

Hunter P. Mabry

A Manual for Researchers and Writers

Second Edition

BTESSC

A Manual for Researchers and Writers

Second Edition

**A Manual for Researchers
and Writers
of
Course Assignments,
Theses, Dissertations
and other Research Reports**

Hunter P. Mabry

Second Edition

**THE BOARD OF THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION
SENATE OF SERAMPORE COLLEGE**

*A Manual for Researchers and Writers
of Course Assignments, Theses, Dissertations
and other Research Reports*

© 1999, 2003, 2004, 2007, BTESSC
Second Edition, Third Printing, Published 2007

Published by
The Board of Theological Education
Senate of Serampore College
P.O. Box 4635, No. 2, 2nd Cross, Nandidurga Road,
29/B, Jayamahal Extension, Bangalore - 560 046.

Typeset and produced by National Printing Press

Dedicated
to
Faculty colleagues
and
Post-graduate students
at the
United Theological College
and the
South Asia Theological Research Institute

Gracious, critical and devoted companions in learning

CONTENTS

	Page
List of Illustrations	viii
List of Tables	ix
Acknowledgements	xi
Preface	xiii
Preface to the First Edition	xv
Chapter	
1. Research and the Researcher	1
2. Basic Elements of a Research Proposal	37
3. Collecting and Organizing Materials	46
4. Analysis and Evaluation of Materials	87
5. Interrogation of a 'Text'	105
6. Footnotes, Endnotes, Textnotes, Bibliographical Entries and Reference Abbreviations	158
7. The Use of Quotations	221
8. Illustrative Materials and Tables	235
9. Format of the Research Report	251
10. Preparation of Book Reviews/Reports	295
Bibliography of Further Guides	304
Appendix I: Table of Transliteration	310
Appendix II: Guide for Proof Readers	314
Index	318

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Structure of Argument, Case of Medical Treatment	132
2. Structure of Argument, Case of People's War Group Detainees	135
3. Political Map of India	240
4. World Fertilizer Use Per Person and Grain Area Per Person, 1950-1991	241
5. Sample Title Page for a Course Assignment	282
6. Sample Title Page for a Thesis or Dissertation	283
7. Sample Table of Contents, a First Page, No Numbering of Subheadings	284
8. Sample Table of Contents, a First Page, Arabic Numbering of Subheadings	285
9. Sample Table of Contents, a First Page, Decimal Numbering of Chapters and Subheadings	286
10. Sample Table of Contents, a Last Page	287
11. Sample List of Illustrations	288
12. Sample List of Tables	289
13. Sample List of Abbreviations, a First Page	290
14. A Sample Glossary	291
15. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, No Numbering of Subheadings	292
16. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, Mixed Lettering and Numbering of Subheadings	293

17. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, Decimal Numbering	294
--	-----

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex (Number)	244
2. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex (Percent)	245
3. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex and Education	246

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Much of the material in this manual had its initial roots in seminars with students and faculty at the United Theological College, Bangalore, over nearly three decades. This indebtedness is expressed more personally in the Preface to the First Edition.

Materials have been drawn from various sources to help illustrate several matters of style and procedures. This has been acknowledged through appropriate footnotes where needed, except for material in 12 figures for which we are grateful to the following sources:

The New Cambridge History of India, IV-1, *The Politics of India since Independence*, by Paul R. Brass (Cambridge University Press, 1990), for the Political Map of India in Figure 3, which was based on Ashok K. Dutt and Margaret Gibb, *Atlas of South Asia* (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1987), 39, and used with minor adaptations.

Language, Religion and Politics in North India, by Paul R. Brass (London: Cambridge University Press, 1974), for parts of a sample table of contents which appear in Figures 7-9 in different styles with some adaptations, and for the material which appears in the list of illustrations in Figure 11 with some changes.

Behind Poverty. The Social Formation in a Tamil Village, by Goran Djurfeldt and Staffan Lindberg, Scandinavian Institute of Asian Studies Monograph Series No. 22 (London: Curzon Press, 1975, and New Delhi: Oxford & IBH Publishing Co., 1976) for the sample table of contents which appears in Figure 10 in an adapted form.

In Pursuit of Lakshmi. The Political Economy of the Indian State, by Lloyd I. Rudolph and Susanne Hoeber Rudolph (Hyderabad: Orient Longman, n.d, by arrangement with the University of Chicago Press, © 1987), for material which appears in the sample list of tables in Figure 12 with some changes.

Acknowledgements

The Gospel According to Luke I-IX, by Joseph A. Fitzmyer, Anchor Bible Series, Vol. 28 (New York: Doubleday & Company, 1981), and *Luke-Acts. New Perspectives from the Society of Biblical Literature Seminar*, edited by Charles H. Talbert (New York: Crossroad, 1984), for the selected entries which appear in the sample list of abbreviations in Figure 13.

Conversion and Social Equality in India. The London Missionary Society in South Travancore in the 19th Century, by Dick Kooiman (New Delhi: Manohar Publications, 1989), for the selected entries which appear in the sample glossary in Figure 14.

"The Ecological Crisis and the Role of Churches" by K.C. Abraham in *Global Warming. Implications for South Asia and the Role of Churches*, edited by K.C. Abraham *et al.* (Bangalore: South Asia Theological Research Institute [SATHRI], 1994), for the selected materials which illustrate a sample chapter title and four levels of subheadings, in different styles, with brief selected texts, which appear in Figures 15-17.

Preface

I have been pleased to learn about the demand for this *Manual* — which, hopefully, indicates that some users found the First Edition to be useful. Upon receiving a request for permission to make a reprint, I took the occasion to make some corrections and minor revisions to strengthen accuracy and clarity. I have also used the occasion to incorporate a number of updates, and some new materials on concerns not covered in the First Edition. The most substantial of these is a new section in Chapter 6 on “Electronic Sources.”

The comments, questions and suggestions which I have received from users of the First Edition have all been appreciated. These have in several cases drawn attention to certain concerns needing attention, and this feedback from users has helped me as I have tried to improve the text. There is, however, one notable exception which needs to be acknowledged. Among the suggestions received were requests for guidance on qualitative and statistical analysis. Unfortunately, an adequate treatment of these subjects would go much beyond the scope of this *Manual* and, for this reason, has not been addressed in this Second Edition. I hope to address these concerns in a separate work. In the meantime, users with concerns in these areas are referred to the helpful sources mentioned in the first paragraph of note 5, pages 83-86.

Instead of repeating here some of the material in the Preface to the First Edition, I will simply refer the reader to that Preface for reflections on the background contributing to

Preface

publication of the First Edition, and to notes on the usages of italicization in the text and on the spelling used for certain words.

While efforts have been made to correct certain errors in the First Edition, and to incorporate needed revisions, updates and new material, the final judgement on these matters and any errors rests with me. Works like this will, no doubt, continue to be works in progress. Comments, questions and suggestions about how the manual can be further improved and made more useful will be welcome and may be sent to me by email at <mabry@cfw.com>, or at the postal addresses given in the Preface to the First Edition.

February, 2003

Hunter P. Mabry

Preface to the First Edition

This manual is designed primarily to help students with the preparation of course research assignments, theses and dissertations. Since each of these is based upon research, for the sake of brevity the term "research report" is often used generically to refer to these individually and collectively.

The final chapter deals with book reviews/reports which, while somewhat different from the above, often serve as the entry point for many students into developing and demonstrating skills in critical observation, investigation and writing. This chapter is designed to at least partly fill a rather long standing lacuna wherever guidelines have not been given.

It is hoped that this manual will be helpful to students in various graduate and post-graduate programmes of study served by the publishers, and perhaps to some other researchers and writers as well. While Chapters 1-5 are directed primarily to the needs of persons working on extended research projects such as theses and dissertations, these may be of some interest to serious students at other levels. Chapters 6-10 deal with concerns and problems which are often common to researchers and writers at all levels.

An earlier *Handbook on Thesis Writing*, prepared primarily by E.C. John with a brief supplement by me and published by the Senate of Serampore College in 1975, has been out of print for the last several years. In view of that and the need for a more comprehensive manual, I was entrusted with the task of helping to prepare a new manual. Although this has taken far longer than expected, I hope this manual will help to fill a rather long standing need and I am grateful for the privilege which was entrusted to me.

I am particularly indebted to students and faculty members of the United Theological College, Bangalore, and students and

Preface to the First Edition

staff of the South Asia Theological Research Institute, with whom it has been my privilege to work in seminars on research and writing — for nearly three decades at the College, and from the inception of SATHRI in 1989. As participants in those seminars know, these have been occasions for the enrichment of all who have participated. Over the years various faculty members have led seminars on one or another of the major topics covered in this manual, and at different times during this period it has been my privilege to lead seminars related to each of these topics. Faculty members and former students will see familiar themes reflected in this manual, and I am indebted to all of them for what they have contributed. So many have participated at different points along the way, and ideas have been so significantly expanded by mutual interaction, that it is difficult to give credit to particular individuals for specific parts of this manual. However, I would like to express my indebtedness and gratitude in particular to F.S. Downs who, more than anyone else, has led seminars on the subject of Chapter 4 which to a large extent is based on presentations by him. I am also very grateful for help from the following other colleagues at the College who kindly took time to go through an earlier draft and share critical comments, with particular reference to concerns in their respective departments, which have helped to strengthen the content and clarity of presentation: Drs. O.V. Jathanna (Theology and Ethics), Samson Prabhakar (Christian Ministry), George Oommen (History of Christianity), David Scott (Religion and Culture), and James Vijayakumar (Biblical Studies).

It is hoped that the discussion of guidelines for research and writing will be found to be reasonably clear.

I should perhaps note here that italicization is used in three ways in this manual: to give emphasis, to signify a word or phrase from another language, and to indicate the title of books and periodicals. These different usages should be clear according to the context in which the usage occurs. Underlining can be used

for the same purpose for handwritten reports and when using word processing equipment which does not have italic characters. In this manual, underlining is used only to give emphasis.

I should perhaps also mention that an effort has been made to be consistent in the spelling of certain words for which variant forms are in use. For example, words such as 'moralize' and 'moralise' will be found in newspapers, periodical and books — sometimes within the same article or book, but without any apparent reason for using variant spellings. This manual generally follows the main form given in *The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (1993) by using spellings such as '-ize', '-izing', '-ization' and '-izer' rather than '-ise', '-ising', '-isation' and '-iser' for these and similar derivatives of certain verbs and nouns. This is the usage followed by Oxford University Press and may also be found (although not always uniformly followed) in publications by other publishers in India such as Macmillan, Orient Longman, Sage, and Sahitya Akademi's *Indian Literature*. For the same reason, other variant forms such as analyse (rather than analyze) and judgement (rather than judgment) have been used. Nevertheless, where variant spellings are in use, a writer should feel free to make his or her choice. Whichever spellings are preferred should be adhered to consistently throughout the research report.

While efforts have been made during the preparation of this manual to bring together concerns, ideas and concepts from many sources over an extended period of time, the final responsibility for judgement about what should be included and any errors rests with me. Comments, questions and suggestions regarding ways in which the manual can be improved and made more useful will be welcome and may be sent by e-mail to <mabry@cfw.com> or to me by post, either c/o SATHRI, No. 2, 2nd Cross, Nandidurga Road, Bangalore – 560 046, or 2315 Davis Road, Waynesboro, VA -22980, USA.

