CEU : Center for Academic Writing : CENTRAL EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY

ACADEMIC WRITING

FOR

GENDER STUDIES

COURSE READER 2020/21

Contents

The Center for Academic Writing provides a writing support programme for CEU students which aims to equip you with the skills you need to carry out your graduate level work at CEU, as well as in any professional or academic English-speaking environment. The programme includes a taught course (Academic Writing for Graduate Students) and individual writing consultations.

In-Class Component — Academic Writing for Gender Students

This part of the programme will be held during the pre-session and the fall and winter semesters. The following only refers to the classes taught in the fall semester. The aim of the taught course is to introduce you to the kind of challenges and difficulties connected to English academic writing that you will meet in your study here and give you the chance to reflect upon and prepare for these challenges. The syllabus is outlined on pages 4-5. During the course, we will discuss several different types of writing, ask you to look at examples and discuss their strengths and weaknesses before you write your own papers.

INDIVIDUAL WRITING CONSULTATIONS

One-to-one writing consultations, are available to all CEU students throughout the academic year. During a consultation you will work individually with an instructor on a piece of writing for your department to identify and improve relevant aspects of your writing. Many students find consultations to be the most valuable part of writing support, and those who come regularly can significantly improve their writing skills. Writing Center instructors are guides and impartial consultants who can offer advice about organizational, argumentative and stylistic issues, as well as language concerns. As a part of the course, you will have introductory consultations on a written assignment we have given you. After that, consultations are available to all students on an open sign-up basis. You are welcome to come to consultations throughout the year.

You can schedule appointments using our online system, available at *https://ceu.mywconline.com/*. On your first visit you need to register and enter your basic details. When you arrange an appointment, please also select the type of paper you want to discuss.

Please e-mail your draft to your writing instructor 24 hours in advance (unless you have agreed otherwise), saying what issues you would like to address.

ONLINE RESOURCES

The Center for Academic Writing has a resource webpage at https://caw.ceu.edu/online-writing-resources which contains a wide range of links to interactive language resources, including advice pages and on-line writing laboratories from universities all over the world, as well as extensive grammar resources. These can provide you with much more detailed information about academic writing than is possible in this reader.

The Multimedia Library

The CEU library has a multimedia section where you will find a variety of materials to develop your language skills, including video and audio materials, tests TOEFL, GRE and GMAT, and others. The library staff will be able to guide you to relevant materials and show you how to use them. The Multimedia Library is open Mondays to Fridays from 1pm to 7pm.

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ACADEMIC WRITING FOR GENDER STUDIES (GENS 5041) - FALL AND WINTER 2020/21 — SYLLABUS

Sanjay Kumar, Borbala Farago

Aims of the Course

The course seeks to help you develop as a writer within the English-speaking academic community by raising awareness of, practicing, and reflecting upon the conventions of written texts. As well as an introduction to critical thinking and critique writing, the course will also develop your awareness of conventions of research-based academic writing, both regarding structural elements such as the introduction, literature review and conclusion, and also how to use the work of other authors appropriately in your work. You will also have the chance to reflect on how these conventions influence the development of your own voice. In the fall we will focus on critical writing as well as micro and macro-level argumentation for term papers. The winter sessions will concentrate on the thesis writing process, helping you develop and present a thesis topic, situate your research within existing theoretical and topical scholarships, and prepare for the final stages of thesis research and writing.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this course you should be able to:
- Understand the concept of genres and their features with particular focus on critiques and research papers
- Draft, edit and refine your own critique including context, summary and evaluation
- Utilize different reading and presentation skills appropriate for graduate level
- Go through the research process and be able to structure your research papers
- Incorporate the work of other authors into your own writing in keeping with the requirements of English academic practice
- Develop your writing process through generating ideas, peer evaluation and individual writing consultations
- Expand and improve your ability to work independently by exploring new strategies for learning
- Draft a thesis proposal for your thesis
- Draft a literature review for your thesis
- Utilize crucial research, organizational, and writing skills that you need to develop and complete your research projects and theses for the MA degree

Learning activities/teaching methods

Students will develop their reading and writing skills by drafting and redrafting papers in and outside the classroom. They will work in peer feedback groups so that they are able to constructively critique other students' texts. Students also have the opportunity to regularly consult with their writing instructor on an individual basis.

Timetable & Registration

Please see your pre-session schedule for days and times of class or ask your instructor when classes are held. The academic writing classes will be included in your departmental schedule. When you register for this course, please be sure to sign up for the group you are now in (the instructor's name will be listed in SITS).

Reading Assignments

Most of the reading and in-class materials you need for this course are included in the first section of this Study Packet. These include a number of reading assignments in preparation or as follow up material for the classes. Other materials for the course will be handed out in class. This will mostly be discipline specific texts you will analyse to get further insight into the issues addressed in that class.

Assessment

During the Fall Course, you will have to complete one piece of writing. You will have ample opportunity to redraft, revise and improve your work, both in co-operation with peers and in consultation with a Writing Center Instructor (Budapest). We provide extensive qualitative comments during consultation and when relevant annotations on your paper which are intended to help you in improving your writing. You will also be expected to attend two mandatory consultations on papers for your department. One of these must be for a final paper (Online and Vienna). During the Winter Course you will have to submit two texts: your Thesis Proposal and your Literature Review. You will have more classes on these assignments including workshops where you can also receive peer feedback for your work. You are also expected to have consultations on assignments of the thesis development sessions both with your Writing Center Instructor and Gender Studies Faculty, at least three altogether (Budapest). The class is for 2 Ceu/4 Ects Credits, mandatory and graded pass/fail.

COURSE OUTLINE

Fall Term

Week 1: Introduction to Academic Writing
Week 2: Critical Reading I – Identifying Key Ideas and Evaluating a Text
Week 3: Genres of Critical Writing – Writing the Critique, Reading Skills and Peer Review
End of Week 3- Submission of the Critique
Week 4: Micro-Level Argumentation and Introduction to Research Writing
Week 5: Using Sources: Voice and Authority – Incorporating Sources in your Work and Citation Styles
Week 6: Writing Research Papers: Introductions, Conclusions and Structuring your research papers The use of Meta-Discourse
Week 7: Thesis Planning: Thesis Topics, Research Design
Week 8: Writing Workshop: Writing your term papers

Winter Term (Four Sessions)

- Thesis Proposal Introduction and Development
- Thesis Proposal Workshop
- Literature Review Introduction and Literature Development
- Finalizing Research Design, Fieldwork Planning and Preparing for Thesis Defense

Coping with Antiglobalization: A Trilogy of Discontents

Jagdish N. Bhagwati

Globalization—a focal point of hostile passions and sometimes violent protests—has become a phenomenon doomed to unending controversy. Advocates cite its virtues and its inevitability. Opponents proclaim its supposed vices and vincibility. Central to many of the protests against it is a trilogy of discontents about the idea of capitalism, the process of globalization, and the behavior of corporations. And all three of these discontents have become interlinked in the minds of many protesters. Globalization's enemies see it as the worldwide extension of capitalism, with multinational corporations as its far-ranging B-52s.

As the twentieth century ended, capitalism seemed to have vanquished its rivals: fascism, communism, and socialism. The disappearance of alternative models of development provoked anguished reactions from the old anticapitalists of the postwar era, who ranged from socialists to revolutionaries and remained captive to a nostalgia for their vanished dreams.

But globalization has also fallen afoul of a younger group of critics. And the nostalgia of the fading generation cannot compete with the passions of these younger dissidents, who were so evident on the streets at recent world economic gatherings in Seattle, Washington, Prague, Quebec City, and Genoa, and who have made themselves heard on college campuses in movements such as the antisweatshop coalition.

Far too many of the young see capitalism as a system that cannot meaningfully address questions of social justice. Many of these youthful skeptics seem unaware that socialist planning in countries such as India, which replaced markets system-wide with quantitative allocations, worsened rather than improved unequal access. Such socialism produced queues that the well connected and the well endowed could jump, whereas markets allow a larger number of people to access their targets. Capitalism is a system that, paradoxically, can destroy privilege and open up economic opportunity to many—but this fact is lost on most of the system's vocal critics.

THE PERILS OF EDUCATION

Many of today's young, virulent anticapitalists experienced their social awakenings on campuses, in fields other than economics. English, comparative literature, and sociology are all fertile breeding grounds for such dissent. Deconstructionism, as espoused by the French philosopher Jacques Derrida, has, with its advocacy of an "endless horizon of meanings," left the typical student of literature without anchor. Derrida's technique is to deconstruct every political ideology, including Marxism. Typically, however, it is capitalism that becomes the focus of these efforts, not Marxism. And this process often has nihilistic overtones, with the paradoxical result that many of its followers now turn to anarchy.

Within sociology, new literary theory and old Marxist thought have equal influence on many students. These students have contempt for economic defenses of capitalism, asserting that economics is about value whereas sociology is about values. Economists retort that as citizens they may choose ends, but as economists they choose the means for harnessing humanity's basest instincts through appropriate institutional design to produce public good.

The presumption made by many of its radical students—that sociology is a better guide to ethics than is economics—is also misplaced. Certainly sociology's related discipline, social anthropology—many of whose adherents now find their voice in non-governmental

organizations (NGOs), foundations, and the World Bank—traditionally lean towards preserving cultures, whereas economics is a tool for change. But if reducing poverty by using economic analysis to accelerate growth and thereby pull people up into gainful employment and dignified sustenance is not moral, and a compelling imperative, what is?

Apart from academic theory, other sources that today are propelling the young into anticapitalist attitudes can be found in new technologies: cable television and the Internet. These innovations help explain the dissonance that now exists in many of globalization's critics between empathy for the misery of a distant elsewhere, and an inadequate intellectual grasp of what can be done to ameliorate that distress. The resulting tension then takes the form of unhappiness with the capitalist system within which we live and anger at its apparent callousness.

As the philosopher David Hume observed, ordinarily our empathy for others diminishes as we go from our nuclear to our extended family, to our local community, to our state or county, to our nation, to our geographical region, and then to the world. But thanks to television and the Internet, the world now often seems closer than our immediate neighbors. These technologies have brought images of far-off suffering into our homes. And when today's young people see and are anguished by poverty, civil wars, and famines in remote areas of the world, they have no way to cope with it in terms of rational, appropriate action. In 1999, for example, kids protesting the World Trade Organization's Seattle meeting dressed as turtles to denounce the organization—unaware that the WTO's judicial body had recently ruled in the turtles' favor. True, there are several serious NGO's with real knowledge and legitimate policy critiques, but they are not the ones agitating in the streets.

DEMONIZING CAPITALISM

Anticapitalism has turned into antiglobalization among left-wing students for reasons that are easy to see but difficult to accept. The notion that globalization is merely an external manifestation of the internal struggles that doom capitalism and that globalization is also, in essence, the capitalist exploitation of weak nations provides an explanation linking the two phenomena that resonates among the idealist young on the left. Capitalism, they argue, seeks globalization to benefit itself and, in the process, harms others abroad.

Central to this perspective is the notion that "monopolies" for that is how multinational corporations are often described today in anti-globalization literature are at the heart of the problem. Such monopolies, it is argued, exploit rather than benefit people abroad. Globalization is thus seen as a rapacious force that delays the demise of capitalism at home and harms innocents living abroad. Such attitudes, of course, grossly exaggerate the strength of corporations, which, even when large, undercut one another through competition. Multinationals' political power is similarly often stifled by economic and national competition.

Yet the antiglobalists insist that multinationals must necessarily be bad, because global integration without globally shared regulations must surely make things too easy for international corporations. Multinationals seek profits by searching for the most likely locations to exploit workers and nations, the protesters argue, thereby putting intolerable pressure on their home states to abandon their own gains in social legislation, leading to a supposed "race to the bottom." But appealing as this scenario may appear to some, it does not withstand scrutiny. Much recent empirical work shows that the evidence for this supposed race to the bottom is practically nonexistent.

There are plenty of explanations for why corporations do not rush in to pollute rivers and the air even when there are no laws on the books to prevent them. Aside from economic

reasons for not choosing environmentally unfriendly technology, the main check is provided by the fear of a bad reputation. In today's world of CNN, civil society, and the proliferation of democracy, multinationals and their host governments cannot afford to alienate their constituencies.

FRAGILE ALLIANCES

The recent successes of the forces of antiglobalization can also be explained by the fortuitous alliance struck between young agitators, conventional lobbies such as the labor movement, new pressure groups such as the environmentalists, and human rights crusaders.

Seattle saw these groups merge and emerge as a set of coalitions. The "Teamsters and turtles" faction included unions, students, and environmentalists. Meanwhile, environmentalists teamed up with blue-collar unions into a "green and blue" alliance. "Labor standards" was supplanted by "labor rights" as a rallying cry, heralding the alliance of human rights activists and the unions. And the growth of the antisweatshop movement on university campuses was accomplished by student. returning from summer internships with organized labor, who then brought their fellow students and their views into an alliance with the unions.

Although these partnerships have made the antiglobalizers more effective, however, the alliances themselves remain fragile. Thus after the September 11 attacks on the World Trade Center, the coalition between unions and students started to fragment, as campuses turned against the subsequent war and the unions came out for it. The turn toward violence by student protesters in Seattle City, and Genoa also prompted union misgivings: the rank and file of the labor movement are not sympathetic to such tactics. The fissures are now many, and the negative antiglobalization agenda is not sufficient glue to hold these disparate groups together if they head off on different trajectories.

Still, the antiglobalization movement will remain an irritant on many fronts unless the numerous false and damning assumptions it entails about capitalism, globalization, and corporations are effectively countered with reason and knowledge in the public arena. This has yet to be accomplished; it is truly astonishing, for example, how widespread is the assumption that if capitalism has prospered and economic globalization has increased while some social ills have worsened, then the former phenomena must have caused the latter.

The chief task now before those who consider globalization favorably, then, is to confront the notion—implicit in many of the intellectual and other underpinnings of antiglobalization sentiment—that while globalization may be economically benign in the sense that it increases overall wealth, it is socially malign in terms of its impact on poverty, literacy, gender equality, cultural autonomy, and diversity. That globalization is often not the enemy of social progress but rather a friend is not that difficult to argue, once one starts thinking about the matter deeply and empirically. Take corporations again: Have they hurt women, as some claim? Japanese multinationals, as they spread throughout the world during the years of Japanese prosperity, took Japanese men with them. But these men also brought their wives: to New York, Paris, London, and other cities in the West, where the Japanese housewives saw for themselves how women could lead a better life. This experience transformed many of these women into feminist agents of change.

Meanwhile, as the economists Elizabeth Brainerd and Sandra Black have shown, wage differentials against women have decreased faster in industries that compete internationally, for such industries simply cannot afford to indulge their biases in favor of men. Women in poor countries also benefit when they find jobs in global industries. Some feminists complain that young girls are simply exploited by multinationals and sent back home as soon as they are ready for marriage,

picking up no skills in the process. But ask these same girls about their experiences and one finds that the ability to work away from home can be liberating—as is the money they earn.

Nonetheless, campus antisweatshop activists still accuse international corporations of exploiting foreign workers. But studies, such as that by Ann Harrison of Columbia University's School of Business, show that in some developing countries, multinationals pay their workers more than 10 percent above the going wage, at least in their own factories (as distinct from those of subcontractors or suppliers of components and parts, who may pay only the prevailing wage).

HOW GOOD IS GOOD ENOUGH?

The common apprehensions about globalization's social impact are mistaken, then. But it is not sufficient to retreat to the argument that globalization is only helpful "by and large" or "more or less." Globalization's occasional downsides should still be addressed. Doing so requires imaginative institutional and policy innovation. For instance, the insecurity that freer trade seems to inculcate in many—even if not justified by economists' objective documentation of increased volatility of employment—needs to be accommodated through the provision of adjustment assistance. In poor countries that lack the resources to pay for such assistance themselves, such programs must be supported by World Bank aid focused on lubricating the globalization that this institution praises and promotes.

With the growth of civil society, there is also legitimate impatience with the speed at which globalization will deliver on the social agendas. Child labor, for example, will certainly diminish over time as growth occurs. In this sense, globalization is part of the solution, not the problem. But people want progress to go faster. Still, the way to improve globalization is not through trade sanctions, which remain the obsession of Congress and certain lobbies;

sanctions are a remedy that threatens globalization by disrupting market access and tempting protectionists.

Of course, in cases of abuse that spark huge moral outrage, a widespread resort to trade sanctions might work. But in other cases, suasion, especially for social agendas that appeal to our moral sense, surely has a better chance of succeeding. This is particularly true now thanks to CNN and the NGOs. A good tongue-lashing from such outlets is more likely than sanctions to advance progressive social agendas. Indeed, sanctions may not just be unproductive; they may even be counterproductive. In one case, the sheer threat to exports embodied in the proposed 1995 Harkin Child Labor Deterrence Act led to children being laid off from Bangladeshi textile factories. Female children then wound up with even worse employment: prostitution. Contrast this with the International Program for the Eradication of Child Labor run by the International Labor Organization. This effort eschews sanctions, working instead to reduce child labor by coordinating with local NGOs, interested aid donors, and cooperative host governments. The program ensures that children get to their schools, that schools are available for them in the first place, and that impoverished parents who lose a child's income are financially assisted when necessary.

A great upside of the use of moral suasion is that it joins the two great forces that increasingly characterize the twenty-first century: expanding globalization and growing civil society. Partnership, rather than confrontation, can lead to shared success, and is certainly worth the hassle.

Finally, corporations should be defended against ignorant, ideological, or strategic assaults. Corporations generally do good, not harm. Again, however, the question has to be, Can they help us to do even more good? Purists say that shareholders, not corporations should be the ones to do the social good. But that argument makes little sense. Nonprofit corporations aid society's underprivileged. Columbia University uses its student and

faculty resources to assist the poor in Harlem. Meanwhile, Microsoft and IBM similarly assist the communities in which they function. More corporations today need to do just that, each in its own way. Pluralism is of the essence here: no NGO or government, has the wisdom or the right to lay down what corporations must do. Social good is multidimensional, and different corporations may and must define social responsibility, quite legitimately, in different ways in the global economy. A hundred flowers must be allowed to bloom, creating a rich garden of social action to lend more color to globalization's human face.

1. Black Sexual Politics: African Americans, Gender, and the New Racism

By Patricia Hill Collins. New York: Routledge, 2004, 365 pp., $26.00 (cloth). DOI: 10.1177/0891243204267086

Steve Biko once said, "The most potent weapon in the hands of the oppressor is the mind of the oppressed." In her latest book, Black Sexual Politics: African Americans, Gender, and the New Racism, Patricia Hill Collins makes an airtight case for this point by clearly outlining how "the new racism" co-opts the consciousness of African Americans using the seductive devices of prevailing Black gender ideology, sexual stereotypes about Black women and men, and Black heterosexist and homophobic norms. In particular, it is channeled through the mass media and differentiated along the class lines that fracture African America in the post–civil rights era. Hill Collins organizes Black Sexual Politics around two major objectives: first, explaining how the new racism works and, second, compelling the Black community to adopt more progressive ideology and values around gender and sexuality. Her premise is that antiracist politics in the twenty-first century are ineffectual unless they incorporate sufficiently sophisticated and progressive politics around gender and sexuality.

What is clever about Hill Collins's approach is that it respects the reality that, for many African Americans, race will always be the primary vehicle through which oppression is understood and articulated. Rather than disputing the singular and emotion-laden importance of racism, and at the same time without reifying this implicit hierarchization of racism over other oppressions, Hill Collins complicates racism within African American discourse by demonstrating its imbrication with sexism, heterosexism, homophobia, and classism. Indeed, Hill Collins's theory establishes a platform from which politicized African Americans can present an infinitely more forceful and productive antiracist and liberationist politics. Hill Collins's analyses of popular Black films and music, particularly in the rap genre, make her points accessible, familiar, and very contemporary. As a result, her hard-hitting arguments about the necessity of Black progressivism around gender and sexuality become harder to refute by those African Americans who might rejoin that they do not need feminist or queer perspectives to do their political work.

The book is divided into three sections. In part I, "African Americans and the New Racism," Hill Collins introduces and explains her key constructs—"the new racism" and "Black gender ideology"—linking the widely accepted trope of the prison to the less widely accepted trope of the closet to explain how racial oppression, gender oppression, and sexuality-based oppression all contribute to the subordination and exploitation of African Americans. In part II, "Rethinking Black Gender Ideology," Hill Collins devotes whole chapters to Black femininity, Black masculinity, and the relation between mainstream constructions of gender in the Black community and dominant discourses about gender in the mainstream (white) culture. In part III, "Toward a Progressive Black Sexual Politics," Hill Collins develops the idea of changing Black gender consciousness, particularly around issues of sexual violence, Black intimate relationships (whether same race or interracial, straight or gay/lesbian), and HIV/AIDS.

In the end, Hill Collins brings it all back to "the power of a free mind," acknowledging that the liberation of consciousness is the key method and goal of contemporary antiracism (as opposed to simply altering social structures)—a theme that links Black Sexual Politics to her earlier books, Black

Feminist Thought (1990) and Fighting Words (1998). Hill Collins skillfully and cogently proves that the new racism has co-opted the minds of African Americans and seduced them into facilitating the reproduction and perpetuation of racism. Make no mistake: This is not a "blame the victim" stance but rather the interruption of a silent and pernicious domesticating process robbing African Americans of their own freedom and agency in postmodern society. Hill Collins's astute social theory in Black Sexual Politics, like the red pill in The Matrix, makes other choices, knowledges, and realities possible for all who dare choose it.

Black Sexual Politics is a must-read for scholars of Black feminist thought and Africana studies who want to remain on the cutting edge—but I also recommend it highly for scholars of the new hip hop studies as well as any area of cultural studies, social science, or the humanities that focuses on the contemporary intersections of race, gender, sexuality, or class. In the classroom, this book would be well complemented by texts like Chela Sandoval's Methodology of the Oppressed (2000) and Johnetta Betsch Cole and Beverly Guy-Sheftall's Gender Talk: The Struggle for Women's Equality in African American Communities (2003). Finally, this book is as appropriate for the non academic reader as it is for the student or scholar. In sum, I predict that this book will be both as hard hitting and as enduring as Black Feminist Thought in its impact on women's and gender studies, Africana studies, and a host of other fields, and it only cements Hill Collins's stature as one of the most important public intellectuals writing today.

Layli Phillips, Georgia State University

2. Comments on "Contrastive rhetoric in the academic writing classroom: a case study"

The study examines the effect of teaching rhetorical structures on the writing ofL2 students. Few studies have dealt with the effect of contrastive rhetoric on writing quality for a number of reasons. Among these reasons has been the potentially large number of variables that might be affecting the final outcome in addition to the explicit teaching. The presently reviewed study avoids some of the pitfalls due to such confounding variables. For example, it deals with students who all have the same linguistic and cultural background, Russian in this case. In addition, the teaching is limited to a manageable unit and time, i.e. argumentative essay pattern and a short course. The results are quite convincing.

However, in order to be able to speak about cause and effect, one would need to design an experimental study with a control and treatment group. In educational settings, this is not easy .However, reasons for abandoning an experimental design should be mentioned.

The study contributes to the understanding about Russian students ' writing. Very little has been published in contrastive rhetoric about Russian -English contrasts. The published chapter by Yakhontova about contrastive research genres in Flowerdew's new Academic discourse (Longman) is mentioned. Is there anything else available? In a contrastive study like the one presently reviewed, one expects a thorough literature review. The review should cover Russian -English contrasts as well as information about writing and the teaching of writing in Russian. The latter information is very important because it could show that the placement of thesis topics etc. by Russian students is influenced by their previous instruction and what is considered good writing by Russians. Research

along those lines conducted in Finland by Mauranen and Ventola, in Norway by Wikberg, and in China by Li could serve as a helpful model. Those researchers have shown through text analyses and interviews of writers and teachers that certain patterns are considered good writing in L l but that those patterns do not translate into good writing in L2. This reader would be very interested in learning about writing practices in Russia since so little is known about them in the West at the present. I am wondering whether some of the linguistic/rhetorical work done in Prague would be helpful here at all.

The writing style of the reviewed manuscript is excellent -very clear, easy to follow. The literature on culture is up to date and nicely reviewed. I find the manuscript publishable if more information is added about expected contrasts between Russian and English writing and rhetorics as suggested above. In addition, for ESP Journal readers an explanation why an essay is considered "academic' or specific purpose writing may be in order. Too often ESP Journal reader types forget the importance of the academic essay genre for thousands of EFL students around the world.

3. Looking at ""Slim and Sexy: Modern Woman's Holy Grail"

by Rosalind Coward

Rosalind Coward's essay was published in the collection of essays significantly titled *Our Treacherous Hearts: Why Women Let Men Get Their Way* in 1992. It looks at the controversial issue of women's participation in the acceptance of traditional sexual roles from the viewpoint of women's sexual behavior. It contrasts the traditionalist stance with the feminist one, and both with the post-feminist claim that "Utopia… has already arrived" (56). The author then gives a historical perspective on the role that the issue of women's sexual self-definition played in the feminist movement from the 1960s onward. She depicts the changing attitudes of the 1980s as being motivated by backlash that once again narrowed down women's power to their sexual desirability to men. Coward uses the examples of the essentially traditionalist message of the ultimate pop-icon Madonna, and of the masochistic content of one bonkbuster novel to illustrate the extent of this backlash. She sees Naomi Wolf's *The Beauty Myth* as the only work that challenges the myth that woman's power lies in her sexual desirability. Still, she goes a step further and claims that the real trouble lies in women's willingness to believe in this myth.

