11

Investigating the Archive: Library Research Writing

AIMS OF THE CHAPTER

The college library and other archives (such as those now being made available on the Internet) provide enormous amounts of information for you to think about and analyze. This chapter presents the archival research paper as a process of thought and discovery.

KEY POINTS

1. When you are developing a library research paper, your thoughts are interacting with your findings. As you discover more about your subject, you are able to focus on the questions you want to answer, the topic you will investigate, and the claims you want to make.

2. Modern libraries provide access to many sorts of materials in book, audio, visual, microform, and electronic format, both on site and off site. Specific index and abstract tools help identify available materials.

3. As you find materials, you evaluate their meaning and reliability, as well as think through their implications for your research project.

4. Your final paper takes best advantage of your research by referring to your sources in a detailed and thoughtful way. You then document your sources in a standard format.

QUESTIONS TO THINK ABOUT

■ Have you ever felt lost or confused in your college library? How did you get your bearings? Did you find what you needed, or did you leave unsatisfied? What strategies might you have used to make your inquiry easier or more successful?

■ When you were given some choice of topic on library research, why did you choose the topic you did? What consequences did that choice have

for the success, usefulness, and interest of the paper that resulted and the value of that assignment for you?

■ Have you ever found something in the library on the Internet that surprised you, made you see something new or in a new way, or otherwise made you think?

Library research is probably most familiar to you from previous schooling. From early grades you may have been asked to look up some information in an encyclopedia or in magazine articles and describe what you have found. By now you realize, however, that not all questions you have are answered directly by one source in precisely the answer you would like. For the kinds of questions and issues you are examining in the university, a prepackaged encyclopedia article will hardly do. You have to gather and think through a variety of sources and come to your own conclusions.

In the library research you now do, you will find that viewpoints may conflict. Moreover, since people may have been interested in questions that differ from yours, you may have to extend their findings and ideas to fit your interests. Perhaps you may even treat the sources you find in the library not as direct sources of information but as themselves the thing to investigate. That is, newspaper reports from the Civil War may tell you as much about the newspaper industry and about the attitudes and interests of the newspapers and readers as about the facts of the various battles. Articles on the latest breakthroughs in biochemistry may tell you more about what the big issues and popular approaches are than about what is definitely known.

✐ An Interactive Discovery Process

As you develop a library research paper, your thoughts interact with what you are finding. Although you may start with a general idea of what you are looking for and why, you can't know exactly what you will find. As you find out what material is available and the facts presented in the material, you should get new ideas and rethink some of your earlier ones. New ideas may in turn send you out looking for additional sources.

The library assignments presented in this chapter require a relatively short research process. Such smaller assignments often specify the task and a narrow range of topics to investigate. They may even specify the sources you should examine (such as the newspapers of the period or the state legislative record). Even when you are directed to general catalogues and indexes of materials, it will be clear what sources you should search — for example, all articles mentioning your historical event, all work by a particular author, or all zoning variances during a certain period.

As you become involved in more elaborate projects in other courses, a

Modern libraries mix
traditional print holdings
with electronic
resources.

Image removed for copyright reasons.

single research project can involve you for a term or even several years. As projects lengthen and deepen, your conception of the project is likely to change radically as you start to uncover material and as your changing ideas suggest new material to look for. The bigger and more open-ended the assignment, the more complicated is the problem of knowing where to look for materials. You need to get beyond the obvious sources to look at background, parallel cases, relevant theory, sidelong connections, or other kinds of materials that do not have your subject labeled across the top. Instead you will have to dig into these sources to find the relevant facts and reconnect them in ways that other people haven't. In addition, when projects are big, you may need to consult many different kinds of sources. Part of such assignments is in fact your ingenuity and persistence in discovering relevant sources and seeing new connections among the different kinds of material.

This discovery process is *recursive:* that is, it keeps looping back on itself. Thus it is necessary to alternate between focusing your ideas, setting out after material, thinking about analyzing what you have found, and then refocusing your ideas and setting out again. In this way you gradually build a picture of your subject or issue. As you start to fill in the picture, you may wish to go after more precise details or check out a related area. For example, in examining the controversy over affirmative action programs, you may discover that they began as a court-ordered remedy to break patterns of hiring

discrimination. You then may wish to go back to examine those early court cases or how government policy changed to forestall further court action.

In this discovery process, be careful about coming to fixed conclusions too early. Be prepared for surprises, such as contradictory information that might force you to a higher level of thinking or a crucial case that sheds new light on the subject.

ᘯᘯᘯ   USEFUL CONCEPTS FROM RHETORIC

Intertextuality

Every essay you write, every statement you make, echoes the words of earlier statements by yourself and others. The term *intertextuality* refers to the fact that we always draw on the words of people who came before us. Sometimes we may explicitly discuss what others have said and what we think about them, as in reading journals (see Chapter 4) or more formal essays of interpretation and commentary. In essays of argument (see Chapter 15), we may explicitly use the statements of some people to support our views and oppose the words of others. In library research papers (as discussed in this chapter), what we have to say is built on the information and ideas we find in the writings of others. We explicitly refer to our sources (see pages 240–242) and document them (see pages 242–247) to show exactly what we are drawing on from the archives of the library. These references call attention to the connection between our current statement and other texts that have preceded it. They make clear what the immediate prior conversation was and how we have added to it. If we fail to acknowledge that history of discussion and simply pass it all off as our own creation, we are guilty of plagiarism (see pages 112–114).