November 1998

Hunter P. Mabry

Chapter 1

Research and the Researcher

What is Research?

Often there is nothing more important or helpful for a person undertaking a research project than to have a clear understanding of what it is that he or she seeks to do. We therefore need to ask at the outset, what is research? A definition of our subject will help us to more sharply focus our reflections.

It may be helpful to first note what research is *not*. As we shall use the term here, research is not simply the collecting of a large amount of information on a subject area, and research does not consist of simply writing a long essay on a particular topic. Having written a term paper of 3000 words or a manuscript of 25,000 or even 100,000 words does not necessarily mean that one has done research. One may have gathered a large amount of information and written a massive paper, yet that paper may have no central focus, involve no argument, reach no conclusions and answer no questions. Such a work cannot properly be called research.

What, then, is research? While not fully adequate, one simple and clear definition of research is 'a search for an answer to a problem'. Representative definitions of a more comprehensive type define research as "A search or investigation undertaken to discover facts and reach new conclusions by the critical study of a subject or by a course of scientific inquiry" (*The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*); "diligent and systematic inquiry or investigation into a subject in order to discover or revise facts, theories and applications" (*Random House Dictionary*, 2nd ed.), and "a studious inquiry or

examination; *esp.*: critical and exhaustive investigation or experimentation having for its aim the discovery of new facts and their correct interpretation, the revision of accepted conclusions, theories or laws in the light of newly discovered facts, or the practical applications of such new or revised conclusions, theories or laws" (*Webster's Third New International Dictionary*). These and other commonly used definitions point toward research as involving a critical and systematic search for an answer to a problem in a subject area for the purpose of increasing human knowledge in that area in a form that is communicable and verifiable. This understanding involves at least eight elements or assumptions which deserve further attention: the existence of a body of knowledge, the possibility of increasing or strengthening knowledge in the area of study, the critical approach, concern for finding an answer to a question or problem, scope of this question or problem, systematic inquiry, and presenting the results of research in a form which communicates to a larger public and permits the results to be subject to verification.

1. Existing knowledge. Research assumes that there is already an existing body of knowledge in one's general area of investigation. One implication is that early in the research process the researcher should become acquainted with this existing body of knowledge. It will therefore be necessary to read widely in the area of proposed research and become familiar with what is regarded as the current state of knowledge. New research should then be related to the generally accepted body of knowledge. This applies even in the case of original research — investigation of an area which has not been previously studied or by means of an approach or method not previously used. The perception of research as 'original' presupposes awareness of what is currently accepted as knowledge in a general area and recognition of how research regarded as original goes beyond or modifies extant knowledge.

2. Increasing or strengthening knowledge. As implied above, research assumes that it is possible to *increase* or *strengthen* the body of knowledge in one's area of study. For the researcher, knowledge is

not regarded as a fixed body of information to be inherited and passed on nor as a quantified body of information to which research adds additional information. In contrast to such static views, for the serious researcher existing knowledge is viewed as representing the *current* level of understanding of our world — a level of understanding which is suspected to have been molded and limited by space, time and history. Often what has been accepted as knowledge at one point in time has later been found to be either erroneous or partial and in need of revision. Research, therefore, assumes that it is possible to increase or improve upon the existing level of understanding — by either seeking to add to the existing body of knowledge, to fill in gaps or resolve problems within the existing body of knowledge to make it more coherent, to re-examine some part of what has been accepted as knowledge but which the researcher believes questionable and in need of revision, or to investigate the possibility of alternative visions or perspectives which may complement or challenge existing ways of viewing and understanding the phenomena being studied.

3. Critical approach. As already implied, scholarly research assumes that increasing knowledge within one's area of study requires that a critical approach be adopted for examining the present state of knowledge in that area. Existing understandings will need to be subjected to critical scrutiny.

This does not mean that existing knowledge is to be automatically regarded as erroneous. It does mean, however, that the researcher must regard all knowledge as a human construct, a human representation arising out of efforts by others to better understand and deal with their subject area, and not as something 'given' and fixed for all time. Since the existing level of understanding is always a human product, often constructed by persons in privileged positions, and in any case by persons who are finite, existing knowledge must always be regarded as incomplete and also as often limited by the interests and biases of those who have contributed to its development. By taking a critical approach, we can avoid being overwhelmed by what other scholars

have said on a subject and at the same time be prepared to deal seriously with their arguments.

The critical approach also means that in our research we must seriously consider materials which challenge any hypothesis, bias or personal interest with which we began our research as well as materials which confirm these. Since the purpose of research is to find a persuasive answer or solution to a problem, it would be illogical to collect only materials which support a position which has been taken before beginning the investigation. To collect only material which supports a particular position may enlarge one's resources for propaganda or disinformation purposes, but this does not constitute research. A researcher, as a person committed to finding answers to questions for which persuasive answers are not yet known, must have the intellectual and moral courage to seriously consider the full range of material relevant to the research problem.

Basic to research, then, is a questioning mind which critically interrogates the existing level of understanding. Critical research may lead to the discovery of new materials which call into question old views, or to the adoption of a new perspective which leads to a fresh interpretation of old materials — in either case, contributing to knowledge and providing us with a more confident grasp of the reality we seek to know. Such critical work depends not only upon careful logical reasoning, but also upon a creative imagination which can look at familiar events from a new angle, anticipate useful sources not yet explored, conceive promising new solutions to old problems, and envision new theories which will provide more adequate understanding of the issues with which we struggle.

4. Problem centred orientation. As already noted, research is not concerned with merely writing on a subject area but with finding an answer to a single specific question or problem. Research assumes that the focus of inquiry can be stated in terms of a question or problem for which a persuasive answer is not yet known. One of the most essential steps for productive research is the development, early in the research process, of a *clear, unambiguous* statement of the problem to be investigated. As an often quoted maxim emphasizes,

"The formulation of a problem is often more essential than its solution." Indeed, some researchers would argue that it is possible to find a solution only *after* a research problem has been clearly formulated. From a somewhat different perspective some other researchers would maintain that research involves a dialectical process in which a problem and its probable solution(s) become progressively identified. Yet, despite such different emphases, there is broad agreement that the question or problem for which an answer is sought will need to be unambiguously stated in order to clearly define the limits of the study, identify the specific area on which data must be gathered, and help the researcher avoid wasting time collecting extraneous material. Unless one is able to focus one's research in terms of a single problem for which an answer is sought, one will not be able to determine what questions need to be asked, discern what materials are relevant, or arrive at any persuasive answer. While answers for a larger number of questions may be sought in the research process, these should be subsidiary to, and constituent parts of, the main question or problem around which the research is organized.

5. Limited scope. As indicated above, a research undertaking should be organized around finding an answer to a *single* question or problem. Although this requirement may at first glance appear to adequately limit the scope of investigation, this is not necessarily true. For example, it could be argued that the topic "History of Christian Mission in India" constitutes a single problem for research and is therefore sufficiently limited in scope. But a moment of reflection is perhaps sufficient for us to recognize a number of problems. Should the research be primarily concerned with the history of work in India by missionaries and their mission agencies? With the evolution of the self-understanding of mission by Christian churches in India? With a particular area of Christian mission such as the evangelistic, educational or medical mission? With one or more of these concerns in a particular part of India or for a particular time period? Or, at a different level, why is another history of Christian mission in India needed when we already have

several published histories in this area? This list could obviously be extended, but these questions are perhaps sufficient to indicate the necessity of narrowing down the scope of proposed research until one has clearly identified a subject area which is not only clear but also one on which research can be carried through to completion within the time and other resources available.

One of the difficulties often encountered in getting started in research is that of keeping the area of investigation within manageable limits so that a specific research question or problem can be clearly defined and research undertaken. Some young researchers have a compulsion for perfection, a drive to cover every facet of a subject area, an eagerness to gather every available piece of information which appears to be in some way related to their research, but who in this process become so burdened with detail that they are unable to properly organize their material and identify major patterns.

A good guideline here is to identify a subject area which is broad enough to have significance yet narrow enough to be manageable. Every researcher faces the dilemma of striking a suitable balance between having a research subject that is broad enough to be significant and at the same time narrow enough for practical study, of balancing importance with manageability. Two points may be noted here which have often been found helpful: (1) It is not necessary to try to make a single research project so comprehensive that it covers everything. It will be prudent to limit one's investigation to what can be done within set time limits; other dimensions can be explored later. (2) Current research can be related to investigations already done and thereby carry those forward another step. For example, in some research reports, theses and dissertations some unresolved questions needing further investigation will be listed in the final chapter. Studies which investigate such specific concerns can help to incrementally build up a body of knowledge about a broader area.

There is another dimension to which attention should also be given when deciding upon the scope of the proposed research.

Conventionally, within the academic community the topic or subject area of research has been an area *within* the researcher's discipline — whether this be Biblical Studies, Theology, History, Sociology, or another discipline — or, in the case of post-graduate level students, perhaps an area related to a particular subdivision within such disciplines. This convention has been rooted in two realities: (1) Within every discipline there have been both old problems and new concerns which have been regarded as in need of investigation, and (2) It has normally been persons trained in a particular discipline who have been regarded as the persons best equipped to conduct research on problems within that discipline. Due to such reasons, a great deal of research in the academic community is likely to continue to be defined by such disciplinary boundaries.

At the same time, this disciplinary approach has been subject to at least four major criticisms:

First, many important areas for research transcend the boundaries of a single discipline. An insistence upon following narrow disciplinary boundaries has therefore often resulted in priority being given to problems which fall within the boundaries of the discipline — with a consequent neglect of research which would transcend disciplinary boundaries.

Second, a narrow disciplinary approach tends to divide the world into discrete fragments and to focus attention on those aspects which can be comprehended within the framework of a particular discipline. One consequence of this approach is that the various disciplines are separated from one another; each pursues an independent existence, and none deal with the interconnectedness of phenomena in the actual world and provide a unifying vision.

Third, because a narrow disciplinary approach generally does not give attention to how its area is related to other areas, it is often unable to adequately resolve problems in its own area or to even ask the right questions.

Fourth, a narrow disciplinary approach often reflects an elitist academic approach which ignores or disvalues the perceptions and interests of persons outside academia, especially the perceptions and interests of the poor.

In view of such criticisms as the above, some researchers have been influenced to attempt interdisciplinary studies — either individually or as members of a team working on an interdisciplinary project — as they have struggled with problems for which satisfactory answers could not be found within the customary boundaries of their separate disciplines. This broader, interdisciplinary approach is technically defined as having reference to, contributing to, or having been derived from, two or more branches of learning (*The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*). As researchers have extended their research into interdisciplinary areas, they have often discerned new depths of understanding which validated their perception that a satisfactory solution to the problem with which they were struggling could be found only by transcending the traditional boundaries of their separate disciplines. Their experiences grew out of and gave legitimation to a new way of defining a research subject area in ways which do not fit within the established boundaries of a particular discipline. Of course, there is no guarantee that interdisciplinary studies will deal with new priorities or be non-elitist. But as researchers reach out beyond the narrow confines of their particular disciplines, the cross-fertilization of ideas in a less structured environment provides a context which is often more congenial to revising priorities and recognizing a wider range of common interests.