Coward almost nostalgically remembers how important the question of women's sexuality was for the feminist movement at its beginnings in the 1960s. Women were fed up not only with their economic and social dependency on men, but also with the double standard that policed and proscribed their sexuality. Coward explains how this resentment in fact "fuelled the women's movement" (57), and called for the broadening of the concept of women's liberation. Coward seems to perceive these imaginative and practical voyages into the uncharted landscape of sexual self-definition as the lost Utopia: women could choose to explore androgynous sexuality, to connect to the earth mother sensuality, or to relate sexually to other women. She labels other approaches that tried to downplay the very importance of women's sexuality as "nebulous" (57), but she

wholeheartedly admires and perhaps idealizes the sense of exploration and experimentation that characterized this period.

Then came the infamous 1980s! In Coward's account, the 1980s brought with them the return to traditional outlook on sexuality and a tremendous backlash. Sexual antagonism to men and sexual revolution became too threatening for most women, so they 'naturally' gravitated towards 'femininity'. The range of acceptable female styles of sexual self-representation was somewhat extended, but they had to be based on the idea of women's desirability to men. Even the potentially sexually transgressive Madonna didn't really question the postulate that sexual desirability is the only actual power women have.

In my opinion, Coward constructs a false contrast and tends to overgeneralize the trends she talks about. The feminist discontent and experimentation with sexual liberation in the 1960s and 1970s have not involved or even affected a huge number of women. Coward talks as if the terms 'women' and 'women's sexual behavior' needed no qualification in terms of race, gender choices, sexual orientation, age or class. If she qualified her 'women' so, it would probably not be possible for her to notice such an enormous change during this period in women's attitudes. Thus, for example, a young white middle-class woman might define herself according to her desirability to men, and presumptuously ask: "We all do, don't we?" But do you see a young lesbian woman doing that, or an older feminist of color asking that same question?

Admittedly, Coward poses some interesting questions on women's involvement in challenging or accepting their prescribed roles, but she is essentially pessimistic in assessing women's willingness to accept the perception of their sexuality as basically passive and objectified. I think that she underestimates the number of women who are not buying into *The Beauty Myth*.

THE LANGUAGE OF CRITIQUE

Read the following excerpts from critiques by various authors[1].

1. He discusses such curious cases as that of Agnes Bowker who claimed to have given birth to a cat, the bitter controversy surrounding the burial of Mrs Horseman, and the Adamites, an extremist religious sect that suddenly appeared in 1641 and just as quickly seems to have disappeared.

2. Grundy seems to be uniquely well placed to untangle these cruxes, having worked on Lady Mary since she did her doctoral work on her poems in the late sixties. Yet these and other puzzles remain unsolved.

3. One of the most impressive aspects of Cressy's work is the way in which he emphasises the partial and conflicting nature of his sources. At the opening of the chapter on Agnes Bowker's cat, Cressy comments that 'this is a story about stories, about versions of evidence and fragment of information that circle around the telling of an historical tale' (p. 9).

4. In this pioneering study Afsaneh Najmabadi examines the interplay between national memory, historical narration, and gender in contemporary Iranian historiography, and the historiography of the Constitutional revolution in particular.

5. Each chapter begins with an account of Austen's critical engagement with her reading of recent novels, then an account of Waldron's disagreement with recent critics, before focussing on a detailed commentary on the development of plot and character in a particular novel.

6. The first systematic scholarly study of early modern German female crime – apart from witchcraft – available in English, it is a wonderfully detailed, beautifully written and rigorously researched study of how women were prosecuted for theft, infanticide and sexual crimes in south-western Germany between 1500 and 1700.

7. For example, in his chapter on cross-dressing Cressy makes some pointed, important and persuasive criticism of those literary critics who have seen Jacobean society as being fractured by a crisis in the sex-gender system.

8. Somehow, she manages to make one of the most lively, eccentric, witty challenging and creative women of the eighteenth century appear dull and lifeless.

9. Another significant contribution of the book is the crucial point that the construct of the Iranian 'nation' was not a given, a priori, transparent and uncontested concept, which the constitutionalists had only to conjure up after abolishing the autocracy.

10. Michael B. Young persuasively argues that it is impossible to seriously address these questions without taking into account James' homosexuality.

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[1]Extracts taken from: *Gender & History,* Vol. 13. no 1 April 2001, 172-185.

One of the core features of academic writing is that it relates the writer's own ideas to that which has previously been researched or argued by others. Academic writing is a conversation, but it is a conversation in print, and articles and books are the turns in this conversation. In our own writing, we need to "listen" to what others have said until we have "caught the tenor of the argument"[2] so that what we have to say fits in with that. Any of us, when putting forward a claim, will need to take into account what has been written before. This reading is concerned with how we respond and relate to the texts of others.

Critical and responsive genres

There are a range of related but slightly different genres that respond to and evaluate the work(s) of others. These include critiques, reaction papers, reviews and responses of various types. In each case, though the broad drift of the critical text will be the same, there will be a slightly different audience and purpose: a book review is written for a relatively large audience who need to decide whether or not to read the reviewed book, while a peer review is written for a very narrow audience, one (the editor) who needs to know whether the reviewed piece might be publishable and the other (the author) who needs to what changes are necessary to make it publishable. These two genres usually focus on a single text, however, comparative book reviews do exist, and position and reaction papers often ask the writer to respond to two or more texts.

Writing a critique

For the student, critique is an important skill which trains and allows professors to assess the ability to read and think critically and to respond to the texts of others. In CEU, you will be involved in critique whenever you respond to a text by another author, whether in a seminar presentation, a position paper or a term paper.

A written critique will contain (as well as probable introductory and concluding parts) two major elements: 'topic' (the information that is to be evaluated) and 'comment' (the writer's response).[3] These are often referred to as 'summary' and 'evaluation'. While the 'topic' part will be largely summative, the structure and content may vary depending on the writer's purpose: only the main ideas may be summarised, only the ideas the writer wants to focus on, or both. The amount of detail will also vary: sometimes your reader will not have read the text, and the summary will be much more informative; in others, the reader will have read the text so this section will be briefer. Even then, the reader will likely want to see what you consider the key arguments of the text, so some sort of summary will still be necessary.

Summarising ideas effectively

Any response will contain two elements: the *information* that is to be commented on and the writer's *comment* or response to that information. Depending on the type of text, the two may be completely separate or they may partially overlap. For the audience to understand the comment, the writer must present the original information clearly and in sufficient detail *but not more*. In other words, it must be summarised. Summary is one of the basic skills of academic writing, and one that is often not done well. Probably the most common student error is to summarise in too much detail, or spend too much space on summary, so that comment is neglected. Another weak form of summary is one that starts at the beginning of an article and summarizes each part equally without making clear where the

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[2] Kenneth Burke. *The Philosophy of Literary Form* (Berkeley: University of California Press), 1941. 110-111

[3] Maureen A. Mathison, "Writing the Critique, a Text About a Text," *Written Communication* 13:3 (1996), 314-354.

main idea lies. An effective summary focuses on distilling out and putting as succinctly as possible the main idea of a text.

In many cases, the main idea will be one that it is possible to agree upon. In other words, if we try to answer the question "what is the writer trying to say here", our answers will converge towards a consensus (unless the article under discussion is so incoherent as to defy such a consensus). The essence of the summary will be to present this main idea and any important supporting claims so that it/they can be commented on. In a smaller number of cases, we may indeed be interested in the question "what is the writer saying *to me* here". An article may present particular idea which is not the main focus of the author's argument but is the main focus of our interest because we are using the article for our own purposes. Different approaches will lead to different kinds of summary, depending on the writer's objective.

Commenting on information

There can be many types of comment on another writer's idea or text but four common ones stand out: evaluation, comparison (which may be comparative evaluation), application and implication. Evaluation of another writer's text is a very common academic activity, both as a part of a larger paper, and as a freestanding text. Critiques, which are most commonly used for educational purposes, can involve evaluation of content, in terms of the validity of arguments and their adequate support, or they can involve evaluation of the methodology of an empirical study.

Similarly, the way you approach the evaluative or comment section will vary, depending on the nature of the text and on your audience's expectations. Your evaluation may be organised differently depending on whether it is more positive or negative: frequently, we put the information we want people to remember last, so it stays in the mind. You may also want to provide a less or more detailed analysis of arguments in the text, evaluating them on their own merit and/or in relation to the work of others. Be careful, however, not to turn your comment section into a platform for your own private opinions; the purpose of this section is to present your evaluation of the *text*, not the topic.

Choices are also open to you how to intersperse topic and comment. You could have two separate sections, or you could shift back and forth between summarising and commenting. The first solution – to suspend comment until you have summarised the writer's overall argument – often makes sense with shorter texts where there is one central claim supported by sub-claims. The second may be useful when evaluating longer texts which put forward several major claims (such as a book): here it may be better to summarise one chapter at a time and evaluate it. It is important, however, whether critiquing a longer text or a shorter one not to get wrapped up in the evaluation of individual sentences and lose sight of the overall argument.

Most critiques will start with a few words of introduction before beginning to summarise, typically providing some context to the text that is being critiqued (author's background, previous publications, the place where the present text is published and so on). Finally, though a critique will not have a conclusion in the same way as some other genres, don't finish with a detail or a subpoint, but with a 'wrapping up' sentence which gives a global assessment of the text you are critiquing.

In the context of this writing course, we will be asking you to write a critique of a single text which will be rather short in comparison to most articles you will be asked to read in your department. We set this task to give you practice in this kind of writing and to prepare you for the more challenging task of critiquing longer, complex and multiple texts for your departmental courses. We believe that the skills you will need to apply for this task will stand you in good stead for many other assignments you will need to complete at CEU and perhaps beyond, including your MA thesis. We also use this assignment as a chance to familiarise you with the consultation process and the accompanying

process of learning to become a better and more self-assured writer through the rethinking and revising of your own texts. Your instructor will give you further details about the assignment and the consultation process.

Argumentation occurs at almost every stage of a research paper, and where other types of discourse, such as description or narrative occur, they do so to prepare for or support the argument in some way. The introduction sets the scene for the research project, arguing that it will answer a question that has not yet been answered, but is worth answering. If you present your methodology, you don't just describe it, but argue that this methodology will be suitable to achieve the results you want to achieve. In the conclusion you argue that the aim of the paper has been achieved and that the results are meaningful. It is in the body of the paper, however, that you develop your main argument, step by step, providing evidence to persuade your audience that the claims you made in the introduction are valid. Argument means that you make a *claim* (you state that X is true or that position Y is tenable) and *support* it (you provide evidence or reasoning to persuade your audience that X is indeed true or Y tenable). Whether you start with the claim and then provide support or start with a review of evidence and then make a claim based of that evidence is largely up to you.[4]

A well-argued case will convince the reader that because certain data or information or ways of looking at the world can be accepted, and because certain assumptions are shared, the writer's conclusions should also be accepted as valid. These *assumptions* are often not explicit but they are there and wrong assumptions can cause an argument to fail dramatically. For example, you may argue that trade barriers need to be lifted to achieve economic growth, given the assumption that economic growth will alleviate poverty. If, however, your reader does not believe that economic growth will alleviate poverty, she may reject your claim that trade barriers need to be lifted.

Where you suspect that your audience may disagree with you, it is important to anticipate their possible objections and to evaluate the counterarguments you expect them to raise. Unlike in oral debate, where you have a chance to put your point, listen to your opponent's response, then bring your arguments to defend against that response, in writing, you don't usually (especially if it is a term paper or thesis) have a chance to respond to your opponents' criticisms. By addressing these concerns in advance and either refuting them or making partial concessions to them, you can better convince the reader that your argument is carefully prepared and make it more persuasive.

Marshalling evidence

What sort of argument and evidence will convince academics then? The 'right' kind of evidence for them means usually either careful empirical research based on a rigorous methodology (hence, as mentioned above, the need if you do empirical research to argue in favour of your methodology), or reference to the research and theoretical argument of others the validity of which has been demonstrated by the fact that it has been accepted for publication in a recognised journal of the discipline. In other words, academic argument relies more heavily on reference to the work of other researchers. For this reason many students find it more difficult to learn and to achieve well, because they may have difficulty simultaneously maintaining their own argument and taking into account the works of others. In the next class we provide an exercise to help you explore some of the ways academic writers present and support their arguments. In subsequent lessons we deal in more detail with key issues of correct and effective source use.

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[4] Though some disciplines do tend to prefer one approach over the other: lawyers, for example tend to favour laying out the evidence and then drawing a conclusion.

Micro-level Argumentation

Mandelbrot (1982) invented the word 'fractal' to describe a "shape that can be split into parts, each of which is (at least approximately) a reduced-size copy of the whole". In some ways, an academic text is like a fractal, in that just as the whole text has a structure, with an introduction, a development of a main argument and conclusion, the smaller parts of each text, down to paragraph level also have a roughly similar structure. Like the divisions between chapters or sections, paragraph breaks serve to separate stages of an argument, visually and logically, distinguishing one from the next and making the argument easier to follow.

A computer generated fractal fern.[5]

Within a paragraph too, good writers lead the reader carefully towards the point they want to make. The sentences flow from each other logically so that each one answers the questions that came into the reader's mind when they read the sentence before it. If the reader has to supply their own logical connections between sentences, the argument will be much harder to follow and the audience less sympathetic than if the ideas flow smoothly. A very long paragraph may daunt the reader by suggesting that an argument is dense, complex and hard to understand. Very short paragraphs, on the other hand, may suggest that the points you raise are superficially treated and have little support.

An effective paragraph has a clear and logical development over several sentences: each sentence has its role in building up an argument, whether by introducing a claim, expanding upon it, providing or analysing evidence, or drawing a conclusion. Here are some broad guidelines.

The Topic Sentence

Most paragraphs will have a topic sentence. The topic sentence presents the topic of the paragraph; the remainder of the paragraph then develops that statement or idea further, supported by carefully related details. Because it introduces the subject that the paragraph is to develop, the topic sentence is typically the first sentence of the paragraph. It is effective in this position because the reader knows immediately what the paragraph is about.

Example:

> Much has been written about the social problems caused by the transition to democracy in Central Europe.

In certain situations, however, the topic sentence may appear elsewhere. For example, the first sentence of a paragraph may be a transition to link the coming idea back to the one that has just been discussed.

Example:

> The causes for the growing gap between the rich and the poor, then, have been well documented. <u>Rather less attention, however, has been devoted to ways of reducing that gap.</u>

In this example, the topic sentence is not the first but the second. A further case where a paragraph may not have a topic sentence is if it is the second or third of a series of paragraphs all of which share the topic sentence of the first.

The topic sentence, however, may not always contain the main argument of the paragraph. This is often developed in the next or later sentences, or in some cases, only in the conclusion of the paragraph, a form of argument known as 'inductive', which is most popular in the fields of law and the hard sciences.

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[5] See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fractal

Expansion or restatement

It is very common after the topic sentence for writers to develop further or expand their main idea. As just mentioned, this may involve the statement of a claim that will be supported by subsequent sentences. It is a common stylistic strategy to start with a relatively simple topic sentence and then to expand it into a more precise statement or claim.

Example:

> Indeed, in the long term, it may be that the social problems of transition will in fact prove more difficult to overcome than either political or economic issues.

This sentence, following the topic sentence above starting "Much has been written about…" serves the purpose of coming more precisely to the point of the paragraph.

Limitation

Another strategy after the topic sentence is to immediately limit or narrow the paragraph to a precise aspect of the topic which will be discussed.

Example:

> Amongst these problems, however, some of the most serious are those experienced by women, whether this be in the family or in the workplace.

As an alternative to the expansion mentioned in the previous example, the writer may choose to narrow down from the general topic to their specific topic – in this case the problems of women in transition countries.

Illustration

A frequent feature of good paragraphs, and good arguments generally, is that having made a claim, the writer then brings evidence to support that claim. As we saw earlier in the course, a claim which is not substantiated with some sort of evidence is immediately suspicious to the critical reader. In academic writing, illustration may well take the form of reference to research carried out by others. We will deal with this aspect of writing more thoroughly later.

Example:

> Research by Hofstetter and Igel (1995), for example, has shown that women in former East Germany experienced considerably higher rates of depression and resorted more often to psychiatric help in coping with social change than their male counterparts.

Analysis/Conclusion

In some cultures it is considered enough to simply offer an example and leave the reader to draw their own conclusions. In English, however, it is common to explicitly analyze and discuss what an example proves and what can be learnt from it. Analysis may also be employed in direct relation to the topic sentence by addressing aspects of the topic, the expansion or the limitations mentioned.

Example:

> While one cannot, of course, dismiss the possibility that these figures are skewed by men's refusal to seek help for fear of appearing 'weak', nevertheless, comparable research in Hungary (Radnoti 1997) suggests that the areas in which the greatest social change has occurred, notably the conflict between breadwinning and child rearing, are areas where women are more involved than men.

In this case, the writer discusses the possibility that the evidence given in the sample sentence might be interpreted differently, then decides to provide further evidence which can be analysed in the same way.

Some paragraphs may finish with an analysis, as it may make a conclusive point which is obvious to the reader. Sometimes, however, a further sentence is needed to finish off the paragraph, making a statement on the topic or moving it forward in some way. However, effective paragraphs rarely finish with an example.

Example:

> Clearly then, the study of the social effects of transition should not neglect gender as an important factor for consideration.

In this case, the writer may feel that the analysis in the earlier example does not draw a sufficiently broad conclusion and thus expresses this general point explicitly in a concluding sentence.

Techniques for making your text more readable

Although a logical overall structure is important in a text, it is equally important to ensure that the ideas, claims and evidence flow smoothly at paragraph level so the reader can follow your argument. A number of techniques you can use to improve the quality of your writing at this level are described below.

Think of your writing as a dialogue

In good coherent writing, each sentence addresses the expectations that appear in the reader's mind when they read the sentence before. When they read a first sentence, various expectations may be formed in their mind. If the next sentence meets some or all of those expectations, the reader will see the logical connection. If the next sentence fails to meet any of the reader's expectations, he or she will need to go back and read again to see what the connection could be; having to do this is frustrating and makes for slower reading.[6] When checking your writing, it can be helpful to work through and see if there is actually a logical flow between sentences that the reader can follow. If not, you will need to add or revise.

Move from old information to new

Imagine you are at the airport and you want to find the gate for your flight. Which organization of information would be easiest for you to understand: a list by gate first then destination, or destination first, then gate?[7] The second would probably be more useful because it starts from what you already know. It is generally easier for your reader if you start with what they know (because you have said it earlier) and then move to the new information later in the sentence or paragraph. Whenever possible, try to make sure that if there is something in a sentence that refers back to what went before, that this is at the beginning, not the end, of the sentence.

Coherence

The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus, as expressed in the topic sentence. If it begins with one focus or major point of discussion, it should not end with another or wander within different ideas. The sentences should lead on from each other logically so that each one answers the questions that come into the reader's mind when they read the sentence before it. If the reader has to go back and read again two or three times to understand what you have written, this is an indication that the paragraph is not coherent and that sentences do not logically flow from one another.

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[6] This idea is originally taken from Michael Hoey's book *On the Surface of Discourse* (London: Allen and Unwin), 1984.

[7] This example is taken from a presentation workshop by John Bean. From Novice to Expert: Accelerating Student Growth as Academic Writers, European Association of Teachers of Academic Writing Conference, Groningen, June 2001.

The length of a paragraph may also serve as an indicator of coherence. If you have written a very long paragraph that fills a double-spaced typed page, for example, you should check it carefully to see if a new paragraph should start where the original paragraph wanders from its controlling idea. On the other hand, if a paragraph is very short (only one or two sentences, perhaps), you will probably need to develop its controlling idea more thoroughly, or combine it with another paragraph.

Cohesion – Transitional Devices

In a cohesive paragraph, each sentence relates clearly to the topic sentence and to the sentences on either side of it. This cohesion is provided partly by transition words such as *first, for example, however, in addition* which make clear to the reader how each sentence relates to the previous and where the paragraph is going. A cohesive paragraph also highlights the ties between old information and new information to make the structure of ideas or arguments clear to the reader. Think of it like tying or gluing the sentences together. Transitional devices emphasize the relationships between ideas, so they help readers follow your train of thought or see connections that they might otherwise miss or misunderstand. The paragraph below shows how carefully chosen transitions (in bold) lead the reader smoothly from the introduction to the conclusion of the paragraph.

> The fact that the Tamagotchi is a miniaturized toy and can **therefore** easily be held and transported seems to be of great importance in its ability to elicit feelings of affection. **Certainly** there have long been computer mounted versions of pets – incorporated into the larger screen – which have not seemed to draw much reaction. **As a result of** this tactile or mobile element, children can stand in clusters each holding their own Tamagotchi, comparing qualities and deficiencies, **as well as** their own caretaking behavior and what they have or have not administered to their virtual pets. **Furthermore**, it is easy to show to others, providing them with the opportunity to boast of their acquisition, **thereby** becoming members of an 'in-group' of those children socially attuned to and with access to current trends. **Moreover** its small size permits them to hold it in the palm of a hand, to cuddle it, to take it to bed with them and to hide it in a pocket. **In other words**, the Tamagotchi allows for a relative sense of intimacy in relation to its owner. It is here, **then** that the unscripted action takes place.[8]

In this example, we can also see the development described earlier. The topic sentence introduces one aspect, portability, of the larger topic, the popularity of the Tamagotchi. The second sentence expands and confirms the importance of portability by comparison to unsuccessful, non-portable versions of the same game on computers. Subsequent sentences (using *furthermore, moreover*) add and explain (*thereby*) several advantages of portability before a penultimate sentence that sums up (*in other words*) the essence of portability, and a concluding sentence that relates this feature back to the larger issue of 'unscripted action' discussed earlier in the text. The transition words used help the reader to understand how each sentence carries forward the argument about the significance of portability in accounting for popularity.

There are many different transition words and phrases, and all have slightly different meanings, however, some of them are roughly similar. If you are not sure exactly how a word is used, many grammar books and websites contain lists of transition words, however very few give any guidance or examples as to how to use them. A good way to find out how transitions are used is to use a concordancer, which searches many, many authentic texts for examples of how a word is used. To try using a concordancer, go to *http://corpus.leeds.ac.uk/protected/query.html* and type in one of the

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[8] Linda-Renee Bloch and Dafna Lemish, "Disposable Love: the Rise and Fall of a Virtual Pet," New Media & Society, Vol. 1, no.3 (1999): 289.

phrases or words from the passage above. There is more detailed information on concordancers and how to use them in the reference section at the end of this pack.

Lexical cohesion

As well as transitional devices, lexical items can also provide a paragraph with cohesion. Lexical cohesion[9] means repeating the same word, or using synonyms or other related words to help hold your text together. Particularly in paragraphs in which you define or identify an important idea or theory, be consistent in how you refer to it. This consistency and repetition will bind the paragraph together and help your reader understand your definition or description.

One strategy that strengthens paragraphs is the use of two or more parallel phrases with the similar grammatical structure. Such parallel structures make sentences clearer and easier to read. In addition, repeating a pattern in a series of consecutive sentences helps the reader see the connections between ideas[10]. The paragraph below uses this technique very effectively. The parallel structures and lexical repetitions have been underlined.

> No woman gives birth to a baby. She gives birth to a girl or a boy, who will grow up to become a woman or a man. Descriptions of birth experiences sometimes tell us that the parents remained momentarily oblivious to the child's gender. But *that* is not usual. Birth attendants almost always announce the sex of the child even as she or he emerges: *it* is a crucial piece of information which will have profound effects on the way that the family relates to the child, how others see the child, and how the child learns to know who she or he is. *This* will, in turn, shape the ways in which the child-become-adult comes to express his or her self in solitude and with other people. [11]

Use of Clear Reference

Reference words (words or phrases which refer to something which is mentioned earlier in the text *this, she, such problems, these examples*) are extremely helpful in guiding the reader as to relationships between and within sentences. There are basically three types of simple reference:

It/they	Refers back to a noun in the same or a previous sentence[12]
This/these	Refers back, usually to a larger idea or concept in a previous sentence
This/these + repeated noun, synonym or summary word	Refers back to previous sentence or paragraph

Notice how both 'it' and 'this' (in bold italics) are used in the paragraph about birth above to refer back to earlier ideas or concepts. 'It' refers specifically to the sex of the child (within one sentence), while 'this' refers to the whole combination of 'the way that the family relates to the child, how others see the child, and how the child learns to know who she or he is' in the previous sentence. Neither word can replace the other.

