FROM BRAINSTORM TO BIBLIOGRAPHY: Writing a Term Paper in the Social Sciences and Humanities

Robin Turner
with contributions from Alexander Rooke

Bilkent University, 2001
Contents

1 Introduction 3
  1.1 About this book ............................................. 3
  1.2 About academic writing ..................................... 3
  1.3 About term papers .......................................... 4
  1.4 About Sources ................................................. 5
  1.5 About the writing process ................................... 6
  1.6 Tools .......................................................... 6

2 Generating Ideas 8
  2.1 Choosing and analysing a title or question ................. 8
  2.2 Designing your own title ..................................... 9
  2.3 Writing a working thesis statement ......................... 12

3 Research and Outlining 15
  3.1 Research strategies ........................................... 15
  3.2 Evaluating Sources ............................................. 18
  3.3 Creating a working bibliography ............................. 19
  3.4 Taking notes .................................................... 19
  3.5 Preparing an outline .......................................... 21

4 Drafting 23
  4.1 Things to avoid ................................................ 23
  4.2 Using sources .................................................. 25
  4.3 The introduction .............................................. 28
  4.4 The conclusion ................................................. 30

5 Revising 33
  5.1 Content and organisation ..................................... 33
  5.2 Style .......................................................... 35
  5.3 Proof-reading .................................................. 36

6 Presentation 39
  6.1 Cover Page ..................................................... 39
  6.2 Reference page / Bibliography ............................... 40
  6.3 Final Formatting ............................................... 40
  6.4 Submission ..................................................... 40

Bibliography 42
A Sample Outline 43
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENTS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>B</strong> Sample Introductions</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.1 To what extent is Anarchism relevant to contemporary political thought?</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.2 Mind, Body and Machine: Cyberpunk’s ambivalent relationship with technology</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong> Sample Cover Page</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D</strong> Reference Formats</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1

Introduction

1.1 About this book

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

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

1.2 About academic writing

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

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

Objectivity. Although you may sometimes give your own opinions, excessive subjectivity is counter-productive. Opinions should not be confused with facts, but should follow logically from them. This means that the way you express opinions is important e.g., “It can be concluded that ...” is generally better than “In my opinion,” since the latter implies that it is only your opinion.

Formality. This goes hand in hand with objectivity. Although academic writing is not quite as formal as it used to be, you need to avoid slang and language which is too conversational. “I shall ...” is better than “I’m going to ...”; “eliminate” is better than “get rid of”; “implausible” is better than “stupid” (see page 35).
1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

1.3 About term papers

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

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

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

3. Unlike exams, a term paper is an opportunity to show that you are capable of researching and arguing about a subject independently. In other words, it is a chance to show off!

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

5. If you produce a really outstanding term paper, there is always a chance that it may be suitable for publication in a journal or submission at a conference. You can also publish your paper on the Internet, so that other students and academics can benefit from your research.

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

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

1I have used the word “teacher” to include “lecturer”, “professor”, “tutor” or whichever term is used in your school or department.
1. INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

1.4 About Sources

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

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

2. QUALITY OF SOURCES. Your sources need to be relevant to your subject, and be at a suitable academic level. An encyclopaedia is not a high-quality source, for example. Encyclopaedias, textbooks and general-purpose Internet pages are academic junk-food: easy to prepare but not healthy for your grades.

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

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

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

- Getting someone else to translate your paper into English;¹
- Translating from foreign-language texts into English without giving a reference to the original;
- Paraphrasing or summarising someone’s ideas without giving a reference;
- Using parts of a sentence written by someone else without placing it in quotation marks and giving a reference (apart from standard phrases, of course).

¹There are a few cases where this is not counted as plagiarism, though even then, you would be expected to give the translator credit.
1. INTRODUCTION

On the positive side, the more sources you use, and the more citations you have in the text, the better your paper will look. Citation shows your knowledge of the literature on your subject. A large part of academic writing is simply summarising what other people have written, then analysing or commenting on it. Information on how to use sources will be given in Chapters 3 and 5.

1.5 About the writing process

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

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

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

1.6 Tools

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

The first thing to do is choose the software you want to use. If you have a program that you are already using and are happy with, then it is probably best to keep to that one. However, it is worth remembering that you have a choice; Microsoft Word is not the only word-processor in the world, and there is no point in spending several hundred dollars on it if you don’t need it. There are several word processors which you can download from the Internet free which will do just as well. If you don’t have your own computer, see what software is available in the computer labs; if they don’t have the program you want, ask if they will install it.