At one level these alternative ways of formulating the subject area for research involve the long-standing tension between the generalist who wants to 'see the whole picture' and the specialist who wants to 'probe deeper within the confines of a particular discipline'. Can a researcher who wants to undertake research in an area which transcends certain disciplinary boundaries overcome this tension? One approach toward helping to minimize this tension has been to encourage such persons to acquire competence in the

disciplines which would be involved when attempting to carry out the proposed research. For example, an increasing number of historians have found that a knowledge of the social sciences has enabled them to gain new insights on old issues; out of such endeavors has come an enriched understanding of history as *social* history,¹ in contrast to earlier views of history as historical biographies of persons or institutions, or as chronicles of events. Obviously, carrying out such interdisciplinary research in ways which will be acceptable in the disciplines involved (e.g., in both history and sociology) will require that the researcher acquire an acceptable level of competence not only in his or her own discipline but also in the other disciplines involved. A number of outstanding scholars have made major contributions by utilizing the above approach, and persons wishing to undertake interdisciplinary research should seek to acquire interdisciplinary competence as far as possible. At the same time, it should be noted that acquiring and maintaining professional competence in two or more disciplines can be a very demanding task; often it is difficult to keep up with developments in one's own discipline.

At another level, evaluating or choosing between these alternative ways of formulating the subject area for research will

¹ Recognizing the need for this wider perspective for the study of Christianity in India, the Church History Association of India in 1973 appointed an editorial board to guide the production of a multi-volume history of Christianity in India. In 1974 this board committed itself to a perspective which would view "[T]he history of Christianity in India . . . as an integral part of the socio-cultural history of the Indian people rather than as separate from it . . . [with attention to] the Christian *people* in India; upon who they were and how they understood themselves; upon the changes which these encounters produced in them and in their appropriation of the Christian gospel as well as in the Indian culture and society of which they themselves were a part." ("A Scheme for a Comprehensive History of Christianity in India," *Indian Church History Review* 8/2 [December 1974]: 89). As of this writing, four volumes in this series have been published. With a similar concern for understanding religious phenomena within the context of socio-cultural history, in this case specific religious phenomena across different faith traditions, are the essays which appear in *Religion and Conversion: Religious Conversion and Revival Movements in South Asia in Medieval and Modern Times* (Edited by G.A. Oddie [New Delhi: Manohar, 1977; 2nd ed., 1991]). From among numerous recent more general historical works on India from a social history

require that one struggle with perspectival issues involved in the choice of a research paradigm. We shall consider these issues later in this chapter.

6. Systematic process. As used here, the term 'systematic' implies that the researcher must have a methodical plan which s/he will follow while searching for a solution to the research problem. Stated differently, the concern here is that the researcher develop an orderly plan to guide his or her inquiry. Such a plan will, among other things, help to maintain the focus of the inquiry, show how the research is related to existing knowledge in the subject area, draw attention to major sources to be investigated, and indicate major ways in which the data will be conceptualized, gathered and evaluated.

Researchers are normally aided here by their disciplines, in each of which there are certain generally accepted research methods or research tools. Separate disciplines will often have a methods course, a major function of which is to help beginning researchers to become more thoroughly acquainted with the tools of that discipline and thereby become better equipped to use these more self-consciously as they search for answers to research problems.

A word of caution is in order here, however. Although a plan of research may be systematic, it must always be regarded as only a *working*

perspective, it may suffice here to note two examples. In the study of early Indian history Romila Thapar has sought to move beyond the colonialist, orientalist and nationalist approaches to give critical attention to often overlooked evidence regarding the historical context of the period in its varied social, cultural, economic, political and religious dimensions — see, e.g., her *Interpreting Early India* (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1992). Social history of a somewhat different type has been the objective of the Subaltern Studies series which views the 'accepted' histories as colonialist and elitist and seeks to provide an alternative history from the perspective of the masses by examining unconventional or neglected sources in popular memory, oral discourse, and unexamined colonial administrative documents or a re-reading of these — see, e.g., *Selected Subaltern Studies*, edited by Ranajit Guha and Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak (New York: Oxford University Press, 1988) which brings together selected essays from five volumes of the series. Interesting work has also been done in other branches of study where researchers have gained competence in other disciplines and gained new insights on old problems.

plan. As research proceeds, the researcher will usually become aware of new concerns, sources and conceptualizations which make it necessary to revise, and in some cases radically modify, the original plan of research. Such interaction between a working plan and on-going research is a normal part of a research undertaking. The function of a research plan is to provide systematic guidance in view of what is known or anticipated, not to dictate the entire research process. As more becomes known about the problem being investigated, it will normally become necessary to revise the original plan of research in order to have a working plan which will continue to provide helpful guidance. Rigid adherence to an initial plan of research can make an idol out of what may be best regarded as preliminary and provisional. While an initial plan of research should be systematic, it will normally need to undergo considerable revision — perhaps several times — in order to continue to provide useful guidance.

7. Communicable investigation. Research implies that the results of one's investigation, and how one reached these results, can be communicated to others. While this may seem obvious, it is unfortunately true that many research reports — term papers, seminar reports, and early drafts of theses and dissertations — are initially often so poorly organized and written in such ponderous language that they are unclear and miscommunicate. Such problems are often rooted in a lack of clarity in the conceptualization of the research problem and/or lack of rigour in the research process. However, if the researcher has a clear research problem, and has carried his or her research out systematically, it should be possible to state the results in a clear, systematic form so that others will be able to understand the procedures used, follow the argument that is developed, and understand how the researcher arrived at his or her conclusions. This assumes not only that the researcher is thoroughly familiar with his or her area of investigation, but also that s/he is able to share the results with others in a written and/or oral form which is easily comprehended, which can be profound without being obscure, and which avoids obtrusive use of technical jargon. This does not mean that the reader will be convinced about either the

adequacy of the data-gathering process or the validity of the analysis and interpretation. It does mean, however, that the results of research will have been presented with sufficient clarity for others to understand and make their own assessment.

8. Verifiable results. Finally, research requires that the results be verifiable — that is, that the results of research be presented to the public domain in such a way that others can examine the procedures followed and see whether they would also draw the same conclusions. This means that the data one uses would also be available to others, that one's terms and concepts are clearly defined, that the methods used (including literary and statistical documentation as applicable) are clearly described, and that one's arguments — whether for the acceptance or rejection of a point of view — are clearly and adequately presented. Where this is adequately done, others should be able to follow the same methods to deal with the data and conclude that the research results are indeed reasonable — and perhaps persuasive. Where there is such agreement, this would help to strengthen the findings by demonstrating that these findings can be confirmed by others and were not dependent upon the subjective judgment of a particular researcher.

Selecting a Subject Area for Research

Some consideration has been given in the previous section to the necessity of limiting the scope of the research undertaking to a single question or problem on which research can be carried through to completion within the time and other resources available. But how does one actually go about selecting an area and arriving at a topic for research? A finished research report, thesis or dissertation often gives the impression that the researcher knew from the beginning where s/he was going and that the research process followed a neat and logical order from the beginning until the end. In actual practice this seldom happens. Rather, there is often a process of tentative

formulation, revision and reformulation which may continue until the research undertaking is almost complete. In this process of progressively delineating one's area of research, the researcher should give particular attention to his or her interests, the relevance of those interests to the larger human community, and the level of competence needed.

The researcher's personal interests and value judgements. It is taken for granted that the area for research should be one in which the researcher is interested. Since any research project worth its name involves an extensive investment of time and energy, of sheer hard work, a deep and abiding interest in the research area is indispensable for sustaining the research process.

At the same time, interest alone is an insufficient basis for selecting a research area. At any given time most persons will be interested in several different things. It is therefore important to recognize that the process of selecting an area for research involves the making of value judgements. When selecting an area for research, every researcher is expressing his or her judgement about which out of a large variety of possibilities is most important and upon which the prospective investment of time and energy will be best justified. To a certain extent this judgement will be influenced by subjective factors unique to each researcher. At the same time, personal proclivities provide an insufficient basis for selecting an area for research. Researchers carry out their work not only as individuals but also as members of communities to which they are accountable. Therefore, attention to additional considerations, such as those discussed below, will help to provide more objective guidance to the selection process and ensure that it is carried out responsibly.

Academic and social relevance. When selecting an area for research, a researcher should take into consideration not only his or her interests, but also the interests and needs of the academic community and larger society by asking such questions as: How will the proposed research add or relate to the fund of available knowledge? Will it help to correct or augment an important

theory? What is the potential practical contribution — how will this research help solve a recognized problem in the functioning of individuals, institutions, or a society? Will it help people gain greater control over their lives? A review of such questions will often draw attention to additional areas for research and thereby help to enlarge the researcher's areas of interests and research possibilities. A single research project will probably not provide answers to all such questions, but it should be able to contribute a positive answer to one or more questions such as these — otherwise, the research effort may not be justifiable.

Competence. It may appear obvious that competence on the part of the researcher is necessary for the successful execution of a research undertaking. Less obvious, perhaps, is the fact that in the context of research competence does not mean mastery of the subject area. The purpose of research is to find answers to questions for which satisfactory answers do not yet exist. Mastery of the subject area of research, therefore, cannot be expected prior to carrying out the research project.

At the same time, carrying a research project through to completion will require that the researcher possess the necessary research skills and be familiar with the tools applicable to a particular area of research. These can vary from one research project to another, depending upon the type of research to be conducted. Specific research skills are often taught as part of a methods course in some degree programmes, and are commonly further developed through experience. Knowledge of a language other than one's mother tongue — such as Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Sanskrit or another vernacular — may be necessary for some research projects; for others a knowledge of field research methods and familiarity with basic statistical procedures may be needed. Useful research will depend, among other things, upon the researcher having the requisite skills and tools; normally these can be acquired and subsequently can become useful instruments in the hands of a creative researcher. Obversely, persons without competence in such areas will not be able to proceed very far in the research process.

Formulation of the Problem

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that research is concerned with finding an answer to a single manageable problem. Establishing this beginning point is crucial to the success of a research undertaking. Some elaboration may help to shed more light on why this is so important.

It is not uncommon for beginning researchers to feel that when selecting a subject area for their proposed research they have also formulated the problem which is to be investigated. But this is often not true. A proposed title may specify an area to be researched, but it may not necessarily specify the exact problem or question for which an answer is to be sought. Before either library or field data can be most successfully gathered, it is necessary to state as precisely as possible the problem to be investigated and the dimensions of data which will be deemed relevant. This will involve both clarity of conceptualization and, preliminary to that, discovery or identification of the general area to be investigated. Both of these concerns will be further discussed below.

Definition. A statement of a problem is a clear and concise statement, preferably of only one sentence, which specifies the precise problem or question for which an answer is to be sought in the research undertaking. If you are not able to state your problem in one sentence, you probably have too many problems and are not yet clear about what you wish to investigate, about what is to be included and what is to be excluded. The purpose of research, especially academic research, is to find a solution to a specific problem, an answer to a specific question; it is concerned not with simply writing on a subject but with finding an answer to a specific problem for which no persuasive answer yet exists. This means that the area of proposed research must be continually refined until the focus is upon a single specific problem or question. At the same time, a problem may be clearly stated and yet be so broad that the researcher will find it impossible to carry out the necessary research. The statement of the problem

should therefore be not only clear and precise; it should also present a *manageable* problem — a problem for which the necessary research can be carried out within the time and other resources available to the researcher.