Even if we do not explicitly quote or otherwise refer to the words of others, we still rely on them. If we use words that are characteristic of or associated with an individual or a group, we bring those people to mind. If, for example, I encouraged you to try the Internet by saying "Just say yes," I would be reminding you intertextually of the "Just say no" antidrug campaign. I might also remind you of all the uses — straight, comic, and ironic — that people have made of that phrase since then. These phrases often expressed complex attitudes toward commands issued by authorities about activities that are judged to be good or bad for us. So if I, as author of this textbook and thus an authority figure, urged, "Just say yes to the Internet," you could rightfully see layers of irony in the statement.

In a more general sense, intertextuality reveals how much our language is part of our social heritage. If I am in a cooking class and talk to the other students using the language of cooking we have learned, my classmates recognize what I am talking about, which pan or spice or cooking procedure I am referring to; moreover, my classmates recognize me as someone sharing with them an activity where such words are important.

The fact that we rely on words that we first read or heard from others, however, does not mean we do not develop our own things to say. We take those words and put them together for our own purposes. We express our own attitudes with them, and we combine them to create new statements and carry out new actions that fit our new situation. As Mikhail Bakhtin, a theorist who helped develop the concept of intertextuality, noted, words we borrow from others become our own once we make them alive again with our own intentions.

✪✐ Directing Your Research

In the previous chapter we mentioned some general issues concerning research and research writing (see pages 224-227). Because of the nature of library research, these issues may be handled with more flexibility than in other forms of research that require more rigorous prior planning. However, they still need to be addressed in the course of the research.

For example, you may leave your subject unsettled and open for the first one or two visits to the library as you explore possibilities. It can be a great deal of fun seeing the many ways people have approached a subject or getting a sense of a historical time and place by reading old magazines and newspapers. After your preliminary explorations, however, you need to focus and organize your search to answer your research question. Then you must address the orienting issues in ways appropriate for library research.

The Basic Problem or Question

From the very beginning of your research, you should have some sense of why you are engaged in it. You try to state to yourself in notes or in a journal the interest that is driving you — perhaps a curiosity about what was going on in a period of history, a desire to learn about the life of an author in order to understand the novels you like, a concern for a social problem, a confusion as to why a government agency or a large organization does not accomplish what it should, and so on. If you never articulate a personally significant motivation for the research beyond simply completing the assignment, you are not likely to pursue the research with much energy or come up with interesting ideas and findings.

The Focusing or Specifying Question
and the Investigative Site

In your early investigations in the library, perhaps by examining overview works like encyclopedias or general books and articles on your area of inter-

est, you look for a more specific way to follow through on your research. You look both for questions that narrow your task and for specific sources of information that can provide a single instance, case, or area that you can examine in some detail and care.

For example, to find out about the period of history that fascinates you — perhaps the period of industrial growth in the United States after the Civil War — you may have looked at a few chapters in a general American history book. There you found references to the crucial role of inventors and inventions such as the railroad, telegraph, telephone, and electric light in changing the economy. This might lead you to a question such as "How did inventions influence the post–Civil War economy?" and lead you specifically to investigate the development of the telephone.

The Investigative Design: Concepts, Questions, Method

Library research usually involves deciding what kind of material to search out, what kind of notes to take, and what kind of analysis to do on the material collected. Library method means specifying the available sources and determining what they can tell you. In the example of the growth of the telephone in the post–Civil War period, you may want to look at books about the development of the communications industries and biographies of some of the chief inventors such as Alexander Graham Bell, Elisha Grey, and Thomas Edison. However, to gain firsthand information through primary sources, you may wish to search out articles in *Scientific American* and other journals of technology and industry.

As you examine the material, you develop specific questions that will help you see how to interpret, evaluate, and use what you find to answer your larger research questions. In reading about Alexander Graham Bell, for example, you may want to ask how private research connected with industrial financiers and how the early uses of the telephone affected economic growth. As you look at articles in *Scientific American,* you might look for how the reports of technical advances were presented as being economically beneficial.

Similarly, you develop concepts that will help draw your information and ideas together. These concepts may arise fairly directly from the sources or from somewhere else. In the telephone research, concepts of investment in technology, financial opportunities, and expansion of industry may come directly from the ways in which your sources talk about the period, but you may also wish to use some modern economic concepts about systems, networks, and the communications revolution to help explain what was going on.

The Investigative Report

The results of library research may be written up without a formal report structure. Historical research may be written as a narrative of events that fo-

cuses on the details that relate to your research questions, or as a causal essay that identifies the causes or consequences of an event. Other library research may follow other patterns, simply incorporating the research material as detailed evidence within the discussion. Whatever organization you give to the presentation of your research, early in the text you need to focus the issues you are pursuing and the claims you are making, and throughout the report you need to cite your sources.

Using the Library in the Electronic Age

The library is likely to hold many materials that are potentially relevant and important for your interests, but the problem is to identify and find those materials and then keep track of them. Not so long ago, libraries had mostly books, journals, and some old newspapers. By using the card catalogue and a few periodical indexes, you could find what you needed and then pull the materials from the shelves. Microfilm, microfiche, videos, and other storage devices then allowed more kinds of materials (such as newspapers and magazines, government records, patent records, private papers, and rare books) to be stored in greater numbers, so you had to look in more catalogues and in more places in the libraries to locate relevant materials. In particular, each microfilm or microfiche collection may have had a specialized finder or index that you needed to use to locate what was available in the collection.

Then card catalogues started to be placed on line; these card catalogues were also linked so that through your college catalogue you could examine all the library catalogues in the state. Materials from other libraries could be requested by interlibrary loan.