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[9] The term is taken from Michael McCarthy, Discourse for Language Teachers (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), 1991

[10] If you look back to section (a) above this one, you should be able to find an example of a parallel structure used (coincidentally) by the author of this text.

[11] Stephanie Dowrick, *Intimacy and Solitude* (London: The Women's Press), 1992.

[12] 'It' may occasionally also refer forward, (cataphoric reference), for example, the word 'it' in the last sentence of the Tamagotchi paragraph refers forward to 'here'.

Conclusion

In short, we can see that just as larger texts have a logical structure, each individual paragraph also has a structure, and that carefully planned paragraph development can help you to present and support your claims effectively so that your reader can follow and accept your argument. Reference and cohesive devices also help to hold paragraphs together, making explicit the role of sentences and their relationship to each other so that the reader can understand your ideas with less effort.

Find the paragraph breaks in the following text. Be prepared to explain to others how you made your decisions. When you have finished, your teacher will give you a copy with the original breaks for further analysis.

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Extract from: **Gender and Dichotomy**

Nancy Jay, *A Reader in Feminist Knowledge* (NY : Routledge, 1991)

The social conditions and consequences of the radical use of logical dichotomy are generally neglected by logicians and sociologists alike. Logicians, no doubt, can safely ignore them, but social theorists do so at their own risk. This paper examines some ways in which logical dichotomy and radical gender distinctions are associated, some consequences of conceiving of gender distinctions as formally dichotomous, and some reasons why it is in the interest of certain social groups to understand gender distinctions in that way. The point of departure will be an examination of Emile Durkheim's *The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life.* This book serves as a model of how one may begin to understand relations between intellectual concepts and social distinctions. It also serves as a cautionary tale, for Durkheim's uncritical use of dichotomy can be shown to create certain problems, among them that he wrote a brilliant sociology of knowledge, which if followed closely, leads directly to the conclusion that women are unable to think. One of Durkheim's major interests in primitive religions was as material for a theory of knowledge. He wanted to find the origin of those essential ideas which 'philosophers since Aristotle have called the categories of the understanding: ideas of time, space, class, number, cause, substance ... etc.' These concepts 'are like the solid frame which encloses all thought: this does not seem to be able to liberate itself from them without destroying itself, for it seems that we cannot think of objects that are not in time and space, which have no number, etc.' Empiricist thinkers, Durkheim claimed, who must derive everything in consciousness from the individual's sense impressions, are unable to account for the origin of these categories; and idealist thinkers account for them only by claiming they are given, *a priori*, in the nature of the mind. Durkheim proposed to find a source that has empirical reality for the categories in society itself, through religion. The categories, he said, 'are born in religion and of religion: they are a product of religious thought.' Durkheim chose to study Australian religion because it was well described, and at the time was universally believed to be a truly primitive or 'elementary' religion. He claimed that Australian men, in performing rituals, represent their own society to themselves, thus making aspects of their society available to consciousness as concepts. This representation and conceptualization in turn reinforces and actually creates and recreates the social structure as represented in ritual. It is in these 'collective representations' that the categories originated. For example, the category of class grew out of totemic rituals symbolizing the clan and phratry divisions of society. Ritual is the medium that, by symbolizing these social divisions, transforms them into concepts, and in so doing reciprocally creates them. 'It is the phratries which have served as classes and the clans as species. It is because men were organized that they were able to organize things.' It is only through ritual representation that the categories first arise in consciousness. Furthermore, ritual is essential not merely to give birth to the categories, but also to maintain them, so that society can continue to conceptualize itself and the world. This is an essential function that religion performs, and a reason for its continued existence. A secular society is only possible when science and philosophy are

sufficiently developed so as to take over the cognitive work originally accomplished only in ritual action. This sociology of knowledge, this recognition of religion as not only a way for knowing, but as originally *the* way of conceptual knowing, is tied to a truly dichotomous understanding of religion. Durkheim both defines and identifies religion by reference to the radical separation of, the total opposition between, the sacred and the profane 'This division of the world into the two domains, the one containing all that is sacred, the other all that is profane, is the distinctive characteristic of religious thought.'

Paragraph Cohesion and Coherence – I

Put the sentences in the correct order to make a <u>coherent</u> paragraph. Hint: Find the topic sentence first.

1) In the simplest form, called direct democracy or pure democracy, the people act as their own legislature.

2) You will recall that Jean Jacques Rousseau favoured this kind of governmental system.

3) There are three major democratic systems based on the relationship of the people to the legislative or policy-making process.

4) Hence, all the individuals in the society must represent themselves.

5) There are no representatives; in other words, the people make the laws for themselves.

6) He argued that no one could truly represent another person's will.

Paragraph Cohesion and Coherence – II

Read the following paragraph and discuss with a partner what means the writers have used to achieve paragraph cohesion.

The function of the university can be divided into two parts. The first is the corporate part. I define this as those aspects that are tightly linked to our funding: so that if we do not carry these aspects out to a minimum level, we will actually lose the funding that we use to pay full-time permanent academic staff members (or part-time replacements thereof) and the general staff and management staff needed to support their activity. The most obvious example of such an activity is undergraduate teaching. The second part I will refer to (perhaps hopefully) as the reflective part. This includes research, community involvement, and scholarship that is not directly linked to the immediate preparation necessary for course delivery. The reflective parts do not impact on the employment of academic staff, but can affect the viability of the institution in the longer term.

Taken from: Chris Drane. The Ethos of a Conventional University, The University of Technology, Sydney. Available on Word Wide Web, URL: http://www.eng.uts.edu.au/re-visioning/#Documents (last accessed 10th July 2001)

The embedding of arguments in networks of references not only suggests an appropriate disciplinary orientation but reminds us that statements are invariably a response to previous statements and are themselves available for further statements by others. Ken Hyland[13]

Writing is the principal means of communication in the academic community, with ideas and evidence being exchanged through the publication of articles and books. The rules of discourse in this academic community require that you, the writer,[14] situate yourself in relation to the existing body of published knowledge, whether in order to use it as support, to exemplify a point, to build on it, or to take issue with it. The term for this reference to the works of other authors is *citation*.[15] In order to be accepted as an academic, you have to fulfil two requirements: you have to show some sort of original contribution to the discipline, and at the same time, you have to demonstrate that you are, as Phillips and Pugh put it, 'aware of what is being discovered, argued about, written and published by your academic community across the world'.[16] Academic writing is often seen as a kind of balancing act between these two contradictory aims, and this balance is certainly something that many students find difficult to achieve. As one former CEU student put it: 'if you use too many sources, your own ideas get lost, but if you write on your own, it's like 'who's interested? – where's the authority?'[17] Making reference to published *authors* who have said something similar or discussed similar questions is the key way of increasing your own '*authority*' – establishing your credentials as someone who is entitled to contribute to the academic dialogue.

1. Citation systems

The choice of citation system you use is likely to be determined by your department, which will have identified a standard system from among several that are available. Books known as style manuals will then explain to you exactly how to refer correctly to the sources you use within that system. Some professors may say that they are happy for you to use any standard system so long as you are consistent, but it is wise not to assume that because one professor allows you to use a certain system, others will too. As questions about citation can become very technical and detailed, we will not go into these here, but will briefly outline the two principal types: embedded and footnoted.

a) Embedded citation

In embedded styles, common in the social sciences, the work you refer to is indicated by a note in parentheses, in the body of the text, which includes the surname of the author, the year of publication, and in the case of quotations, the page number(s). For example:

> Queer research may thus expand well beyond the field of sexualities projects towards the 'analysis of the production of that knowledge itself' (Fotopoulou 2012, p.29).[18]

If the name of an author is part of your sentence, then only the date of publication goes in parentheses, after the name. The details such as the title of the article, journal where it was published and so on then appear in the reference list at the end of the paper.

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[13] Ken Hyland, *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic Writing* (Harlow: Pearson Education, 2000), 21.

[14] As initiated by Thompson and Ye (in Hyland), we use the term 'writer' here to mean the person now doing the writing (ie. you), and 'author' to mean the author of the published text you are citing.

[15] *Citation* is the act of naming an author and the work from which ideas have been taken. Citation is not the same as quotation. Quotation means repeating a person's actual words. Of course, if you quote an author, you will also need to provide a citation.

[16] E. Phillips and D. Pugh, 1994. *How to get a PhD.* Quoted in D. Silverman, *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook* (London: Sage Publications, 2000).

[17] Piret Pernik, IRES MA Student 2000-01.

[18] From Aristea Fotopoulou, Intersectionality Queer Studies and Hybridity: Methodological Frameworks for Social Research, Journal of International Women's Studies Vol 13 #2 March 2012. The footnoted citation has been adapted from it.

b) Footnoted citation

Footnoted styles are more commonly used in the humanities. The same text shown above, when using a footnoted system would look like this:

> Queer research may thus expand well beyond the field of sexualities projects towards the 'analysis of the production of that knowledge itself.'[1]

> [1] Aristea Fotopoulou, Intersectionality Queer Studies and Hybridity: Methodological Frameworks for Social Research, *Journal of International Women's Studies* Vol 13 #2 March 2012.

The footnote reference at the bottom of the page provides information as to the author's name, title of the article, journal details and so on. Subsequent references to the same work do not need to include all of this information, only the author's name and (in case of quotation) page number.

The most important thing is not to mix the two systems. If you are using a footnotes, don't put citations in parentheses in the text as well. Journals that use embedded systems do permit footnotes or endnotes, but   these are for the purpose of providing incidental comments, and when references are included in such explanatory notes they should also be in embedded style. For more information on citation, consult Kate Turabian's "A Manual for Writers,"[19] the APA Style Guide, or the Chicago Manual of Style Online http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/16/contents.html. The Online Manual is available within CEU via the CEU Library's subscription.

2. How is previous research used in building an argument?

As mentioned above, academic writing is often a balancing act between making a contribution and drawing on the work of others, and achieving this balance is something that many students find difficult. As one CEU student put it: 'if you use too many sources, your own ideas get lost, but if you write on your own, it's like 'who's interested? – where's the authority?'[20] Making reference to published *authors* who have said something similar or discussed similar questions is the key way of increasing your own '*authority*' – establishing your credentials as someone who is entitled to contribute to the academic dialogue. Bojana Petrić presents eight main categories.[21] Petrić's examples are taken from CEU MA theses but our examples from published articles suggest similar categories exist across academic writing.

Attribution

Here, the writer is simply 'attributing' information to a published author, that is, saying where it came from.

> Human beings need parental care for a prolonged period to survive physically and to develop mentally and emotionally. Even the best institutions fail to provide the care that infants and young children need (Bartholet, 2007a, p. 346 and n. 25, pp. 347–348).[22]

Attribution can also be done with a reporting verb (e.g. So-and-so argues, claims, points out, etc.) bringing the cited author into the sentence. This approach moves away from simple attribution and

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[19] Kate Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1996.

[20] Piret Pernik, IRES MA Student 2000-01.

[21] Bojana Petric. 2007. Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. Journal of English for Academic Purposes 6 238-253. She actually provides nine categories, but as the last is 'unclassifiable' we do not include it here.

[22] Elizabeth Bartholet "International Adoption: The Human Rights Position" Global Policy 1/1 (January 2010) 91-100.

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begins to hint at the (student) writer's attitude towards the source. We discuss the use or avoidance of reporting verbs further in section 3 below.

Petrić identifies attribution as the most 'basic,' descriptive form of citation (accounting for 78% of instances in the high graded theses she examined and 91% in the low graded theses) She suggests that as it is only a form of 'knowledge telling' and does not necessarily involve analysis or input from the writer, over-reliance on this type of source use is likely to be associated with lower grades, given that good grades are usually awarded for analysis and writer input.

Exemplification

A slightly more effective use of sources is where the writer makes a claim of their own and exemplifies this with information from a specific source.

> Medicalization, in other words, depoliticizes suffering. Scheper-Hughes (1992:196) provides a stark example: when doctors in the Brazilian slums treat hunger with tranquilizers, "health professionals contribute to the process whereby more and more forms of human discontent are filtered through ever-expanding categories of sickness, which are then treated, if not 'cured,' pharmaceutically."[23]

The writer's claim here – that medicalisation depoliticises suffering – is a generalisation, which is supported by a specific example from another author. While Scheper-Hughes probably would agree with the generalisation, so might plenty of others, including the writer, who thus takes a little more ownership of the claim.

Further reference

It is common to refer the reader to other articles or books that will fill in detailed information if required. In this case, the writer usually does not discuss or comment on these sources but simply includes them in parentheses or in a footnote with the word 'see'.

> Throughout the childhood years, parents and other adults largely control what is purchased which, of course, reflects what those adults perceive as appropriate or inappropriate toys for the children in their lives, though children are also important active agents in expressing their toy choices and how they play with toys; in this respect, children also engage in gender self-socialization (see Tobin et al. 2010).[24]

Here the reader who wishes to learn more about children's gender self-socialisation is being referred to Tobin for more detailed information. 'See' may be used with multiple sources at once, as discussed under 'Clustering' below.

Evaluation

It is important not just to summarise but to evaluate the work of authors that you have presented, for example:

> A widely cited report from Ferris Research (2005) placed the worldwide cost of spam in 2005 at $50 billion; Ferris raised its estimate to $100 billion in 2007 and $130 billion in 2009 (Jennings 2009). However, the Ferris reports did not describe how they estimated such key parameters as the amount of time per worker spent deleting spam; indeed, one of the

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[23] Claire Wendland. "Animating Biomedicine's Moral Order: The Crisis of Practice in Malawian Medical Training." *Current Anthropology* 53:6 (December 2012), pp. 755-788 (p. 757)

[24] Carol J. Auster & Claire S. Mansbach "The Gender Marketing of Toys: An Analysis of Color and Type of Toy on the Disney Store Website." *Sex Roles* (2012) 67:375–388

authors of that report indicated to us that their work was "not a scientific survey," but that it attempted to be a lower-bound estimate.[25]

Evaluation is an important part of the writer's contribution, which if done judiciously can increase the grade, though Petrić notes that inappropriately critical or dismissive treatment of the ideas of published authors is a weakness of some student writing.[26] If your evaluation is negative, it is wise to voice it cautiously and make sure you can defend your criticism, ideally with reference to another published author's ideas.

Establishing links between sources

It is common to compare and contrast different sources. This can either strengthen a view or else show there is room for disagreement and/or further research.

> In alternative hard rock subcultures, for example, girl bands challenge the homophobia common in rock as well as transform stigmatized femininities (like "slut" or "bitch") into markers of power. In her ethnography of the sport of roller derby, Finley (2010) also finds that women in this context are able to cultivate alternative femininities. Similarly, drag performances can challenge dominant understandings of gender and sexuality (Rupp, Taylor, and Shapiro 2010). However, not all forms of gender resistance result in a disruption of the gender order. Synthesizing across previous work, Finley asserts that in contexts where men dominate and control resources, it is less likely that women's enactment of unconventional femininity will transform the gender order (2010, 366).[27]

Here the writer's role is to analyse the relationship between the findings or approaches of different studies. This will often serve to justify the focus or direction of his or her own work. While according to Petrić, all students do this most in the literature review part of their thesis, high-graded theses also did it a lot in the introduction, which low-graded theses did not.

Clustering/Grouping

In certain parts of the paper, a common strategy not specifically mentioned by Petric is grouping several sources to support a particular view or focus. This could be considered a variation on 'Establishing links between sources,' but as it looks rather different we consider it separately.

> By far, most studies in the field rely on survey data (Fay, Hurst, and White 2002; White 1998a) with a few exceptions (Domowitz and Sartain 1999; Sullivan, Warren, and Westbrook 1989, 1994; Warren 1997, 2005) that use small samples of bankrupt households in the 1980s and 1990s.[28]

A long list of sources behind a statement may also show that a considerable consensus has been achieved on an issue, and/or that a particular issue has received a great deal of attention, thus making it a central and important research topic.

> These criticisms notwithstanding, EU conditionality was generally very effective in prompting the CEECs' alignment with the acquis (Andonova 2003; Grabbe 2006; Jacoby 2004; Schimmelfennig and Sedelmeier 2005a; see also Kelley 2004; Vachudova 2005).[29]

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[25] Justin M. Rao and David H. Reiley. "The Economics of Spam." The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 26:3 (2012), pp. 87-110.

[26] Petric 2007, p. 239.

[27] Emily Kazyak. "Midwest or Lesbian? Gender, Rurality, and Sexuality." *Gender & Society* December 2012 26: 825-848

[28] Ning Zhu, "Household Consumption and Personal Bankruptcy," *Journal of Legal Studies*, Vol.40 (January 2011) 1-37.

[29] Ulrich Sedelmeier. "After conditionality: post-accession compliance with EU law in East Central Europe" *Journal of European Public Policy* 15:6 Sept 2008: 806-825

This strategy is most commonly used in introductions, where groups of scholars and their research are often being mapped out in relation to each other.

Application

Here the writer's own research is being consolidated by showing that it is compatible or works with and within constructs and frameworks put forward by other writers.

> I have also tried to understand women's desire for cosmetic surgery and their subjective narratives as they are 'inhabited through other categories' (Skeggs, 1997: 166) such as class, race, age, sexuality and gender and the everyday mundane experiences that create identity and position individuals within society.[30]

Petrić's research revealed that while weak theses only used this strategy in the methodology section, strong theses used it throughout, constantly keeping the work of others in mind and relating it to their own research.

Comparison of one's own findings with other sources

Findings, like questions, need to be related to what others have found previously. In combination, do they show consensus, difference, new insights, or other implications?

> If we contrast this [*i.e. the writer's own*] result with the estimates of the ratio between wheat wages of English and Indian unskilled laborers around 1850 (Broadberry and Gupta, 2006, quoted above), we note that the UK/India unskilled wage gap has increased from around 3.3 to 1 in 1850 to more than 9 to 1 today.[31]

Not surprisingly, this strategy is most commonly used in the final parts of a paper, such as discussion or conclusions. Again, Petrić found that high-graded CEU theses contained more citations of this type in their closing chapters than did low-graded ones, which often limit themselves to summarising the writer's own findings. We have also found that new students commonly assume (wrongly) that the conclusion is 'not the place for the work of other writers'.

3. To quote or not to quote?

Having decided that the research you have done is helpful in presenting your position, and that you want to cite a particular author, you still have to make a choice as to the best way of doing this. There are basically three issues to consider when using the work of other writers:

- whether or not to quote a writer's words
- how to paraphrase or summarize a writer's words if you decide not to quote
- whether or not to use the writer's name in your sentence, together with a reporting verb such as 'notes' or 'suggests' to distinguish their ideas from your own

These three issues will be dealt with in more detail below:

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[30] Jacqueline Sanchez Taylor "Fake breasts and power: Gender, class and cosmetic surgery." Women's Studies International Forum 35 (2012) 458–466.

[31] Branco Milanovic. "Global Inequality: From Class to Location, from Proletarians to Migrants" Global Policy 3/2 (2012) 125-134

a) Using direct quotation

In general, when writers choose to quote rather than paraphrase, they usually do so because the language in the text is vivid, provocative, unusual, or because the exact wording is historically or legally important; and this could possibly be lost in a paraphrase or summary.

For example, Adrian Hyde-Price, in an article on Europeanization, wrote:

> That great diplomatic virtuoso, Otto von Bismarck, once declared that: 'A statesman cannot create anything himself. He must wait and listen until he hears the steps of God sounding through events; then leap up and grasp the hem of his garment' (Taylor 1955: 115).[32]

Clearly, Bismarck's famous words are so poetic that to paraphrase them would lose a great deal. In this case *how* Bismarck said it is as important as what he said. Hyde-Price goes on immediately to quote someone equally famous but, as he admits, less poetic:

> Henry Kissinger expressed the same idea more prosaically: 'The test of a statesman', he wrote, 'is his ability to recognize the real relationship of forces and to make this knowledge serve his ends' (Kissinger 1957: 325).

Finally, Hyde Price ends his article with his own conclusion about the ESDP, which he has been analyzing, showing how Bismarck's words (which he repeats but partly paraphrases) are relevant to it.

> The ESDP will undoubtedly continue to be 'shaped and shoved' by structural pressures, but its future will also depend very much on the ability of European leaders to hear God's footsteps sounding through events and 'then leap up and grasp the hem of his garment'.

Note how Hyde Price decides to paraphrase "the steps of God" on second mention but keeps the last phrase as in the original. He also takes the trouble to introduce both authors before he quotes them (see underlining). We recommend you follow this strategy: don't just throw in a naked quotation to do your work for you; introduce the author by name, then tell us what they say.

How do you know when and how much to quote?

Research by Hyland[33] into the use of citation in research articles in both sciences and humanities suggests that quotations are relatively rare compared to summary or paraphrase. Hyland's figures suggest that even in the humanities, only 8-12% of all citations involve quotation.[34] If your paper focuses on some primary source, such as a significant speech, an important manuscript, or some government document or legislation, you may need to quote more extensively from the original, explaining such matters as the content, tone, wording, and structure of that work. Secondary sources, however, such as critics who have commented on the primary source or experts in related fields, should be quoted much less frequently. Again, to maintain your own voice, if you quote someone, don't just leave your reader to work out for themselves why you quoted that person; follow up the quotation with a comment of your own which ties it into your argument.

How to incorporate quotation into your writing

Your department will be able to advise you on the exact techniques it requires for quotation and referencing. Some basic guidelines are given here:

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[32] Adrian Hyde-Price. 'Normative' power Europe: a realist critique. *Journal of European Public Policy* 13:2 March 2006, p.235-251

[33] Hyland, 26.

[34] This figure refers to quotations from secondary sources. The number of quotations you include from interviews conducted during fieldwork will depend on the topic.

a) Always quote accurately.

b) Enclose all quoted material in quotation marks (" ") and cite the exact source immediately after the quotation, even if you have mentioned this source earlier. If you need to quote longer passages (usually more than four lines[35]), set the quotation off in an indented, single-spaced block (called a 'block quotation'). If you do this, you should not also use quotation marks.

c) Sometimes, for clarity or length, you may need to alter or shorten a direct quotation in some way. If so, enclose any changed or added words in square brackets [ ], and indicate any deletions with three ellipsis points … . Be especially careful that any changes you make in a quotation do not alter its essential meaning. In addition, use these marks sparingly: too many brackets and ellipsis points make for difficult reading.

d) When you quote less than a full sentence, be careful to match the grammar of your own words to those of the quotation so that the two fit together as if they were one sentence. If you have to change the grammar of the original quotation, you should put any altered words in square brackets [ ].

b) Using paraphrase and summary

Usually, not all of the piece you want to quote may be relevant, or it may say what you want to say in a rather lengthy way. In such cases, it is usually a better idea to paraphrase or summarize the author's words instead of quoting. Similarly, when you want to cite an author's ideas but you feel that his or her argument would not benefit from the inclusion of the exact words, it is sensible to paraphrase or summarize. Secondary sources used to lend authority to your own voice should usually be paraphrased or summarized.

Summary and paraphrase are similar, in that both entail using your own words rather than those of the author; however, while summary involves shortening the original and capturing the key ideas, paraphrasing usually means keeping the same length as the original idea but expressing it in other words.

i) Paraphrasing

When you want to include all the ideas of another author from a particular *sentence* or *paragraph*, but do not feel the need to include the author's actual words, you will probably choose to paraphrase. In this sense, you are not changing the essential content, but rather *rewording* the original. There are a number of ways of approaching paraphrasing, but most techniques include the following three steps:

- Isolate the essential ideas in the text
- Restructure the sentences, changing the syntax and form of words
- Use close synonyms or related words where suitable

ii) Summarizing

When you want to include only the main ideas from another author's work, it will probably be appropriate to summarize the information. This normally happens when you want to include the main ideas from whole *pages* of another author's work. As with paraphrasing, it is important that you use your own words in presenting information. This means that the techniques mentioned above can also be employed in summarizing. It is often helpful to take notes and then write a summary from your notes rather than from the original text.

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[35] The exact length of a quotation to be blocked may vary. Check with your department's recommended citation guidelines.

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As with quotation, indicating the sources of paraphrase and summary is important. Failure to cite sources for material that is not in quotation marks but that you could not have arrived at by yourself, even if you do it unintentionally, constitutes plagiarism. As you are carrying out research reading, it is helpful to add under any notes you make the exact source that they come from. If your notes are incomplete or your source is unclear, relocate the original to clarify the information. Resist the temptation to write your paper without adding any references to your reading and then put these in later at the editing stage; working in this way leaves you open to the danger of unintentional plagiarism.

c) Using reporting verbs (integral citation)

You can refer to an author's work in two ways: by integral or non-integral citation.[36] In integral citation, the author's name is *integrated* in your sentence, usually with a reporting verb like 'suggests' or 'argues', while in non-integral citation it only appears in footnote or in parentheses. Especially if you are using a footnoting system, non-integral citation has the disadvantage that the original author is almost invisible in your text, therefore there is a greater risk of the reader confusing the author's ideas with your comments and interpretations. Integral citation avoids this problem by giving prominence to the author's name.

Compare these two examples:

Integral

> Copeau ([1923] 1955) linked the fusion of audience and performance to the internal unity of the audience itself.[37]

Non-integral

> The fusion of audience and performance is linked to the internal unity of the audience itself (Copeau [1923] 1955).