Relation of the statement of the problem to the research undertaking. A clear statement of the problem is necessary not only to identify the specific area of research but also to help identify the most relevant type of materials to be gathered and analysed. This elementary insight has often been expressed in the following maxim: "The perception of material as relevant varies in direct relationship to the clarity with which a problem has been defined." If the problem has been only vaguely defined, then everything will appear relevant and the research will become unmanageable. On the other hand, when the problem for research has been precisely defined, the researcher will know much more clearly what materials will need to be gathered and therefore will be in a position to make a much more efficient and effective use of his or her time. Moreover, a clearly formulated statement of the problem enables the researcher to *know* when s/he has completed his or her research, for good research is not to be equated with simply writing a long research report but with finding and presenting the most persuasive answer to a clearly stated problem or question. Thus, the initial formulation of the problem is often the most crucial phase in any research undertaking. Through the use of a vivid analogy, Northrop has sought to emphasize how a clear formulation of the problem is necessary for productive research:

The most difficult portion of any inquiry is its initiation. One may have the most rigorous of methods during the later stages of investigation, but if a false or superficial beginning has been made, rigor later on will never retrieve the situation. It is like a ship leaving port for a distant destination. A very slight erroneous

deviation in taking one's bearings at the beginning may result in entirely missing one's mark at the end regardless of the sturdiness of one's craft or the excellence of one's subsequent seamanship.²

None of this is intended to suggest that research is concerned with finding an answer to *only* one question. Indeed, during the research process it may become necessary to find answers for many questions. But in well conceived research such questions will be understood as interrelated questions, subsidiary to or inherent in the main question. As answers are found to these micro-questions, the researcher will increasingly be able to build a series of connected arguments which will progressively identify a persuasive or at least plausible answer to the main problem being investigated.

Further steps toward discovery and formulation of a problem in need of a solution. Mention has already been made about the role of personal interest, academic and social relevance and level of competence needed in helping the researcher to delineate an area for research. But even within subject areas which these may suggest, the area for research is often broad, somewhat vague, extending over uncharted territory. How, then, might one further proceed in trying to identify a specific area for investigation and formulating this in terms of a single research problem? There are no fixed rules, but mention may be made of a few somewhat common procedures.

Discovery by accident and curiosity. The story of how Sir Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin has often been told. Fleming was working in his laboratory trying to cultivate bacteria when something went wrong. In a dish in which he was trying to cultivate some bacteria, all the bacteria died. There was also present in the dish a green mold. This had probably happened to many other scientists before Fleming, and they may have been irritated by the 'ruined experiment', tossed the culture into the rubbish, and tried once more to culture the bacteria. However, Fleming

² F.S.C. Northrop, *The Logic of The Sciences and The Humanities* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947), 1.

intuitively recognized that this would have been contrary to scientific procedure. Here were two basic facts: "A bacteria culture was destroyed and a green mold was present in the dish." Were these related? Fleming became curious — and began to investigate *this* problem. Through further experiments he discovered that the green mold was responsible for the destruction of the bacteria, and the outcome of his research was the discovery of penicillin as a strong antibacterial drug.³ The interesting point here is that Fleming's discovery came quite by accident; he was actually working in another direction when curiosity led him to investigate a new area. Here is one of the characteristics of a good researcher: while conversant with basic knowledge, s/he is never so bound up with one problem that s/he is blind to unusual events, never so tied to preconceived notions that s/he is oblivious to the unexpected, never so wedded to accepted theory that s/he is unable to recognize and examine incongruous phenomena.

Observation of contradictions. This follows from the above. Many fruitful investigations have arisen out of conflicting opinions about the supposed origin of a writing or artifact from an earlier period, or observations of apparent contradictions between such things as people's professed beliefs and their actual practices. For example, numerous writers have drawn attention to incongruencies among persons who strongly affirm their church membership and yet at the same time in actual practice diverge from the official teachings of their church in several areas. Many fruitful research projects have begun from the observation of an apparent contradiction such as this, of a deviation from official practice, seeking to answer the problem of "why do these apparent contradictions exist?" Why do some persons belong to a particular religion yet not subscribe to some of its official teachings? Why do some persons deviate from the expected norms of their society? A search for persuasive answers to questions such as these has provided the basis for many fruitful inquiries.

³ Based on the story as told by Arthur J. Bachrach, *Psychological Research* (New York: Random House, 1962), 4-6.

Recognition of problems or needs in one's own society. Much fruitful research has arisen out of researchers' concern about improving the quality of life in their own societies — for example, what is the root cause of continued poverty? How can the weaker sections secure greater access to health care and education? What can be done to protect the forests and sources of safe drinking water? How can corporate crime and corruption in public office be controlled? Although these questions are very general, questions such as these help to direct attention to problems and needs in society which cry out for solutions. Research related to such areas has often yielded not only increased understanding of root causes, but also discernment of how ameliorative efforts can be best directed. Although *what* is regarded as a problem will often vary among researchers (what one person sees as a problem may be regarded by another as a desirable situation), where some see a particular social situation as problematic, this may constitute legitimate grounds for research in that area.

Discovery of untested theory or accepted theory which appears questionable and in need of retesting. Work within a discipline will sometimes lead to (1) the discovery of theoretical constructs which have not been sufficiently tested, or, in view of either new evidence or changed social conditions, to (2) serious doubts about whether an accepted theory continues to provide a persuasive explanation of how things are to be understood. Some of the intellectually most revitalising times in the history of a discipline have occurred as a result of the work of a researcher whose findings have either revealed previously unrecognized weaknesses in a taken-for-granted theory or challenged accepted theory with a plausible alternative theory. Work on this level involves a high level of abstraction and presumes broad knowledge of one's discipline. In many ways this can be the most complex form of analytical research in which one seeks to establish whether a theoretical position is valid for given conditions. Findings in this area are of obvious importance in strengthening theoretical understandings within disciplines.

General exploration of one's area. Regardless of how one identifies a potential area for research, it will be necessary to formulate a research problem which is both clear and distinct from what has already been done. This will require, as has already been noted, that the researcher becomes broadly acquainted with the general area in which research is proposed. Explorations at this stage should include: (1) Previous studies in the general area of proposed research. Frequently extensive work will already have been done, and it will be possible to build on and extend the work already done by others. (2) Relevant literature in related areas. While sometimes it is possible to find only a few previous studies in the general area of proposed research, it is very often possible to find a much larger body of materials in related areas. An examination of these materials will often not only help to identify what others have done but also help the researcher to clarify what dimensions should be explored in the proposed research, identify more clearly the questions and issues to be examined, and specify more precisely the relationship of the proposed study to existing knowledge. (3) Contact with persons believed to be knowledgeable about the general area of proposed research. This may include discussions with persons who have carried out unpublished studies, taught courses or carried out other professional work related to the area of proposed study, and informal discussion with and observation of persons who are members of a group or community to be studied. Such contact will help the researcher to develop a more intimate 'feel' of the proposed subject area and a more sensitive judgement with regard to what the most important issues are and how these can most appropriately be investigated.

Explorations along the above lines will enable the researcher to become acquainted with what has already been done, formulate more precisely the problem to be investigated, gain further insights regarding possible solutions and major issues to be explored, and show how the proposed research is distinct from work already done and at the same time how it is related to existing knowledge.

Where discoveries of the above types are made later during research as part of an academic requirement, it may not be possible to immediately shift to a new area of research due to either the lack of flexible administrative structures or time limitations. However, such discoveries can be noted as promising areas for future research. Where such discoveries are made during an independent research undertaking, it may be more possible to rather quickly shift to a new and promising area of research — unless other commitments (for example, contracted research) make it necessary to continue with current research, or the necessary resources (such as time and funds) are not currently available.

Major Research Models: Two Paradigms

So far the discussion in this chapter has dealt primarily with what research *is*, not with *how* research is conducted. In many places and for relatively long periods of time research has been regarded as a value-free process out of which self-evident claims emerge. Increasingly, however, this view has been contested as some of its basic assumptions have come under critical scrutiny.

As has already been noted, a major concern of much research has been to extend knowledge in a particular area or fill in gaps within the existing body of knowledge or to re-examine some part of what has been accepted as knowledge but which the researcher believes questionable and in need of re-examination. It has been assumed that a growing or refined body of knowledge will help enlarge our understanding of our world. For example, it has been assumed that through the systematic collection of data, and through the rigorous analysis of that data — in short, through the use of the scientific method — it is possible to increase our understanding of the phenomena being investigated.

As has also been noted, it has been assumed that a growing body of such knowledge will also enable us to formulate appropriate guidelines and policies in areas where such knowledge is regarded as having relevance. For example, it has sometimes been

assumed that an enlarged understanding of selected theologians of the past, which might emerge from proposed research, would not only provide a better understanding of such persons' thought but would also provide us with enriched theological understandings suitable for our times. Similarly, it has also often been assumed that an enhanced understanding of social realities will provide not only insights on how existing social reality is ordered, but would also provide insights on how we might work toward restructuring society and thereby further shaping our social world according to our values.

However, it is now widely recognized that a better understanding of theologies of the past will not of itself provide us with enriched theological understandings suitable for our context. Theologies, and theological understandings, arise out of specific socio-economic-political-religio-cultural contexts, formulated by persons in specific social positions. A study of theologians of the past may help to provide a better understanding of how they understood their contexts and sought to reflect theologically in and upon that context. But a particular theology cannot be automatically transposed to a different socio-economic-political-religio-cultural context and/or to people of a different social position; any attempt to do so ignores its historical conditionedness and may unwittingly result in the imposition of a theology which legitimates the status quo and thereby helps to perpetuate conditions of exploitation and injustice — as has happened, for example, where western theologies have been uncritically transposed to eastern and southern countries. This socio-historical conditionedness of theologies also applies to other disciplines — for the constructions of knowledge in all disciplines are inevitably human constructs which, being human, are, to varying extents, influenced by the values, interests and historical limitations of their developers and advocates.

Similarly it is now widely recognized that a better understanding of existing social realities, and even of alternative ways of responding to and attempting to shape those realities, will not of itself necessarily tell us what course of action is ethically most desirable. A better knowledge of existing social realities can enrich our understanding

of why things are as they are, and a better knowledge of alternative courses of action can often enlarge the range of choice and contribute to more informed decision making. But such knowledge by itself does not provide answers to questions such as whether existing social realities should continue and, if not, how these should be changed; any attempt to derive answers about a desired future solely from knowledge about social realities and potential courses of action ignores the role of a wider range of knowledge — such as in economics, political science or religious studies — and the values of the decision makers in the decision-making process.

This brief discussion should be sufficient to indicate that there is an inherent hiatus, gap or discontinuity between knowledge about theological thought in the past and the formulation of theological thought appropriate to a contemporary context, between knowledge about existing social realities and a value decision about the type of society desired in the future.