If you are not scared of computers and have some time on your hands, I strongly recommend learning LATEX, which takes care of the details of formatting for you, and produces much more professional-looking documents (this book was written in LATEX). LATEX was designed for academic writing, so it handles things like cross-references and citations better, and once you get to know it, it is much easier to use than other word processors.\(^3\)

You can save a lot of time and trouble by getting to know the word-processor you are using. On the positive side, it may have pre-set styles which you can use for headings, long quotations, tables etc. On the negative side, it may do strange things to your text and formatting (for example, if you are using Microsoft Word, make sure the “Auto-correct” option is switched off). It is best to use a word processor right from the beginning, because

\(^3\)LATEX is included in most Linux installations, and is also available for Unix, Windows and Macintosh; see www.lyx.org
then you can cut and paste notes or quotations into your paper instead of copying them by hand.

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

- Use a normal-looking font (e.g., Roman, 11 point) with double or 1 1/2 line spacing. Unless you have a specific reason to do so, do not use several different fonts, as they confuse the reader.\(^4\)
- Unless the program you are using does it automatically, leave two spaces after the end of a sentence.
- Either leave a blank line between paragraphs, or indent the first line (again, some programs will do this automatically; otherwise use the tab key, not the space bar.
- Use *italics* for emphasis, not **bold**, since bold makes words stand out more than you want them to (as you can see by looking at this sentence).
- Put headings in bold, but keep them in the same font (maybe one or two points larger).\(^5\)
- Number the pages.

In addition to writing, you will be using a computer for much of your research. Make sure you have a good, up-to-date Internet browser and a program such as Adobe Acrobat or Ghostview that can read PDF files (many academic journals are available online in this format).

---

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

\(^5\)An exception to this rule is that some journals use a serif (Roman) font for the text and a sans-serif font (e.g., Helvetica) for headings.
2

Generating Ideas

2.1 Choosing and analysing a title or question

You will normally be given a list of titles or questions to choose from, based on subjects covered in the course. It is important to choose a title carefully; after all you will be working with it for a long time, and you don’t want to waste time by changing your title later. There are some points that are worth thinking about when you choose your title. Choose a subject —

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

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

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

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

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

COMPARE: point out similarities, or differences of degree

CONTRAST: point out differences\(^1\)

CRITICISE: give your opinion of positive/negative characteristics

DISCUSS: examine ideas in detail, giving your opinions

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

\(^1\)The difference between “compare” and “contrast” is not very clear, which is why many questions start “Compare and contrast…”.
2. GENERATING IDEAS

ILLUSTRATE: give examples
INTERPRET: give the meaning in detail
JUSTIFY: defend, show to be right
REVIEW: examine widely
SUMMARISE: briefly detail the important points
TO WHAT EXTENT: how much

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

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

To what extent is Anarchism relevant to contemporary political thought?

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

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

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

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

2.2 Designing your own title

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

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

Here are some questions to help this process:

1. What causes/cause your subject?
2. GENERATING IDEAS

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

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

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

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

Many students do not realise how long and detailed titles can be. Here are two examples from academic journals:

Employee participation and assessment of an organizational change intervention: a three-way study of Total Quality Management. (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999)

Good Will hunting or wild goose chase?: masculinities and the myth of class mobility. (Rees, 1999)

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

**Brainstorming**

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

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

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

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

Some tips for brainstorming:

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

What to do with your brainstorm

First wait for a while, so that you have a chance to look at your brainstorm with fresh eyes. Then ask yourself which ideas are relevant, and cross out the ones which obviously have nothing to do with your paper (remember that in a brainstorm you write down anything that comes into your head, so a lot of it may be rubbish). Think again about the title of your essay, and ask yourself if the brainstorm you have done is on the right lines for the kind of essay you want to write. It may, for example, concentrate too heavily on one aspect of the subject while ignoring others, or it may be too general. If this is the case, do another
2. GENERATING IDEAS

brainstorm, starting with a more specific idea and trying as far as possible to make the main strings of the brainstorm correspond to possible sections of your paper (you don’t need to decide exactly how you are going to organise your paper yet, but its worth having a general idea). When you have finished the second brainstorm, again cross out anything that you definitely don’t want in your paper, and add anything else that you think of.

Narrowing down with tree diagrams

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

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

Mind, Body and Machine: Cyberpunk’s ambivalent relationship with technology

2.3 Writing a working thesis statement

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

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

This paper investigates the varied experience of rural-to-urban migration women in secular Muslim Turkey. (Erman, 1998)

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

This type of thesis statement therefore has the structure:

SUBJECT + PURPOSE.

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

SUBJECT + ASSERTION.

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

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

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

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

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

If you already have a good idea of the content of your paper, you can include the main sections or subject areas in your thesis statement, e.g.
Cyberpunk is characterised by a fascination with the possibilities of technology on the one hand, and impatience with technical details on the other. I shall discuss this ambivalence with reference to three works: William Gibson’s *Neuromancer*, Tad William’s *Otherland* series, and the film *The Matrix*.

This has the structure:

- **SUBJECT** — cyberpunk
- **ASSERTION** — there is a contradiction in attitudes to technology
- **CONTENT** — the three works mentioned.