The addition of a reporting phrase also gives you the chance to tell the reader how you relate to this source. In the first example above, an adverb such as 'rightly' could be added to show the writer's positive evaluation of the source - that the writer shares this opinion. Hyland's research showed that in the humanities, around 50% of citations used reporting verbs (ranging from 34% in Marketing to 67% in Philosophy), the most popular being *suggest, argue, claim, note, point out, discuss, show* and *explain*.[38]

4. The Misuse of Sources, Plagiarism and Academic Dishonesty

As we have seen, effective use of sources can strengthen your paper. Most importantly, it increases your authority, showing that you can use the work of established scholars to support or situate your own argument. Connected to this, it places your research in the broader debate, demonstrating your familiarity with that debate, and shows the reader where they can get more information on the points you discuss.

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[36] The decision whether or not to integrate the author's name into your sentence remains your choice. It is not to be confused with which citation *system* you use: embedded (Harvard, MLA, APA) or footnoted (Chicago/Turabian). A citation system is a set of fixed rules as to exactly how the technical details of citation are to be arranged, and is set down in a manual or guide. Your department will tell you which citation system to use.

[37] This example is from Jeffrey C. Alexander, "Cultural Pragmatics: Social Performance between Ritual and Strategy" *Sociological Theory* 22:4 (2004), 564. The non-integral example was adapted from it. Note the inclusion of two dates in the citation: Copeau's work was originally published in 1923, but Alexander used an edition published in 1955.

[38] Hyland, 27 - though Hyland noted a total of 400 different reporting verbs in his corpus. Favourite verbs in the sciences included report, propose, develop and describe as well as some mentioned for the humanities.

Because of the defining role of sources in academic writing, however, some students, and not only students, use sources inappropriately, either out of ignorance, or to strengthen their work by making their own ideas or words appear more eloquent than they really are. Every year at CEU, students are found to have misused sources in their papers and theses. Some are simply poor scholarship, such as forgetting to put quotation marks around a quotation (or two), or summarizing an author for several paragraphs but with a citation only at the end. Keeping track of all quotations in a notebook or computer file might help in the first case, or reworking the text to make clearer the different between summary and comment, as well as a few more references, could save the day in the second.

Some students, however, perhaps because they feel their own words or ideas are too weak to impress, or due to poor time management may use sources to try to salvage what would otherwise be a poor or even failing grade. This is a more serious offence and may be punished severely. CEU's policy on plagiarism defines it as follows:

> Plagiarism is a form of academic dishonesty. It is a practice that involves taking and using another person's work and claiming it, directly or indirectly, as one's own. Plagiarism occurs both when the words of another are reproduced without acknowledgment, or when the ideas or arguments of another are paraphrased in such a way as to lead the reader to believe that they originated with the writer.[39]

Three things are important to remember here:

Paraphrase can be plagiarism too

You don't have to copy someone's words in order to have plagiarised: if you take someone's idea and paraphrase it in your own words, it is still cheating if you don't say that it was their idea. However, the reverse is also true: you can be accused of plagiarism if you provide a reference but copy the author's words without quotation marks, suggesting that the phrasing is your own. The latter case is usually considered less serious than the former, but especially if you do it more than once, it will certainly negatively affect your grades, and may lead to a fail for the paper.

Accidental plagiarism can still be plagiarism

You don't have to have *intend* to cheat to be found guilty; you might take a quotation from a source, add it to your paper and forget to add the reference to where you took it from. Once your professor spots it, it is only your word that you didn't mean to forget the reference. And as someone who deliberately tried to cheat would almost certainly make the same claim, you will probably not be given the benefit of the doubt.

Others' synthesis of sources is their work

Frequently, an author's literature review may give you a wide range of sources on the topic you are interested in. Some of these may be hard to get hold of, or you may just not have the time to read them all in the original. Remember that representing someone else's literature review as your own creation is also a form of academic dishonesty. Only ever include in your work sources that you have read for yourself (and not just the abstract!) If you really need to cite a source that is just not available in the original, cite the place where you found it.

a) I think I might have plagiarised – How are students caught?

For a long time, quite a lot of professors were not actually very good at spotting plagiarism unless it was fairly blatant. The advent of more powerful computers, however, changed all that. Now there

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[39] Central European University's Policy on Plagiarism (CEU Document P-1405-1): 1, Download p-1405-1_ceu_policy_on_plagiarism_final.pdf (accessed 25th August, 2015).

are numerous search engines dedicated to helping catch plagiarism, intentional or otherwise. CEU uses a service called Turnitin, which is one of the most effective. Turnitin compares submitted students texts against an enormous database of articles, books, web pages and even other student assignments that have been previously submitted to it, and sends back your paper with all the phrases that match those other texts highlighted so the professor can see them. That doesn't mean you have plagiarised: you might have used a phrase like "While a great deal of research has been dedicated to the question of …" Nobody owns that phrase. But any phrase you have taken from another author's text and pasted into your own is likely to show up, and your professor can see if you provided a citation, if you used quotation marks, and so on. If you didn't, and especially if you didn't more than once, you may be in trouble.

b) What's the punishment for plagiarising – Will plagiarism seriously affect my grades?

In CEU, and throughout the English academic community, plagiarism is taken very seriously. There have been recent cases where CEU students failed courses or their degree because they did not follow the rules of citation. These include, to our knowledge, offences such as copying a published paper and putting the student's own name at the top(!), copying another author's interviews from fieldwork into a thesis and claiming them as their own, copying four consecutive pages of another author's article into the middle of a 15-page term paper, and copying a series of book reviews from Amazon.com into a literature review. One student failed her thesis, among several other reasons, for copy-pasting into it another author's summary of an article by a famous scholar. The student's defense – that this scholar is so widely known and so frequently summarized that it was pure coincidence that 27 consecutive words of her summary were identical to those of another author available on the web – was not accepted by the disciplinary committee.

c) But what if I've plagiarized without knowing it?

Because a disciplinary committee does not have to prove intent to deceive in order to prove plagiarism, many students fear that they may receive a severe punishment for an unwitting slip. First of all, it goes without saying that the better you learn the rules of citation, the better protected you are against inadvertent plagiarism. By learning the rules and following them closely, and by adding references and quotation marks as you write, not leaving them till the end, you significantly reduce the chances of accidentally plagiarizing.

Because students often worry whether they have applied the rules of citation correctly, the university permits CAW to use Turnitin for educational purposes as described below:

1. Students may request a CAW consultation on source use, using a Turnitin report for a draft of *one* departmental paper. An instructor who perceives that a student has difficulty with source use may also suggest such a consultation.
2. As this is as an educational opportunity, students will not be able to use this option for all papers. However, a second Turnitin consultation (on a different paper) may be justified where a student has shown difficulty understanding the rules of source use.
3. Only one Turnitin report will be used per assignment, and this report will be discussed in consultation. Access to the service is controlled by the CAW instructor. These assignments will not be included in the Turnitin database.
4. Any faculty member who does not wish the CAW to use Turnitin educationally for their course assignments, or any department that does not wish the CAW to use this resource for any of their students may inform the CAW instructors responsible for their department (or if there is none, the CAW director) in writing in advance.
5. Turnitin may not be used as an educational tool for MA theses.

d) How is plagiarism punished?

What is clear from the examples discussed earlier is that students almost never ever receive serious punishment for accidental slips. It is difficult to believe that a student who surfs the internet for interview data, then claims that he has collected this data himself by traveling to his country and interviewing people, is not attempting to deceive his supervisor in order to receive a better grade (than the one he deserved for having spent his visit home enjoying himself with friends and not carrying out any interviews). Where a student has accidentally forgotten a set of quotation marks around one sentence, it would be inappropriate and unfair to apply the same punishment as for stealing an entire paper from another author. CEU recognizes that plagiarism is not a black-and-white issue and that varying degrees of plagiarism deserve different sanctions. The relevant section of the policy guidelines reproduced in table below makes this clear.

Measures to be taken in cases confirmed as plagiarism

Severity of Offense	Example
Serious plagiarism	• Submitting as one's own work a text largely or wholly written by another person or persons. • Copying or paraphrasing substantial sections[40] from one or more works of other authors into one's own text, without attribution, that is, omitting any reference to the work(s) either in the body of the text, in footnotes, or in the bibliography/reference list. • Submitting a thesis as part of masters or doctoral requirements which has been previously submitted to another institution in English or in another language.
Less serious plagiarism	• Paraphrase of a substantial section or several smaller sections of another text or texts without any reference in the body text, but the work is included in the bibliography/reference list. • Copying verbatim two or three not necessarily consecutive phrases, or one or two not necessarily consecutive sentences, from the work of others without attribution. • Copying verbatim one substantial or several smaller sections from another text without quotation marks but with reference provided within the student's text. • Submitting without permission one's own work that has been largely or wholly submitted for credit to another course.
Poor Scholarship	• Copying verbatim one substantial or several smaller sections from another text without quotation marks but with reference provided within the student's text. • Summarizing an author's ideas at length but only mentioning the author or the source at the end of the paragraph. • Mentioning an author with appropriate citation in an early sentence but no attribution in subsequent sentences, so that it is unclear whether the author's ideas are continuing or the writer's own comments being offered. • Including a correctly referenced short fragment from another text but without quotation marks. • Using an author's work with incomplete reference (e.g. page number is missing, or the work appears only in a footnote/parenthesis and is missing from the reference list.

(1) In the case of a first offense classified as less serious plagiarism, the student should normally:

a. receive an oral or written reprimand,
b. rewrite the assignment and receive a lowered grade

(2) In the case of a second, subsequent minor offense, or in the case of a first offense that in the department's opinion is more serious, the student should normally:

a. receive a written reprimand (not reflected on the transcript)
b. rewrite the assignment, receive a lowered grade or receive the lowest passing grade, with or without being given a fail grade

(3) In the case of continuing offences, or of a serious offence, students should normally receive a

a. written reprimand (that will usually appear on the student's transcript)
b. fail grade, with or without the possibility of retake (often depends on whether the course is compulsory or elective).

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[40] The word 'section' is understood here to mean more than one consecutive sentence. A copied section that has had a small number of extra words inserted by the student may still be considered as copied.

(4) In very serious cases such as plagiarizing a major part of an assignment, or persistent plagiarism despite written warnings and other sanctions described above, the department should consider initiating formal procedures towards expelling the student from the University in accordance with the applicable policies.

In the case of multiple simultaneous minor offences, the department should decide whether these repetitions stem from ignorance (in which case they may be treated as a single offence) or the intent either to deceive or to avoid work, either of which may justify more severe action.

The offenses in the last category (Poor Scholarship) may often be attributable to poor ability, unclear thinking or carelessness. If so, they should not be considered academic dishonesty as such but should be penalized in the same way as other poor quality work, namely by a decrease in the final grade commensurate with the negative impact they have on the assignment as a whole. If such offenses are considered to be a deliberate attempt to achieve a higher grade, more serious action should be considered.

What if I had the same idea as an author whose article I haven't read?

Students sometimes fear they will be punished for expressing an idea similar to something in a published article they have not read. The likelihood that you will do this *in the same words* as the original author is infinitesimally small. That you will do it in what looks like a paraphrase of the original is slightly more likely, but there is hardly any chance that you will develop the idea in the same degree of complexity and detail and in the same way as the author you have not read (if you do, then you have a promising academic career in front of you). The reader will quickly perceive that the resemblance is coincidental.

What is more likely to happen is that while buried in extensive course material at 3:00 am, you read a particular article, then remember the idea but forget who wrote it. This does present a danger, especially if you wrongly remember the idea as your own. Only careful note-taking and good organization (and enough sleep) can protect you from this hazard.

How common is common knowledge?

The concept of common knowledge is often invoked as a reason for not needing a reference. However, common knowledge is a rather loose and audience-relative idea. What is common knowledge for most physicists may not be common knowledge for a literary scholar. In contrast, things we as lay people take for granted as common knowledge may for others be objects of serious research.

Two examples can illustrate the problems of common knowledge for the student:

1. "Italy is a large, populous country in the south of Europe (Wikipedia)"[41]

2. For men, the attractiveness of a female is largely influenced by cues of fertility and reproductive value (Confer, Perilloux, & Buss, 2010; Symons, 1995) such as the shape of her body including both her waist-to-hip ratio and her body mass index (Platek & Singh, 2010; Schmalt, 2006; Singh, 1993), the quality of her hair and skin (Hinsz, Matz, & Patience, 2001; Sugiyama, 2005)—all cues of youth and fertility.[42]

We may laugh at the idea that a student (the first is a genuine example) might think it necessary to cite a source for the fact that Italy is in southern Europe. Yet it is also surprising for many that the

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[41] While we are talking about sources, Wikipedia deserves special mention. There are professors who hate the idea of students using it at all. Wikipedia used to be quite unreliable, but it has cleaned up its act now and always provides sources for where its data comes from. Most professors suggest that Wikipedia is a good starting point: have a look there and follow up the sources they take their information from (bottom of the page). These will often be more authoritative, and if they are not, then you will know that the validity of the information in Wikipedia in this case may be questionable.

[42] The Pop Culture of Sex: An Evolutionary Window on the Worlds of Pornography and Romance. Catherine Salmon. Review of General Psychology 2012, Vol. 16, No. 2, 152–160

author in the second, Catherine Salmon, felt it necessary to provide seven references for the claim that men are typically attracted to young, slim women who have nice skin and hair. Seeing this, we may worry that every statement needs to be backed up with a source. This misses the point: Salmon is not worried about whether she can get away without a citation – on the contrary, she is keen to show the research she has read and on which her own work will build. For her, and for most scholars, citation is a virtue, not a necessity.

Common knowledge and author knowledge

On the other hand, scholars can often provide quite detailed information without citation. Consider the following extract from an academic article:

> In many societies, including France, Germany, Canada, Japan, and the Eastern European post-socialist nations, abortion is tolerated as a means to promoting certain shared social values, following on the notion that child-rearing is central to producing a good society, that children respond to the resources and care they are provided with, and, in the Eastern European (and formerly East German context), that it is necessary for improving the compatibility of employment and motherhood. This notion of abortion as a "social" necessity differs from the notion of abortion as a "right"—and diminishes the dividing lines between "pro-life" and "pro-choice" positions.[43]

Clearly the authors of this extract felt able to write all of this quite specific information without providing a source. As specialists in this field, they know this – it is their daily bread. In other words, if you know something very well from your own experience in the field, you probably won't need a citation. If you know it from your studies, you almost certainly will.

Preciseness

One indicator for common knowledge is the level of preciseness. That Italy is large and in southern Europe is fairly vague; that its population in 2011 was 60,770,000 almost certainly needs a citation (World Bank 2011), not least as the Italian National Office of Statistics will disagree and tell you it was 60,626,442. Under certain circumstances 143,558 could be a lot of people.

Abstractness

A second indicator for common knowledge is the degree of abstractness. That international conflicts can be sparked off by disagreements over access to natural resources is probably OK as common knowledge. That a securitising move will only be accepted by the audience if the securitising actor has the appropriate status, is probably deserving of a reference.

Go with the crowd

Generally speaking, if the texts you read are referring to something as if it were common knowledge, you can too. If they don't you certainly should not. A frequently quoted idea in the field of rhetoric is David Bartholomae's (1984) claim that students in their writing have to "reinvent the university". Everyone knows it; for scholars of rhetoric, it is common knowledge, but no one mentions it without referring to Bartholomae.

Conclusion

What should be clear then from the above analysis and from the earlier reading on source use is that for the scholar and researcher, using the work of others to support and situate their argument is an opportunity, not a risk. They know the rules and the rationale behind them. Students, a.k.a. junior researchers, often do not, and concerned with getting good grades, may break those rules, either inadvertently, under stress in order to survive, or rarely, in a premeditated attempt to cheat and

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[43] "Decentering agency in feminist theory: Recuperating the family as a social project" by Amy Borovoy and Kristen Ghodsee, published in Women's Studies International Forum, 35/3, May–June 2012, Pages 153–165

defraud. CEU has tools and policies that attempt to identify those who break the rules and to apply sanctions that are as fair as possible, given the nature of the infringement. The best protection against being caught misusing sources is to learn the rules and understand the principles behind them, then behave like a scholar, using the work of others to strengthen your own arguments.

PRACTICE USING SOURCES

Using Sources Correctly[44]

Read the following source text[45] quickly. Then look at the ways in which six students used the ideas in different parts of the text in their own writing. Which of the extracts from students' writing uses sources appropriately for an English-speaking academic environment?

Family Structures and Strategies

The interpretation of the historiographic approach is that emancipation led to the decline of parental authority and to liberated behavior of young people in marrying against their parents' wishes. In this section it will be shown that parents employed strategies such as "replacement" of an unsuitable match, disinheritance or reduction of a dowry in order to prevent their children's unsuitable marriage. However, this did not mean that children were deprived of their individual choice and affection or rebelled against their parents' expectations. The rarity of prenuptial pregnancies and synthesis of economic and emotional motives in marriage suggest that match making took the interests into account of the young people as well.

The low frequency of prenuptial pregnancies in Lithuanian villages suggests that the practice of bundling[*] was not an indicator for growth of illegitimacy rates and for change in behavioral patterns in the post emancipation period. Evidence from church documents, divorce litigation and autobiographies shows that young people more likely courted and married suitable matches. When this did not happen, parents prevented such marriage by "replacement" with another match more appropriate for the family. Available standardized statistics for Kaunas province provide the approximate 5.5% rate of illegitimacy among the Catholic population between 1864 and 1904.[1] Compared to the central provinces of the Russian Empire this number is significantly higher.[2] Christine Worobec in her research on the Russian peasants in the post-emancipation period suggested that high illegitimacy rates show a high rate of prenuptial pregnancies. She explained this ratio by, on the one hand, the practice of bundling with its implication of tolerance for a young woman to have a child out of wedlock as a test of her fecundity and, on the other hand, in terms of socio-economic changes beyond the village.[3] However, such interpretations are hardly applicable to Lithuania. Sources on the Lithuanian countryside suggest that …

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[44] Based on an idea from John Trzeciak and Susan MacKay. *Study Skills for Academic Writing* (London: Prentice Hall), 1994.

[45] From Vilana Pilinkaite, "*Family Structures and Strategies in Lithuania, 1864-1904*" (Ph.D. dissertation, CEU, 2000), 156. Reproduced here with the kind permission of the author.

[1] Counted from Pamitanaja kniszka Kovenskoj guberniji na 1861-1904

[2] Christine Worobec argued that illegitimacy rates - 4.7% and 4.8% - in Perm and Pskov provinces were higher than in central provinces. She explained this phenomenon by both the practice of bundling and changes outside the village (Worobec, 1991, p. 144)

[3] As Worobec referred to the Colonial American patterns, these show that when illegitimacy rates were between 1.0% and 3.0%, the rate of prenuptial pregnancies was relatively low being 10.0% of all births (Worobec, 1991, p. 142; 144-145)
* Socially approved advanced courtship, possibly but not necessarily including sexual intercourse.

Extract 1

Historiographers agreed that emancipation led to the decline of parental authority and to liberated behavior of young people in marrying against their parents' wishes. In fact this was not true because the parents employed strategies such as "replacement" of an unsuitable match, disinheritance or reduction of a dowry in order to prevent their children's unsuitable marriage. In spite of this, this did not mean that children were deprived of their individual choice and affection or rebelled against their parents' expectations.

Extract 2

According to recent research, "the low frequency of prenuptial pregnancies in Lithuanian villages suggests that the practice of bundling was not an indicator for growth of illegitimacy rates and for change in behavioral patterns in the post emancipation period. Evidence from church documents, divorce litigation and autobiographies shows that young people more likely courted and married suitable matches. When this did not happen, parents prevented such marriage by 'replacement with another match more appropriate for the family" (Pilinkaite 2000:156).

Extract 3

Pilinkaite (2000:156) notes an illegitimacy rate 5.5% among the Catholic population of Kaunas province between 1864 and 1904. In Russia, higher figures than this have been explained by other authors as due to, on the one hand, the practice of bundling with its implication of tolerance for a young woman to have a child out of wedlock as a test of her fecundity and, on the other hand, in terms of socio-economic changes beyond the village. However, such interpretations are hardly applicable to Lithuania.

Extract 4

Current research in the area of 19th century marital strategies has begun to question earlier assumptions that towards the end of the century, parents control over their offspring's choice of partner began to weaken. Pilinkaite, looking at social trends in late 19th century rural Lithuania, concluded that although children were given certain freedom in the choice of a partner, parents continued to employ "strategies such as 'replacement' of an unsuitable match, disinheritance or reduction of a dowry in order to prevent their children's unsuitable marriage" (2000:156). While it is unclear to what extent Pilinkaite's findings can be replicated in urban environments in the post-emancipation period, this research remains significant.

Extract 5

The low number of pregnancies before marriage in villages in Lithuanian indicates that the habit of close courtship did not indicate an increase in rates of illegitimacy or differences in patterns of behaving in the period after the emancipation. Church documents, divorce litigation and autobiographies provide evidence that young people were more likely to courted and marry suitable

partners. If this did not happen, their parents stopped these marriages by choosing another partner who was more suitable for the family (Pilinkaite 2000:156).

Extract 6

As Pilinkaite (2000) notes, while the generally-held trend towards greater freedom for young people to choose their own marriage partner does not appear to be valid in post-emancipation Lithuania, there was nevertheless a degree of negotiated freedom: children were able to court a partner of their own choice, so long as this partner met the socio-economic expectations of the parents. Where this was not the case, parent might well forbid the marriage with the unsuitable partner and replace him with a more socially appropriate candidate (2000:156). It is clear then, that while affective choices were not ruled out, they were nonetheless guided and controlled by social and economic considerations.

Ways of Integrating Sources

1. *Read the paragraph below and the 3 related sources (currently in the form of quotations).*

2. *Decide where in the text (A, B or C) to incorporate each of the sources.*

3. *Decide how they should be incorporated, using quotation, summary, paraphrase or a combination of the three.*

4. *Incorporate them into the text, considering issues of voice and smooth and effective transition.*

Title of Paper: Anti-Semitism in the USA

The issue of the legislation of public displays of anti-Semitism is hotly debated on US college campuses. This discussion has its most public face in the debate centred around Holocaust revisionism. (A)

_____

_____

_____

Many colleges have adopted "codes of conduct" to combat this type of action. (B)

_____

_____

However, some believe this type of internal legislation is completely unnecessary. (C)

_____

_____

_____

Through an in-depth analysis of both sides of this debate, this chapter will show that the adoption of such codes of conduct is the only rational choice for the retention of pluralism.

Source 1:

"Remarks directed at another's race, sex, religion, national origin, age or sexual preference and any remarks based on prejudice and group stereotype are forbidden."

University of Buffalo Law School, "Statement Regarding Intellectual Freedom, Tolerance, and Political Harassment." *University of Buffalo Law School Code of Conduct*, 2011/7, 2.

Source 2:

"Recently, a group calling itself the Committee for Open Debate on the Holocaust has sent an advertisement to a dozen leading campus newspapers. The ad contends that the Holocaust never occurred."

David Oshinsky and Michael Curtis, "Freedom of Speech and Holocaust Revisionism." *The New York Times*, December 11, (2012): 22.

Source 3:

"I don't think students need to be protected from bad ideas. I think that they can determine what ideas are bad." Prof. Carol Tebben, "Freedom of Speech on Campus." *The Buffalo Gazette*, March 2012, 33.

Identifying Paraphrasing and Summarizing Techniques

Read the passage below and then complete a paraphrase and summary beneath. You should imagine the paraphrase/summary is for a paper on a given topic. This topic will be suggested by your instructor.

The original passage:

Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes.

Lester, James. *Writing Research Papers: a complete guide.* 2nd ed. New York: HarperCollins, 1976: 46-47.

Paraphrase:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Summary:

_____

_____

_____

Now look back over your paraphrase/summary and try to identify the techniques you used. Compare with a partner and see if you used similar techniques.

WRITING RESEARCH PAPERS

During your studies at CEU, you will have to write various types of paper. Many assignments will also involve you in developing an argument of your own in relation to the work of others. The most common of these, and perhaps the most important, is the research paper.[46]In its essence, the research paper imitates the research article, an article published in a journal in the discipline. At this stage in your academic career, it may sound like a big challenge to write a publishable article, but past students have written papers for their courses that, with revision, have been accepted for publication, so it is certainly not impossible. More importantly, writing research papers is practice for writing the publishable articles that your department hope you will produce later. John Swales, a leading authority on academic writing, refers to MA students as 'junior researchers' (Swales 2004). This can be a helpful way of seeing yourself when you are trying to write your research paper: you are learning to write like a fully-fledged researcher.

Many students find the thought of contributing something *new* rather daunting. Novelty does not necessarily mean developing a major new theory, however, it does mean that you are expected to add *something* to the existing body of research, not just collect and repeat other people's work. There are many ways to express this 'novel' aspect. Whatever the choice of research, you need to be clear what contribution your research is going to make, in what way it is novel or original. Most research will need to be original in one or a combination of ways, and very few are original as in the first example below (Phillips and Pugh 1994: 61-62).