Concerns about a hiatus of this sort and how it can be overcome or at least minimized is perhaps the major issue in much of the contemporary debate about what research model will best ensure that the results of one's work will have both academic acceptability and social relevance. The debate is about two competing research paradigms which, for heuristic purposes, I shall refer to as the traditional and the participatory models.⁴

The *traditional* paradigm, which has been dominant in the academic community, is oriented toward making our knowledge within a subject area more complete — by either seeking to fill gaps or resolve problems within the existing corpus of knowledge, or by re-examining some part of what has been accepted as knowledge but which the researcher believes questionable and perhaps in need of revision. For persons following this model, the

⁴It should be noted that this debate is somewhat different from, although related to, the enduring debate about quantitative and qualitative research. A brief discussion of the latter debate is given in Chapter 3.

purpose of research inquiry is the 'pursuit of truth'. In this model, 'truth' is conceptualized, abstractly or theoretically, as being a unified body of knowledge. Researchers following the traditional paradigm see themselves as academic scholars whose primary task is to generate new knowledge to help make our knowledge more complete and unified. It is assumed that this new knowledge can be apprehended through the conceptual tools of the researcher's discipline. It is the researcher who decides the area to be investigated and the data to be gathered, who analyses the data and draws conclusions, and who prepares reports on the research undertaken according to the professional standards in his or her discipline. The research process is regarded as essentially an objective undertaking in which subjective factors on the part of the researcher do not influence observation, and the researcher is considered to be a detached observer — one who stands outside of the phenomena being studied, is ideally uninvolved personally or at least relatively able to recognize and temporarily set aside personal predispositions, and therefore presumably able to perceive 'facts' objectively, without bias. In its most refined form, the traditional research paradigm is oriented toward the construction of an abstract theoretical schema which will provide a conceptual framework or general principles for understanding one's subject area; how the newly generated knowledge will be used is not a part of the researcher's immediate concern.

Use of the traditional paradigm has helped to fill many gaps in human knowledge. At the same time, in recent years increased dissatisfaction has arisen where this approach has been exclusively and rigorously followed. Among the main reasons behind this dissatisfaction are the following:⁵

1. The results of such inquiries tend to be presented in abstract form, and to be written in an esoteric language (jargon) directed at specialists within a discipline and inaccessible to others.

⁵This listing draws upon discussions by Harsh Sethi, 'Academia and Action — Some Interactions' and Arvind N. Das, 'The Role of Social Scientists in Action Research: Some Truisms and Home Truths', in Kuldeep Mathur and Harsh Sethi, eds., *Action Research for Development* (New Delhi: Indian Institute of Public

2. Such research has increasingly tended to be concentrated on narrowly defined areas which may be of interest to some persons within a discipline but which appear not to have wider relevance.

3. Such research projects have to a large extent been undertaken primarily to fulfill an academic need (for example, securing an academic degree to get a job, or publishing the results of research to secure academic recognition and professional advancement), after which they are quietly consigned to gather dust on library shelves.

4. Such research has tended to treat people as objects. "The oppressed are identified, measured, dissected, and analysed from the outside" and the "results are never discussed with those with whom they are most directly concerned."⁶ One consequence of this is that the research subjects become merely objects of study, having no say in what is studied, how the study is pursued or to what uses the results of the inquiry are put.

5. While in a philosophical sense truth may be conceptualised as one, there is also a sense in which truth, or at least the paths to truth, are multi-dimensional. Truth-knowledge is so vast and multifaceted that it cannot be fully comprehended by any single discipline or approach; any claim by a particular discipline or approach that it alone is the path to truth is an imperialistic claim resting on false epistemological grounds.

6. Complete objectivity, of totally uninvolved and detached observation, of value-free research, is an impossibility. Any researcher who believes that s/he is engaged only in 'academic'

Administration, 1983): 121-137. Such criticisms are at times found among persons in academia who believe that the traditional paradigm encourages an empty academic formalism and who therefore argue for a mode of research which would incorporate more 'people-sensitive' features. Criticism of the traditional paradigm are often common among some social action groups whose evaluation of proposed research generally tends to be based more on the extent to which it is viewed as likely to help promote desired social change than on its potential contribution to an abstract body of knowledge.

⁶ Mathur and Sethi, *Action Research*...., 122.

research proceeds on an untenable assumption. The fallacy of that assumption has often been exposed where it has been shown that no research is value free. On the contrary, value premises are involved at every stage — in the selection of a particular problem for research from among many possibilities, in the questions asked, in the interpretation of data, and in the presentation and use of the results of research.

In addition to the above negative assessments of the traditional paradigm, we need to also take into consideration two other criticisms made by advocates for social movements among marginalized segments of society:

From the perspective of feminist movements and women's studies, the traditional research paradigm is seriously flawed by "the male bias or androcentrism that prevails in practically all disciplines," most of the theoretical work, and research methods. Women who try to follow the traditional paradigm "have constantly to repress, negate or ignore their own experience of sexist oppression and have to strive to live up to the so-called 'rational' standards of a highly competitive, male-dominated academic world."⁷

From the perspective of social movements among Dalits and Tribals in India, Indian society is seriously flawed by a pervasive higher caste bias: "All national political parties, the educational structures, the state bureaucracy (in spite of reservations), the armed forces, and industry and commerce are still dominated

⁷ Marie Mies, "Towards a methodology of feminist research," in *Theories of Women's Studies*, edited by Gloria Bowles and Renate Duelli Klein (London: Routledge, 1983), 118, 121. For further explication of this perspective, see also Judith A. Cook and Mary Margaret Fonovi, "Knowledge and Women's Interests. Issues of Epistemology and Methodology in Feminist Sociological Research," in *Feminist Research Methods. Exemplary Readings in the Social Sciences*, edited by Joyce McCarl Nielsen (Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1990), 69-93, and Helen E. Longino's book review essay on recent works, "Feminist Standpoint Theory and the Problem of Knowledge," *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 19/1 (Autumn, 1993): 201-212.

by higher castes."⁸ This would imply that where research in India has followed the traditional paradigm it has been biased by not only androcentrism as noted above, but also by casteism, classism and elitism.

A major factor behind these dissatisfactions is the perception that knowledge is power. If knowledge is power, then a number of questions follow: Why should this power be acquired by outsiders — most frequently by men of higher caste/class/elitist background — and used for their purposes? Why should the newly generated 'knowledge' often be channeled to other groups who use that 'knowledge' to further oppress the persons/groups studied? Are we not concerned with *who* generates knowledge, what *kind* of knowledge is generated, and *for whom* and for *what purposes*? Such dissatisfactions and critical questions with regard to the traditional research paradigm has led a number of persons to search for alternative research paradigms which in their view would be more adequate.

A major alternative which has emerged is the *participatory-action* research model. This model differs from the traditional paradigm in several major ways: It is oriented toward the interests and welfare of the people being studied. The researcher and participants in the study are regarded as partners who together decide upon the area to be investigated and the data to be gathered, and who jointly participate in the process of data gathering and in determining how the data will be analysed and the conclusions which are drawn. The participants in the study are regarded as subjects with their own concerns. The primary purpose of the research is not the production

⁸ Saral K. Chatterji, "Some Aspects of Dalit Ideology," in *Towards A Common Dalit Ideology*, edited by Arvind P. Nirmal (Madras: Gurukul Lutheran Theological College & Research Institute, 1989[?]), 10.

of a report but, rather, the generation of a more adequate consciousness among the participants about their situation and how a positive change can be achieved. The researcher is considered to be a participant-observer who participates in the life of the people being studied, interacting as one among them, and who is at the same time a critical observer. Any research report is prepared in the language of the participants, thereby making the results available to them. In its most refined form, the participatory-action research paradigm is oriented toward generating knowledge which can be used by the participants in the study to bring about positive change which may include but is not limited to improvement of their welfare; how the newly generated knowledge may relate to the body of knowledge within a particular academic discipline is not a part of the researcher's immediate concern.

The major differences between these two paradigms can perhaps be seen most clearly in the following comparative listing which, by comparison, shows where *primary* emphasis is placed.

	<u>Traditional Model</u>	<u>Participatory-Action Model</u>
Orientation/goals	'Filling gaps' in existing knowledge, developing and testing theories, and increasing or strengthening knowledge in a particular area	Bringing about positive change among the participants, typically the poor and oppressed
Researcher's role	Primarily that of an outsider, detached, uninvolved so as to maximize 'objectivity', minimize bias	Primarily that of being a participant in and critical observer of the life of the participants in the study
Choice of research problem	Based upon the interests of the discipline and the researcher, and the status of theoretical knowledge; decided by the researcher; academically oriented	Based upon the self-perceived needs and interests of the participants in the study; decided by the people and researcher jointly; 'people' oriented

Why data is gathered	To answer questions and problems set by the researcher who is usually a member of the dominant class	To answer questions and problems perceived as important by the participants in the study; may or may not be those deemed by the researcher alone as important
How data is gathered	By the researcher, through instruments constructed for the researcher's purpose; appropriated by the researcher for his/her research purposes	Jointly by the researcher and participants in the study, through a process by which the people become more knowledgeable about their situation, own the new knowledge and develop a critical social consciousness
Way knowledge is communicated	Expressed in technical, professional academic language in the form of reports, theses and dissertations	Expressed in the language of the participants in the study in a form which they can understand
Accessibility of knowledge	Often accessible only to specialists	Knowledge, being generated by the participants in the study, in collaboration with the researcher, is accessible to them
Use of knowledge	Since knowledge is generated by the researcher who tends to be a member of the dominant class, knowledge tends to be used in ways which will influence others to conform to the ideology of the dominant class and maintain the status quo	Knowledge is used to build awareness, mobilization and action; becomes a tool for creation of a new self-image, social change and liberation; may be used to disrupt the dominant system

View of people studied	Seen as objects, sources of data useful for the researcher's purpose	Seen as subjects, with their own concerns and priorities, treated as participants in determining their history
Researcher's orientation	Primarily to his/her own discipline, academic community, professional advancement and interests of the dominant class/caste/tribe or other group	Primarily to the needs of the participants in the study with symmetry, as far as possible, between the researcher's perceptions and the people's self-perceptions

The above portrayal of the two models attempts to describe each in its most rigorous form for purposes of comparison. To some extent these contrasting approaches invoke the long standing debate regarding a 'book view' versus a 'field view' of reality. To some persons the traditional paradigm may appear 'bookish' and lacking in social relevance; others may regard the participatory model as representing social advocacy rather than genuine research.

Nevertheless, on the basis of such comparisons as the above, albeit brief, it is clear that these two research models involve differences on several dimensions: the process followed in the selection and pursuit of a research problem, the way in which new knowledge is generated, the use to which that knowledge is put.

The description given above, of course, refers to ideal typical paradigms — examples which, by comparison, help to bring out more clearly the distinctive emphasis of the two models. But this is not meant to imply that research following either of the two paradigms is necessarily limited to the distinctive emphases of that paradigm. For example, while research following the traditional paradigm would be *primarily* oriented toward increasing or strengthening knowledge in a particular area, it might also, to a lesser extent, give attention to bringing about positive change among the people being studied. Similarly, while research organized according to the participatory-action paradigm would be *primarily*

oriented toward bringing about positive change among the participants in the study, this does not mean that such research would ignore the task of knowledge construction. Indeed, preliminary to bringing about positive change among the participants in the study, which may include but is not limited to improvement of their welfare, it may be necessary to increase, strengthen or supplement a knowledge base which would provide directions on how such positive change could be accomplished. The existing knowledge base may be quite incomplete and biased by the interests of those who have contributed to its construction. Where this is the case, then prior to the issue of enhancing the people's welfare will be the task of correcting or supplementing extant knowledge. It may be, for example, that the participants in the study are not literate and their interests do not appear in publically accepted/accessible knowledge. If this is so, then it may become necessary to help the participants examine their oral traditions, weigh disparate versions, and systematically construct a history of themselves — in order to have a clearer grasp of their own history, and as a means of correcting and/or supplementing the publically accessible knowledge. This re-visiting of history has been and is being done by such people themselves, and the emergent histories have been characterized as 'history from the underside', or history from the perspective of 'the deprived', or 'the exploited', or 'the marginalized', or 'the oppressed', or all of these.