At the moment all you need is a sentence or two which will give your paper focus and direction—in other words a working thesis statement. You will probably change this or add to it as you write; new ideas may occur to you as a result of your research, and you may find better ways to word your thesis statement.
3

Research and Outlining

3.1 Research strategies

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

Research Questions

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

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

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

Using what you already have

You already have a lot of the information you need for the paper in your own head (remember that you should choose a subject that you already know something about). In addition, your course notes are a useful source of information. Lecturers often recommend books on the subject or refer to standard authors. If a lecturer has referred to a book in class, it is probably a good idea to refer to it in your paper. You may also have been given a reading list for the course, which should contain useful sources for your paper. Remember, however, that these are likely to be standard works (i.e., books which everyone is expected to have read), so they will not be enough on their own.

Human Sources

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

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

**Encyclopaedias, Textbooks and Dictionaries**

As a general rule, don’t use encyclopaedias in your research. If you know so little about a topic that you need to look it up in an encyclopaedia, it’s the wrong topic for you.

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

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

**Using the library**

The best place to start library research is the library’s computer database. However, it is not always enough to go looking for one keyword of the term paper title in the computer. A good example would be if you were going to do a term paper on the philosopher Ibn Rushd: there might be only one book in the library with “Ibn Rushd” in the title, but several with sections or chapters about him. Thinking about associated subjects helps: Islam, other Islamic philosophers (Ibn Sina, al-Ghazali), Andalucia etc. Remember to try variations of the name you are looking for: Ibn Rushd is also known as Averroes; “Mao Zedong” is also written “Mao Tse Tung”. Teachers often hear the cry “I can’t find any books!” from students who only put one word in the computer, and believe there are no books available because the computer says “0 records found”.

**If you are looking for books**

First use the computers in the library, or log in through the Internet. Try a simple keyword or author search first. The only problem with this is that sometimes you get too many books. In this case, look for a “free form search” or “advanced search” option, which allows you to enter combinations of words, maybe with operators like AND or NOT; for example, “CHINA AND FOREIGN AND RELATIONS” This way, instead of getting a list of 800 books on Chinese medicine, ceramics, history and literature, you will receive a list of books specifically on Chinese foreign relations. Take the reference numbers of books that look useful.

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

- Look for the publication date—if you are studying the social effects of information technology, a book written in 1970 will not be very useful.

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

• Look at the Contents page and the Index; does the book contain enough information on the subject you want?

• Look at the Bibliography; maybe you can find useful books listed here.

• Look at the books on the same shelf as well, since you might find something useful that the computer did not tell you about.

If you are looking for journal articles

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

The best ways to search for journal articles are search indexes, either online or on CD-ROM. These contain all the important information about every article published in academic journals and respected magazines. Useful CDs include PAIS, the Social Science Citation Index, and the Arts and Humanities Citation Index, and The Reader’s Guide to Periodical Literature. Internet sources include EBSCOhost, JSTOR and ERIC. In addition, a large number of academic journals are available online; check through the ones which the library is subscribed to. When you have found articles that look useful, download them if they are available online; if not, go to the Bound Journals section of the library. When you find the article you want, skim it to check that it is useful. If it is, then photocopy the relevant parts, making sure to write the reference details (author, journal name and number/date) on the top of the photocopy if necessary.

Using the Internet

The Internet, and in particular the World Wide Web, is an extremely useful source of information. If you are not already on the Net, you need to apply to the university computer centre for an account, or open an account with a commercial ISP (Internet Service Provider). This takes time, so do it now!

As I have just said, the best way to search the Internet is through academic databases like EBSCOhost. You should also look to see which journals are subscribed to online by your library. However, you may sometimes need a more general search. There are a number of search programs available (e.g., Excite, Yahoo, Google), but most of them are fairly similar. When you search it is best to be as specific as possible, otherwise you will waste time looking through a lot of irrelevant data. For example, I entered a search on Anarchism, which produced 6,905 results!2 Many search programs allow you to put a plus sign in front of words which must turn up in the search, and a minus sign for words which you do not want; others allow Boolean variables (AND, OR etc.). In addition, search programs will often give useful tips on narrowing down your search.

When the search program turns up something that looks interesting, make a note of the author and title (if they are mentioned) and, most importantly, the URL (e.g., www.albany.edu/~smith/anarchism.html). It is also worth saving articles to disk while searching, as this means that you can later go straight to the article, rather than having to go into the Internet again. If you are using your own computer, bookmark the page.

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

• . . . an academic journal?

• . . . a page by an expert in his/her field?

• . . . the site of a governmental or professional organisation?

2In 1995, when I wrote the first draft for this book, it was only 487, which shows how the Internet has grown.
3. RESEARCH AND OUTLINING

- ... a commercial website?
- ... political or religious propaganda?
- ... a personal home page?