- Setting down a major piece of new information in writing for the 1st time.
- Continuing a previously original piece of work.
- Providing just one original observation, technique or result in a piece of research that is otherwise competent but unoriginal.
- Showing originality in testing somebody else's idea.
- Carrying out empirical work that hasn't been done before.
- Making a synthesis that hasn't been made before.
- Using already known material but with a new interpretation.
- Trying out something in, for example, one country that has previously only been done in other countries.
- Taking a particular technique and applying it in a new area.
- Bringing new evidence to bear on an old issue.
- Being cross-disciplinary and using different methods.
- Looking at areas that people in the discipline haven't looked at before.

There are of course kinds of academic writing which do not create new knowledge, a sub-genre known as 'review articles'. The best known are what are often called 'state-of-the-art' articles, written by a leading authority on the field to conveniently provide an up-to-date overview for the less well informed about how new research and theory this specialised part of the field looks at the moment. As you can imagine, no-one at CEU is going to ask you to write one of these. A different kind of review that you may have to write at CEU, however, particularly when working on your thesis, is the literature review. A literature review is a piece of writing in which you 'review' previous research in your chosen field to show the reader how your own research-in-process relates to what has been

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[46] Research papers may also be called 'research essays', 'term papers', or 'final papers', but with some small differences depending on the professor setting the task, most are similar in nature.

written to date and, as Bellers and Smith put it, "to justify [your] research… by clearly expressing in what way the paper contributes to the existing body of literature…" (Bellers and Smith 2003). A literature review is not usually a free-standing paper but more commonly serves to pave the way for a subsequent chapter or section that presents the author's own research or analysis. Some CEU professors may set assignments that look at first sight like a freestanding literature review but do not appear to have an obvious purpose comparable to that described by Bellers and Smith. If you are unsure of the purpose of an assignment you have been set, we always recommend that you go back to the professor who set the task and discuss it with him or her. This will usually clarify any misunderstanding – and probably help you get a better grade than you would by trying to guess what the professor wants.

Research papers, however, remain the key genre in graduate study, which is why we devote time to this genre. Depending on the professor, they may vary in length from 2500 to 5000 words, but all have in common that they involve you in solving a problem, theoretical or practical, by doing some sort of research, usually library research (reading, comparing and applying the work of others), though a few may require you to carry out empirical research (gathering primary data in some form and processing it). The process of producing a research paper involves several stages, and is not necessarily linear – you may have to go back and repeat some stages.

Initial research

In order to get a feel for what you might write about, you need to read around the area you are interested in. Part of this, naturally, will be the set readings for the course, but you will certainly need to go beyond these. Your course tutor may be able to help you here in suggesting further titles. In part you may also be able to trace earlier articles cited in the set reading and read these, but of course this will not help you to find more recent research. Once you have decided on the general area of your research, you can identify the type of research to be carried out. There are three principal forms: (Phillips and Pugh 1994: 49-52). The first two are not common and demand a great deal of work.

- Exploratory research looks at an area that is new or has been little studied or tested
- Problem-solving research identifies a problem and then proposes an appropriate solution

However, nearly all research falls into the category below:

- Testing-out research works mainly with "established ideas and arguments and within a framework known and accepted in the discipline", i.e. applying an established model to new data, slightly adapting a model before applying it to old data, etc.

Reading other people's work is not the only way to get ideas, however. In fact, some authors such as the renowned economist, Hal Varian, suggest it may not be the best:

> Most graduate students are convinced that the way you get ideas is to read journal articles. But in my experience journals really aren't a very good source of original ideas. You can get lots of things from journal articles—technique, insight, even truth. But most of the time you will only get someone else's ideas.[47]

Varian provides an alternative – writing about something from your own experience:

> One of my favorite pieces of my own work is the paper I wrote on "A Model of Sales." I had decided to get a new TV so I followed the ads in the newspaper to get an idea of how much it would cost. I noticed that the prices fluctuated quite a bit from week to week. It occurred to me that the challenge to economics was not why the prices were sometimes low (i.e., during sales) but why they were ever high. Who would be so foolish as to buy when the

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[47]Hal R. Varian. How to build an economic model in your spare time. *The American Economist,* Vol. 41, No. 2 (Fall, 1997), pp. 3-10

price was high since everyone knew that the item would be on sale in a few weeks? But there must be such people, otherwise the stores would never find it profitable to charge a high price. Armed with this insight, I was able to generate a model of sales.

Developing a research question

As you read, you will begin to get a feel for what is central (the questions everyone is talking about) and what is marginal (the aspects hardly anyone pays attention to), for what has been done and what has not been done. You may notice that one particular strand of research has overlooked a particular event, factor or process; that you know of a real-world situation that poses problems for the explanations offered by theorists, or presents an interesting case; that a problem you know of could be better understood through a particular theoretical perspective; or that there is something else which has not been done, not been done extensively enough or not been done in the best way it could have been. Gradually, you will be able to formulate the gap or lack you see as a 'puzzle', an unanswered question or series of questions which your research will attempt to answer. These are your research questions, and they will act as the driving force of your paper, helping you to decide what else to read, how to structure your argument, and how to relate yourself to the sources you have used. Good research questions will (See e.g. Chinneck (1999); Levine (2001); Booth, Colomb and Williams (1995).

1)   promise new information or confirm old information in new ways
2)   be "useful"
3)   link your research with others by establishing how your work fits into the work of your field
4)   be open-ended, often using *wh* question words: when, where, , what, (descriptive) and why, how (evaluative) etc.
5)   should be answerable (of course)
6)   have a reasonable scope, that is, enough limitations
7)   be interesting
8)   have key terms that are clearly and precisely defined

Naturally, your questions and/or research objectives will evolve as you read, ponder, synthesize, extract, examine or extrapolate.

More directed reading

This is where the serious reading starts. The reading you did so far served simply to frame the problem. Once you have found your research question, you can begin to read in a much more targeted way, hunting for just those articles or parts of articles and books that are relevant to the answering of your question. As you read, you will be focusing and noting down specifically those parts of others' work that are relevant to your question, skipping over or only reading hastily those parts that address broader issues. This is not a simple linear process: your new reading may force you to refine or modify your research question, and this in turn may give your subsequent reading a new direction. Don't see changes to your research question as a failure but as progress. Every relevant article you read forces you to rethink your paper: some allow you to expand and develop, some force you to cut out old material and replace it, while others offer a shift of focus so that the paper is actually saying something different. This can be frustrating when you are under time pressure, but it means you are learning and understanding the subject better.

Note-taking strategies

During the whole process of researching and writing, it is important to take effective notes. There are many ways of note-taking, including annotating photocopies, highlighting key information (possibly in different colours) filling in an outline, using reference cards and others. Whichever way

you choose, you will need to use the information later, so do write down all the bibliographical details and page numbers at this stage. This can save a lot of time and effort (and avoid accusations of plagiarism) when you come to use these sources in developing your claims. It is also generally not a good idea to copy out large chunks of the original text, even if computer technology makes it easy to do so nowadays. Doing so increases the temptation to patch together your paper out of the quotations of others, making it less of your own work. We will discuss quotation, paraphrase and summary of the work of others in more detail, including the issue of plagiarism later in this course.

Identifying the structure of your research paper

Apart from the obvious fixed components of the paper – the introduction and the concluding section – it is hard to identify a common structure across disciplines. In the natural sciences, Swales notes that a pattern of Introduction–Methodology–Results–Discussion[48] is common, where the need for a research experiment is identified, the method to be used is described and justified, the results laid out and the meaning of those results discussed. This pattern is much less universal in the social sciences, even when empirical research is involved, and is largely irrelevant to disciplines such as history or law. Besides, as we have mentioned, many papers you write here at CEU will not involve primary data gathering experiments, so this model is not so helpful. Instead, in the social sciences and humanities, the structure of the paper tends to be dictated by the nature of the problem. Will the background context to a situation or an event need to be explained? Will two theories need to be compared for relevance? Will a case need to be analysed? The answers to these questions will help determine the structure of your paper.

Some people like to start by drafting an outline of how their paper will develop, breaking it down into parts and then working on each of those parts. This has the advantage that it allows you to see the different parts of the paper and how they relate and build on each other. You can see those areas that need more development or clearer organization, and the outline acts as a visual representation of the whole paper. Others prefer initially to draft more freely, then to select, revise and reshape from what they have written and see how an outline evolves from their attempts to answer the question. Whichever way you use, there will come a time when you need to plan the structure of your paper and fit the thoughts and ideas you have so far into that framework. Not planning the structure of your paper at all may lead to a piece of writing which is a 'stream of consciousness' – a wandering exploration of where your thoughts took you. While some famous writers are brilliant and knowledgeable enough to do this and pull it off, it is not a strategy calculated to achieve a good grade at MA level.

The introduction to a research paper sets the scene for the research project, announcing what is to come. It is in the body of the paper, however, that you have to elaborate and flesh out your main argument, providing evidence to persuade your audience that the claims you made in the introduction are valid. Argument means that you make a *claim* (you state that a position is tenable) and *support* it (you provide evidence or reasoning to persuade your audience that that position is indeed tenable). You may start with the claim and then provide support (deductive reasoning) or start with a review of evidence and then make a claim based of that evidence (inductive reasoning), depending what best suits your needs. A well-argued case will convince the reader that because certain data or information or ways of looking at the world can be accepted, and because certain assumptions are shared, the writer's conclusions should also be accepted as valid. These *assumptions* are often not explicit but they are there and wrong assumptions can cause an argument to fail dramatically.

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[48] Swales, *Research Genres*

Anticipating objections

Where you suspect that your audience may disagree with you, it is helpful to anticipate their possible objections and to evaluate the counterarguments you expect them to raise. Whereas in oral debate you have a chance to put a point, listen to your opponent's response, then bring your arguments to defend against that response, in writing, you pretty much have only one shot.[49] By addressing your opponents' concerns in advance and either refuting them or making partial concessions to them, you suggest that your argument is carefully prepared and make it more convincing.

Marshalling evidence

So how are academics convinced? While non-academic readers are likely to prefer simplicity and clarity, academics are highly critical and sceptical, questioning the validity of any claims that are not supported adequately with the right kind of evidence, and the 'right' kind of evidence for them means usually either careful empirical research based on a rigorous methodology, or reference to the rigorous research and theoretical argument of others the validity of which has been demonstrated by the fact that it has been accepted for publication in a recognised journal of the discipline. In other words, academic argument relies more heavily on the work of others. For this reason many students find it more difficult to learn and to achieve well, because they may have difficulty simultaneously maintaining their own argument and taking into account the works of others. Later in the course we provide exercises to help you explore some of the ways academic writers present and support their arguments, and deal in more detail with key issues of effective source use.

Writing a first draft

Although you have a lot of reading to do, we recommend that you don't wait until you have finished reading the last article before you put pen to paper or finger to keyboard. Drafting in itself is part of the process of thinking. As E. M. Forster put it: "How can I tell what I think until I see what I say."[50] By putting your ideas down on paper, you will gain insights as to how different aspects of the question relate to each other in a way that rarely occurs simply from reading. The view that the researcher sits alone with his or her books fermenting an idea for an article until it is complete, then dashes it off on paper in a few hours is a rather naïve one. Writing is a messy process of drafting ideas, thinking about them, doing more reading, changing your mind, reorganising stuff and gradually getting nearer to the final, polished paper. Some people like to draft initially with pen and paper, while others are very comfortable getting their first thoughts down straight onto the computer; this is a matter of personal taste.

In helping gather your thoughts, probably the most important part of your paper is the introduction, because it outlines what you intend to do and why. So many students have difficulty with this crucial part of the paper that in the final section of this course we devote a whole lesson to the structure of introductions. For now it is enough to say that a well-drafted introduction can help clear your mind and enable you to see the best structure and development for your paper. It also helps you to outline *for yourself* how you will relate to the work of others, and to prevent others' research from taking over your paper. For this reason, although some writers recommend you write your introduction last, we usually suggest you draft the introduction early on, then go back and revise it when the paper is written.

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[49] Though journals do occasionally publish series of written exchanges between two academics who disagree on an issue, and of course, as we will see later, all academic debate is in some way a response to what has gone before and will in its turn evoke responses.

[50] E.M. Forster. Aspects of the Novel (1927)

Feedback and revision

Feedback from others is a core ingredient of good writing. Unless you have been told explicitly (do please check the course guidelines carefully!) that you cannot receive feedback from others, assume that you may. The Center for Academic Writing is CEU's prime source of feedback for your writing, and we are happy to see drafts in various stages: to help with writer's block, to see if you are making sense, to help with the clarity and coherence of your arguments. However, you can also get feedback on short or longer extracts from another student, especially if you agree to reciprocate and give them feedback when they ask for it. Even if you set a piece of your own writing on one side and come back to it two days later, you will see it with a clearer eye, particularly if you have been doing more reading in the interim.

Feedback can prompt various kinds of revision. The easiest is the sort that says "you need to work on your prepositions." That doesn't take much time at all. It's much more difficult to respond to comments like "I don't really understand your point here" or "I don't see a logical flow to your argument." This sort of feedback forces you (if you are serious) to get inside the reader's head and try to understand why your text, which works for you, fails for them. How can you make them see the logical flow that for you is obvious? How can you make the point clearer than it already is, especially if you don't know exactly what it is that makes it unclear? One study on student writing found that many students see their written texts as "inspired, unrevisable speech."[51] Often, the written text feels as if it is somehow set in stone, and actually "re-visioning" and rethinking it at the macro level are so challenging that you may feel that the effort involved is not worth the returns in improved grades. The CAW tries to help with this, of course.

Time management

Many CEU students have said with hindsight that they never expected to be so busy. Reading loads will likely keep you up at least until the early hours of the morning, and the reading will not slacken off when you have papers to write. Writing a good paper is a process of reading, thinking, more reading, drafting, rethinking, revising, more reading, and so on. And you may be juggling four or five such papers at once. Setting time aside for writing, even when you have a lot of reading, can be a valuable strategy.

Final comments

Writing research papers is a key part of learning for the 'junior researcher' and this part of the course is designed to help you acquire this skill, addressing the use of sources, the structure of introductions and conclusions, and other important issues. Effective argument must be employed at a variety of levels, and carefully planned development can help you to present and support your claims. By choosing the right kind of evidence that will convince your reader and presenting claims and evidence in a smoothly flowing but clearly structured text that your readers can easily follow, you increase the chances that they will accept your argument.

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[51]Sommers, cited in Gottschalk and Hjorthshoj. *The Elements of Teaching Writing.* Bedford St. Martins (2004).

For many students, the introduction is the most difficult part of the research paper to write. This is perhaps because it requires you to have a clear idea of the purpose of your paper, how it stems from previous research in the field, and how it contributes to that field. As we discussed earlier, this contribution is often quite small, it will be there, and it has to be made clear. In short, the introduction is the part of your paper where you have the opportunity to orient readers to your research, and persuade them that the work you are doing is justified. The purpose of this reading is to inform you of the choices you need to make when writing your own introductions. While there are certainly differences across (and even within) disciplines when it comes to organizing introductions, we believe the advice presented here can be adapted for most of the research papers you will write in the coming year.

Many research papers follow the pattern **'situation-problem-solution-evaluation'**.[52] They describe a *situation*, identify something in that situation that is *problematic*, discuss a suggestion as to how this situation might be *solved*, and finally *evaluate* whether this solution is effective or not. The introduction to this kind of paper shows the main features of this problem solving. First, in order to be able to understand a problem, readers need to know the situation in which that problem has arisen, both in terms of background and in terms of the literature that has been published on it. Having reviewed this background and literature on the situation, the writer is then in a position to identify the specific problem the paper addresses. In this way, the first few sentences of a research paper introduction typically move from the *general* situation to the *specific* topic the author will focus on. They *situate* the research, typically by mentioning what has or what has not been done, in order prepare the reader for the thesis statement which identifies the aim(s) of the paper, i.e. how the paper will solve the problem that has been identified.

This sentence (or sentences) is known as the thesis statement because it states the thesis – the main argument – of the whole paper. It is what holds the paper together, a generative and cohesive force that shapes and interconnects your paper at all levels. In its ideal formulation, it is a crystal-clear expression of purpose that acts as the center and navigational force throughout the course of writing your paper. Of course a thesis statement often raises in the reader's mind the question 'how will this be done?' For this reason, most introductions end with a brief summary of the methodology used, as well as an outline of the structure of the paper. In this way, the author has successfully introduced readers to the topic, the aims, the methods, as well as the structure of the paper, so that they are well prepared to understand what follows.

John Swales, an applied linguist, researched the structure of academic research writing by analyzing the introductions of hundreds of published journal articles (mostly in the hard sciences). Table 1 shows his findings. There are clear similarities between Swales's model and the situation-problem-solution model. His description of how writers *establish the subject* is very similar to the 'situating' described above in order to show the importance of the topic and introduce and evaluate the existing literature. The review of the literature is important (Swales sees it as obligatory) because it serves as a bridge into the second stage, which identifies the *research problem*. Finally Swales shows how writers typically propose a solution to the research problem by presenting the purpose(s) of the research, the questions the paper addresses, the methods used, the principle findings and the structure of the paper. Swales's model has been adapted here to fit the needs of students writing research papers at CEU. Although the '*moves*' are numbered, this does not mean that that you necessarily have to

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[52] This pattern was originally presented as common for many types of texts by Michael Hoey in *On the Surface of Discourse* (London: Allen & Unwin, 1984).

organize your introduction in this way; it does, however, act as a useful guide to the writer who wants to write an academically acceptable introduction.

Table 1– Moves in Introductions[53]

Move 1: Establishing the Subject
• by showing that the research area is important, central, interesting, problematic, or relevant in some way
• by moving from general to specific
• by introducing & reviewing relevant items of previous research[*]
Move 2: Identifying a Research Problem
• by presenting reasons for conducting the research
• by indicating a gap or by adding to what is known[*]
Move 3: Presenting the Present Work
• by stating the purpose of the paper[*]
• by presenting research questions
• by stating the argument of the paper
• by introducing hypotheses
• by announcing principal findings
• by noting the value of the present research
• by describing the methodology used
• by indicating the structure of the research paper

[*]*Swales found that most writers include these parts of moves in the introduction; for this reason he labeled them "obligatory". He considered the others "optional".*

A Note on Citations in Introductions

As can be seen in Table 1, Swales found that citations are an essential part of the move establishing the subject of a research paper. While some writers in particular disciplines avoid citations altogether in introductions, in our experience this is not typical, and we encourage you to introduce and discuss previous research before moving on to the problem you are going to address. Swales also found that writers use citations when identifying a problem or presenting the present work, but here it did not constitute an essential part of the move.

When to Write the Introduction

Because the introduction is difficult to write, some students leave it till last. The danger with this is that you may then lack a clear idea of your purpose, and write the rest of the paper without knowing where you are heading. We highly recommend that you at least devote some time to producing a working draft of your introduction at the beginning. Students often have difficulty writing sections when they do not know the purpose this section has within the overall scheme of the paper. Drafting a working introduction, with a clear working thesis statement, can help you avoid many later

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[53] This has been adapted from the work of John Swales. See e.g. the chapter "The Research Article Revisited" in *Research Genres: Exploration and Applications* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004), 207-40.

problems and give direction to your writing. It will pay dividends later because you will write the rest of the paper knowing what you are trying to do. Of course, your working introduction and working thesis statement will need to be revised as you work on the paper. The introduction should also be the last section that you reread before completion, to make sure it fully reflects the completed paper.

Features of an Introduction

Listed below are many of the features that appear in introductions. Some are more common than others.[54]

1. a statement of the importance of the subject (e.g. the degree of attention that has recently been given to it, the seriousness of a problem).

2. mention of previous (recent) work on the subject or of the absence of such work.

3. justification for dealing with the subject.

4. a statement of the writer's objective in the present work (the thesis statement).

5. a statement of limitations to the scope of the present work.

6. brief details of different parts of the main body of the work and its structure

7. mention of differing viewpoints on the subject.

8. the principal findings of the research.

9. a description of the research methodology.

10. a definition.

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[54] John Trzeciak and Susan Mackay. *Study Skills for Academic Writing*. (London: Prentice Hall, 1994), 75.

Checklist for Evaluating your Thesis Statement

Check the sample thesis statement (TS) below against the questions that follow and see if it needs improvement.

Sample TS:

This thesis will attempt to discuss some aspects of the Mongolian 1992 constitution.

1. Does your TS state the ultimate goal of your thesis, ie. what you hope to achieve?

The sample TS is weak because it only tells what will be happening during the thesis, not what will be achieved. The *purpose* of your research is not to discuss, but to use discussion (or better, analysis or evaluation) as a way of deciding how things are or what should be done - it is a *means*, not an *end*.

Revision 1:

This thesis will attempt to *evaluate the effectiveness* of some aspects of the Mongolian 1992 constitution.

2. Does your TS precisely define the scope of your research?

Again, the sample TS is weak because it only tells us of the intent to look at some aspects of the constitution - we don't know which ones. Always try to define as narrowly as possible the aspects of the research topic that you will consider, so that both you and your reader know what you are doing and what you are *not* doing.

Revision 2:

This thesis will attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the Mongolian 1992 constitution, focusing specifically on the legitimacy of the constitution making process and the question of constitutional continuity.

3. Do you avoid hedges that cast into question your competence as a researcher?

Hedges (cautious language) are often used in academic writing so as not to imply that the author has found the only correct answer but is rather offering a valid interpretation; however, the place for hedges is not in your thesis statement. Do not tell the reader that you will '*try*', '*attempt*', or '*make efforts*' to do something; simply tell them you will do it. They can judge for themselves how successful you are; there is no need to damp down their expectations at the outset by implying you will not succeed.

Revision 3:

This thesis will ~~attempt to~~ evaluate the effectiveness of the Mongolian 1992 constitution, focusing specifically on the legitimacy of the constitution making process and the question of constitutional continuity.

4. Another point to Consider : Indication of Findings

Sometimes it is appropriate to give an indication of findings in a TS. Go to the library and check out Gender Studies theses or journals in your area to see how common this is. Below is an example.

Revision 4:

This thesis will evaluate the effectiveness of the Mongolian 1992 constitution, focusing specifically on the legitimacy of the constitution making process and the question of constitutional continuity. *It*

will be shown that the roots of the present political crisis lie in the failure of the powers involved in the process to ensure a legitimate constitution.

The conclusion is where you "step back and take a broad look at your findings and your study as a whole."[55] There is a close relationship (shown in Figure 1 below) between the introduction, which goes from general (your field) to specific (your research), and the conclusion, which goes from the specific back to the general. To some extent, the conclusion acts as a mirror which inversely reflects the introduction. If the introduction focuses your research, the conclusion gives a broader image, which repositions the reader back into the context of the wider world, and explains what effect your research will have.

Figure 1. The Relationship between the Introduction and the Conclusion.[56]
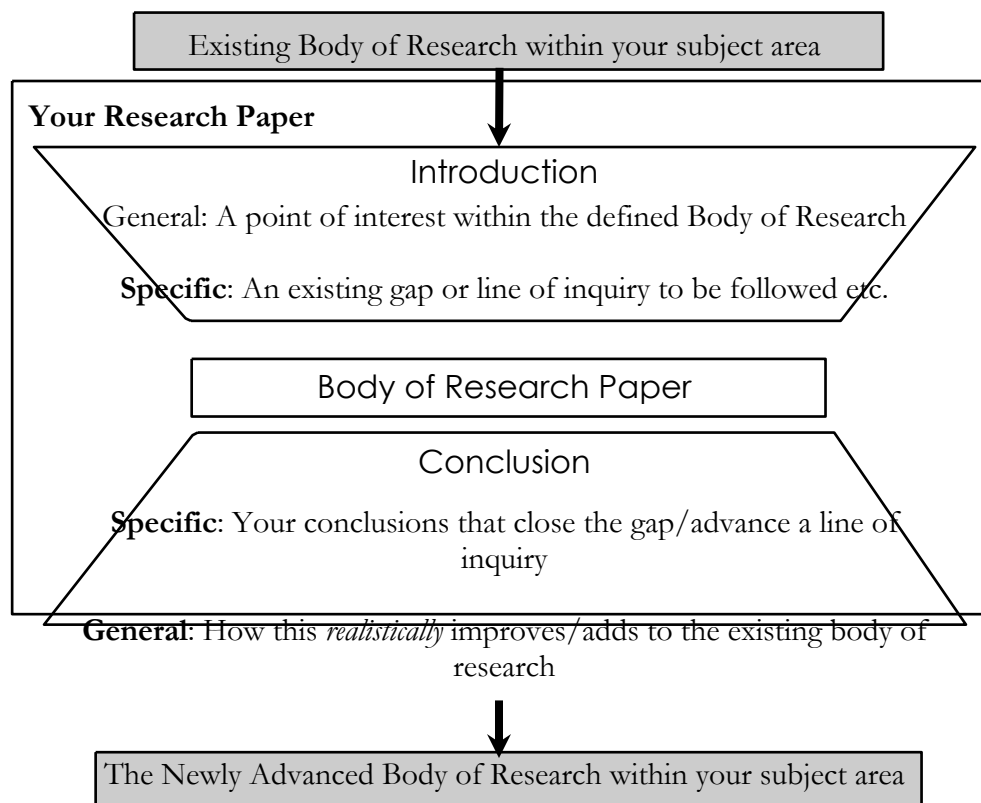
Looking at the structure of conclusions in the social sciences, Lewin et al. emphasise the importance of the conclusion or 'discussion' section in promoting the value of the research carried out. [57] This approach is perhaps encouraged by the APA Publication Manual, the authoritative citation style guide for most social sciences, which urges writers to answer in the conclusion questions such as:

- Why is this problem important?