As disciplinary research became specialized, specialized indexes and abstract services appeared, so you had to know which index to use. Recently many of these indexes have been placed on line, others have been made available on CD-ROM, and still others exist only in hard copy. These electronic indexes allow you to search quickly through many titles to find your materials. Often the search tools attached to these indexes allow you to combine descriptors. So, for instance, you can locate all articles on a certain subject published in 1993 and written in German. Or you can search for all articles that combine two different subjects, such as *telephone* and *consumers*.

Most recently, the Internet has made electronic retrieval of archives available throughout the world, using such electronic tools as *Gopher, Fetch, Archie*, and *World Wide Web*. More and more materials are being made available on the Internet every day, and the tools for accessing them are becoming more and more convenient. Nonetheless, because the situation is in transition, finding information on the Internet still is very much a matter of random luck or personal information that someone passes on to you. On the other hand, once you start exploring the Internet, you will find many materi-

als at your fingertips. By the time you read this, finding your way around the Internet may have become simpler; central indexing sites are currently being developed, and there are search tools (one is called *Yahoo*) that will search widely for subject names you identify. The best way to start exploring is to have someone demonstrate to you the tools available at your computer site, and then just see what you can find.

World Wide Web in particular is organized to let one information site lead you to another. It is organized on hyper-text principles, where each location is linked to other locations by hot-buttons. Once you have found something at all related to your interests, you are likely to be led to a whole range of relevant materials. In particular, many subject index pages are being

The World Wide Web makes available resources from libraries, universities, governments, newspapers, political groups, and other organizations and individuals from around the world.
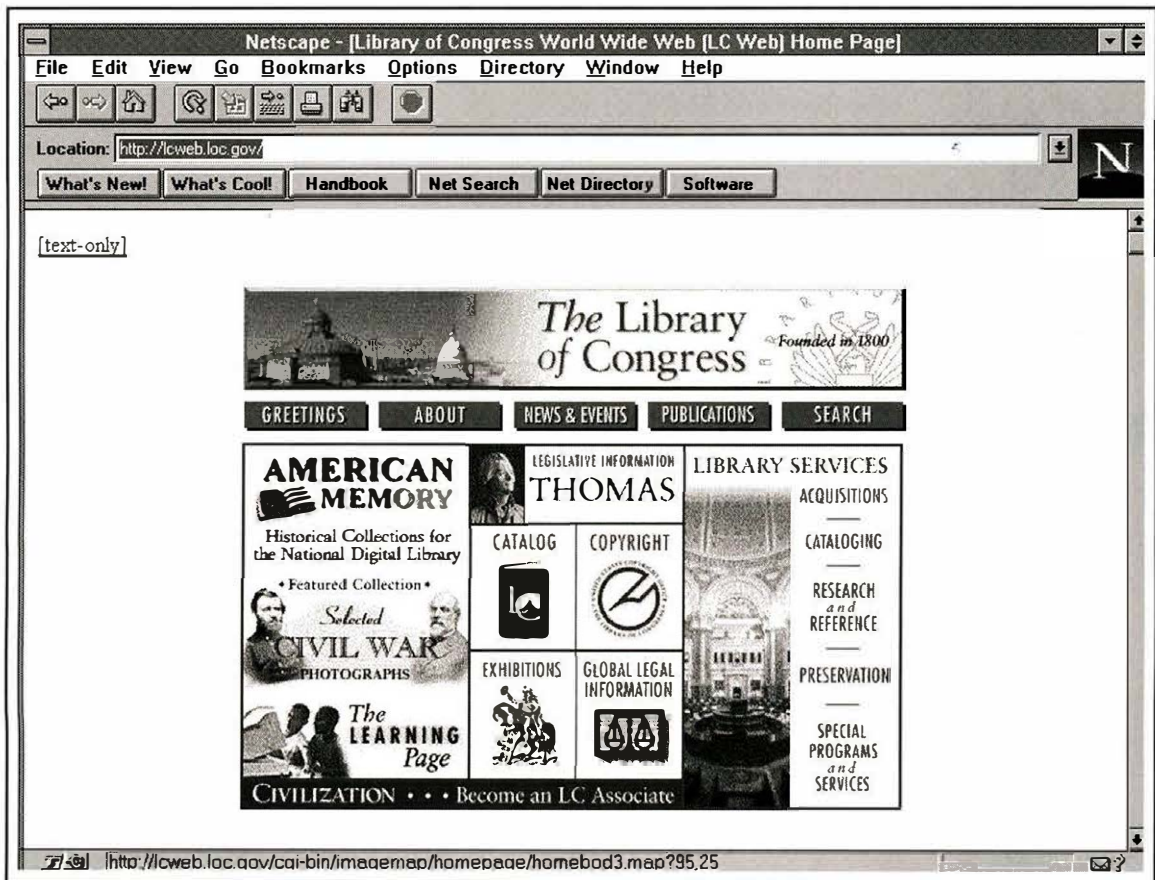
developed by individuals and groups; these pages will lead you to what the authors of that page think are the most useful or interesting World Wide Web sites on that subject as well as to other related index pages. If you find the right index page for your subject, you may be led to mountains of material. However, since Web sites are changing so rapidly and the addresses often change, there is little purpose in providing you with current sites and addresses that may no longer be the same when you need them. Your college's library or computer lab or classmates may provide you with some good starting places.