Sometimes the domain name (in the URL) can give you clues: “.edu” or “.ac” mean that the site is hosted by a university (though it is not always an official university site—it could be a student’s home page); “.gov” is for government departments; “.org” is for organisations; “.com” is likely to be a commercial site, but could equally well be a personal home page.3

Be selective, and don’t get sidetracked into following an endless chain of links. If you are not disciplined about your Internet research, you can start off looking for critical articles on Science Fiction and end up downloading video clips from the latest Star Wars film.

3.2 Evaluating Sources

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

In evaluating a text, do the following:

1. Consider who wrote it. Is the writer a scholar, a journalist or a propagandist? If you do not know anything about the author, there may be some information about him/her at the front of the book or on the back cover.

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

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

4. Scan the Introduction and the Conclusion. Does the writer have any particular thesis or argument?

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

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

---

3When the World Wide Web first started, its founders probably didn’t realise that in a few years it would be easy for ordinary people to make their own websites; otherwise there would probably be a domain for personal sites. At the time of writing there are moves to expand the range of top-level domains to take into account the variety of material now available on the Web.
3.3 Creating a working bibliography

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

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

- Author’s full name
- Title
- Place and date of publication
- Publisher

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

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

3.4 Taking notes

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

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

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

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

Quotation

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

- Remember to put the whole quotation in quotation marks, so that you won’t forget that it is not your own words.
- In parentheses, include the page number (and the date, if you plan to use APA referencing). If the quotation runs over two pages, mark where the page break occurs, so that if you later decide to only use part of the quotation, you will know which page to write as a reference.

Footnote: Some bibliography formats only need the surname and initials (e.g., Smith, J.E.) but in a working bibliography it’s best to include the name as it is given in the book (e.g., Smith, Jane E.). I once prepared a paper using APA format, which only requires initials, only to find later that my publisher wanted full names; going back to a dozen original sources to find the authors’ full names was not enjoyable.
If you do not use the whole quotation, mark the missing section(s) with three dots (...), and if you add your own words, put them in square brackets; for example, “TQM [Total Quality Management] . . . is a coherent philosophy with a distinctive set of interventions” (Coyle-Shapiro, 1999).

Summary

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

Examples of summary notes:

**CRITICISM OF NOZICK**

Property rights not nec. absolute rights.
Prob. of voluntary transaction not leading to vol. result.

(Taylor, 1982:96)

**TYPES OF SOC. CONTROL:**

1. retaliation/feuding
2. reciprocity
3. approval/disapproval
4. supernatural sanctions

N.B. small stable groups ⇒ fissioning

(Taylor, 1982:78-91)

**Personal notes**

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

Example:

Freedom must be rational + moral (Crowder, 1991, 10)

\[
\text{P} \quad \text{compare with Stoicism}
\]

Two important points when note-taking:

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

2. Make sure you include references for all notes. You will need these when you write your paper.
3. RESEARCH AND OUTLINING

3.5 Preparing an outline

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

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

Parts of the outline

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

From brainstorm to outline

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

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

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

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

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

2. The Anarchist critique of the State
   2.1. State of Nature theory
      2.1.2. State as unreasonable and immoral (Godwin)
      2.1.3 Scientism and anthropology (Kropotkin)
   2.2. Explanation of the State
      2.2.1 Not as systematic as Marxist explanations

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

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

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

See Appendix A for an example outline.

Alternatives to outlines

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

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

No one can produce a good paper straight away. It is therefore necessary to write at least one draft (possibly several) which you will change and correct later. If you have written a good outline, the first draft should be easy, as it just a matter of expanding your outline into an essay. In fact, it is sometimes a good idea to paste your outline into the document you will use for your first draft.

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

A draft does not necessarily mean a rough draft, though. It is an opportunity to show your work to friends and teachers to get feedback. For this reason, you should not write carelessly. You do not need to pay so much attention to fine points of style, but your writing should still be clear and grammatical. For the same reason, your draft should be well-presented (double-spaced with wide margins etc.). Remember to save your document frequently (e.g., after each paragraph) and make a back-up copy on floppy disk every time you finish writing. “My computer had a virus” is not a good excuse for not submitting work on time.

4.1 Things to avoid

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

Obvious information

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

Overgeneralisation, clichés and platitudes

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

Now we have reached the twenty-first century . . .

Human beings need freedom.

War is a serious problem in the world.

Third World countries have many economic problems.

Turkey is a bridge between Europe and Asia.

All over the world . . .

**Dogmatic statements**

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

Privatisation is the only way to bring prosperity and justice.

Privatisation is the last attempt of the capitalist robbers to prevent the people’s revolution.