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[55] Robert Weissberg and Suzanne Buker, *Writing up research: Experimental research report writing for students of English* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1990), 160 in John Swales and Christine Feak, *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*, (MI, University of Michigan Press, 1994), 196.

[56] Adapted from John Swales and Christine Feak, *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*, (MI, University of Michigan Press, 1994), 157.

[57] Swales 2004, 234-5

- What larger issues, those that transcend the particulars of the subfield, hinge on the findings?

- If the findings are valid and replicable, what real-life phenomena might be explained or modelled by the results?[58]

While you may feel that research papers you write at CEU will not make a great contribution to the field, it is worth noting that published research articles do tend to address and answer these questions.

Some other points to check for

The Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) Center for Language and Educational Technology[59] offer some further general recommendations for writing conclusions, which we have adapted slightly to suit the needs of CEU students.

- **Keep it short and avoid going into detail —** The conclusion section as a whole should be relatively short, certainly shorter than the introduction. Avoid unnecessary detail, especially in the first part where you report your achievements. The conclusion presents the big picture, not the details

- **Don't try to hide the complexities of the situation —** The difficulties or limitations of your research should not be ignored. Problems, drawbacks etc. can be included in a summary in your conclusion section as a way of qualifying your conclusions and possibly indicating future areas for research

- **Do make sure your conclusion agrees with your introduction —** The aim of your research may change slightly as you learn more about the subject, so that your findings no longer exactly match what you set out to find. This is not a problem unless you forget to go back and rewrite your original objectives in your introduction so that they accurately reflect what you have actually found or done.

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[58] *APA Publication Manual,* American Psychological Association: Washington DC, 2002

[59] Adapted by the Center for Academic Writing from the website of the Asian Institute of Technology Center for Language and Educational Technology. http://www.clet.ait.ac.th/EL21CONC.HTM#problems – (04 August 2005)

What should be in a conclusion?

1. a brief summary of the main body of the text

2. a restatement of the writer's thesis from the introduction

3. reference to other sources

4. mention of problems or limitations of the work

5. deductions based on what was discussed in the main body

6. suggestions for future research

7. predictions based on what was discussed in the main body

8. implications of the main findings

9. practical recommendations

THE TOPIC

What is your topic? Why are you interested in this topic? Why is this topic important in the field?

HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL CONTEXT

What specific background can your topic be contextualized in?

PREVIOUS WORK ON THE TOPIC

What have you read on this topic? (and by whom?) Of the authors you have read, who are the key researchers?

SITUATING YOURSELF IN THE FIELD AND FRAMING YOUR WORK

What has not been addressed in the work of previous researchers? How can you extend the previous research to a new area? What previous work might be challenged? Can the previous researches be synthesized in any way? What will be your theoretical framework?

RESEARCH QUESTION(S)

What questions arise from your situating yourself in the field?

SOURCES AND METHODOLOGY (LIMITATIONS)

What sources will you use and how will you approach them to answer your research question(s)?

Who else has used these methods? Why are these the best methods to answer the question(s)?

HYPOTHESES AND CONTRIBUTION

What are your tentative answers to your research questions? How will your research contribute to the field?

One of the most important areas that you need to clarify from the start is how your work will contribute to the existing body of literature in the area that you have selected. Establishing that you are familiar with the work done in this area also shows that your work has academic credibility. To do this you will need to review relevant books and articles by other authors to establish what has already been done, and then indicate how your paper adds to or goes beyond this. Research has suggested that across the disciplines the introduction needs to contain a short, concise review of the most relevant literature, while a more detailed literature review may often be found in the first section of the body. However, the writer may, of course, wish to introduce the literature throughout their work rather than in one concrete section. In addition to where the review can be placed, there may of course be several groups of literature that you will need to survey. It might, for example, be appropriate to analyse the different approaches or methods used in addressing the problem you have identified, there could be considerable academic debate over the definition of a key term which you wish to employ, or several parallel studies which suggest possible plausible results which you might use as hypotheses for your selected case.

The literature review, wherever it comes, therefore serves several fundamental purposes.[60] It provides an *overview* of the existing literature. This may be a context-historical or contemporary overview of the topic, seeking to group literature by approach or topic, often *clustering* writers (and mentioning the writer's own work, self-mention). Indeed, a survey of faculty members revealed that students' literature reviews are "[n]ot sufficiently theme-based, not structured according to the issues, insufficiently informed by the research hypotheses, merely a list, boringly chronological, or just describe each piece of literature one by one without adequate linkage" (Swales and Lindemann 2002: 107).

Moving through this literature allows the writer to demonstrate their *academic credentials* as someone knowledgeable and therefore familiar with the area of research they are working on. This grouped literature shows an awareness and understanding of what the writer perceives as *relevant* theories and *relevant* empirical research studies in the field. The reader who is familiar with this research area will be looking for some of these names and will acknowledge that the writer knows the field.

Reviewing the literature allows the writer to *position* or *situate* their work in relation to this already existing literature. It also allows the writer to *identify* and *select* theories and concepts relevant for the current research, or to identify aspects from previous work which are applicable to their own. Ultimately it provides a series of justifications - the *justification* for your thesis, but it might also provide your *understanding* of its key terms as a result of reviewing possible definitions and the *justification* for the choice of approach

The Structure of the Literature Review

Writers usually begin by establishing the field they are going to investigate. This tends to move from a more general, wider view of the research area to the specific area you wish to focus on. Expressions such as the following identify this purpose:

> 'Previous literature has looked at/concentrated on/focussed on ...'
>
> 'Early research investigated ...'
>
> 'Substantial work has been carried out on ...'

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[60] This list builds on work taken from a presentation given by Diana Ridley, EATAW 2003, entitled "The PhD Literature Review: A Journey of Discovery"

'Work done by … (was) built on …'

Writers often then continue with a historical analysis of previous work, or a comparative analysis of earlier research. Although you are covering information that has been done before, you are not simply reporting it. Typical complaints from professors and instructors about the literature review include "[n]ot sufficiently theme-based, not structured according to the issues, insufficiently informed by the research hypotheses, merely a list, boringly chronological, or just describe each piece of research one by one without adequate linkage." (Ibid) The literature review should distinguish your thoughts from assessments made by others. It is this whole process of revealing limitations or recognising the possibility of taking research further, or identifying the applicability of previous research/methods which allows you to formulate and justify your [own] aims.[61] What is important in this section is therefore to give an *overview* which is not purely descriptive, but which analyses the work done indicating strengths and weaknesses of other work in relation to your proposed thesis. The literature review therefore often ends by reiterating the justification and/or the importance of your research.

Questions to Consider When Writing the Literature Review

- Does my review start from a clear problem/puzzle that I have identified and want to resolve?
- Does my review show *that* and *how* I seek to build on and extend the existing debate?
- Do I make explicit the relationship between the literature I've chosen to review and the problem I've formulated?
- Do I structure my review by issue, not by author, leading paragraphs with issues not author names?
- Do I relate articles I review to each other and to my puzzle, not just list/summarize them?
- Do I discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the cited research?
- Am I marshalling the work of others towards my own enquiry, or is the literature controlling me?
- Does my review show how previous research has *not* answered my question?

Justifying your research

The justification for your thesis is absolutely crucial and provides the essential information that allows your reader to see why you have embarked on your research. There are several ways to justify your research; you can

- indicate that previous literature has concentrated on other similar areas but has, as yet, not considered the particular aspect that you wish to contribute to; you are therefore pointing out a **'gap'** in the existing body of literature;

- explain what previous authors have done, and then '**extend'** this previous research by building on what has been done;

- describe what has already been covered and point out a weakness in the established field that you wish to '**question.'**

The justification is often indicated by expressions such as:
'Previous work has failed to …'
'The absence of work on …'
'There is a need to build on / establish / review / look at this area to …'
'Previous models have therefore … rather than…'

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[61] The University of Queensland, W*riting The Literature Review* (INTERNET) Available on World Wide Web, URL: http://www.ems.uq.edu.au/phdweb/phlink18.html (Last accessed 4th January, 2002)

'Several questions therefore remain unanswered.'
'This model has not been applied to…'
'It is therefore vital that…'
'Little work has therefore investigated whether…'
The justification naturally answers the question *why* you are writing the thesis.

Research has also been carried out into student use of citation in thesis writing more broadly. One such work looked at high- and low-rated theses and analysed how students approached their use of sources. Petric found that there were key differences in how critical students were in their use of sources, with students who used more sources, and were more evaluative in terms of how they employed those sources receiving higher grades (Petric 2007: 238-253). Naturally other factors may have affected those grades, but this research also clearly suggests readers are looking for and appreciating student voice in their work.

One way to clearly express an opinion when reviewing the literature is through the use of reporting verbs or adverbs found with them. While *points out*, *argues* or *suggests* are purely descriptive, "*As* the author points out, the author *effectively* argues, or *persuasively* suggests" clearly reflects the writer's opinion. Verbs such as *claim*, *attempt* or *try* suggest that the author fails or at least opens an opportunity for the writer to attack that particular work. Meanwhile *shows* or *demonstrates* clearly reflect agreement with the source cited.

The literature review is therefore an argument which justifies but also identifies how your research is going to develop previous literature. Your contribution may be expressed in quite subtle terms, such as expressing difference or departure from previous work or offer an alternative. Whatever form this takes, as a researcher you are expected to make this much more evident and more explicitly than an academic needs to in a peer reviewed journal. This means that while you may not always find good clear reviews in journal articles because the author can presume so much more as an expert, *you do need* to pay much more attention to this element in your writing, particularly with the thesis/dissertation.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

CAW Consultation Policy[62]

A consultation is a meeting between a student and a writing instructor, planned in advance, on specific aspects of a student's writing. In discussion with the student, an instructor will work with the student in order to concentrate on those areas of writing that could be improved.

While an instructor advises about possible changes to the writing, a student is ultimately responsible for making decisions regarding the final version they will submit.

Students have found the opportunity to discuss their writing with an instructor over the course of the academic year to be one of the most valuable components of the Center's academic support.

Writing Center Consultation Policy

1. Consultation services are available for all students of CEU, as well as faculty and staff. You can arrange a consultation using the Writing Center on-line, or by contacting an instructor by email.

2. As well as assignments set as part of Writing Center courses, you may consult with a writing instructor on any work for CEU, including but not necessarily limited to: assignments given as part of your coursework (unless indicated by the department that no assistance should be given); articles for publication; career-oriented writing, such as letters of application for further study, CVs or statements of purpose.

3. The purpose of a consultation is to help you to become a better writer by discussing your general concerns about writing, as well as specific papers you are working on.

4. The purpose of the consultation is neither to correct nor proof-read your paper for you, but in discussion with you, to identify ways in which the writing could be improved.

5. Send your writing to your instructor or give them a hard copy 24 hours in advance.

6. Consultations are planned as 30-minute sessions. For this reason, you need to decide what can be covered in this time and let your instructor know this in advance.

7. We offer each student a maximum of two consultations per week. In busy periods, instructors' schedules may fill up very quickly, please plan ahead.

8. We believe that signing up with the same instructor builds a productive relationship. If your usual instructor is unavailable, you can arrange a consultation with another instructor.

9. Instructors are specialists in academic writing. Our role is not to suggest appropriate grades for a piece of work, or to evaluate the suitability of assignments set by faculty. Where questions arise about task or content, we will encourage you to seek clarification from the person assigning the task.

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[62] From the Center's website: http://caw.ceu.hu/node/1803

Academic Writing in English and Other Languages:

YOUR EXPERIENCE(S)[63]

Recent research has found that certain aspects of academic writing in English may be different from some other languages. Consider the recommendations below. Have you ever been told to do this when writing in English?
As far as you know, is this also the case for academic writers in your native language?

You should . . .	Have you been advised to do this when writing in English? Yes/No	Is this also the case in academic writing in your language? Yes/No
1. be very explicit about the organization of your paper, saying what you will do in each part.	_____	_____
2. stick to the main subject of your paper and avoid all digressions.	_____	_____
3. write short sentences.	_____	_____
4. write short paragraphs.	_____	_____
5. avoid using "I" (the first person singular).	_____	_____
6. explicitly mention the weaknesses of, or gaps left by previous articles, in order to justify your work.	_____	_____
7. not mention your results in the introduction as this will take away the reader's motivation.	_____	_____
8. not use many references to the work of others as this obscures your own contribution.	_____	_____
9. emphasize recent publications when you do cite the work of others.	_____	_____

In your own language is it the responsibility of the writer to make a text clear for the reader, or is the reader responsible for understanding the text of the academic writer? Academic English is writer responsible and reader friendly, what differences does this imply in relation to your language if this is not the case?

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[63]Based on an activity in Swales and Feak (2000:16)
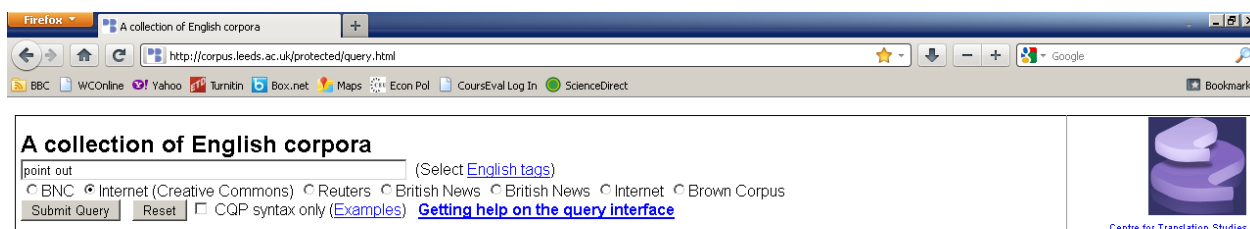
72

Using a Concordancer

One of the best ways of learning how words are used is to access a *concordancer*. A concordancer is a piece of software which searches through a large data-bank of texts (known as a *corpus*) to find examples of how native writers have used a particular word or phrase. Our Online Writing Resource Page contains a section with concordancers you can use to see how native speaker writers actually use a given word or phrase. Here is an example of how one concordancer works. Suppose you want to see just how the word 'point out' is used.
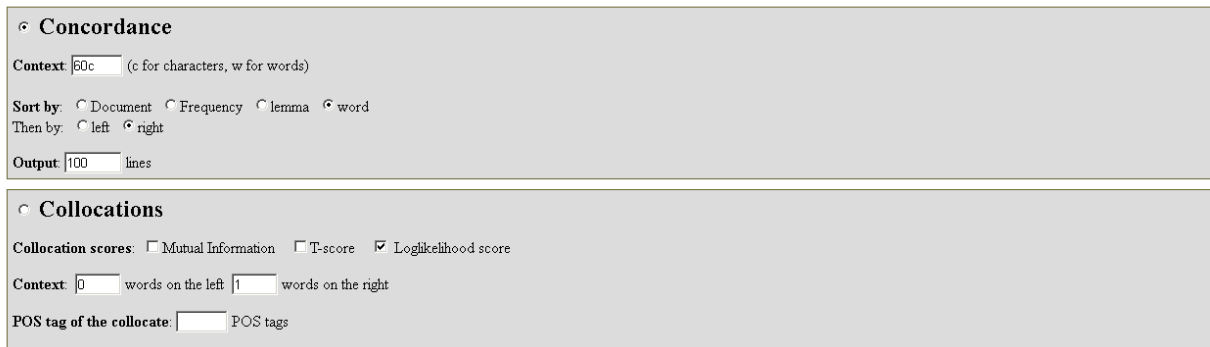
For example, go to the Leeds University collection of English corpora. The address is:

http://corpus.leeds.ac.uk/protected/query.html
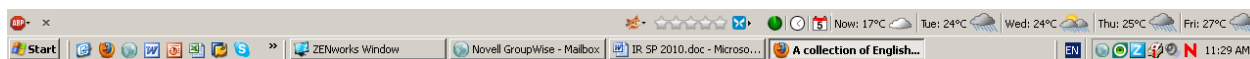
The page looks like this:

Now type the word or phrase you are looking for in the text box at the top and choose which database you want to search. The different corpora (databases) are explained at the bottom of the screen. Then click on the grey 'Submit Query' button. The concordancer will give you a list of sentence fragments like the one below:

Query Results

```
   Willebrands in 1985 was careful to point out that those Anglican
Churches
```

```
    get huffy. I'm defiantly proud to point out that I did thirteen
drafts of
   him. That's what Bob was trying to point out to me. But he was
drinking an
     Minister. During that time - they point out - the Conservative
party has
  been revealed.  Western delegations point out that Iraq has violated
the
      as we get older. Its proponents point out how difficult it is for
adults
  as in other sources) takes pains to point out that the `aura" only
[f]
        John: Yes, and I would like to point out here that the
Commissioner has
     as the Fascist press hastened to point out in the coming weeks.
One of
   language enthusiasts. They eagerly point out that the verb scran, as
in `I
Romanos, published in New Zealand, to point out that he was, when
captain not
     to secure survival. But ministers point out that he has been
prepared to
 no personal replies can be given and point out that it will not be
possible
      moral issues, perhaps I should point out that something is
either
      mentality, too. He was keen to point out he's been in management
since
     from the last century. They also point out the many inventions and
        I suppose this means that to point out that someone has
written
   sexual problems, and his colleague point out: `There is the
possibility of
  the infant. As Budman et al. (1988) point out, if one can hazard an
ideal
granting that IQ is highly heritable, point out that the 12-point
difference
    letter is first, last, and so on. Point out that Catherine has two
e's and
   the list finished, you may want to point out that there are some
words you
  as conflict theorists would further point out, restrictions were not
evenly
discounts and other promotions.  They point out that sales of big
ticket items
 [p] Smith: Well, you--you can always point out Jerusalem.  Jerusalem
is, in
this place.  This isn't fair." As you point out, this plan has a number
of
    politics.  And secondly, I should point out that despite all the
defense
recession.  One of the things that we point out in our memo is that, I
think,
```

```
        gesture. [p] Yet as the authors point out, Schmeling never once
revealed
```

The concordancer can show 100 or more examples of sentences containing the word you have chosen with a certain number of words on either side so, it can provide a much wider range of examples than a dictionary.

Concordancers can also tell you about collocation (which words most commonly go together). For example, from the example below you can see that the nouns that go together with cause are usually negative (italics added).

Collocation	Joint Freq1	Freq2	LL score
cause of	5649	4488691	4166.71
cause for	881	1562388	312.13
cause *problem*	245	87725	259.63
cause *mortality*	154	15690	257.57
cause *harm*	121	7355	233.46
cause *confusion*	85	3515	180.40
cause a	1023	3151279	165.29
cause serious	105	17144	151.12
cause *damage*	100	15147	147.61
cause severe	82	11937	122.63
cause *trouble*	67	10040	99.23
cause *cancer*	92	36436	92.94

The concordancer can help with other areas too. You can see the punctuation associated with certain words, and the position that this word usually occupies within a sentence. A word like 'however' is normally followed by a comma, and, although it often begins a sentence, it is most often found just after the very beginning of a sentence. The concordancer is a useful reference tool and we recommend you make use of it.

As well as the Leeds University collection, on our webpage there is also a link to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) at Brigham Young University in the US. COCA is a very extensive corpus and the best available for American English. After you have used it a couple of times it requires registration, but there is no charge for this.

Valid Arguments?[64]

Consider the arguments below and decide whether they are valid. If not, can you identify the fault in the logic or what is missing?

1. Laissez-faire capitalism will ultimately ensure the survival of the most financially efficient system; after all, as Bill Gates argued, if you leave the market to sort itself out, it will.

2. If we allow human cell cloning, it is simply a matter of time before we see hospitals legally offering couples the chance to create the 'perfect' baby.

3. Since the beginning of the immigration crisis, more than 300 people have died as a result of terror attacks in Europe.

4. The increase in sexually transmitted diseases and unwanted pregnancies can be traced directly to the increase of sex education in schools.

5. Twelve months maternity leave should be compulsory for all mothers. If women do not have the time and energy to care for their children properly, the next generation will suffer.

6. There's no point in listening to Marina's arguments in favour of abortion: she's an atheist so she's hardly likely to be concerned with the sanctity of life.

Micro-level Argumentation

Consider what the text below is about. If you have problems understanding, try discussing the meaning with another student. Decide together what the problem is that prevents you from understanding.

> A newspaper is better than a magazine, and a park is a more suitable place than a busy street, though in any case you need plenty of room. At first you will almost certainly find it more helpful to run than to walk, and you may have to try several times before succeeding. While there is a certain amount of skill involved, it is easy enough to learn, even for small children. Once you have got the hang of it, complications are minimal and it can be very peaceful, though too many people doing the same thing can cause problems at times.[65]

---

[64] Adapted from *Stephen's Guide to the Logical Fallacies*. Available at URL: http://www.datanation.com/fallacies/ (last accessed July 2, 2003) and from *The Nizkor Project.* Available at URL: http://www.nizkor.org/features/fallacies/ (last accessed July 2, 2003)

[65] Adapted from Klein, M. "Context and Memory" in *Activities handbook for the teaching of psychology*, Eds. L. T. Benjamin, Jr. and K. D. Lowman (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 1981), 83

Working in Writing Groups

What is a Writing Group?

A Writing Group (WG) is a community of 2-4 students (ideal number is 3) giving and receiving feedback on their seminar papers according to certain criteria set by the instructor and the writing group members. These criteria include the purpose of the group with individual agendas and expectations to harmonize; some rules concerning attendance, frequency, deadlines etc; the structure of the meetings entailing time management, written and oral tasks before, during and after the sessions (comments, reading aloud, follow-up feedback and updates) and leadership if applicable; as well as the type, criteria and process of feedback.

Sample Writing Group Rationales

WG1

Purpose: Developing a trusting relationship of commitment and evaluation toward our own and each other's work.

Expectations:

To set up a disciplined mutual practice of time management and meeting deadlines without rush.

To provide a critical eye for each other's work and constructive feedback on how to proceed.

To encourage each other to conduct research and writing intentionally and with responsibility toward a second reader and a commitment to honoring their work.

Meetings: Once a month in the beginning of the semester, biweekly when workload is more urgent and toward finals. Duration of meetings depends on the assignments being reviewed and the productivity of the meeting (between 1-2 hours).

Logistics: We will set up a google drive to exchange the documents being reviewed up to one day before the meeting. We will print each other's assignments and take some time in the beginning of the meeting to read them and make some remarks and notes, then we will discuss them orally with each other. The person whose work is being reviewed must listen to the feedback and critique silently before they can respond. The response will include clarification if any misunderstandings occurred and further questions to use the feedback constructively. If further interest and revision is due, we can choose to exchange edited versions via the Google drive.

WG2

Our purpose:

To inspire each other with new ideas

To help with deadlines and concentration

To develop team-work skills

To help each other in polishing essays and other works for submission. Then, collaborate for better thesis writing.

Our methods:

Peer-to-peer commenting

Critique is welcome! Recommendations on format, structure, language, ideas are welcome, too

Suggesting and commenting in online documents – each writing will have separate online word document prepared by the author and well structured for comments and discussion. Such documents are open only in a suggestion mode (not editing), so the author keepts track on all changes

The author initiates a meeting in person according to agreed dates

Facebook chat – for operational and organizational communication, emergent ideas and links etc. The discussion about writings and topics is kept in online documents moderated by the author

Inspirational drinking (a very innovative method)

For short questions (like 100-word descriptions) it may be short meetings after mandatory classes, but for term papers and thesis-related materials we need to meet for 1,5-2 hours

Equal commitment to the group work.

Regularity:

Meet in person every 2-3 weeks depending on schedule for submitting the papers.

Online comments – if we agree in time

<div align="center">

Text for student critique

</div>

Pornography and Feminism: the case against censorship

Gillian Rodgerson and Elizabeth Wilson

Members of Feminists Against Censorship take Moore's argument further by suggesting that there is no way of avoiding the anti-feminist use of anti-pornography legislation, which might lead to the 'policing' of diverse sexualities.