Ultimately libraries are working to integrate the indexing of materials and simplify access; however, with so many new opportunities and resources developing, it may be a long time before research access is again a simple thing. Because libraries are becoming so rich and complex and because each library is different, the advice offered in this chapter and in the sidebars can only serve as a starting point for becoming acquainted with your college library. You can gain an orientation to your library through scheduled library tours, through handouts and pamphlets available in your library, through on-line help on the library computer system, through workshops, and even through taking a course on using the library. A course introducing you to the full resources of the library may be one of the most valuable courses you take. Finally, you should regularly make use of your reference librarians, who know how to get to what you need most directly and rapidly.

It is worth learning to find your way through all the access tools and materials of your library, because every additional piece of relevant material you find gives you more resources to accomplish your task. Finding the right materials buried in the library can make an ordinary project into a remarkable one. You may find something you truly had no idea of before you began searching.

Some Commonly Used Indexes

This list may give you some idea of the range of indexes available and may help you find those indexes most relevant to your subject. Each of these indexes provides information, usually at the front of each volume, on how it is organized and how it may be best used. Many of these are now available on CD-ROM or On line.

Indexes to General Circulation Periodicals

General Science Index
Humanities Index
Public Affairs Information Service
Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature
Social Sciences Index

Indexes to Newspapers

New York Times Index
The Times Index (London)
Wall Street Journal Index
Washington Post Index

Index to Government Publications

American Statistics Index
Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications

Indexes to Specialized Journals

Accountants' Index
Anthropological Index
Art Index
Bibliography and Index of Geology
Biological Abstracts
Business Periodicals Index
Chemical Abstracts
Criminology Index
Education Index
Film Literature Index
Hospital Literature Index
Index Medicus
International Bibliography of Economics
International Bibliography of Historical Sciences
International Bibliography of Political Science
International Bibliography of Sociology
Lexus
MLA International Bibliography
Music Article Index
Philosopher's Index
Physics Abstracts
Popular Music Periodical Index
Psychological Abstracts
Resources in Education
Science Citation Index
Social Sciences Citation Index
Sociological Abstracts
Women's Studies Abstracts

*A*ssignment   **GETTING ORIENTED TO YOUR LIBRARY**

Go to your college library and collect all the handouts that describe the on-line catalogue, available indexes and abstract services, databases, and special collections and archives. Read the materials and then locate each of the services mentioned, both by logging on to the computer catalogue and by walking through the library.

Evaluating What You Find

Although the library contains many remarkable resources, all these resources are not to be taken at face value as unquestioned truth. Each text represents a statement made by real people at a certain moment in history; each text has the limitations not only of what the writers knew and were interested in, but also of the situation for which it was written. That is, each bit of information in the library comes from a person like you, who sees and does certain things and does not see or do other things. One book may have been written as part of a political campaign, another as part of an evolving debate over anthropological theories. One book may have been written to be a best seller, playing upon popular fascination with the film industry, whereas another may have been written to defend the actions of a public personality who has been sent to prison. One newspaper article may have been written while a battle was in progress and accurate detailed information was not yet available, and another may have been written years after to examine the consequences of that battle for current military policy. Every text, even those you come to rely on directly for your facts, has a story behind it. To know how you can best interpret and use each piece of material, you need to start understanding the story. Two sets of distinctions, sometimes used by historians and literary scholars, may help you start to understand how you can interpret and use various sources.

Primary and Secondary Sources

Primary sources are sources written at the time of the events and represent the information, ideas, interests, and orientations of the people who were directly involved — whether it is a historical event such as a presidential election, an academic debate such as over the validity of a new experiment, or an artistic production such as a novel or musical performance. So, for example, a primary source for an academic debate would be an article written by one of the debaters themselves, and a primary source for a novel would be the novel itself and perhaps some letters written by the author to his sister.

Secondary sources are written after the events, looking back on the events

and retelling and commenting on those events. So a secondary source for the presidential election might be a book recounting the changing political alignment of voters over the period. A secondary source on the academic debate might be a later article sorting out and evaluating what new ideas and findings resulted from the debate, and a secondary source on the artistic event might be a literary analysis or biographical account of the composer's life and works.

Reliable Information Sources and Individual Statement Sources

Although every text is some person's representation, reflecting individual ideas and perceptions or desires to influence others, some texts tell you more than just what the author thought or was trying to do. After evaluation, you can come to rely on some tests as useful or accurate characterizations of the facts of the situation.

There is no simple way to judge between these two. In each case you have to evaluate the quality of the source, how it compares with other accounts, the interests and knowledgeability of the author as well as the author's access to other information sources, and other factors that might influence the detail and accuracy of the account. However, over time you will come to rely on some sources for information more than others. Some newspapers attempt to be more comprehensive and less driven by immediate political stances than others. Although some government statistics may reflect a picture that government wants to give out, over time some governments and some agencies develop a greater reputation for reliability. It may even be in their own interests to present unbiased information to allow their citizens to make informed choices. Academic scholars, because they have to meet the criticism of their professional peers, often try to develop a more accurate and detailed view of subjects than people writing for the popular or political press, but again, some scholarly writers are more careful and impartial than others, just as some political and popular writers are more accurate and impartial than others.

The point is that you constantly need to make judgments about the quality of your sources and how they should be interpreted. Moreover, even if you determine that a source is factually unreliable, that does not mean it is useless. It still may reflect that at a certain time certain people held certain views, used certain arguments, and even attempted to distort debates through lies and obfuscations. Every text is itself a historical fact. Even forgeries are facts, though not the facts they claim to be.