Where the construction of a people's history is undertaken during a research undertaking based on the participatory-action paradigm, this is not an end in itself (which is often a claim made by researchers following the traditional paradigm) but, rather, a necessary step prior to efforts to help bring about positive change among the participants in the study — which is the main goal.

Similarly, where participatory-action research is done among people who are not literate, the knowledge generated can then become part of a more comprehensive oral tradition among the people; it may also be necessary to put the knowledge so generated into written form to correct and/or supplement extant written

knowledge and thereby to help establish the people's claims. In this and other ways research undertaken according to the participatory-action model may at times utilize elements associated more prominently with the traditional model, but the use of these is subsidiary to the primary emphasis of the participatory-action model.

In actual practice the differences, in some other ways, may not be so clearly drawn — for example, a researcher who basically follows the traditional paradigm may take into consideration the self-perceived needs of the people being studied when selecting a research area, follow a participant-observer method of data gathering and in addition to a professional report prepare a report especially meant for the persons studied; similarly, a researcher who wishes to follow a participatory-action paradigm but who is from a middle-class background may unwittingly tend to concentrate primarily on problems of personal interest, to involve the people only marginally in the gathering and analysis of data, and to give more attention to the expectations of his or her professional peers than those of the people studied when preparing a research report. Each researcher will have departed somewhat from the chosen model in its conceptually most complete form. While such departures do occur, research undertakings do tend to primarily follow either the traditional or the participatory-action model. Within the academic community the traditional model continues to be the dominant — but not necessarily the most valuable — paradigm.

Each model has its strengths and weaknesses. Some would argue that the traditional model continues to be dominant because the participatory-action model is appropriate only for certain types of social science research and does not have wider applicability. However, this may be more a matter of conjecture than fact. Reference has already been made to how a historical study might be pursued when doing participatory-action research. Persons working with social movements among women, Dalits and Tribals have found the participatory-action model to not only provide

more respect for the people as subjects (rather than objects), but to also be a more viable model for discerning the realities of their situation, the reasons for their subordination, and directions for their emancipatory struggles. The participatory-action model is thereby regarded as contextually both more relevant and more rigorous than the traditional model. It should be noted, however, that this is attained only by serious engagement in both library and field research. There does not seem to be any apparent reason why research in the various disciplinary areas cannot also be conducted from the perspective of the participatory-action model. For example, in biblical studies the researcher will usually begin with biblical texts which provide records or stories of and about an ancient people, about their faith and witness. While the researcher will not be dealing primarily with living people, s/he can make a deliberate effort to look at the materials from the perspective of the marginalized, of those on the underside of history. This could in some cases include an examination of how persons currently marginalized and on the underside of history 'see' and understand the texts being studied. Through such perspectival readings, investigations and interpretations it will be possible for the researcher to provide 'space' in the research undertaking for the participation of those on the underside of history.

As with research following the traditional model, the possibilities of doing participatory-action research in other areas are heavily dependent upon the ability of the researcher and the people to ask creative questions, to identify problems not generally recognized, to become adept in envisioning plausible alternatives which may not yet be generally accepted or which may even challenge currently accepted ideas. Doubts about the relevance of the participatory-action paradigm may be rooted more in a failure of creative and critical imagination than in an inherent weakness in the paradigm. In view of such concerns, it would appear that research in a wide range of areas could be undertaken according to either the traditional or the participatory-action model, or some combination of the two; which model one chooses will involve,

among other things, both moral and political choices, taking sides in the generation of knowledge.⁹

This brings us to the critical issue of *perspective*. Without doubt, the matter of perspective is at least as important as proficiency in the technical procedures of research — for one's perspective will strongly influence what are perceived as priority areas for research.

What is meant by perspective? As used here, perspective means a point of view; a way of looking at the world; one's mental image of the relative importance of the varied aspects of one's world and the relationship between these; one's 'world-view', which has been defined as "a set of fundamental beliefs, attitudes, values, etc., determining or constituting a comprehensive outlook on life, the universe, etc." (*The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*).

It has been increasingly recognized that the perspective or worldview which a person or a people hold is strongly influenced by the context in which they live — the country in which they live, the economy and polity of that country, the ethnic/class/caste/tribal section of society to which they belong, their position in that section/society, the religion and/or ideology which they profess and the faith commitments which arise out of those beliefs and loyalties, and so on. Thus, we may expect that the perspective of an Indian will in some ways be different from that of, say, a German or American or Korean, the perspective of a woman to differ in some ways from that of a man, the perspective of a dalit to differ in some ways from that of a vaishya or brahmin, the perspective of a person living in poverty to differ in some ways from that of a person living in affluence, the perspective of a person who professes a religion to differ in some ways from that of a person who disavows religion, and so on.

It is also being increasingly recognized that one's perspective or worldview will strongly influence what are perceived as priority

⁹ A more extended discussion with particular reference to the participatory-action model can be found in *Participatory and Conventional Research Methodologies* by Walter Fernandes and Philip Viegas (New Delhi: Indian Social Institute, 1985).

areas for research — indeed, with what are perceived as areas in which it is possible or feasible to undertake research. For example, to what extent can persons from one religious or socio-cultural background undertake study of persons belonging to a different religious or socio-cultural background? If we assume that such research can be undertaken, at least to some extent, in what way might such research be influenced by the different religious or socio-cultural background of the researcher? While such questions raise complex issues which cannot be pursued here, these questions are in some ways analogous to questions about the possibility of doing interdisciplinary research. Behind all of these questions is a concern for perspective — about the extent to which such choices are shaped by one's background and about the extent to which research might be shaped by *intentional* choice, by personal commitment to values and interests different from those of one's background.

This is one of the major reasons that in recent years so much emphasis has been placed upon the importance of contextualization. Research done elsewhere — for example, in the West — will deal with what persons there have seen as important. Their choices will have been influenced not only by their formal training in a particular discipline, but also by the socio-economic-political-religio-cultural realities of their context. For researchers in the so-called Third World these contextual realities are likely to be quite different. It is therefore important that researchers in the Third World develop self-conscious critical awareness of the socio-economic-political-religio-cultural realities of their own context. This is essential for creating 'space' or a 'standpoint' for developing a contextual perspective which, in conjunction with their faith commitments and formal training, will help such researchers to identify areas of research most important for their context. This implies that while one's perspective is influenced by one's background, one's perspective can undergo change, can become more perceptive, even transformed, through critical inquiry about one's context and one's place in that context.

The matter of perspective also has importance with regard to whether research is best carried out within the boundaries of a single discipline or on an interdisciplinary basis, and with whether the traditional or participatory-action model is followed. By virtue of formal training, most persons in the academic community have been trained/influenced to perceive research problems primarily in terms of their own discipline and to follow the traditional paradigm when undertaking research. In practice, possible linkages with other disciplines have been largely unexplored as researchers have pursued their individual interests largely in isolation from one another. Research on problems specific to a particular discipline can, of course, be best done within the boundaries of that discipline by persons trained in that discipline. However, there are also many important areas of potential research which cut across two or more disciplines and where drawing upon elements of the participatory-action model can enrich the research process. Where researchers have had the creative imagination, vision and courage to explore such possibilities, this has often led to an alternative or more holistic perspective, increased collegiality, and greatly enriched research as persons from different disciplines and backgrounds benefit from their shared insights regarding a common area of research — such as, for example, the emergence of a rich diversity of ‘liberative’ or alternative theologies in various Third World settings, the palpable collegiality found among Third World theologians from various disciplines working together on a common project, and the pivotal role which people’s stories and contextual analysis have often provided. Collaborative interdisciplinary research of this sort helps to move beyond the limited perspective of a single discipline and to attain levels of understanding which transcend that which emerges among persons working in isolation — whether in individual disciplines or in social action groups.

Chapter 2

Basic Elements of a Research Proposal

The purpose of this brief chapter is to provide a short description of a formal research proposal at the post-graduate level.

A research proposal represents an effort on the part of the writer to set forth a plan or scheme for undertaking his or her proposed research. At the post-graduate level,¹ the thesis or dissertation proposal should normally delineate an area for original research. The proposal is offered to the concerned person(s) for acceptance, suggestions for modification, or rejection. The following is a brief description of some of the basic elements which should be covered in a proposal. Some proposals may cover all of these; others may cover only some of these and include other elements. In case there is some uncertainty about what should be included, instructors, prospective supervisors or other competent guide(s) should be consulted about the specific components expected in a proposal and the relative importance of each.

¹ At the graduate (bachelor's) level there is no uniformity with regard to whether a research project is required in addition to courses. However, at the post-graduate level satisfactory completion of a substantial research project is required. At the master's level the research project normally constitutes one-fourth to one-third of all academic requirements and, by convention, is referred to as a 'thesis' or 'master's thesis'. At the doctoral level the research project is the main academic requirement, but there is usually a preliminary or 'preparatory' period during which the student will be expected to complete certain other requirements to demonstrate his or her readiness to enter the 'research' period. By convention, at the doctoral level the research project report is known as a 'dissertation' or 'doctoral dissertation' (lit., a long written discourse), and is expected to be more original, more thorough, and consequently of greater length and more definitive than a master's thesis.

Title

The proposed title for the anticipated research should be clearly and precisely stated. The title should clearly delineate the area of proposed investigation. A sub-title may be included where this helps to more precisely state the subject area. In some cases subsequent investigation may reveal the need for some reformulation of the title; therefore, the exact wording of the proposed title, when accepted by the concerned person(s) or committee, is not necessarily completely binding. However, to the extent that any reformulation is later necessary, this will be an indication that the area of investigation had not been adequately conceptualized at the proposal stage. A significant change in the formulation of the title may require approval by the relevant administrative body or bodies.

The Research Problem

Statement of the problem. Immediately following the proposed title, a brief statement of the problem or question for which an answer will be sought during the proposed investigation should be given, preferably in one sentence. In some cases this may be a restatement, in a modified form, of the title. The formulation of an adequate statement of the problem presupposes substantial prior research in the general area of investigation. An adequate statement of the problem will include, either directly or indirectly, limitations as needed to keep the investigation manageable — for example, the time period to be covered, the writings of an author to be examined, the type of people to be included in a field study, and so on. When the investigator has arrived at a clear focus for the proposed research, it should be possible to state this in a single sentence. If the investigator is unable to do this, it probably means that his or her conceptualization of the problem is not yet sufficiently clear.