In recent years, the issue of pornography has engendered an intense debate in the feminist community. Dismissed by some as diversionary, it is a debate whose stakes, we feel, are high. Will feminism, having achieved some gains, capitulate to conservative forces, or will it continue to take a stand for the liberation of women in all domains, including the difficult and contradictory domain of sexual expression? We are still asking in the mid-eighties what *do* women want, and the answer is that women have multiple desires and goals. We want to be valued equally with men as earners, but we don't want to contribute to the pollution of the planet and the exploitation of other human beings. We want to be safe from attack and abuse, in our private lives as well as in the public sphere, but we don't want that safety at the cost of challenge, risk, exploration and pleasure. Safety and adventure represent conflicting demands: the relationship between the two, and how to negotiate it, is a key issue in the current debate [66] (Caught Looking: *Feminism, Pornography and Censorship*).

What divided the American feminist community in the mid-eighties divides us in Britain today. Attempts are being made, in the name of feminism, to whip up public feeling against pornography and add to the laws that restrict its production and distribution. The other sides of feminism are in danger of being submerged. The exploration of sexual possibilities, which has been at times painful but at times immensely liberating, is condemned as a luxury that we are too embattled to afford. The grand project of changing basic structures of power gives way to the short-sighted expedient of clapping handcuffs on what anti- pornography feminists regard as the most excessive manifestations of male power. The long efforts to understand the complexities of patriarchal culture and then to challenge and change it get short-circuited by an approach that simply takes up one side of a polarized argument within and outside feminism - a side which has allies among reactionary forces, and which has lost sight of the wider aims of feminism. [...] It is clear, then, from a glance at the history of pornography that, until feminism entered the debate, pornography and censoriousness were an inseparable couple. All our definitions of pornography depended upon this; an essential ingredient of pornography was the desire to shock, to cross the boundaries, to explore forbidden zones. Repressive sexual morality always tends to foster and feed its own 'worst enemies' in this way.

Into this traditional ritual of laws and law-breakers, feminism has tried to intrude with completely new considerations. Feminism has wanted to sidestep the question of the boundaries of sexual decency and focus on the fact that most pornography is produced for heterosexual men, that it consists of masculine sexual fantasies, mainly about women. Some feminist writers have gone so far as to claim that pornography lies at the very heart of women's oppression, either because, as Robin Morgan put it, 'pornography is the theory - rape is the practice of male domination, or because 'pornography is violence against women', as Andrea Dworkin says. Such writers have tended to paint a very lurid picture of pornography, as if it were all images of rape, sadism and degradation in which women are the victims.

Anyone can see that much pornography represents a sexuality in which women are passive and men active, and women are desired and men desire. Pornography does contain stereotypes of women

which feminism wishes to challenge. In this respect it is similar to many other genres, from Renaissance painting to *Vogue* magazine, which have been subjected to feminist critiques. This is not to say that pornography is good, simply that most of it is no worse than a great deal of the rest of the patriarchal and misogynist culture which it reflects.

If pornography is defined, as the Williams Committee defined it, as representations that are both sexually explicit and have as their function the sexual arousal of their audience, then it is not necessarily oppressive to women. Indeed, many feminists have wanted to challenge the old taboos about sexual material, to talk more frankly about women's bodies - and men's - and to explore what we find arousing. It is certainly possible to imagine a pornography for women, though no one could guarantee that it would never be used by men in a misogynist way.

Those feminists who recently have been arguing in favour of censorship have done so on the basis of a new definition of pornography which identifies it with sexually explicit images of degradation and violence against women. This was the approach used in the Minneapolis Ordinance in the United States and it was adopted in 1990 by Dawn Primarolo MP, for her Location of Pornographic Materials Bill. Clause 3 of this bill reads:

> 3(1) Pornographic material means film and video and any printed matter which, for
>
> the purposes of sexual arousal or titillation, depicts women, or parts of women's
>
> bodies, as objects, things or commodities, or in sexually humiliating or degrading
>
> poses or being subjected to violence.

3(2) The reference to women in sub-section (1) above includes men.

The justification for such formulations is the belief that sexually arousing images have a special efficacy in producing violence against women. (Sub-section 3(2) was added only from a concern, misguided in this context, for gender equality.) As we shall show later, there is no evidence for this belief. Is there an unacknowledged reason why these campaigners have focused on sexually degrading images and ignored the myriad forms of non-sexual degradation? Is the underlying reason that they themselves feel revulsion at the more sexually explicit images, or is it that they believe that a campaign against pornography can gain wider support in a way that no other recent feminist cause has done? The problem is that many women feel very ambivalent about pornography, welcoming images we find erotic but being quite disturbed by others. In a society where sex is so freighted with implications of nonconformity and disorder, it is difficult for women to express our pro-sex feelings in public. It is much easier to express the other side of the ambivalence: the disapproval. This has traditional respectability on its side and so is more likely to find a public voice and public support. Pornography is an area where there will be widespread support for further control, but for reasons that are very foreign to feminism.

The pro-censorship, anti-pornography feminists are plugging into a pre-feminist debate, although they claim to have gone beyond it. They are against degrading images of women, or images they consider to be degrading. But their allies are against sexually explicit images of any kind and against any material that aims to be sexually arousing. As Feminists Against Censorship we wish to challenge and to question this equation of the sexually arousing with the degrading. Otherwise the alliance of the anti-pornography feminists with the traditional moralists may succeed in reversing many of the gains that have been made during the twentieth century.

Notes

Caught Looking, Inc (eds), Feminism, Pornography and Censorship, Seatle, WA: The Real Comet Press, 1986.
Taken from : Jackson, S. (ed.) (1993). Women's Studies. A Reader. New York : Harvester.

Locating the term 'bordertime' of Awe Ytachreč

Hemmings argues that one of the stories we tell is a reverse narrative which looks at the seventies as an era when feminism was a unity, a politicized whole with goals of social development, when it was the dreadful life of women what mattered. We should go back to those 'good old days' from the apolitical, inward-looking present of feminist theories. I recognized this pattern in one comment of Eileen Boris who gave a lecture last week: "Class returns: Home and Work in Women's and Gender History". The title suggests that feminist theory once had studied the intersectionality of gender and class, then it was dismissed or forgotten, but know forces its way back. At the beginning of her lecture Boris pointed out that there is a new phenomenon in her department of women's studies: the students don't sign up anymore to classes on transnational theory, but they express a strong interest in Marxist feminist movements. I am quite sure that this shift in the interest of the new generation of scholars in the US is influenced by the nostalgia for the seventies.

There is one concept, innocence, which is not explored in depth by Hemmings concerning the story telling about the seventies, which would explain the attraction of the narratives of return. In my view, the accounts about the seventies don't question the dominant tale about feminist history, because there is no opposition in between the two stories about that decade. Although the seventies were essentialist, claims the first, and that was bad, they had a redeeming feature: they were unaware of it, or in other words they were innocent. The second tale highlights the innocence of the decade, that's why I would argue that there is a shift in focus in the two narratives but there is no contradiction between them. Innocence is the concept, in my opinion, what also moves the binaries Hemmings lists (practice-theory, activist-professional, world-text), and the preaching tone of the citations not only creates a narrative of loss, but a 'narrative of loss of innocence'.

The influence of the storytelling in our present is significant not only to understand why those students in California University express so much interest in Marxist feminist theory –contradictory enough but it is a kind of lost Paradise--, but to see how the binaries created by the dominant narratives influence our life as scholars and as activists.

Women as Biological Reproducers of the Nation

Yuval-Davis (1997) and Bock (1983) give accounts of the ways in which biological reproduction is crucial to the idea of 'the nation' and how women are 'naturally' put at the centre of this discourse, both practically and conceptually. Although one might argue that women naturally inhabit this centre, merely due to biology, it is clear that men are also essential to reproduction and hence could be targeted just as well. The focus on women here shows the dialectical intersection between different systems of domination: sexism, nationalism and racism.

This becomes especially clear when engaging with Germany's past: the Nazi regime was notoriously sexist and (of course) racist. Eugenics, the science of racism and sexism so to say, refers to a nation's 'quality' i.e. to reproduce only good Germany and was hence crucial to the ways in which reproduction featured in the Nazi regime. 'Biologizing' social hierarchies through the "science" of Eugenics was hugely successful already before Hitler made an appearance in German politics, and in fact kept to do so even after him (Yuval-Davis, 1997).

Bock (1983) clearly shows the ways in which sex and race intersect and influence each other in the Nazi Eugenic policies and ideology regarding reproduction of the proper 'Aryan' nation. In addition, race and class intersect in this context, because the concept of the 'good German woman' was also dependent on her class status: poor, unmarried or women who did in other ways not conform to the ideal were seen as deficient, as "minderwertig" (literally "less worthy") and had to be barred from reproducing their "deficiency".

Nevertheless, Bock argues that the Eugenic policies implemented under Hitler, aiming at reproduction of desirable Germans and preventing "racial degeneration" (p.406) affected women of all social strata; both women within the category of "good" and "deficient" Germans. Referring to policies aimed at increasing women's reproduction, Bock (1983) mentions that the way in which women defied the ban on abortion "permit[s] conclusions that challenge claims of women's easy compliance with Nazi pronatalism." (p.411). While of course National Socialism had immense impact on all Germans and while it was a sexist ideology putting women "back on the stove", I believe that it is important to be suspicious of arguments that position Germans as unwillingly oppressed by Hitler's regime. It appears to me as quite a common tendency in much of academic German writing to position the German populace either directly or indirectly as 'victims' of the Nazis, instead of clearly stating that most of these women were in fact Nazis. Hitler was voted into office, after all and was immensely popular. In my eyes, Bock falls into this category as well, amongst others, by mentioning that women "had to accept motherhood as forced labour" (p.412). In this way it appears that women did not want to be in the role of reproducers of the nation and hence were victims of Hitler's regime. Women had a very special role within the Nazi ideology, similar to what is described by Yuval-Davis and Anthias (1989) in Woman-Nation-State or McClintock's (1993) Family Feuds: Gender, Nationalism and the Family: Women were positioned as the bearers of culture, the ones responsible for the biological and cultural reproduction as well as the re-production of boundaries and difference. Through this important task women were a crucial part of the 'Volk', a discourse that was central to the Nazi regime's popularity: "You are important for the nation, YOU are the NATION'. Women, just as well as men, were supporters of Hitler and often happily lived as reproducers of the nation. Bock (1983) clearly states that it is important to point to the ways that Nazi discourses and policies effected all women and how women resisted this directly or indirectly, it is, in my eyes just as important to show how much women were supporting and enforcing this ideology; also through the use of their own bodies.

Both Bock (1983) and 14 years later Yuval-Davis (1997), mention the ways Eugenics and its sister discourses feature in contemporary politics and ideologies. This is a very important feature of both accounts, as imagined and 'real' nations' importance does not cease in the so-called globalization age. While on the one hand borders seem to disappear, discourses of the 'nation' remain the central organizing and indentifying principles, with women's 'natural' role of its reproduction at its centre. While Yuval-Davis (1997) points to contemporary examples of three hegemonic discourses for population control, such as the 'demographic race' between Israel and Palestine as part of the idea that 'people are power' or examples of Eugenics through forced sterilization of disabled people and the most popular Malthusian discourse in which the third world's population increase is seen as one of the most important obstacles to 'development' and a threat to national security of 'less populated' rich countries (p.31). Bock (1983) refers to the concept of 'asocial', which was part of the discourse of 'unwertes Leben' still features very prominently in Germany, usually attached to individuals with immigration backgrounds. Today as during Nazi times, the concept only refers to those in lower social strata, working to produce their class location as a result of their cultural and social deficiency. This Nazi use of Eugenics was and still is combined with the idea of over-reproductivness of the asocial woman and family (especially Turkish families with many children are often ostracized and looked down upon).

While there are more overt forms in which biological reproduction features in political discourses today, especially those mentioned by Yuval-Davis (1997), these discourses can work much more subtle. Foucault's concept of bio-power is central here, as it describes the ways in which populations (as nations) are controlled as to create "greater utility, efficiency and productivity" through normalized and hence invisible ways (Howarth, 2000; p. 75). The workings of bio-power today can moreover be seen to be connected to Eugenics thinking of previous centuries (even apart from the example of Singapore mentioned by Yuval-Davis (1997)). Today, although there are few official policies regulating which women can and cannot reproduce the nation, discourses still work to fulfil the same function. For instance, the strong discourse that women should only have a child once their family is economically independent and stable relates to the notion of reproducing certain strata of society , discussions and contestation about the question of same sex parents is another case in point.

Concluding, using Foucault to analyse ways in which women are positioned as producers of the nation even outside of extreme discourses such as mentioned above, would greatly add to the elaborated accounts given by the authors. Population control is, after all, crucial to governance of states containing nation(s) and only possible through the production and reproduction of certain discourses, which almost exclusively put women and women's bodies centre stage.

References:

Floya Anthias and Nira Yuval-Davis, "Introduction." In Nira Yuval-Davis and Floya Anthias (eds.), Woman-Nation-State. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1989). pp. 6-11.

Gisela Bock, "Racism and Sexism in Nazi Germany: Motherhood, Compulsory Sterilization, and the State," Signs 8(3) (Spring, 1983): 400-421.

Anne McClintock, "Family Feuds: Gender, Nationalism and the Family," Feminist Review 44, Summer 1993: 61-80.

Howarth, " Discourse" OUP, 2000: 48-84.

Nira Yuval-Davis, "Women and the Biological Reproduction of the Nation" (Chapter 2 in Gender and Nation (New York: Routledge, 1997): 26-38.

Reading Scenarios

You have two texts to read for an upcoming class. Each is 25 pages long and you have not read either of them. You do not have a lot of time, as you have other work to prepare as well.

Discuss how you would go about your reading under the different scenarios below.

1. You find yourself in the middle of one text, and have no idea what it is about.

2. You will listen to a student presentation on the texts, and then participate in a discussion.

3. You have to give a presentation on the texts, and then lead a discussion about them.

4. You will write a reaction paper over the weekend using the two texts.

5. You find that many paragraphs contain words you don't know.

Using Sources at CEU: An Example

An excerpt from a CEU student's thesis

There is growing discussion in academic community about the declining relevance of the realist assumptions about the nature of international system and growing attention paid to different aspects of economic interdependence. I would like to compare in this essay basic points of both approaches and try to find out which one

1☞ can be better guide in contemporary international relations. It is better to start with major liberal models.

The ***sovereignty-at-bay*** model assumes that increasing economic

2☞ interdependence and technological advances in communication and transportation are <u>making the nation state an anachronism</u>. These economic and technological developments are said to have undermined the traditional economic rationale of the nation state. In the interest of world efficiency and domestic economic welfare, the national state's control over economic affairs will continually give way to the multinational corporation, to the Eurodollar market, and to other international institutions better suited to the economic needs of mankind.[1] Though the postwar world economy was primarily a creation of the US, the system has since become essentially irreversible. The interpenetration of interest across national boundaries and the recognized benefits of interdependence now cement the system together for the future. Therefore even though the power of the US and security concerns may be in relative decline, this does not portend a major transformation of the international economy and political system.[2] Economically as well as militarily in the contemporary

…

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[1] R. Gilpin. "Three Models of the Future" in Robert J. Art and Robert Jervis (Eds) *International Politics: Enduring Concepts and Contemporary Issues.* 1992: 288.
[2] Ibid, 289.

Two excerpts from the source used: Richard Gilpin's "Three Models of the Future"

The sovereignty-at-bay model

1☞ I label the first model *sovereignty at bay,* after the title of Raymond Vernon's influential book on the multinational corporation.[5] According to this view, increasing economic interdependence and technological advances in communication and transportation are making the nation state an anachronism. These economic and technological developments are said to have undermined the traditional economic rationale of the nation state. In the interest of world efficiency and domestic economic welfare, the nation state's control over economic affairs will continually give way to the multinational corporation, to the Eurodollar market, and to other international institutions better suited to the economic needs of mankind.

Perhaps the most forceful statement of the sovereignty-at-bay thesis is that of Harry Johnson—the paragon of economic liberalism. Analyzing the international economic problems of the 1970s, Johnson makes the following prediction:

> In an important sense, the fundamental problem of the future is the conflict between the political forces of nationalism and the economic forces pressing for world integration. This conflict currently appears as one between the national government and the international corporation, in which the balance

[5] Raymond Vernon, *Soverignty at Bay* (New York: Basic Books, 1971).

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of political leadership. More importantly, these goals can only be achieved, this position argues, through participation in the world economy. No government, for example, would dare shut out the multinational corporations and thereby forgo employment, regional development, or other benefits these corporations bring into countries. In short, the rise of the welfare state and the increasing sensitivity of national governments to the rising economic expectations of their societies have made them dependent upon the benefits provided by a liberal world-economic system.

2☞ In essence, this argument runs, one must distinguish between the creation of the interdependent world economy and the consequences of its subsequent dynamics.[7] Though the postwar world economy was primarily a creation of the United States, the system has since become essentially irreversible. The intermeshing of interests across national boundaries and the recognized benefits of interdependence now cement the system together for the future. Therefore, even though the power of the United States and security concerns may be in relative decline, this does not portend a major transformation of the international economy and political system.

The multinational corporation, for example, is now believed to be sufficiently strong to stand and survive on its own. The flexibility, mobility, and vast resources

Samuel Huntington, "Transnational Organizations in World Politics," *World Politics* 25 (April 1973): 361.

How the student's supervisor reacted

This was written to the student in early June:

"I am copying this note to _____ and putting what I have to say in writing because I am growing increasingly concerned about the language used in your thesis. Simply put, there are sentences using complicated phrases of recorded speech which seem to have been lifted directly from journalistic accounts made in the past. I have mentioned to you on several occasions the need to distance yourself from your sources. Please take that warning seriously. I would hate to find that you had plagiarized sections of the thesis, and (most importantly) to have to fail your paper for lacking the minimum technical requirements for graduate-level research work. Let me stress this again – please check to be sure that all direct citations (borrowings) from the source material are placed in inverted commas and properly referenced with internal citations, footnotes or endnotes. Failure to do so constitutes a clear failure to meet the technical norms for graduate level research work and could jeopardize (WILL jeopardize) your standing in the program. I am marking sample passages of what I believe to constitute excessive borrowing in the text of your essay. Please note that these samples do not constitute the whole of the problem and therefore I STRONGLY ADVISE YOU to review the whole of the text to ensure that it is technically adequate for the assignment."

This was written after the thesis was submitted:

"It is with great regret that we must recommend this thesis be given a failing grade for on the grounds of technical inadequacy – also known as plagiarism. The student was cautioned in written comments made on 11 June of the need to reference sources and to make major revisions in the structure and content of thesis. In finalizing the thesis for 14 June submission date, it would appear that the student has borrowed largely from the language of at least one (and possibly several) sources. There are many inaccurate references to the literature, many inconsistencies in the structure, content and sourcing of direct citations, and, most troubling, there is evidence that much of the language presented as the student's own is in fact borrowed without adequate attribution. Therefore we can only recommend that the thesis be given a failing grade."

Using Metadiscourse to Make Your Thesis More Readable

Look at the extracts below. What is the role of the phrases that are underlined?

Introduction⁶⁷

…in the following I will probe some of the implications of this positioning. I start with the question of 'machines moving bodies' first in relation to feminist film theory and documentary studies and second in relation to old versus new technologies. Halfway through, I want to ask what, if anything, the umbrella of the postmodern contributes to these questions of the body and the machine.

Now let me turn to the realm of critical theory, both indifferent to the literal-minded behaviourism of the conservative public discourse around sexualized images and oddly attuned to it. Although my concern here finally is neither the anti-sex Right nor the pornography industry, I want us to consider an important shift in film theory circles against the backdrop of the public discourse.

I section

In order to get some distance on this issue I want to turn to another set of questions. These are questions that arise in the consideration of an entirely different machine,…

Let me return to my original concerns having to do with the implications of arguing that the machine produces the body.

Now look at the next two sections below. Identify phrases that perform the same function as those underlined in the extracts above.

II section

As I have said, the pornographic viewing machine and the mechanical vibrator have only been brought together here to force some questions about the way machines can be said to construct bodies. My main concern has been the gender differential in sexual pleasure. But the question raised by discussions of mechanization and pleasure leads us to a much larger philosophical concern hinted at in the formulation of the question as one of how the viewing machine *makes the body*. Here I want to get at the question from yet another direction. Instead of looking back to the history of a particular pleasure instrument (and the assumptions surrounding its use), I want to look *forward* to consider how the advent of a new delivery system and mode of viewing sexualized images situates the body. But rather than an actual leap into the fray the following is intended as only a preface to a consideration in which I suggest that there might be implications for feminist 'porn studies'.

Before I take up the question of how to study internet pornography if the delivery system itself is understood as disembodying to begin with, I want to reiterate one more time the problem I find with the postmodern formula.

Final section

I never intended to let the subject of vibrators take over this discussion of the theoretical question of moving picture machines and the bodily realities they do or not produce. This question, I maintain, is
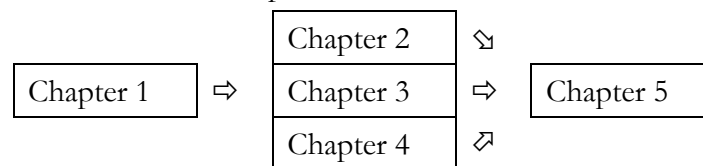
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⁶⁷ Jane Gaines, " Machines that make the body do things," *Film Studies and Postmodern Theory, Polygraph* 13 (2001)

crucial for all aspects of documentary studies, a project that has been dedicated to the analysis of the real-seeming image and the unreal-seeming world.

The MA thesis may be the longest piece of research writing you have written to date, and for some it will be the most extended academic work you will ever write. Planning, researching writing and structuring a thesis is a substantial task that will spread over months and needs to be broken down into clear stages, which usually correspond to chapters in the final thesis. These chapters may also be broken down into smaller sections. Each chapter and section has a role in the thesis and is related to the other parts: building on what went before and preparing for what comes after. Parts of the thesis may have a linear structure, like this:

| Chapter 1 | ⇨ | Chapter 2 | ⇨ | Chapter 3 | ⇨ | Chapter 4 |
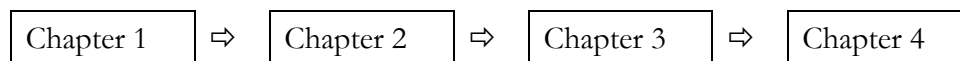
Or several parts may all build towards one part like this:

		Chapter 2	⇘	
Chapter 1	⇨	Chapter 3	⇨	Chapter 5
		Chapter 4	⇗	

Combinations of these two are also possible.

What is metadiscourse?

However your thesis is designed, it will not be immediately obvious to your reader which of the above structures you are following. This means that you need to insert sentences telling the reader where you have been and where you are going.

Here are some examples:

As I have argued earlier …

The next section discusses how…

This chapter begins with a brief sketch of the main assumptions of…

In order to get some distance on this issue I want to turn to another set of questions.

In the light of the analysis in chapter 2, it is now possible to…

This will lay the ground for recommendations in chapter 5.

These sentences that talk about the structure of the text rather than being part of the argument are known technically as 'metadiscourse' (discourse about discourse), or more simply as signposting and roadmapping. Signposts show where you have come from, where you are going next and where you are going later. Roadmaps show the whole route of the argument from beginning to end.

Signposting and roadmapping make your text more reader-friendly because they guide the reader, who is no longer in doubt, as they make their way through your 70 pages, where they are, where they are going, or why they are headed in that direction. In this way, they help to build up a relationship with the audience, who becomes a sympathetic 'follower' rather than a traveler lost in the jungle of your argument, unable to see the way out. Sympathetic readers give better grades.

When and where to use it

Metadiscourse is especially important in long texts such as research papers and theses, and is often used when the subject matter is complex (e.g. in literature reviews). It is more common in English

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academic writing than in some other writing traditions, which may assume that the reader will expect to follow the 'mystery' and find out just how it unravels. Research suggests that some language cultures (Spanish has been cited) feel that too much guidance is patronizing to the reader, who will use her own intelligence to put the pieces together.

Anywhere where you think the reader may not be clear as to why you are doing/saying something or where it is leading to is a good place to spare a few words to give direction. Commonly, there is a roadmap at the end of the introduction, which maps the chapters of the thesis in relation to each other. The introduction to a chapter may also contain a short roadmap explaining the interrelation of the sections of that chapter. Signposts may be used within sections to show how they build on what went before or how they lead to what comes next (or how they will be combined with what went before or comes next to prepare for something that comes later). Conclusion sections often contain backward signposts that remind readers about something they have already read and how it is relevant or can be bound in with something else that was discussed earlier

Metadiscourse helps *you* too

But the habit of including signposts, especially those that say not just where you are going but why, can be very helpful for you in your structuring and writing process. Having decided on the structure and ordering of chapters two and three, now you have to explain and justify that order to the reader. Thinking through why you have done it that way can lead to one of two results. Either (we hope) you will find that you can come up with an eloquent and rational justification for this structure, in which case the reader will be impressed and follow your argument closely. Alternatively, you will find that it is actually hard to make a justification for the structure you have chosen; if so, maybe you need to change that structure for one that you can explain to the reader, or at least to try harder to formulate in words a rationale for doing it the way you have. Some students have been known to say 'but if my argument is unclear, omitting the metadiscourse will make it harder for the reader to realize this." Needless to say, this approach will not get you very many marks.