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

**A note on “I” and “we”**

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

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

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

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

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

**Some other pseudo-rules**

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

1In case you’re laughing, consider that these examples are taken from real student papers.
4. DRAFTING

“Do not split infinitives” An infinitive is “to” with the bare form of a verb, e.g., “to go”. A split infinitive occurs when another word comes between them, e.g., “to boldly go”. Since the nineteenth century some writers have claimed that this is ungrammatical, but in fact there is no reason why this is should be the case; many respected authors split infinitives. However, since some people still react violently to split infinitives, they are probably worth avoiding unless the effect is ugly; for example, you can replace “to boldly go” with “to go boldly” (the textbook form “boldly to go” sounds rather clumsy, though).

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

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

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

However, even in formal writing, it has become increasingly common to start a new sentence with “and”, “but” or “so” (the other conjunctions are less common). This has the effect of emphasising the conjunction, and may be used sparingly (see page 37).

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

With all the above points, the most important consideration is your audience; who will read (and probably grade) your paper? Do they have any particular preferences or prejudices? If your teacher tells you that splitting infinitives is a sin on a level with patricide, there is probably no point in arguing about it.

4.2 Using sources

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

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

\footnote{The origin of this pseudo-rule was the assumption that English should be like Latin. In Latin it is impossible to split an infinitive because the infinitive is one word (e.g., *amare*, “to love”).}
Short quotations should be included in the body of your text, and are often part of another sentence e.g.,

As Taylor (1982:167) points out, “Communities are necessarily small, and "universal community" impossible.”


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

A similar view is that “government mounts a continual war against sovereignty” (Rousseau, 1988:137).

Notice the punctuation; there is a comma after the author, and the full stop comes after the reference, not before. You may also want to refer to a work as a whole, e.g.,

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

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

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

MLA citation

In MLA format you have a choice between citing with parentheses and with footnotes. If you use parentheses, the method is the same as APA, except you do not need to give the date, e.g.,

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

Some writers use a variation of MLA where the date is included, especially when referring to whole works, e.g., (Rousseau 1988, 137). Note that, unlike APA, there is no comma after the author’s name.

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

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

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

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

If you refer to two or more books by the same author, give the title (or a shortened version of the title) in quotation marks as well, e.g.,
“Sheila trembled at Bruce’s rough advance” (Haywain, “Love Down Under” 143).

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


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


**Other citation styles**

Harvard style is more-or-less the same as APA, except that instead of a colon before the page number, you insert “p.” (or “pp.” for multiple pages), e.g., (Rousseau, 1988:137).

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


**Long quotations**

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

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

(Rawls, 1973:382)

**Paraphrase and summary**

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

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

Right-wing libertarians such as Nozick (1974) also invoke “state-of-nature” theory. This view has been criticised on the grounds that voluntary transactions do not necessarily lead to voluntary results (Taylor, 1982:96).
If you really want to impress the reader, you can have two or more citations for the same idea. If you do this, separate the citations with a semicolon.

By the end of the 80s, Gibson was a popular feature in both the general and the literary press (Hamburg, 1989; MacNair, 1989).

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

Stoic philosophy draws a distinction between that which is morally bad (kakon) and that which is simply to be avoided (alepton).

An important element of the Welfare Party’s ideology was the "just order" (adil duzen).

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

### 4.3 The introduction

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

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

**Content of the introduction**

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

- Background information.
- Definitions of key terms.
- Indication of the scope of the essay (what you are and are not going to include).
- Any misconceptions (wrong ideas) about the subject that you want to get out of the way quickly.

The first sentence is usually the hardest to write—it’s a bit like when you go over to an attractive boy or girl in a bar and have to think of something to say—you don’t want to start with a cliché like “Do you come here often?” or “Do I know you from somewhere?”.

Fortunately there are some standard methods for writing first lines.
A relevant quotation

Most of your quotations will be in the body of the essay, since this is where you will be covering the subject in detail. However, it is common to include a particularly striking quotation (preferably by a well-known writer) in the introduction as a way of getting your readers’ attention. Although it does not even need to be from a writer in the subject you have chosen, you should make sure that it fits well into the introduction.

George Clemenceau’s statement “I feel sorry for anyone who wasn’t an Anarchist when he was twenty” encapsulates a common attitude towards Anarchism: it is attractive and romantic, but not particularly practical.

If, for Shakespeare, “all the world’s a stage”, for cyberpunk writers it is more like a complicated video game where no one is quite sure what the rules are.³

A summary of the main theories on the subject

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

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

Interesting facts and figures

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

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

The year 1984 was made famous by George Orwell’s novel of that name; however, for a new generation of Science Fiction writers and fans, it was more significant for two events: the publication of William Gibson’s first novel, Neuromancer, and the launch of the Apple home computer. Ironically for a

³For short, well-known quotations such as these, it is not generally considered necessary to give a formal reference.
book based around computer technology, *Neuromancer* was written on a man-
ual typewriter with a broken key, and Gibson did not buy a computer until he 
was half-way through his second novel (Olson, 1992).

Some examples of introductions are included in Appendix B.

