

Capitalization
❖ Follow *Webster's* and *Chicago.*
❖ Events (*Ch.* 7.68): Capitalize historical, quasi-historical, political, economic, and cultural events/plans: Battle of the Books, Boston Tea Party, Industrial Revolution, Great Depression, the Holocaust, Cold War (20th century, USSR vs. USA). Use lower case for general terms: cold war, depression, civil rights movement, California gold rush .
❖ Fields of study: Do not capitalize the names of academic disciplines: B.A. in anthropology, the sociology department, studied psychology at Harvard .
❖ Figures, tables, appendixes (exception to *Chicago*): Capitalize in text if they refer to items within the present work: "In Figure 1 ... "; "As you can see in Table 2 .... " Lowercase if they refer to those in other works: "In Johnson's figure 1 ...

- ❖ Historical/cultural terms (*Ch.* 7.63-7.73): Lowercase, except where capitalized by tradition or to avoid ambiguity, per *Chicago* and *Webster's:* Middle Ages, Restoration, Progressive Era, Roaring Twenties, Stone Age, U.S. colonial period, romantic period, nuclear age, ancient Greece.
- ❖ Names of organizations, committees, associations, conferences (*Ch.* 7.50-7.62):
  - ▪ Capitalize full official names; lowercase when they become general: Circuit Court of Cook County, county court; Baltimore City Council, city council, council, Bureau of the Census, Census Bureau, the bureau, federal, congressional.
  - ▪ Lowercase *the* preceding a name, even when it is part of the official title.
- ❖ Place-names (*Ch. 7.36-7.38*):
  - ▪ Capitalize geographical and popular names of places: Antarctica, Central America, North Pole, Orient, Asia, Ivory Coast, Atlantic, Upper Michigan, Back Bay (Boston), Foggy Bottom (D.C.), City of Brotherly Love, the States.
  - ▪ Directions should be capitalized when used as a name but not when used as a direction: Far East, the South, the West, the Western world, Westernize, North Pole, South Pacific, southeastern, northern Michigan, the south of France; the Southwest (n), *but* southwestern (adj); Pacific Islands, Caribbean Islands; North India, South India, western Samoa.
  - ▪ Lowercase eastern Europe, western Europe, central Europe. *Exceptions:* use Eastern and Western Europe in the context of the political divisions of the Cold War or when referring to a cultural group with shared values; use Central Europe in the context of the political divisions of World War I.
- ❖ Group names (*Ch.* 7.33-7.35):
  - ▪ Capitalize and lower case group names as follows: black, white, Latina, Hispanic, American Indian, redneck, Alaska Natives, Euro-American, Jew, Mesoamerican, highlander, Indo-European, Native Americans, Pacific Islander, mestizo, African American. Capitalize Australian and Canadian Aboriginal and Aborigine, but lowercase aboriginal otherwise .
- ❖ Titles/offices:
  - ▪ Capitalize civil, military, religious, and professional titles only when they immediately precede the name. In formal usage such as in acknowledgments or in lists of contributors, capitalize the title following the name: Judy Jones, John Smith Professor Emeritus at Yale University; Professor Jones, associate professor of education studies; a professor emeritus; Henry Trueba, chair of the Department of Education Studies; the chairman of the department.
  - ▪ For academic degrees/titles, capitalize when formal, lower-case when informal: Louis Spindler, Ph.D.; a Master of Science degree from University of Virginia; a master's degree in education.
- ❖ Titles of works (*Ch. 7.126*):
  - ▪ For titles of works in AAA journals, references, and notes: change capitalization only. Do not change anything else, even spelling or punctuation.
  - ▪ Capitalize both words in a hyphenated compound (exception to *Chicago*).
  - ▪ In references cited, do not capitalize parenthetical translations of titles.