✆✆ REVIEWING WRITING PROCESSES

Referring to Your Sources

In the course of writing your essay based on library research, you will want to mention the materials you have found. You can bring these source materials into your essay in several ways.

1. *Quotation.* In quotation you use the exact words of your source. When you do this, you need quotation marks or block quotation format, as in this example:

   ```
        Karl Marx, in one of his many discussions of
   the alienation of labor, comments:
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                   The more the worker expends himself in
                   work, the more powerful becomes the
                   world of objects which he creates in
                   face of himself, and the poorer he him-
                   self becomes in his inner life, the less
                   he belongs to himself. . . . The alien-
                   ation of the worker in his product means
                   not only that his labour becomes an ob-
                   ject, takes on its own existence, but
                   that it exists outside him, indepen-
                   dently, and alien to him, and that it
                   stands opposed to him as an autonomous
                   power. The life which he has given to
                   the object sets itself against him as an
                   alien and hostile force. (170)
   ```

   ```
   This passage ties the concept of alienation to the
   notion of objects and objectification, so that alien-
   ation consists of the separation of the worker from
   the objects the worker makes.
   ```

   Notice how three periods (. . .), with a fourth to indicate a sentence end, are used to indicate deleted material.
      Quotation gives direct evidence of what your source said, evidence that allows you to analyze the statement or take advantage of the particular eloquence or precision of the phrasing. However, because it hands over the voice of your essay to someone else, it does not directly indicate what *you* are saying.

2. *Paraphrase.* In paraphrase you rephrase the ideas and information from the source in your own words, as in the following example:

```
    Karl Marx claimed that every time a worker
produced something, the worker created more objects
that existed outside of himself, until he became sur-
rounded by a world of objects that was no longer a
part of himself. The worker thus became alienated
from his world, having nothing left inside, but only
possessing objects which no longer had personal mean-
ing. The worker's spirit is drained in the process of
producing objects for the market. These objects then
become his enemy because they keep him from himself.
So not only does his labor become meaningless as he
produces goods which are of no value to him, but the
world he produces no longer has meaning. He is caught
in an alien world and thus suffers alienation. (Marx
170)
```

Paraphrase allows you to keep the detail of the original while still maintaining control of the direction of the paper. With paraphrase you can keep the writing going in the direction you want and interpret the passage. However, paraphrase loses the power of the original and often requires much lengthy explanation of ideas.

3. *Summary.* When you refer to someone else's ideas by summary as part of your own essay, you usually pick out specific points to summarize rather than give a summary of the other person's whole argument, as in the following example:

```
    For Karl Marx the concept of alienation de-
fined the relation between the worker and his produc-
tion. The production of goods separates the worker
from his labor, turning that labor into an object no
longer attached to the spirit of the worker (Marx
170). Unlike Adam Smith, who celebrated the produc-
tive capacity of humans, Marx saw mass production of
commodities as a degradation of the human spirit.
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Summary allows you to pick out the most relevant points from your sources and work them into your discussion.

4. *Mention only.* You can make a brief and rapid reference by simply mentioning the name of an idea, invention, discovery, creation, or other source:

```
    Karl Marx's concept of alienation (Marx 170)
presents a problem to all those who wish to create
socialist states in an industrial world, because all
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   states now depend on mass production for their pros-
   perity.
```

One drawback of this approach is that your readers may not be familiar with the concepts or material you quickly mention. Even if they are, they may not know what aspect or part you find relevant to your discussion. The quick mention won't let you know what Marx's concept of alienation is, nor will it tell you what aspects of that concept are at odds with mass production. So unless you are sure your readers will know exactly what you mean by a brief mention, it is best to spell out more fully in a summary, paraphrase, or quotation what you wish to refer to.

Whichever way you bring the sources into your essay, you need to introduce and then discuss these materials so the readers will know why you are presenting this material, how you are using it, and what they should get from it. Finally, whatever format you use, you need to give credit for all materials you use. This can be done through footnotes or through parenthetical references to the sources linked to a Works Cited bibliography (see pages 242–247). Thus the writer on Marx cited Marx in parentheses with a page number and then gave the following information at the end of the essay:

```
                    Work Cited

Marx, Karl. Selected Writings in Sociology and Social
         Philosophy.  Trans. T. B. Bottomore.  New
         York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.
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❧ Giving Credit in Modern Language Association (MLA) Style

Each discipline or subject area has its own style of giving credit to sources. Although footnotes are still used in some subjects, most disciplines now prefer that credit be given through a Reference or Works Cited list at the end of the essay or report. Consequently, this book will describe this latter method. Here the Modern Language Association (MLA) Style, widely used in the humanities, will be presented. On page 246 the American Psychological Association style, widely used in the social sciences, will also be presented. There are many other style manuals for different fields. Your teachers in various subjects will give you directions about the style you are to follow for their course.

In-Text Parenthetical References

According to the MLA style, right after you use material from a source, whether by quotation, summary, paraphrase, or mention only, you place the

author's name in parentheses. If you refer to specific material from a specific page, you also include page numbers. In the following sample paragraph, notice that when there are two sources by the same author, additional information is provided in the parentheses (in the sample below, Cowan has two titles, so a brief title is given). If two authors have the same last name, you should also use an initial. These references are then linked to more complete references in the Works Cited list that follows, as in the following sample:

> Feminism and the history of technology have met in the examination of the impact of household technologies (Rothschild; Cowan, "Industrial"). Ruth Schwartz Cowan, especially, has examined how these technologies, while claiming to alleviate the burden on women, have increased the obligations under which women live (Cowan, *More Work*). Other scholars have examined phrases like "laborsaving devices" (Bose, Bereano, and Malloy 53) and keywords like "efficiency" (Altman 98) to demonstrate how these have been used to manipulate perceptions of technology. Using such critiques, one can develop a feminist perspective on technical communication (Gurak and Bayer).