### 4.4 The conclusion

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

#### Using a quotation

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

> While Anarchism may not seem practical at present, the majority of people 
> would probably prefer a world where, in the words of the novelist Iain Banks, 
> “we do not imprison ourselves with laws or impoverish ourselves with money.”

#### Ending with a prediction

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

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

#### A suggestion for further research

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

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

#### For and against

Here you simply sum up the advantages and disadvantages of the theory, policy or move-
ment which you evaluated in the body of your essay. If more than one viewpoint has been 
discussed, you can say which you think is stronger.
While the prices and incomes control policy of the Labour Party in the 1970’s was vulnerable to obstruction from the trade unions and did not achieve the drastic reduction in inflation that marked the early years of Conservative rule, two decades of monetarist policies under the Conservatives were accompanied by economic stagnation and massive unemployment. It is therefore possible that the Labour Party did indeed have a more practical approach.

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

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

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

Things that you should not do in the conclusion
Ending suddenly
Just as when stopping a car, you should slow down and change gear before parking, rather than just hitting the brakes, in an essay you should let the reader know that you are coming to the end, rather than continuing with your argument right up until the last sentence.

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

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

William Gibson is the greatest living Science Fiction writer.

The economic theories of John Maynard Keynes are not only brilliant, they are also supremely practical.

Apart from the fact that the reader may not like Gibson’s novels or agree with Keynes’ theories, this kind of writing makes you seem naive.
Introducing entirely new material or opinions

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

Another common mistake is to introduce ideas which do not follow logically from the argument in the body. I have seen several essays on abortion, for example, which have a body describing abortion law in different countries, then conclude with totally unjustified moral statements for or against abortion.
5

Revising

5.1 Content and organisation

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

Cutting unnecessary material

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

Adding detail

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

Changing the order

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

Paragraphs

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

Cohesion means joining ideas so that they flow smoothly. If a piece of writing lacks cohesion, the reader has to jump from one idea to another (you probably have friends who, when driving, change gear so suddenly that you feel like you are in a rodeo; reading a piece of writing without cohesion is rather like this). There are a number of ways you can improve the cohesion of your writing.

Linking sentences

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

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

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

Linking ideas

Consider the following sentences:

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

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

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

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

Discourse markers

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

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

Your own reading is the best source of discourse markers.
5.2 Style

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

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

Use precise words

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

The increase in immigration was good for Germany. ⇒ The increase in immigration was beneficial for the German economy.

Many doctors think that euthanasia is bad. ⇒ Many doctors think that euthanasia is unethical.

Use complex sentences

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

RELATIVE CLAUSE AND REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSE

The First Reform Act was passed in 1830. It only increased the electorate slightly. ⇒

The First Reform Act, which was passed in 1830, only increased the electorate slightly. ⇒

The First Reform Act, passed in 1830, only increased the electorate slightly.

PARTICIPLE PHRASE

After America was defeated in Vietnam, it suffered a crisis of confidence. ⇒

Following its defeat in Vietnam, America suffered a crisis of confidence.

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

Use formal expressions of quantity

not any ⇒ no
not much ⇒ little
not many ⇒ few
not enough ⇒ insufficient
5. **REVISING**

too much ⇒ excessive

a lot ⇒ considerably

a lot of ⇒ many

For example:

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

There *many* reasons for adopting this policy, but *few* governments have chosen to do so because *there are insufficient* resources to implement it.

**Avoid slang**

Slang is a kind of ultra-informal language which is usually specific to a particular group (e.g., young middle-class Americans or Italian street gangs). Apart from snobbishness, there are two good reasons to avoid slang. Firstly, slang is rarely international; for example, the word “fag” would mean “cigarette” to a British reader, “homosexual” to an American reader, and probably nothing at all to someone who had never lived in these countries. Secondly, slang terms go in and out of fashion or change meaning very quickly; in the 1950’s most people knew what a “hep-cat” was, but now most of us would have to guess.

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

5.3 **Proof-reading**

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

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

**Subject/verb agreement**

Check that third person singular (he/she/it) subjects have the necessary -s in Simple Present verbs. Be particularly careful with subjects where it may not be clear whether it is singular, plural or uncountable e.g., “The United States” (singular, even though “states” is plural!), “media” and “data” (plural), “information” (uncountable), “the government” (singular or plural, depending on whether you are referring to it/them as a single organisation or a group of people).
5. REVISING

Tense

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

Proudhon’s view of women contradicts his libertarian principles.

Articles

Look in particular at collective nouns (“the press”, “the media”, “the police”) and proper nouns made of several words (“the Democratic Left Party”, “the European Union”, “the USA”). Abstract nouns (i.e., things you can’t touch) usually take no article (“voting behaviour”, “love”, “partition”) when they are general; if they are specific, they take an article (“the voting behaviour of migrants”, “the love of God”, “the partition of Bosnia”).

Punctuation

Some points you should be careful about are the following:

**RELATIVE CLAUSES**

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

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

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

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

**CONJUNCTIONS**

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

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

Inflation rose sharply, and unemployment also increased.