Involving the reader in the argument

Metadiscourse goes beyond signposting, however, including words and phrases that shape your argument and the relationship with your reader, sometimes referred to as 'interactional resources'.[68] These can include:

Hedges such as: Might / perhaps / possible / about

These soften the writer's commitment to a given proposition or argument, allowing the possibility for disagreement, making the proposition into a suggestion rather than a fact. As is discussed in the section on hedging in relation to 'I' on page 27, this sort of cautious language acts as a signal that you are putting forward your own ideas rather than the ideas of others.

Boosters such as: In fact / definitely / it is clear that

These phrases, in contrast to hedges, emphasise the writer's commitment or certainty about a proposition. By using them you can make clearer to the reader the things that you are confident about

Attitude markers such as: Unfortunately /surprisingly / understandably

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[68] Ken Hyland, Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing, *Journal of Second Language Writing* 13(2), June 2004.

These phrases reveal the writer's attitude towards a given proposition, making it clear whether it is expected or unexpected, good or bad. Of course you probably use phrases like these anyway without knowing that they are officially part of metadiscourse, but if you don't, now is the chance to start.

Signposting, roadmapping and interactional resources, then, help you the writer, and your readers, to make better sense and to read more comfortably through the long, complex argument and analysis of your thesis understanding your position in relation to the ideas and sources presented. And (in English at least) it is in your interests to make your text as readable as it can be.

Sample Thesis Proposals[69]

Sample 1

"Sometimes I think I am the mother to everything":

Gendering human / non-human distinctions in the texts of Elena Guro

My MA thesis will analyse how human / non-human distinctions are challenged and (re-)constructed in the poetry and short prose by Russian Futurist Elena Guro.

Description of the topic: Elena Guro (1877-1913), early Russian Avant-garde poet and painter, participated in the Cubo-Futurist group *Hylaea*, which brought together the most famous Futurist writers: David Burliuk, Vladimir Mayakovsky, Velimir Khlebnikov, and Alexey Kruchenykh. While sharing the Futurist interest in the city and urban culture, she concentrated mainly on the depiction of nature, often exploring a child's perspective and children's language as a means to approach her subjects. In her texts, Guro positions herself as both a child and an "all-mother" who embraces all living and even non-living creatures with her tenderness. Human / non-human distinctions seem to be blurred in her work, which is especially interesting in the context of the Russian Modernist search for a new creative human subject which had to be created through revolutionary change in the ways reality is perceived.

Literature review: While comprehensive and detailed scholarship on Guro is still lacking, existing research can be divided into two groups. The first one is concerned with children's language, the influence of the aesthetics of "primitivism," the child's perspective and the formal features which follow from this focal point - namely, fragmentary form and Impressionist attention towards the

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changing moods and states of the world (Markov, 2000; Kalina-Levine, 1981; Banjanin, 1993). The second group of scholars focuses on the mythological, philosophical, and religious aspects of Guro's work (Toporov, 2003; Mints, 2004; Tyryshkina, 1999; Gekhtman, 1994). This is first of all the "myth of the son," an imaginary young man who resembles Christ and appears as the main character in many of her texts. Gekhtman (1994) identifies the sources of Guro's creative and religious world-view in science and philosophy of that time, particularly in teosophy by Piotr Uspensky, who promoted the idea of the 4th dimension and a new consciousness which would see the world as a living whole and all things and creatures as intelligent beings. The study by Milica Banjanin (1986) is particularly interesting for my work since she elaborates on the opposition between nature and the city as the inhuman space, which is represented as a space of women's sexual enslavement embodied in prostitution.

Justification: Elena Guro belonged to the period in the literary history which happened to be extraordinarily rich in political, scientific, and cultural debates. Among them the issues of definition and re-definition of the human subject (and the artist as its epitome), and, as its consequence, of new/ideal femininity and masculinity, were central. The post-humanist approach which I intend to use will be particularly useful for understanding the actual discursive means through which this re-definition was happening. It is reasonable to study Guro not just because she is just another forgotten woman writer; not only because she is especially attentive to the interaction with non-human and even non-living creatures; but also because her "liminal" position between Futurism and Symbolism allows identifying traces of different, sometimes conflictual approaches towards the human subject. At the same time, while existing research on Guro concentrates mainly on who is defined as the "ideal subject" in her work, I aim to show how gender and sexuality participate in this definition and who gets excluded from her project of human subjectivity, in order to provide a more critical and more complex reading of her heritage.

Research question: My main research question is thus: *To what extent do gender and sexuality inform the challenging and remapping of the human / non-human distinctions in Elena Guro's texts?*

Sources and methods: In order to answer my research question, I am going to analyse poetry and short prose from (all) three Guro's books: *Hurdy-Gurdy* (1909), *Autumn Dream* (1912), and *Little Camels of the Sky* (1914); I will also use her texts which appeared in collective publications (mainly

Trap for Judges (1913) and *The Three* (1913)), and published archival materials, such as diary entries. To provide contextual background, I will also use poetical manifestos published by the members of her group *Hylaea.*

I will offer a close reading of these texts, in order 1) to identify specific tactics through which human / non-human distinctions are blurred and displaced; 2) to examine the role of gender and sexuality markers in this displacement; 3) to explore the role of the trans-rational language in it. I will use Fairclough's (2003) discourse analysis approach in order to identify specific generic characteristics of Guro's work which contribute in these processes of the subject's re-gendering and re-definition, and to show, by means of an analysis of intertextual relations whose voices are included and excluded during these processes.

Theoretical framework: As a theoretical framework I will use a post-humanist approach. The main concepts I will use are *companion species* and *becoming with* introduced by Donna Haraway (2008), which refer to the process in which the human subjects are shaped in reciprocal interaction with other living creatures who accompany them in their everyday life. I will also use Giorgio Agamben's concept of *anthropological machine* (2004) - the technique which constantly works to define who is human and who is not within human species, as well as his notion of *bare life*, that is, human life as being reduced to pure biology and stripped off political (human) rights (Agamben, 1995). Finally, speaking about the role of the trans-rational language, I will refer to its theorization in the work of Viktor Shklovsky (1913), particularly to his concepts of *petrification* (the "hardening" of the world which follows from its automatized perception) and *estrangement* - the process which breaks this automatic indifference and brings things and words back to life, to their resurrection.

Working hypothesis: My preliminary hypothesis is that in Guro's texts, in the blurring of the boundaries between the human and other living and non-living creatures, the "ideal" human subject is feminized and positioned in the private sphere which allows for an intense interaction with nature and the infantile source of creativity within the subject him/herself. At the same time sexuality marks the non-human, unnatural locus (the city) and unnatural, inhuman or de-humanized subjects (men, working class women, prostitutes).

Intended structure:

Introduction

1. Permeability of the subject

2. Domesticity and the body

3. Making the natural language

3. "Sex and the City": the limits of permeability

Conclusion

Sample 2

Women, Domestic Hooliganism, and *Obshchestvennye Organizatsii* in Khrushchev's Russia

Statement of Topic:

      I would like to conduct archival research in Tver', Russia to explore women's participation in *druzhiny* and comrades' courts during the late 1950s-early 1960s, especially in instances of prosecution (or mediation) of domestic hooliganism.

Historical Context:

      In the late 1950s, Nikita Khrushchev revived two Stalin-era volunteer, community-based institutions: *druzhiny* and comrades' courts. During the 1950s, crime rates in the Soviet Union rose steadily with the gradual release of over two million incarcerated in the Gulag. The Soviet premier called for new mechanisms of social control without the draconian terror of his predecessor. I aim to study the victims of hooliganism, and the millions of ordinary people who volunteered to staff their neighborhood volunteer policing units (*druzhina*) and comrades' courts. I support historian Marianna Muravyeva's claim that the term "hooligan" was a catchall criminological category that, in practice, overwhelmingly prosecuted domestic violence: male "hooligans" against female victims.[70] Who were these women who participated in their neighborhood *druzhiny* or apartment building's comrades courts?

      When Joseph Stalin was alive, "enemies of the people," kulaks hoarding grain, and wreckers destroying state property in the factory dominated the attention of Soviet security officials. In contrast, a decade later in the Khrushchev era, the primary targets of State persecution were hooligans, social parasites, and *stilyagi* (style-mongers) flaunting their brightly colored clothes and political apathy. Everyday life, especially family and domestic concerns, took on a new political significance in the post-war era that previously was of little concern to government authorities.[71] To monitor daily life, the Khrushchev administration reinvigorated a network of volunteer social control institutions for the expressed purpose of both devolving central authority to local governments, and relieving the overburdened police and backlogged People's Courts. Taken as a whole, this network of informal social-political organizations are called *obshchestvennye organizatsii*.[72] In particular, I would like to focus my research on *druzhiny* and comrades' courts--their corollaries in official institutions being a police force and judiciary. *Druzhiny* were volunteer-based community watch groups who patrolled neighborhood streets on the lookout for unscrupulous behavior, embodied most often by the loathsome hooligan. Comrades' courts were community assemblies consisting of volunteer judges, juries, and lawyers with little or no legal training to settle minor, everyday disputes and mete out small fines or community service sentences. A neighborhood's *druzhina* would catch a hooligan committing an offense and send him (or in rare cases, her) directly to the comrades' court for judgment.

Historiographical Context

      Historian Oleg Kharkhordin and others have interpreted the resurgence of the

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[70] Mariana Muravyeva, "*Bytovukha*: Family Violence in Soviet Russia," in *Aspasia* 8 (2014) 98.

[71] Brian La Pierre, *Hooligans in Khrushchev's Russia: Defining, Policing, and Producing Deviance During the Thaw* (Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press, 2012) 76.

[72] George Breslauer, "Khrushchev Reconsidered," in *The Soviet Union Since Stalin*, ed. by Stephen F. Cohen, et al. (Bloomington, IN: University of Indiana Press, 1980) 55-7.

Khrushchev-era social control groups as yet another mechanism of state power.[73] Scholars like Kharkhordin have borrowed heavily from Michel Foucault's interpretation of Jeremy Bentham's insidious panopticon prison in which mutual surveillance and overwhelming peer pressure control society, thereby eliminating the need for state violence.[74] What's more, according to Kharkhordin, Soviet authorities activated *druzhiny* and comrades' courts to rid society of the banalities and vulgarities of everyday life. Brian La Pierre's 2013 work on hooligans in the Khrushchev era used these ideas to describe how the Khrushchev police apparatus contained masculinity. Middle-aged, poorly-educated, working class men in families, La Pierre argues, "became hooligan by engaging in the rough, masculine rituals of drinking, cursing, and fighting: working class displays of machismo."[75] These men became "accidental hooligans" for behaving in the same ways that only a few years earlier would have escaped punishment. In 1961, La Pierre's "accidental hooligans" were subject to *druzhiny* "power that was often arbitrary and unregulated," which then "dragged them through a degrading and demeaning detention process" decided by local comrades' courts.[76]

In contrast, historian Marianna Muravyeva looks at the same developments but from a feminist perspective, and asserts that hooliganism was code for domestic violence in Soviet criminal parlance. She concludes that "reducing" domestic violence to hooliganism in legal nomenclature allowed the Soviet state to emphasize the collective socialist order over the subjectivity of women as victims of patriarchal violence. Thus, Muravyeva renders this historical moment a missed opportunity for the legal community to advance the rights and safety of women in the Soviet context.[77]

Research Questions

Missing in these scholars' work are women's voices, both as victims of abuse and agents of domestic justice. How did women understand the shifting definitions of hooliganism in popular imagination and practical application? Did women engage in *druzhiny* and comrades' courts to combat gendered issues in the home? Scholars have coded the ubiquity, familiarity, accessibility, and summary justice protocols characteristic of *druzhiny* and comrades' courts as tactics of the state to infiltrate the home. What if women welcomed these institutions to protect themselves, publicly expose, and collectively shame their male abusers? Maybe we need something as insidious and pervasive as mutual surveillance in order to detect and expose something as ubiquitous and encompassing as gendered violence. The implications of this study could qualify Foucault's totalizing and oppressive evaluation of mutual surveillance by taking into account gender oppression. I am also curious about the inner workings of a comrades' court trial surrounding instances of domestic violence. I would like to test the Foucauldian model of a confessional as paying witness to domestic violence within the comrades' court. How did power function in this extra-legal confessional of a comrades' court trial?

Methodology

I will begin this project with a review of secondary-source literature. For my undergraduate thesis, I reviewed the historiography of *druzhiny* and comrades' courts in English-language sources. I

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[73] Oleg Kharkhordin, *The Collective and the Individual in Russia* (Berkeley, CA: The University of California Press, 1999) 288.

[74] Kharkhordin, *The Collective and the Individual in Russia*, 294.

[75] Brian La Pierre, "Making Hooliganism on a Mass Scale: The Campaign Against Petty Hooliganism in the Soviet Union, 1956-1964," in *Cahiers du monde russe* 47 (2006) 357.

[76] La Pierre, *Hooligans in Khrushchev's Russia*, 150.

[77] Muravyeva, "*Bytovukha*: Family Violence in Soviet Russia," 100.

would build off of this initial literature review, supplementing it with the most up-to-date materials. Mariana Muravyeva's article in *Aspasia* is especially useful to me because it sketches out how the Soviet criminal system codified domestic violence in legal literature. Furthermore, I would like to pay particular attention to La Pierre's and Kharkhordin's application of Foucauldian notions of power in their respective works. As such, I will need to do a close reading of Foucault's *History of Sexuality Part I* and *Discipline and Punish*. I will root my analysis in Foucault's notion of discourse, power and knowledge.

I will conduct archival research in Tver', Russia (formerly Kalinin) at the Tver' State Archives. I know for sure that they have comrades' courts transcripts because historian Ed Cohn accessed these documents for his previous article on Communist Party expulsions in the 1950s-60s. I will use as source material any organizational documents of the *druzhiny* in Tver': promotional materials, meeting notes, directives from the local party bureau, etc. I will conduct a content analysis of these documents to see how women participated in these informal organizations in instances of domestic violence.

Depending on what kinds of materials exist, I would also consult letters to the editor of *Rabotnitsa* or *Sovetskaya Zhenshchina* to see how issues of spousal abuse and domestic hooliganism were discussed in periodical press. (Using popular magazines is only a last resort, however, if I can't find sufficient information in organizational materials.) I would also like to consult any Russian-language theses or dissertations surrounding *obshchestvennye organizatsii* in the Khrushchev period.

I plan to go to Russia sometime this summer depending on time and money. I will return to Budapest in the fall for coursework, and then write my thesis in the winter and spring months of 2016. Woo!

Preliminary Bibliography

All of the works footnoted here
All of the works in my undergraduate thesis

Ilic, Melanie and Jeremy Smith, editors. *Soviet State and Soviet Under Nikita Khrushchev.* New York: Routledge, 2009.

Foucault's *Discipline and Punish* and *The History of Sexuality: Introduction* and *Part I.*

Sample 3

Title: A criminal, a medical patient or a mother? The effect of drug discourses on women IDUs in the Russian Federation

Statement of the Topic and the Aim:

The aim of my research is to understand how the use of a moralizing discourse on drugs, contrasted between official discourse on drug use, including drug policy and anti-drug campaigns, and the

discourse used by regional and national NGOs in the sphere of health and social justice, affects the identity of women IDUs and their access to social and medical services in the Russian Federation.

Brief Background:

The Russian Federation currently has the fastest growing HIV epidemic in the world. Its prevalence across Russia has increased 250 percent since 2001, and today there are approximately 990,000 people living with HIV (PLHIV). The population hardest hit by this epidemic is injection drug users (IDUs). Positioned in the borderland between crime and public health, the estimated 1.6 million IDUs in the Russian Federation are faced with the threat of arrest and imprisonment, while often being denied proper medical and drug treatment services. The feminization of both the HIV and drug use epidemics of the Russian Federation complicates the situation of IDUs even more. Existing drug treatment policies claim to serve all drug users, but in reality are not equipped to support women IDUs, namely those who have children or are pregnant. Therefore, those who occupy the intersection of the identities 'IDU' and 'woman' are marginalized not only from normalized society, but also from drug-related services. While large international organizations, such as UNAIDS, have increased funding and advocacy efforts to address the feminization of Russia's HIV epidemic, largely through drug policy reform and increased harm reduction services, the Russian Government has chosen to focus on testing, treatment, anti-drug campaigns, and the elimination of drug use through traditional rehabilitation centers, which are often inaccessible to women. The limited services which are offered to female IDUs frequently go unaccessed due to the women's lack of knowledge, fear of discrimination, and fear of police.

Supporting Literature:

My research question will be situated within a larger body of existing public health and policy research. In order to contextualize the situation of people who use drugs in the Russian Federation, I will draw from recent reports on HIV/AIDS, harm reduction and health policy published by transnational and intergovernmental organizations, including UNAIDS, the WHO, and Open Society Foundation. These background reports will be linked with two emergent texts on the subject of analyzing drug discourses and gender. The first is Lilja My's *Drug Discourses in Contemporary Russia: A Study of the National Press, NGOs and the Government* (2007), which examines the contrasting narratives on drug use and the drug user constructed by government/media discourses and NGO discourses. *Cultural Ecstacies: Drugs, gender and the social imaginary* (2013) by Ilana Mountain offers a critical approach towards analysing discourses of drug use, addiction, treatment and prohibition, with

specific regard to gender.

Significance/Contribution:

While a body of research that describes access barriers for women IDUs in the Russian Federation exists, there is no research or analysis regarding official drug discourses (both governmental and non-governmental) and their affect on women IDUs self-perception and identity formation. The ways in which this official discourse, contrasted with the discourse of NGOs, affects women IDUs, namely the ways in which this discourse shapes their self-perception and perception of social/medical services is essential in addressing existing access barriers, improving women IDUs' knowledge of services and rights, developing NGO efforts, and potentially reforming existing policies.

Research Question(s):

How does the use of a moralizing discourse on drugs, contrasted between the Russian Federation's official discourse on drug use (i.e. drug policy, anti-drug campaigns, drug education) and the discourse used by NGOs (local/regional/national) in the sphere of health and social justice, affect women IDUs and their access to social and medical services? In order to fully address this research question, the following questions must be asked: What is the Russian Federation's official discourse on drug use? What type of discourse is used by social justice/ public health NGOs in the Russian Federation? How are these discourses disseminated amongst the general population and the IDU population? How do women IDUs experience these moralizing discourses and how does it influence their self-perception and sense of identity? How does this affect their knowledge and use of social and medical services?

Theoretical Framework:

Due to the interdisciplinary nature of my research, I will utilize several theories to frame my thesis. Campbell and Ettorre's *Gendering addiction: The politics of drug treatment in a neurochemical world* examines theories of addiction with a gendered perspective. These theories of addiction will be used to examine the diverse approaches towards drug use, treatment and policy taken by government institutions and NGOs. In analyzing the discourses used by these governmental and non-governmental institutions I will use the theories of social constructionism and discourses analysis. I will ground these broad theories on several texts within the socialist constructionist and discourse analytical field. Vivian Burr's *An Introduction to Social Constructivism* outlines the chief elements of a social constructivist approach to research, and emphasizes the role of language in shaping reality and

knowledge. I will expand upon this notion of discursive power, utilizing Foucault's theories of discourse analysis as well as Norman Fairclough's approach to discourse analysis, which asserts the dialectical relationship between people and discourses. These theories will allow me explore the 'top-down' creation of drug discourses, or how official drug discourses shape society's perception of drugs and drug users, as well as the identify formation of drug users themselves. I am also interested in exploring how non-governmental discourses resist and influence this official discourse. Finally I will take an intersectional approach towards exploring the relation between official drug discourses and its affect on identity formation of women IDUs. In analyzing the interplay between official drug discourses and gender, I will also need to recognize the influence of class and ethnicity, and how these layers of identity constitute unique subjects facing multi-layered forms of oppression and inequality.

Sources and Methods:

I will gather the majority of data needed for this research while completing a three-month internship (May – July, 2015) with the Andrey Rylkov Foundation based in Moscow, Russia. The Rylkov Foundation is a grass-roots Russian organization working to "promote and develop humane drug policy based on tolerance, protection of health, dignity and human rights." During the internship, I will assist in researching and writing a report/complaint to be filed with CEDAW regarding gender-based inequality within Russian drug policy, I will visit harm reduction service centers (both governmental and non-governmental), and I will participate in street work with people who use drugs. The CEDAW report will provide access to information and documents on the Russian Federation's official drug discourse. The Rylkov Foundation, and its participation within the Eurasian Harm Reduction Network, among other networks, will provide access to a range of 'NGO discourses', including official documents, video campaigns, and information distributed during outreach/street work. Additionally, the foundation's street work and direct interaction with people who use drugs in Moscow will allow me to gain data on the affect of official and NGO discourse on the IDU population. This data will be gathered through observation and semi-structured interviews.

Limitations:

While I have a comfortable level of Russian (spoken and written), as a non-native speaker, there are some barriers to conducting interviews and gathering data through observation. To compensate for this limitation, I plan to record all official interviews with IDUs as well as develop my vocabulary within the sphere of drugs use, harm reduction and public health (having worked in a women's

health NGO in St. Petersburg, I already have a strong level of vocabulary within this sphere).

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Sample Literature Reviews

Student Sample

Literature Review Draft

In my thesis I want to examine how the animal based scientific research reshapes the ways in which it is possible to imagine the connection between female bodies and reproduction. I will focus my study on a research report "Generation of viable male and female mice from two fathers", published on December 8, 2010 in the official journal of the Society for the Study of Reproduction. This report describes how scientists were able to combine the genetic material of two male mice in the progeny by manipulating the stem cells of a male mouse whose female chimera descendants then were then mated with normal mice thus producing progeny that had genetic substance from to male mice. What interests me in this research report is its suggestion that it might be possible in the future to perform similar kind of procedure with humans, thus connecting human biology with that of mice through the notion of genetics. In this literary review I will concentrate on outlining how the connection between the category of the human and the category of the animal has been theorized in the framework of the posthuman(ist) theory and how the studies about genetics challenge the

human-animal distinction.

I define posthuman theory through Cary Wolfe's description of posthumanism. He states that the term "posthuman" is also used by transhumanist theory, which aims to examine the possible ways to develop human beings for example via nanotechnology, and thus he uses a term posthumanism to separate his vision of posthuman theory to that of transhumanism. Posthumanism, according to him, is an analytical approach that challenges the humanist notion of the human being as a separate ontological category. Instead posthumanism examines how the category of the human is constructed for example in relation to animals or technology. In my thesis I will concentrate the study of posthumanist theories on those engaged with the human-animal connection.

Giorgio Agamben states that the concept of human in modern cannot be understood without its relation to the concept of animal. Agamben uses the notion of the anthropological machine to describe the attempts to draw a line between man and animal. He states that the anthropological machine can never obtain strict separation between them and because of this indeterminacy the idea of human can only exist when negating the animal from its definition. In the late 19th century when Darwinism had gain ground among scientists the question of what separates human from the apes became emphasised. For example Thomas Huxley, defender of the Darwinist view, distinguished human from the apes by placing them in the different stage of the development.

The research report, which I examine in my thesis, has its roots on the Darwinian sense of biology but what distinguishes it is its notion of genetics. The connection between humans and mice in the research is founded on the data that humans and mice share, as Karen Rader points out, "99 percent genetic homology". Thus, what connect humans with animals in this research are genes. For example the works of Sarah Franklin and Donna Haraway have outlined how research on genetics has remapped the distinction between humans and animals. I will use Franklin's notion of transbiology, "a biology that is not only born and bred, or born and made, but made and born" , to illustrate how the conceptualization of the human body has transformed via new technologies.

I will also question how the actual bodies of humans and animals are separated in the research. By

using Keel Oliver's critique of Agamben's anthropological machine as my base I will note how, although connecting humans to animals at the genetic level, the research simultaneously posits human bodies as those who research and mice's bodies as those who are researched. In other words, I will argue that the human-animal connection, which the research presents at the level of genetics, can also be analysed as a hierarchical relation between human and animal bodies. Keel Oliver also states that Agamben neglects gender binaries in his concept of the anthropological machine. Oliver emphasizes that the category of human is also divided into men and women and women often play the role of the "subhuman", in other words, they function as a more animal side of humanity. Similarly Donna Haraway argues that the concept of human species entails, not only the differentiation between humans and non-humans, but also those between different kinds of humans. She argues that the concept of species also presumes a gendered vision of human being because it pictures women via their reproductive function. According to Haraway "species reeks of race and sex".

The research report questions the connection between women and reproduction by stating that it is possible to produce procreation whose genetic material would only be derived from two males. However, the study states that female mice are still needed to bear the babies. Thus, although the research challenges the connection between women and reproduction at the level of genetics, it nevertheless separates the actual bodies according to their gender. Thus on the one hand the research in blurring the boundaries between women's bodies and reproduction by emphasizing the genetics relation between baby mice and their 'fathers' and on the other hand wombs are still needed to bear the babies and thus the research supports the notion of reproductive bodies as gendered.

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Sample Article

RHODA KANAANEH

American University

Boys or men? Duped or "made"?

Palestinian soldiers in the Israeli military

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