Works Cited

Altman, Karen E. "Modern Discourse on American Home Technologies." <u>Communication and the Culture of Technology.</u> Ed. Martin J. Medhurst, Alberto Ganzalez, and Tarla Rai Peterson. Pullman: Washington State UP, 1991. 95–111.

Bose, Christine, Philip Bereano, and Mary Malloy. "Household Technology and the Social Construction of Housework." <u>Technology and Culture</u> 25 (1984): 53–82.

Cowan, Ruth Schwartz. "The Industrial Revolution in the Home: Household Technology and Social Change in the 20th Century." <u>Technology and Culture</u> 17.1 (1976): 1–23.

Cowan, Ruth Schwartz. <u>More Work for Mother: The Ironies of Household Technology from the Open Hearth to the Microwave.</u> New York: Basic Books, 1983.

Gurak, Laura, and Nancy Bayer. "Making Gender Visible: Extending Feminist Critiques of Technology to Technical Communication." <u>Technical Communication Quarterly</u> 3 (1994): 257–70.

Rothschild, Joan. <u>Teaching Technology from a Feminist Perspective.</u> New York: Pergamon, 1988.

The Works Cited list should be placed at the end of the essay or report. Each work mentioned in the essay or report must be listed here, in alphabetical order, by the author's last name. The following rules specify the basics of the format.

Basic MLA Bibliography Punctuation

For a Book

- First line flush with left margin; second and following lines indented.
- Author's last name first, followed by comma and first name.
- Book title underlined or italicized.
- Colon between place of publication and publisher.
- Periods between major parts and at end.

For an Article in an Anthology

- Article title in quotation marks; book title underlined or italicized.
- Editor after book title, name in normal order.
- Inclusive pagination of article at end; second page number abbreviated.

For an Article in a Periodical

- Article title in quotation marks; periodical title underlined.
- Volume number after periodical title.
- Date of issue in parentheses, followed by a colon.
- Inclusive pagination of article at end.
- If the article appears on nonconsecutive pages, give first page followed by +.
- For popular journals and newspapers, the volume number can be eliminated if the exact date is given; for academic journals that have continuous pagination throughout the volume or year, the exact issue and date can be eliminated as long as the volume and year are presented.

```
Author.   "Title of Article."   Everytown Daily News 23
          January 1997: A8.
Author.   "Title of Article."   Entertainment Week 15
          January 1997: 37-43.
Author.   "Title of Article."   Journal of Scholarship 58
          (1997): 368-86.
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For Material in Electronic Media

- For material also available in print, such as a magazine or newspaper, first list the print information, and then identify the electronic source, including the medium (such as Diskette, CD-ROM, or On line):

```
Author.   "Title of Article."   Everytown Daily News 23
          January 1997: A8.   Everytown Daily News Ondisc.
          CD-ROM.   March 1997.
```

■ For material with no print version, provide the following information, as available, in the following order:

```
Author.  "Title."  Date of material.  Title of Data-
     base.  Publication medium.  Vendor.  Electronic
     publication date.
```

■ For material from electronic journals or conferences, provide the following information, as available, in the following order:

```
Author.  "Title of Article."  Name of Journal or Con-
     ference.  Volume or issue number (date of pub-
     lication): number of pages or paragraphs.  On
     line.  Name of Computer Network.  Date of ac-
     cess.
```

Modifications and Special Situations

Author
If no author is given, begin directly with the title. Also:

If two authors: **Collins, Roberta, and James Delugga.**
If three authors: **Collins, Roberta, James Delluga, and Felicia Rivera.**
If four or more authors: **Collins, Roberta, et al.**

Edition
If other than the first edition, list the edition after the main title:

```
Author.  Title.  Rev ed.  City: Publisher, date.
```

Translator or Editor
List this after the edition information:

```
Author.  Title.  2nd ed.  Trans. Ken Kracouer.  Ed. Ed-
     ward Mianus.  City: Publisher, date.
```

Book Review
If an article in a periodical is a book review, directly after the title place "Rev. of" followed by title of book and author. If the article has no title, simply use "Rev. of."