John Major was not popular within the Conservative Party, nor did he make a good impression on the public.

Men and women have different conversational styles, so they may not always mean the same thing by the same words.

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

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

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

The government fell because they could not stop inflation
or in front of two clauses, as in

Because they could not stop inflation, the government fell.

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

OTHER CONNECTORS

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

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

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

COLONS AND SEMI-COLONS

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

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

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

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

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

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

6.1 Cover Page

This should contain the following information:

University, Department, Course

Put these at the top of the page, e.g.,

Bilkent University, Department of Political Science

History of Political Thought (POL 207)

Title

This should be in the centre of the page. You can use **bold** or **SMALL CAPITALS**, but do not use fancy fonts to make it look "prettier". In particular, do not use Microsoft’s “Word Art” feature, which looks amateurish, and never put clip-art on your cover page.

Word Length

Put this under the title in parentheses. You only need to give the length to the nearest 100 words.¹

Submission information

This normally goes in the bottom right of the page and includes the following:

- Submitted by + your name (and maybe your student ID number)
- Submitted to + lecturer’s name
- The date

See Appendix C for a sample cover page.

¹If your word processor does not have a “word count” feature, try the spell-checker, which often tells you the number of words checked.
6.2 Reference page / Bibliography

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

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

1. Check that you have included all the sources which you have referred to in your paper;
2. If necessary, delete sources which you did not refer to;
3. Put it in the order which is required by the bibliography format you are using. This is usually alphabetical order (some word processors have a “Sort” feature which will do this automatically) but may be the order in which sources are cited in the paper.
4. Check that the reference formats are correct, and that there is no missing information (see Appendix D).

6.3 Final Formatting

If you have been writing on a word-processor following the suggestions given in the Introduction, there shouldn’t be much left to do now.

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

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

3. Make sure your pages are numbered. If you have referred to page or section numbers in your text, make sure they haven’t changed since you wrote the reference.² Include a table of contents if you are required to; if not, don’t bother.

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

6.4 Submission

Just one last thing—don’t forget that the best term paper in the world is no use if your teacher doesn’t read it! Make sure you get it to him or her before the deadline passes, and if you need an extension to the deadline, ask for one before the deadline has passed, and

²Some programs, such as LATEX, allow you to insert cross-references such that the page or section you refer to is automatically updated.
have a good excuse ready. Please remember that teachers do not provide 24-hour service; no one will be impressed by an excuse like “I came to hand in my paper at ten o’clock last night, but your office was locked.” Keep a backup of your paper in case it gets lost somewhere in the system.

When you get your paper back, read the comments and criticisms carefully (we put them there to help students, not just to be nasty). You may want to revise your paper and publish it on the web, or even in a journal, but for the time being—

—relax!
References


Appendix A

Sample Outline

Does Anarchism have any relevance to contemporary political thought?

1. Introduction.
   1.1. Common views of A. (violent, idealistic, impractical, utopian)
   1.2. Definition of Anarchy and Anarchism
       Anarchy = society without the State
       Anarchism = belief that State is undesirable + unnecessary
   1.3. Scope of paper: theoretical more than historical/sociological
   1.4. Thesis statement

2. The Anarchist critique of the State
   2.1. State of Nature theory (different from Hobbes, Locke)
       2.1.2. State as unreasonable and immoral (Godwin, 1992)
       2.1.3 Scientism and anthropology (Kropotkin’s Mutual Aid, 1989 & Ethics, 1992)
   2.2. Explanation of the State — not as systematic as Marxism.
       2.2.1. State as armed gang (Malatesta)
       2.2.2. Economic explanations similar to Engels.

3. Marxist criticisms of Anarchism
   3.1 Utopian/ahistorical
   3.2 Impractical
       3.2.1. Problems of organising A. society
       3.2.2. Revolutionary organisation — democratic centralism (Lenin)

4. Liberal criticisms of Anarchism
4.1. Liberal concept of freedom and rights
4.2. Anarchist society would be repressive / conformist
4.3. Adherence to the market (doesn’t apply to Right-wing libertarianism e.g. Nozick)

5. Influence of Anarchism

5.1. On the Left (Chomsky)
5.2. On Feminism
5.3. On ecology (Bookchin, 1971)
5.4. On education (Herbert Read, in Nash, 1944:50-67)

6. Conclusion

6.1. Ideological vacuum after collapse of Communism
   6.1.1. Left in confusion
   6.1.2. need for libertarian left current?
   6.2.1. problems of lifestyle Anarchism (Bookchin)
   6.2.2. towards an organic view (Ward)
6.3. Anarchists of value as critics
Appendix B

Sample Introductions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

One feature of cyberpunk which may differentiate it from mainstream SF is a preoccupation with style. Traditional “hard” SF is, as has often been said, a literature of ideas, and style took second place to science; in the 1970s, literary innovation was for the most part left to “speculative fiction” writers such as Michael Moorcock. In contrast, *Neuromancer* is full of outrageous metaphor which owes more to Raymond Chandler than to science fiction: in the first line of the book the sky is “the color of a television tuned to a dead channel” (Gibson, 1984, 1). Style is not just a matter of words, though. Cyberpunk fiction interacted with popular music and fashion to produce a small but influential subculture.