Elaboration of the problem. Immediately following the statement of the problem some elaboration should be given. Here the

proposal should indicate in what way the proposed research does in fact focus upon what can be regarded as a problem — for example, is there new evidence which raises questions about an earlier understanding and thereby necessitates a new investigation of what has been an accepted position? Does lack of agreement among major scholars suggest the need for new research which may extend the boundary of knowledge? Is there a social problem to which persons in some community or church have not been able to make a constructive response because they have not understood certain important dimensions of the problem? Will the study deal with oppressed people whose interests are not being served by the current thrust of the researcher's discipline? In this section of the proposal the major dimensions of the problem to be investigated should be indicated. This elaboration should help to communicate what will be examined, and may be as little as a single paragraph or as much as several pages; the purpose of the elaboration is to further indicate what is seen as the focal problem and the major dimensions requiring exploration. The elaboration should broadly sketch what will be involved in the proposed investigation, but it should not become an essay on the subject.

Importance of the Problem

Following the delineation of the problem there should be an indication of the way or ways in which the problem has such importance as to merit the investment of time, energy and other resources which would be involved in the research undertaking. While research will normally be undertaken in an area of interest to the researcher and be an area in which s/he is highly motivated, research is also an academic and social undertaking and as such the proposed investigation should also be related to one or more disciplines, the current level of human knowledge, and to needs in one's society. Here the researcher can indicate what led him or her to select this particular problem and how research in this area

could have importance for one or more disciplines, the general corpus of human knowledge, and needs in one's society. If not already mentioned, some indication should be provided regarding how the proposed research will deal with something new or original.

Definitions

Technical terms and specialized words should be defined at this point to the extent that such definitions are needed for clearly presenting the proposed plan of research. Also, commonly used terms which are subject to ambiguous interpretation or which will be used in specialized ways should be defined — for example, if the term 'church' is a key category for the proposed investigation, will it be used to mean a local body of believers, an organized denomination, the universal body of Christians past and present, or in some other sense?

Limitations

The scope of the problem should be clearly demarcated by precisely indicating the limits of the investigation. This will help to establish the boundaries of what the researcher is making herself or himself responsible for in undertaking the proposed research. For example, an investigation of salvation and humanization in the thought of M.M. Thomas might not be concerned with certain other concepts in Thomas' thought, or might be limited to his writings during a specified period.

Previous Research

Although the proposed research may appear to be original, there will usually be some closely related research already done and, in some cases, perhaps some directly related research will have already been completed. The most significant of such studies should be noted with some description of the major thrusts of each and how the proposed research will move beyond the concerns of previous studies.

Method of Research²

How does the researcher propose to investigate the problem? Careful attention should be given to indicating how the research problem will be developed and dealt with. This should include the following:

An indication of the overall approach and perspective. In most areas of inquiry there are different perspectives from which research could be undertaken. What will be the main perspective which will provide the direction of the proposed research? For example, if the research is a biblical inquiry will the texts be read primarily through the 'eyes' of redaction criticism or some other approach? If an historical inquiry, will the orientation be primarily that of *social* history? If a field study, will the approach be primarily that of a survey, case study, ethnography, or some other approach and perspective? Will the proposed research follow more closely either the traditional or participatory-action paradigms discussed in the previous chapter, or some other model? Will the research be undertaken from within a single discipline, or will it be done on an interdisciplinary basis? In what ways will the proposed research show sensitivity to the context? In these and other ways the overall approach or perspective will represent a 'point of view' which will emphasize selected aspects of that which is to be investigated. The perspective proposed will have crucial implications for the research to be undertaken and should be briefly but clearly delineated and supported by a plausible rationale.

² The term 'method' is intentionally used here. The terms 'method' and 'methodology' are often used rather loosely, as if they refer to the same thing and could therefore be used interchangeably. However, in a strict sense, they have very different meanings: strictly speaking, 'method' refers to the procedures to be followed in the conduct of research; on the other hand, 'methodology', as the word itself implies, refers to a study of methods, a critical investigation of the principles underlying the use of a particular method or methods — for example, a study of "the methodology of the social sciences" would entail an examination of the presuppositions, assumptions and arguments made toward justifying a particular method or set of methods for constructing or supplementing a body of knowledge in the social sciences.

A description of the logical units or stages of analysis to be undertaken.

One requirement for moving forward in any area of inquiry is that of identifying the major aspects or component parts of the subject being investigated. Each constituent unit will represent a more manageable, although limited, area for investigation. For example, some studies may be largely developmental, in which cases the major units may be stated in terms of the appropriate frame of reference. But what frame of reference would be appropriate will depend upon the type of study. Chronological development, in terms of specific time periods, may provide the most suitable frame of reference for some studies, while psychological development, in terms of stages of maturation, may be the most satisfactory approach for some other studies. Other studies may focus primarily upon such concerns as conceptual, structural or phenomenological analysis, in which cases a different logical organization may be more appropriate. If it is anticipated that specific analytical tools will be used — such as content, linguistic, statistical or other modes of analysis — this should be mentioned.

Sources of data. The major types of data to be consulted should be indicated. While the researcher would not be expected to provide an exhaustive bibliography at this stage, the major sources of primary and secondary materials should be indicated.³ For example, if one is working on Gandhi's concept of ahimsa, certainly writings by him dealing with ahimsa should be noted as primary sources, along with a selection of what have so far been found as major secondary sources. When specialized periodicals, documents, personal papers and similar sources are to be consulted, this should be noted. If visits to specialized libraries and private holdings are envisioned as necessary, the main centres and/or places should be mentioned. If new data is to be generated, such as through interviews, the sources and types of data to be secured should be noted. If it is expected that

³ The major differences between primary sources and secondary sources are discussed in Chapter 3.

the research is will include field study, the anticipated locale and rationale for selection of this should be noted. If a sample is to be chosen, the nature of the sample and the way in which it will be selected should be briefly described.

Specialized data gathering tools. How will the needed materials be gathered? If it is anticipated that specialized tools such as content analysis, participant-observation, interviews and/or questionnaires will be used, the rationale for their use in connection with the proposed study should be stated. A brief description should also be given of from where these will be secured or how they will be developed, and how the resultant data will be analysed.

Time framework. A general description should be given of the overall time period for the research and how the total time period will be divided for separate stages of the proposed research.

Tentative outline? At this point in the proposal some persons would like to include a tentative outline for the anticipated research and/or research report. The feasibility of doing so is, however, debatable. If an outline is provided, this will indicate how the researcher proposes to organize his or her research and/or the thesis, dissertation or other report arising out of the research. Inclusion of an outline can help communicate what the researcher envisions as the most important dimensions of the proposed research and how these will be organized relative to each other. At the same time, inclusion of an outline can introduce two risks: (1) Some members of the proposal review committee who may be knowledgeable in the area of proposed research, or at least consider themselves knowledgeable, may criticize or disapprove the outline as being inadequate and premature, and (2) If a proposal with a tentative outline is approved, the researcher and/or a person in a supervisory position may subsequently tend to perceive the approved outline as binding — even when later research has led to such things as the discovery of important new dimensions not included in the original outline, a significant change in the perception of how the various dimensions are related to each other, and so on. Normally, the inclusion of a preliminary outline is not required. The feasibility

of including an outline will depend upon (1) the researcher having already proceeded sufficiently into the research process to where s/he is quite confident about having identified the major dimensions to be researched, and (2) the researcher, and those involved in supervising and evaluating the researcher's work, regarding the outline in the proposal as tentative, subject to confirmation, revision or complete change in view of findings during subsequent research.⁴

Select Bibliography. If what have been identified as major sources for research have not been sufficiently included under "Sources of Data", these may be listed in a "Select Bibliography". Usually it will be possible to provide a comprehensive bibliography only after the research is completed. But at the proposal stage, under "Sources of Data", and perhaps additionally under "Select Bibliography", there should be an indication of the major sources to be consulted. These should be sufficient to indicate both the researcher's awareness of the range of sources available and the feasibility of the proposed research.

The research proposal should be viewed as a plan for investigating a problem. It should reflect rigorous conceptualization of what is perceived to be the problem and how the problem will be investigated. An accepted proposal becomes a plan of investigation which has been agreed upon by the researcher, the academic institution or agency under which the research will be conducted, and the concerned supervisor(s). After the acceptance of the proposal, research should proceed along the lines set forth in the accepted proposal. However, unanticipated dimensions will doubtlessly be encountered, necessitating some modification in the plan of investigation. Thus, while the accepted proposal will provide a plan which is seen as providing an overall framework, the exact details will be worked out only during the actual course of investigation and certain modifications may become necessary in order to pursue unforeseen but promising dimensions.

⁴ Further discussion of an outline will be found in Chapter 3.

When the actual writing of the research report is undertaken, the proposal, suitably modified, can often serve as the introduction, stating the research problem and describing the investigation, covering in a suitable way the same elements as outlined above for the proposal. Thus, a well conceived proposal can be of double benefit to the researcher.

Chapter 3

Collecting and Organizing Materials

Introduction

The question of "how can I best gather and organize research data?" is probably a problem with which the reader of this chapter will have already struggled. As you undertake further studies, this problem will probably confront you in a new and more demanding way. You may be asked to prepare research papers for seminars or supervisors, prepare a research report for an organization, or write a thesis or dissertation for an advanced degree. Satisfactory completion of any of these will require extensive gathering and organizing of materials.

In a very real sense, the gathering and organizing of material is a problem which confronts every person who seeks to be a responsible member of society. Persons within the formal educational system — whether student, teacher or researcher — face this problem in a special way. New material is constantly becoming available — often, it seems, at an increasing rate — and until the time that senility sets in, we will probably be seeing new and diverse ways of organizing that material. Addressing this problem is therefore a task which I approach with considerable uneasiness: This is not an area in which there is any single method which can be universally recommended. What works for one person may be a stumbling block for another. In the same material we may each see different matters of importance and organize them in different ways. This is perhaps as it should be. We are each

infinitely complex persons, each shaped by a unique history. In some areas we find that similar methods help us, while in other areas we find that our greatest help comes from very diverse sources. In what follows you may find some methods that will prove useful to you; at the same time, in the course of your research you may discover that in some areas some very different procedures work best for you. Again, this is perhaps as it should be for human creativity is endless. What follows has been found useful by some persons; the sharing of these will have served its purpose if it stimulates you to develop and follow disciplined methods which can make your research more enjoyable, efficient and productive.

The discussion which follows is organized around three concerns: locating sources, or where to look for material; data gathering, with some practical suggestions about taking notes and organizing these so as to be easily retrievable, and field research. Locating sources and gathering data will be addressed first with reference to a mode of research which all researchers find it necessary to undertake — namely, library research. Since some researchers will also need to undertake field research for such purposes as conducting interviews and/or surveys, acquiring knowledge about an oral tradition, or facilitating a people's development, and since many researchers may at some stage want to use the results of field investigations, some reflections on field research will be included. Within the scope of one chapter it will be possible to deal with these in only a very general and illustrative way. More detailed discussions will be found in the references listed in the bibliography at the end of this manual.

Finding Sources

As the budding researcher begins to undertake his or her investigation, perhaps the most immediate question which s/he confronts is 'What am I to look for?' The obvious answer, of course, is to look for that which is relevant. But this simply leaves us with the question of '*what* is relevant?' In a sense, in our increasingly interrelated world *everything* is related. Each of our

various disciplines, areas of concentration within these and social groups deal with only a very small portion of the total reality of the world in which we live; each is integrally related to the other, and special attention to this interrelatedness is sometimes given through approaches variously called 'integrated', 'interdisciplinary', 'cross-disciplinary', and 'multidisciplinary'.