```
Siegel, Renata.  "I Liked It."  Rev. of A Good Book, by
     Sandra Melawi.  Monthly Journal Sept. 1996:
     32-33.
```

The sample paper on pages 248–252 follows the MLA format.

For greater detail, consult
     Gibaldi, Joseph, and Walter Achtert. *The MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers.* 4th ed. New York: Modern Language Association, 1995.

✍ Giving Credit in American Psychological Association (APA) Style

The American Psychological Association (APA) style for giving credit differs in some details from that adopted by the Modern Language Association. The following are general guidelines of the APA style widely used in the social sciences.

In-Text Parenthetical References

References placed in parentheses in the body of the text should include author and date of publication, and may include specific page references if you are citing a specific fact or quotation. These references should then match works that appear in a Reference list at the end. The following example of APA bibliographic style should be compared to the MLA style presentation of the same material on page 243.

> Feminism and the history of technology have met in the examination of the impact of household technologies (Rothschild, 1988; Cowan, 1976). Ruth Schwartz Cowan, especially, has examined how these technologies, while claiming to alleviate the burden on women, have increased the obligations under which women live (Cowan, 1983). Other scholars have examined phrases like "laborsaving devices" (Bose, Bereano, & Malloy, 1984, p. 53) and keywords like "efficiency" (Altman, 1991, p. 98) to demonstrate how these have been used to manipulate perceptions of technology. Using such critiques, one can develop a feminist perspective on technical communication (Gurak & Bayer, 1994).

> **References**

> Altman, K. E. (1991). Modern discourse on American home technologies. In M. J. Medhurst, A. Ganzalez, & T. R. Peterson (Eds.), <u>Communication and the culture of technology</u> (pp. 95–111). Pullman: Washington State University Press.

> Bose, C., Bereano, P., & Malloy, M. (1984). Household technology and the social construction of housework. <u>Technology and Culture, 25,</u> 53–82.

> Cowan, R. S. (1976). The industrial revolution in the home: Household technology and social change in the 20th century. <u>Technology and Culture, 17,</u> 1–23.

Cowan, R. S. (1983). <u>More work for mother: The ironies of household technology from the open hearth to the microwave.</u> New York: Basic Books.

Gurak, L., & Bayer, N. (1994). Making gender visible: Extending feminist critiques of technology to technical communication." <u>Technical Communication Quarterly,</u> <u>3</u>, 257-270.

Rothschild, J. (1988). <u>Teaching technology from a feminist perspective.</u> New York: Pergamon Press.

Basic APA Bibliography Punctuation

For a Book

- First line flush with left margin; second and following lines indented.
- Author's last name first, followed by comma and initials.
- Two or more authors separated by & (not *and*); last name first for all names.
- Date of publication in parentheses, following author's name.
- Book title underlined or italicized, only the first word capitalized except for proper nouns.
- Colon between place of publication and publisher.
- Periods between major parts and at end.

For an Article in an Anthology

- No quotation marks for article title, only first word capitalized.
- Book editors preceded by "In"; names in normal order, using abbreviations for first names; followed by "(Eds.)."
- Book title after editors, underlined or italicized, only first word capitalized.
- Article page numbers appear in parentheses after the book title.

For an Article in a Periodical

- Year in parentheses after author's name.
- No quotation marks for article title, only first word capitalized.
- Periodical title underlined, all major words capitalized, followed by volume number and inclusive pages, all separated by commas.
- Volume number underlined or italicized.

For greater detail, consult
American Psychological Association. *Publication Manual.* 4th ed. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 1994.

✑ Sample Student Paper

The following student paper, using MLA bibliographic style, provides a historical perspective that helps clarify the issues in a public controversy. The assignment was to identify an issue or story currently covered in newspapers and other news media, to look into the history and other background of the story through library research, and then to write a short paper showing how the background explains the current story.

The student, Karen Jurgstrom, was writing for a political science assignment to investigate the historical background of a current political issue. She chose to examine the history of affirmative action programs, which were coming under attack in the spring of 1995 with a number of proposals to retract or dismantle existing programs and guidelines. She wondered how affirmative actions came about and why they had originally gained support when so many people now were calling them unfair.

Karen Jurgstrom
The History of Affirmative Action

For many civil rights activists and legal scholars, affirmative action programs achieve "equal protection under the law," but to others they seem anything but equal. In an article for <u>The Christian Century</u>, Glenn Hewitt expresses his fear that even the best-intentioned affirmative action programs can cause white males to become "victimized by justice" (146). Many other white males, lacking Hewitt's sensitivity to race and gender issues, feel they are being punished for historical crimes that they did not commit. Such feelings have led to political movements to outlaw affirmative action programs. However, as our nation continues the crucial dialogue about equality of opportunity in all aspects of work and society, we need to understand that the hiring programs in question did not begin as, and were never intended to be, a punishment against the privileged. Nor were they intended to create an advantage for one group over another. Affirmative action programs in the United States attempted to provide equal opportunity for all people by counteracting the effects of long-term historical inequities. Affirmative action programs were meant to break through the deep social causes that kept certain groups at an enduring disadvantage.

Affirmative action has its roots in the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Before this landmark legislation,

state and federal organizations had attempted to limit
discrimination in specific areas, such as voting rights,
but there had never been a comprehensive national anti-
discrimination law. The Civil Rights Act of 1964, which
has been described as "the most comprehensive legisla-
tive attempt ever to erase racial discrimination in the
United States," outlawed discrimination on the grounds
of race, color, religion, or national origin (Janda
588). Following the 1964 Civil Rights Act, individuals
and businesses could no longer refuse to hire, serve,
or sell to African-Americans. In the years between 1964
and 1969, a number of other important pieces of civil
rights legislation were passed, including the Elemen-
tary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Voting
Rights Act of 1965, and the Fair Housing Act of 1968
(Janda 590).

        The immediate effect of these laws was that in-
dividuals and corporations could no longer refuse to
hire, serve, sell to, educate, or rent apartments to
African-American citizens. However, from the very be-
ginning, civil rights activists knew that equality was