Numbers
- ❖ Spell out numbers in the following instances:
  - ▪ one through ten.
  - ▪ larger numbers when used in the approximate sense: About one hundred soldiers were killed .
- ❖ Age: 24 years old, 11 months old, a 34-year-old woman, in her thirties .
- ❖ Dates: ninth century, 20th century; 1960-65; 1960s; the sixties; October 6,1966; April 1993 (no comma); C.E. 1200; 1000 B.C.E.; April 18, not April 18th.
- ❖ Fractions: Hyphenate as both adj. and noun: a two-thirds majority, two-thirds of those present.
- ❖ Ordinals: Use nd/rd: 22nd rather than 22d, 23rd rather than 23d.
- ❖ Quantities *(Ch. 8.18):*
  - ▪ Use numerals for above ten and spell out measurement: 26 millimeters, five miles; but in areas of very heavy usage and in tables, okay to use 26 mm, 5 gm, 10 mph.
  - ▪ Express round numbers above ten million in numerals + words: 20 million.
  - ▪ 20 percent (and see *Ch.* 8.18), but in areas of heavy usage and in tables, okay to use %.
  - ▪ Use commas in four-digit numbers: 1,409 (but p. 1409).
- ❖ Series: When dealing with more than one series of quantities, use numerals for one of the series: "The first shape had 4 sides, the second had 7, and the third had 3." Also, when small numbers occur in a group with large numbers, set them all in numerals for consistency.
- ❖ Use numerals for numbered items such as parts of a book: chapter 5, part 2, page 35, volume 4.
- ❖ Times: 2:00 p.m., noon.
- ❖ Inclusive numbers: Use all numbers except in year spans: 893-897; 1,023-1,045; *but* 1989-92. When inclusive pages are cited, no digits are dropped: pp.174-175.
- ❖ Statistics: Use N for sample sizes, but use n for subgroups of samples *(Ch.* 12.66); use p for probability.

Foreign Words and Foreign Quotations
- ❖ Words: Italicize foreign words that do not appear in the main section of *Webster's.* Italicize them on first use only.
- ❖ Quotations: Put in quotation marks (and don't italicize) longer foreign items, such as sentences and quotations.
- ❖ Translations:
  - ▪ Include translations of foreign words in parentheses immediately following (without italics and without quotation marks).
  - ▪ Include translations of foreign-language quotations either in an endnote or in brackets immediately following the quotation (without italics and without quotation marks).
  - ▪ See References Cited Example X for translation of foreign titles in references

Italics

❖ Words as words: Italicize words used as words in written context, but when the context is solely the spoken word, use quotation marks: "A *speech event* is a way of speaking"; "In Smith 1994 the term *subaltern* implies…" Italicize words or groups of words used as terms ("the term *postmodern era* refers to…") .

❖ [*sic*]: Italicize word, not brackets.

❖ Do not italicize i.e. or e.g. or familiar foreign words and phrases (fait accompli, per se).

❖ Emphasis: Use italics for emphasis, not bold or capital letters .

❖ Names of variables: Italicize variable names such as *N, n, x, y, r, p, F*.

❖ Genus and species: The generic and specific names of plants and animals are set in italic type; the genus name is capitalized, the species name lowercased *(Esox lucius)* .

❖ Legal usage: Use italics for names of legal cases *(Ch.* 7.72).

Quotations

❖ All published quotations must be cited with author (either in running text or in citation), year, and page number(s): As Geertz says "symbols are ... (1992:7-8) or "Symbols are ... " (Geertz 1992:7-8).

❖ Quotation marks: Use double quotation marks unless within quotes; then use single quotation marks. Set periods and commas within the quotation marks; set semicolons and colons outside of the quotation marks. Set question marks outside of the quotation marks unless the quote is a question.

❖ Initial letter: Change case of initial letter of quote to fit sentence without using brackets.

❖ Spelling/punctuation corrections: Leave all spellings and punctuation in quotations as they are in the original; use [*sic*] if necessary, and give an explanation in text if absolutely necessary.

❖ Do not use quotes for *yes* or *no* except in direct discourse *(Ch. 10.35)* .

❖ Material added by the author of the article should be enclosed in brackets, not parentheses.

❖ Format for block extracts:
  ▪ If extract takes more than four manuscript lines, make it a block extract and double space it.
  ▪ Use brackets for citation at the end of a block; put sentence period before citation.
  ▪ If italics have been added for emphasis, specify: [Smith 1993:22, emphasis added].
  ▪ If multiple paragraphs occur within a continuous block, the first paragraph should have no indent, but subsequent paragraphs should be marked by indents rather than extra leading (that is, do not put a line between paragraphs).
  ▪ When a quotation runs into the text in the typescript is converted into a block quotation by author or editor, the initial and final quotation marks must be deleted and the internal marks changed (*Ch.* 10 .28).
  ▪ Do not use initial or final ellipses.

Text Citations and References Cited

❖ Each statement specific enough to need a reference requires a citation with author and date; all author-date citations must be referenced.