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

Sample Cover Page

Bilkent University
Department of Political Science
POL 207

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES PLATO’S IDEA OF A HIERARCHICALLY ORDERED SOCIETY APPLY TO CONTEMPORARY TURKISH POLITICS?

(3,100 words)

Submitted to: Dr. Banu Helvacıoğlu
Submitted by: Ayşe Özdemir
21/11/01
Appendix D

Reference Formats

Unfortunately there are so many different reference formats used in academic publishing that they can be very confusing for writers. However, some are more common than others, amongst which are the APA and MLA formats. This is not a complete guide to these formats; if in doubt go to the official websites of these formats.

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

APA (American Psychological Association)

This format has become very popular in the social and behavioural sciences. Citation in text is done by giving the author, date and page number in parentheses, as explained in Chapter 4. For bibliographies, a similar principle applies: all entries start with the author’s name, followed by the date of publication. For this reason, APA is known as an “author-date” system.

Books

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


A variation which is becoming more popular is to give the author’s full name rather than just initials (e.g., “Smith, Alfred Ian”). Some variants of APA don’t require a full stop after the date.

Chapters or essays in books

Surname, Initials. (year). “Title of essay”. In Editor’s Name (ed.) Title of Book. Place of publication: Publisher.


Note that name(s) of the editor(s) are written as they appear in the book, not in Surname, Initials format.
APPENDIX D. REFERENCE FORMATS

Articles in academic journals


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

Articles in newspapers and magazines

These follow the same format as for journals, except that the full date is given, and there is normally no volume or issue number.

Surname, Initials. (year month day). Title of article. Name of Newspaper. page(s).

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


Film and video

Surname, Initials (Producer), & Surname, Initials (Director). (year) Name of Film. Place of production: Company.

Internet Sources

For web pages, the following format is recommended.
Surname, Initials (year month day) Title of page. Name of Website. <URL> (date you accessed the page).

Much of the time you won’t be able to find all of this information, so just put in as much as you can, e.g.,


For e-mail messages to discussion lists, bulletin boards etc, you can use the following format:
Surname, Initials <author’s email address> (year month day) Subject [e-mail to receiver’s name / list / newsgroup] (date you received or viewed the mail).
Smith, W. <wsmith@cuckoo.co.uk> (1999 April 1). Re: Gnomes of Zurich [e-mail to alt.soc.conspiracy] (1999 April 18).
APPENDIX D. REFERENCE FORMATS

MLA (Modern Languages Association)

MLA is a popular format in the humanities, particularly in English Literature. Citation in text is done by giving the author and page number, either in parentheses or as a footnote, as explained in Chapter 4. For bibliographies, use the following formats.

Books

Surname, First Name(s). *Title*. Place of Publication: Publisher, year.


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


NOTE: Some versions of MLA do not require first names in full, only as initials.

Chapters or essays in books

Surname, First name(s). “Title of essay.” *Name of Book*. Ed. Editor’s name. Place of Publication: Publisher, year. Page numbers.


Articles in academic journals


Articles in newspapers and magazines

Surname, First name(s). “Title of article.” *Name of Newspaper/Magazine*. (Date in full) Page numbers.


Note that the date format is the reverse of APA, and that months can be abbreviated.

Film and video

*Title*. Dir. director’s name. Perf. main performers’ names. Film company, date.

APPENDIX D. REFERENCE FORMATS

Internet Sources

For Web pages, use as much of the following format as you can find.

Surname, First Name(s). Title. Year. Date accessed.


For e-mail messages to discussion lists, bulletin boards etc, you can use the following format:

Surname, First Name(s). “Subject”. Online posting. Date of posting. Name of list. Date accessed. <address of list / archive>

Millions, Molly. “Re: Retractable fingernails”. Online Posting. 1 April, 1989. Cyberpunx. 8 Jan 2001. <cpunx@brown.edu>

Other Formats

These days it seems like every university or publisher has its own preferred format, which is one reason to learn to use a citation program like BibTeX if you intend to do a lot of writing (since you can just enter a different format name and the program will do the rest for you). In addition to APA and MLA, some common formats are Harvard (similar to APA, but simpler), Chicago Manual of Style (similar to MLA) and Turabian (essentially a simplified version of Chicago). Many universities have websites with details of these and other formats. Remember that it is the person you are submitting your paper to who chooses the format, not you; if they have no particular preferences, use whichever one you prefer, but be consistent.