more complicated than just declaring an end to cen-
turies of discrimination and assuming that everyone
would suddenly be equal. President Lyndon Johnson, who

Affirmative Action
attempts to overcome
the effect of generations
of discrimination. Here
is a 1968 protest march
in Memphis, Tennessee.

Image removed for copyright reasons.

signed the Civil Rights Act into law, argued that true
equality of opportunity required overcoming the effect
of past inequality:

> You do not take a person who for years has
> been hobbled by chains, liberate him,
> bring him up to the starting line of a
> race, and then say, "You are free to com-
> pete with all the others," and still
> justly believe that you have been com-
> pletely fair. Thus, it is not enough just
> to open the gates of opportunity; all our
> citizens must have the opportunity to walk
> through those gates. (Urofsky 17)

In this passage, Johnson gives the main reason for af-
firmative action programs: equality is a complicated
thing, and society cannot remedy a history of inequal-
ity simply by eliminating the barriers to success that
have stood for centuries.

The Supreme Court acknowledged this fact in its
1971 Griggs v. Duke Power Co. decision. The plaintiffs
in this case were thirteen African-Americans who had
been denied employment or promotion at a North Carolina
power company on the basis of their education or their
performance on objective competence tests. The company
argued that, as long as they could prove that their
testing procedures were racially neutral, then they
were justified under Title VII of hiring and promoting
whites over blacks. However, in a unanimous decision,
the Court ruled that the Civil Rights Act of 1964 for-
bade the use of job criteria that had the effect of
discriminating against members of a specific ethnic
group — even if the company manifests no direct inten-
tion to do so.

The key issue at stake in the Griggs decision
was Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, which outlawed
discrimination on the basis of race. Both sides be-
lieved that they were interpreting Title VII correctly:
the company argued that, if they were to promote a
black candidate over a white candidate who had scored
better on a test, they would be guilty of discriminat-
ing against the white candidate. The plaintiffs,
though, argued successfully that discrimination against

a group, by devising criteria that are inherently dis-
criminatory, was as illegal as discrimination against
an individual. Herman Belz, the author of a book-length
history of affirmative action, cites the Court's re-
sponse to this argument as the beginning of modern af-
firmative action:

> <u>Griggs</u> shifted civil rights policy to a
> group-rights, equality-of-result rationale
> that made the social consequences of em-
> ployment practices, rather than their pur-
> poses, intent, or motivation, the decisive
> consideration in determining their lawful-
> ness. The decision supplied a theoretical
> basis for preferential treatment as well
> as a practical incentive for extending
> race conscious preference. (51)

From the <u>Griggs</u> decision and later directives
by both Congress and the Supreme Court, there has
emerged a large network of educational and hiring pro-
grams that, collectively, go by the name of "affirmative
action." The debate over these programs has become a
divisive element in American politics, and many conser-
vative politicians have come to power on the promise to
end "reverse discrimination" and "preferential treat-
ment of minorities." Contrary to many people's opin-
ions, however, affirmative action programs were not
designed to exact retribution for centuries of persecu-
tion and oppression, nor were they meant to create in-
equality. Rather, these programs recognize that past
oppressions have resulted in very real, very present
inequalities in educational training and income level,
and these inequalities cannot be corrected without some
reference to the historical situations that produced
them.

<div align="center">Works Cited</div>

Belz, Herman. <u>Equality Transformed: A Quarter-Century</u>
        <u>of Affirmative Action.</u> New Brunswick: Transac-
        tion, 1991.
Hewitt, Glenn. "Victimized by Justice." <u>Christian</u>
        <u>Century</u> 23 September 1987. Rpt. in <u>The Refer-</u>
        <u>ence Shelf; Affirmative Action.</u> Ed. Daniel
        Altschiller. New York: H.W. Wilson, 1991.
        144-47.

Janda, Kenneth, et al.   The Challenge of Democracy.
          Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1992.
Urofsky, Melvin I.   A Conflict of Rights: The Supreme
          Court and Affirmative Action.   New York: Scrib-
          ners, 1991.

Thinking About Student Writing

1. What is the issue that Karen Jurgstrom addresses in her research essay? In what way is this currently a political issue? How does Karen Jurgstrom present the views of people with different political positions on this issue? To what extent and in what way does she present her own view on the issue?

2. What is the main point that Karen Jurgstrom found about the history of affirmative action? What specific evidence leads her to this conclusion? What are the key historical moments she examines? Why do you think she chose each of those moments?

3. What documents did she rely on to find out about the history of affirmative action and that she used as sources of evidence? Why do you think she chose those documents? What other documents might she have used?

4. Whose points of view are expressed in each of the moments she examined and the documents she used? Why are those points of view significant? Do you think she might have come to different conclusions and become aware of different points of view if she had examined different moments and documents? What other specific kinds of events and documents might have affected her conclusions? In what way?

5. How does this historical account help us understand the current political issues?

Assignments

LIBRARY RESEARCH

1. Choose a current news story of interest to you. Through library research, obtain background information and a history about the event and write an essay of about 1,000 words explaining the meaning of the current story in light of the background.

2. Using local newspapers and other sources, write the story of a recent crucial election or public controversy in your town. Identify the people who played a major role and discuss what they stood for, who backed them, and how the debate or struggle unfolded. In light of what you find, describe and interpret the meaning of the events and their outcome in a research essay of 1,000 words.

3. Using materials in your college archive, write a narrative of some event in the history of your college.

4. Choose an old movie, a television show you have enjoyed in reruns, or musical performers of a previous period. Using newspaper and magazine reviews as well as books and articles about the entertainment industry of the relevant period, write an essay describing how the movie, show, or group were perceived and evaluated when they originally appeared.

5. Write a brief essay describing the events and cultural climate during the month of your birth. Use contemporary newspaper, magazine, and video sources as well as later historical accounts.

Getting Involved Electronically

Examine the various electronic bibliographic resources available in your library that are relevant to subject areas in which you are interested. List and briefly describe the most useful catalogues, databases, indexes, abstract services, or other resources you have found.