❖ In citations, use colon between year and page number: Waterman 1990:3-7 (exception to *Chicago*).

❖ In references cites, use full first names when possible for authors and editors (but don't force if author goes by initials).

❖ Use space between initials: U. S. Grant.

❖ In reviews, references are handled in text instead of at end of chapter; omit the city of publication.

❖ In citations of three or more authors, use "et a1.," but in references cited, spell out all names.

❖ Don't use state name with city of publication unless city is obscure or there are several with that name. Where state name is used, use two-letter postal code .

❖ Don't use ibid. for repeated references.

❖ Place text citations as near the author's name as possible, except place quotation citations *after* the quote.

❖ When citing an *author,* put the year in parentheses, but when citing a *work,* leave the year (and page numbers, if applicable) in the running text. *Examples:* "Smith (1990) eloquently describes ... ," but "Smith 1990 contains an analysis .... "

❖ Italicize publication names used as authors in citations, but leave non-italic in references.

❖ Cite a specific volume of a referenced work by inserting the volume number after the year (e.g., Waterman 1990, 2:3-7). But if that volume is the only one referenced in the article, then include its number in the reference and omit its number from the citation.

❖ References with the same author and date should be placed in alphabetical order, by title.

❖ In citations, commas separate works by a single author (Smith 1990,1991:1,1992); semicolons separate works by different authors (Smith 1990, 1992; Thomas 1992). Place author names in alphabetical, not chronological order.

❖ *Examples:*

A. Single-Author Book

Castles, Stephen
    1990 Here for Good. London: Pluto Press.

B. Coauthored Book

Bonacich, Edna, and John Modell
    1975 The Economic Basis of Ethnic Solidarity: Small Business in the Japanese American
        Community. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Schieffelin, Bambi, Kathryn Woolard, and Paul Kroskrity
    1998 Language Ideologies: Practice and Theory. New York: Oxford University Press.

C. Author, with Others

Bonacich, Edna, with Mark Smith and Kathy Hunt
　　1999 The Economic Basis of Ethnic Solidarity: Small Business in the Japanese American
　　　　Community. Berkeley: University of California Press.

D. Multiple References in the Same Year (alphabetize by title)

Gallimore, Ronald
　　1983a A Christmas Feast. New York: Oxford University Press.
　　1983b Holiday Gatherings in the Pacific Northwest. Berkeley: University of California Press.

E. Work Accepted for Publication

Spindler, George
　　In press In Pursuit of a Dream: The Experience of Central Americans Recently Arrived in the
　　　　United States. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

F. Work Submitted for Publication/Unpublished Work

Smith, John
　　N.d. Education and Reproduction among Turkish Families in Sydney. Unpublished MS,
　　　　Department of Education, University of Sydney.

G. Materials in Archives

Egmont Manuscripts
　　N.d. Phillips Collection. University of Georgia Library, Athens.

H. Chapter in Book with Editor(s)

Rohlen, Thomas P.
　　1993 Education: Policies and Prospects. *In* Koreans in Japan: Ethnic Conflicts and
　　　　Accommodation. Cameron Lee and George De Vos, eds. Pp. 182-222. Berkeley:
　　　　University of California Press.

Price, T. Douglas
　　1984 Issues in Paleolithic and Mesolithic Research. *In* Hunting and Animal Exploitation in the Later
　　　　Paleolithic and Mesolithic of Eurasia. Gail Larsen Peterkin, Harvey M. Bricker, and Paul Mellars,
　　　　eds. Pp. 241-244. Archeological Papers of the American Anthropological Association, 4.
　　　　Arlington, VA: American Anthropological Association.

I. Editor as Author

Diskin, Martin, ed.
　　1970 Trouble in Our Backyard: Central America in the Eighties. New York: Pantheon Books.

J. Article in Journal

Moll, Luis C.
  2000 Writing as Communication: Creating Strategic Learning Environments for Students.
      Theory into Practice 25(3):202-208.

K. Article in Journal Theme Issue

Heriot, M. Jean
  1996 Fetal Rights versus the Female Body: Contested Domains. "The Social Production of Authoritative
      Knowledge in Pregnancy and Childbirth," theme issue, Medical Anthropology Quarterly 10(2): 176-194.

L. Book in a Series

Bartlett, H. H.
  1974 The Labors of the Datoe and Other Essays on the Batak of Asakan (North Sumatra).
      Michigan Papers on South and Southeast Asia, 15. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

M. One Volume in a Multivolume Work

CIutton-Brock, Juliet, and Caroline Grigson, eds.
  1986 Animals and Archaeology, vol. 1: Hunters and Their Prey. BAR International Series, 163. Oxford: British
      Archaeological Reports.

N. Review

Trueba, Henry T.
  1999 *Review of* Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students.
      Anthropology and Education Quarterly 17:255-259.

O. Report

Kamehameha Schools
  1977 Results of the Minimum Objective System, 1975-1976. Technical Report, 77.
      Honolulu: Kamehameha Schools, Kamehameha Elementary Education Program.

P. Ph.D. Dissertation

D'Amato, John
  1989 "We Cool, Tha's Why": A Study of Personhood and Place in a Class of Hawaiian Second Graders. Ph.D.
      dissertation, Department of Education, University of Hawaii.

Q. Paper

Shimahara, Nobuo K.
  1998 Mobility and Education of Buraku: The Case of a Japanese Minority. Paper presented at the Annual
      Meeting of the American Anthropological Association, Chicago, November 18.

R. Reprint/Translation

van Gennep, A.
    1960[1908] The Rites of Passage. Michaela Vizedom and Mari Caffee, trans. Chicago:
        University of Chicago Press.

S. Subsequent Edition

Gallimore, Ronald
    1960 Qualitative Methods in Research on Teaching. *In* Handbook of Research on Teaching. 3rd edition.
        Margaret C. Wittrock, ed. Pp. 119-162. New York: Macmillan.

T. Article in a Newspaper or Popular Magazine

Reinhold, Robert
    2000 Illegal Aliens Hoping to Claim Their Dreams. New York Times, November 3: AI, A1O.

Editorial
    1992 Washington Post, February 14: B2.

Boston Globe
    1983 How Can I Become a Self-Starter? Boston Globe, May 10: A23-A24.

U. Personal Communication (including e-mail, listserv, and newsgroup messages)

    Should be cited in text, with specific date, but not in references. *Example:* "Horace Smith claims (letter to
    author, July 12, 1993) that…"

V. Court Case

    Should be cited in text but not in references. *Example:* "(*Doe v. U. Mich.,* 721 F. Supplement 852 [1989])."
    See *Ch.16.174* for details.

W. Internet Document

Use this format for public Internet documents with URLs. Use Example U above for private documents sent
via the World Wide Web.

Rheingold, Howard
    2000 A Slice of Life in My Virtual Community. Electronic document,
        http://well.sf.ca.us/serv/ftp.htm. accessed July 5.

American Anthropological Association
    2000[1992] Planning for the Future: Current Long-Range Plan for the American Anthropological
        Association. Electronic document, http://www.aaanet.org/committees/irp/lrplan.htm, accessed
        January 18, 2001.

X. Foreign Publication with Title Translation/Foreign Name
   Title is lowercased; the city name is Anglicized, but publisher is not.

Ma Xueliang (last name first name-no comma)
   1996 Minzu yanjiu wenji (Collected works on nationalities research). Beijing: Minzu
      Chubanshe.

Y. Film, Video, Television, and Music Recordings (see *Ch. 15:418)*

Carvajal, Carmela, and David C. Kim, dirs.
   1998 High School Parody. Paramount Pictures, Hollywood.

High School Parody
   1998 Starring Joshua Anderson. Carmela Carvajal and David C. Kim, dirs. Paramount Pictures,
      Hollywood.

Bush, George, Jr.
   2000 Guest. The NewsHour with Jim Lehrer, PBS, May 18.

Other Style Rules and Word Treatments
- America/ American: For clarity use the noun *United States* and the adjective *U.S.* unless a
  wider region is intended.
- anti-inflammatory
- archaeology
- Arctic (n), arctic (adj)
- basketmakers (artisans), Basket Maker (cultural period)
- bride-price (per *Webster's)*
- bridewealth (per *Webster's*)
- Classic Maya
- coresident, coworker (Delete hyphen in familiar compounds, but avoid closing up words
  if it makes them difficult to read.)
- databases
- de-emphasize
- e-mail
- Euro-American
- fax
- field notes, fieldwork, fieldworker
- filmmaker
- full-time, part-time (Hyphenate in any position as adj.)
- The Hague; *but* the Netherlands (Check *Webster's*.)
- health care systems; *but* federal and state health-care systems (If it makes it clearer,
  hyphenate.)
- he/she: Use "he or she" or rewrite. See *The Handbook of Nonsexist Writing* (Casey Miller and Kate
  Swift) for more on nonsexist language.
- a historical study (not an historical study), a hotel

- i.e., e.g., etc.: Use only in parentheses unless unavoidable; do not italicize.
- Initials: Use a space between two initials: T. S. Eliot.
- Letters as shapes: Leave normal font--i.e., do not use with sans serif typeface--in cases such as U-shaped, L-shaped.
- lifestyle
- Ligatures: Do not use except in an Old English language piece.
- Linguistic translations: Avoid use of half-quotes for linguistic translations unless the article is heavily linguistic and use is consistent in manuscript.
- Lists: Generally, run lists into text with numbers: (1), (2), (3), not (a), (b), (c). If longer than is possible to run in, entries may be indented.
- m.y.a. (million years ago), B.P. (before the present, calibrated), b.p. (before the present, uncalibrated)
- non-kin (Hyphenate if necessary to avoid confusion.)
- nonnative (per *Webster's*)
- participant-observation
- postmodem, postmodernism
- rain forest (per *Webster's*)
- re-create (create again)
- semi-independent, semi-indirect (Use hyphens for double vowels, except as in *Webster's*.)
- socioeconomic
- States: Spell out state names in text. In notes, references, tables, addresses, etc.: use two digit postal abbreviations (e.g., AL, TX; see *Ch. 14.17*).
- sub-Saharan
- That vs. Which: Use the relative pronoun that (and no comma) for restrictive clauses (Any restaurant that does not serve salad ought to be closed); use which (with comma) for nonrestrictive clauses (There was nothing to eat but salad, which I loathe.).
- toward (not towards)
- Teotihuacan (Nahuatl, without accent on last a; Spanish, with accent)
- underway (adj); under way (adv)
- unselfconscious
- worldview

ANTHROPOLOGY DEPARTMENT
Sr. Thesis Questionnaire

Advisor: _____   Date: _____

There is no ideal type of thesis experience that is right for all students and all faculty advisors. It is the belief of the Anthropology Department that, within certain common constraints, each thesis should be conceived and executed according to the needs, desires, and abilities of the student, and the judgment of the faculty member.

This is not to say, however, that every thesis experience is a successful and fully satisfactory one for every student and advisor. The questions that follow are designed to help you evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of your senior thesis experience. If you did an interdepartmental thesis and thus had two advisors, please note this and limit you remarks to your Anthropology advisor.

1. How helpful to you was your thesis advisor in defining/formulating and focusing the topic, developing and appropriate set of references or bibliography, and clarifying conceptual and technical or methodological issues?

2. To what degree did you choose to follow your advisor's suggestions:

   _____ completely   _____somewhat   _____not at all

3. Did your advisor make an appropriate effort to keep you on schedule?

   _____ yes, my advisor made an effort

   _____ no, my advisor made no effort

   _____ I needed no such assistance

4. Did you submit drafts, work- in-progress, or progress reports for your advisor's comments and if so, how helpful were your advisor's comments on your work-in-progress?

5. How often did you discuss (i.e., meetings, e-mail, telephone) the thesis work with your advisor? Was the frequency adequate and were the discussions worthwhile and productive?

6. Evaluate the availability and quality of resources such as library, equipment, and facilities on this campus relative to successfully completing your projects.

7. Describe your level of effort devoted to the project relative to other courses you have taken and comment on the challenge and difficulty of this thesis relative to other courses you have taken.

8. Considering all aspects of your thesis advisor's performance, how would you rate his/her performance overall?

_____ highly effective   _____ very effective   _____ effective

_____ less than effective _____ ineffective

Comment on strengths and weaknesses and offer suggestions for improving your advisor's performance.

9. If you have to do it over would you select the same thesis advisor?

_____ yes, definitely   _____ yes, probably   _____ not sure

_____no, probably not   _____no, definitely not

10. Considering your preparation of a thesis as an educational experience, how would you rate it overall?

_____ highly effective   _____ very effective   _____effective

_____ less than effective _____ ineffective

What suggestions would you give the department to make the thesis a more fruitful educational experience?

11. If there is anything further you wish to add to this evaluation, please use the space below.