How are we to determine what is relevant? This will depend upon the nature of the research problem. As noted in Chapter 1, one useful maxim is the following: "The perception of materials as relevant varies in direct relationship to the clarity with which a problem has been defined." The initial formulation of the problem is often the most crucial phase in any research undertaking. For this reason, considerable attention has been given in the previous chapters to the importance of clarity in defining a proposed subject area for research. While general clarity will hopefully have been achieved as an outcome of early formulation of the research problem, progressive clarification of the problem, and thereby also further clarification about what will be regarded as the most relevant material, will usually emerge as the researcher begins to seriously study sources which have been tentatively identified as important.

Classification of sources

Assuming that a problem has been sufficiently defined and is within manageable limits, what are the types of sources to which one can turn for locating relevant material? Two major classifications of sources should be noted:

Primary sources. For our purposes here, primary sources can be considered as being of two types, the first of which consists of original works, based on a person's own thoughts. An example from a library source would be *Luther's Works* in 55 volumes, edited by J. Pelikan. This extensive collection of works by Martin Luther could be considered, for many purposes, a primary source for a study dealing with some aspect of the life and work of Martin Luther. When studying the life and thought of a person such as Luther, *works by that person* will be of highest importance, for it is in such

materials that the researcher will find the person expressing his or her own thoughts. However, certain limitations should be noted: this collection, as comprehensive as it is, does not contain *all* of Luther's writings. Additionally, and equally or more important for many purposes, this edition is an English translation useful primarily for those without a knowledge of late medieval Latin and 16th Century German. Since translations are always interpretations, for some purposes it would be only Luther's works in the original language in which he wrote which could be considered primary sources.

A second type of primary sources consists of data gathered at first hand and usually organized and presented by the person(s) who gathered them. Examples would be census data, verbatims of interviews, attitude and opinion surveys, and oral histories. Such material consists of self-reports which people have provided but which, in this case, have been elicited and recorded by others. The people's self-reports will be original data not only for the original researchers but also for other persons doing research in the same area since they will be dealing with the original data (self reports), not an interpretation of them. At the same time, it should be noted that while such materials may be a primary source for others, any interpretation of these by the original researcher will normally be a secondary source for others. Why this is so will be discussed below.

For a researcher to have a large amount of primary source material is akin to having a gold mine — for s/he will have found a wealth of highly valuable information. At the same time, it should be noted that like any self-report, such materials are limited to what persons have been willing to share with others in either oral or written form. Original data gathered at first hand, such as through interviews, are also limited by the interests of the researchers who gathered the data in that their interests will have led them to ask certain kinds of questions but not others.

Secondary sources. Works *about* the thought of other persons, or works based on data gathered by some one else for another purpose,

are known as secondary sources. One example would be Roland Bainton's well-known study of Martin Luther, *Here I Stand*. This is a very readable study, but it is clearly a presentation of Bainton's perception of Luther — an interpretation of Luther, based on Bainton's study of works by Luther and of works by others about Luther. Other historians using the same material might give very different versions of Luther. Their writings, along with Bainton's, would be considered secondary sources for a study of Luther and not substitutes for the original writings by Luther.

Another example would be *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity* by Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen. In this very readable study, based substantially upon original data gathered by others, Dreze and Sen *interpret* data gathered by others and generally available in the public domain. In their interpretation they set forth their views that India's progress since Independence has been somewhat limited and argue that attention needs to be given to more than economic factors and economic liberalization. Other social scientists using the same empirical data gathered by others might present a very different understanding of India's efforts to overcome poverty. Their works, as well as those of Dreze and Sen, would be secondary sources for others engaged in a study of India's efforts to overcome poverty.

In most studies researchers will use both kinds of materials — consulting primary sources to gather materials which they consider relevant, and consulting secondary sources to see, among other things, how other researchers have interpreted the same materials. It is important that the researcher be aware of which s/he is using.

Locating sources

Assuming that a clearly defined topic has been identified and the researcher is interested in both primary and secondary sources, what are the places where s/he should look for such materials? It is not possible to be exhaustive here. The following brief survey is limited to simply drawing attention to some of the most important types of places. Some of these are sufficiently general to apply to all

disciplines and subject areas. Others may appear to apply to disciplines or areas different from the reader's area. But some reflection about these may lead to recognition of parallels in the reader's discipline or area of investigation.

The *card* and *online catalogues* will in most cases be the first source to be investigated. These catalogues constitute an important entrance to any library. Formerly, all libraries depended upon card catalogues. As the use of computer facilities has become more common in libraries, information which was formerly available in card catalogues is available through electronic retrieval systems known as online catalogues. Online catalogues can be searched in much the same way as card catalogues — the major difference being that it is the computer which does the searching, based upon the name of the author, title, or other information given by the user. Usually, libraries which have developed online catalogues no longer maintain card catalogues. Since users of this manual may need to use both card and online catalogues as they visit different libraries, the comments which follow discuss the use of both systems.¹

In libraries with card catalogues, the *author/title/subject* catalogue is the largest and most frequently used. This catalogue is particularly useful for locating materials by a particular author, a book with a particular title, or materials on a particular subject. The card catalogue will often provide other useful information such as the place of publication, publisher, year of publication, length of the book, whether there is an index and other features which may be of particular interest. Where an online catalogue is available, a researcher can enter the name of an author, the title of a book, a subject area or key word(s); the system will then display the works in the library by the specified author, or list of books with the specified title and/or similar titles, or a list of books in the subject area or key words specified. For each book such systems can usually also display the same information as given in a card catalogue and in much the same format.

¹ A few additional comments about the use of computers for locating sources will be found on pages 67-69.

Certain limitations of both card and online catalogues should be noted. A library's catalogue should include the *authors* (or editors, compilers) of all books in that library. In some cases there will also be entries for writings by some authors which appear as chapters in a work edited by another person. However, such listings tend to be quite incomplete. Hence, by consulting a card or online catalogue a researcher may find books by a particular author, but s/he would not necessarily find other material by the same author in the form of chapters in other books which are available in the same library and, of course, the card or online catalogue would not include other books and articles by the same author which are not possessed by that library. Despite this limitation, the author catalogue is the most commonly found type of card catalogue and may be more complete than title or subject catalogues in libraries dependent on card catalogues. An online catalogue will normally include all books in a library by author, title and subject but not necessarily chapters by different authors in an edited collection.

There are also certain limitations to searching a card or online catalogue for *subjects*. One is that a subject search may miss a number of useful works. This can happen for a number of reasons.

While a card catalogue subject search may result in a listing of several relevant works, other relevant works may be missed due to variations over time in the way books have been classified by subject, books being classified differently from what the researcher expects, limited and non-standardized classification schemes, and incomplete classification.

For example, a person who wants to do research on "suicide" and looks at entries under the subject of "suicide" in card catalogues might miss other useful books which have not been classified under "suicide" but which deal substantially with that topic. This may be due to different libraries using different classification systems, or to variation over time in the classification system followed in a particular library — such as a change in the scheme of classification,

the introduction of new areas of study, the emergence of new themes, and the development of new concepts. Furthermore, even where librarians in different libraries have used the same classification system, they will not necessarily have classified the same book in the same way, or have classified certain books in the way you might think they would. For example, it is not uncommon to find books on some ethical themes to have been classified under "Christian Ethics" and to find somewhat similar books classified under "Moral Philosophy". Hence, when a researcher is attempting to search through a card catalogue for source materials it will seldom be sufficient to look under only one topic; frequently the researcher will need to search through several related topical areas.

Ironically, a different sort of problem may be encountered where efforts have been made to help readers by incorporating a variety of topical headings in the card catalogue. These can be very helpful, but they are not necessarily fixed or standardized. It is not uncommon for some topical headings to reflect the institutional, departmental or professorial interests of a particular time period; during subsequent time periods interests may shift, resulting in (1) no longer classifying works under some topical headings, and (2) the addition of new topical headings. For example, we may find that in a particular seminary interests gradually evolved over time from "missions" to "attitudes to other religions" to "interreligious dialogue" to "religious pluralism"; all four topical headings may now be found in the card catalogue of the seminary's library, but the listings under each may not provide a complete listing of the library's holdings in that area. A researcher may therefore need to search through several interrelated categories to locate the most relevant materials in a particular library.

There are two additional shortcomings to relying upon subject headings in card catalogues. First, while there may be a wide variety of subject headings in a card catalogue, there may be no subject

heading for a researcher's specific subject — even though the library may have several books which deal with that subject. Second, even where subject listings are provided, the library's holdings classified under that subject may not include all of the library's holdings on that subject. For example, until shifting to an online catalogue in 1998, the United Theological College, Bangalore, relied upon a card catalogue. However, listing books by subject in the card catalogue began to be done systematically only with accessions from 1967; only some important prior accessions had been listed according to subject matter. Hence, even though that library had its beginnings with the College's founding in 1910, a researcher using that card catalogue to search for holdings classified under a given subject would largely miss materials received by that library prior to 1967. Researchers need to be alert to the possibility that card catalogues in some other libraries may be limited in similar ways.

Some of the problems arising out of variation in classification schemes used are minimized where libraries follow a standard system of classification, such as the "Cataloging-in-Publication Data" found in more recent books which provides standardized cataloguing data on the facts of publication page for use in any library. However, such standardized cataloguing data began to be provided only in 1971 and even now such data is not provided by all publishers.

To a large extent, the above limitations of card catalogues do not apply to online catalogues. Generally, when shifting to an online catalogue a library will include all of its books in its online catalogue.² Equally important, a researcher can search an online catalogue for material on *any* subject and is not limited to subject topics found in card catalogues.

² However, this does not necessarily mean that all materials held by a library are available in its online catalogue. For example, at the United Theological College, Bangalore, all books, periodical holdings and archival materials received as of the beginning of 2003 had been placed in the library's online catalogue, but microfilm, microfiche, and dissertation holdings were yet to be added. Personal correspondence — Rita Wesley, UTC Librarian, letter to author, 10 January 2003.

At the same time, a researcher using an online catalogue is likely to encounter new problems. One of these is the pivotal role of accurate spelling. When making an online search for books by a particular author, or a book by its title, it is of utmost importance that the researcher spell the author's name, or the title of the book, with complete accuracy. If an error is made in spelling the author's name, or the title of the book, the result of the computer search may be a message such as "book not found" — not because the library does not have the desired material, but because the researcher has given the computer the wrong information.

A different sort of problem can arise when doing a subject search on an online catalogue. If the researcher undertakes an online subject search on a broadly defined subject — such as, "Church of South India" — the result of the computer search may be a very long list of materials related in one way or another to the Church of South India, most of which are not relevant to the researcher's needs. On the other hand, if the researcher engages in an online search for a very narrowly defined subject the result of the computer search may be a listing of only two or three books (or perhaps even the message, "No book found") when, in fact, the library has several other works related to the researcher's needs, but which were missed because the subject search had been inadequately stated.

One of the important advantages of an online catalogue is the capacity to quickly perform an online search for a specified subject. However, the usefulness of such searches will depend upon the user's ability to specify a subject topic in a way that is neither so broad that the search produces an unwieldily long listing which takes much time to sort through, nor so narrow that important sources are not found. Often the researcher will need to exercise considerable creativity and ingenuity in specifying the subject search in order to find the most relevant holdings that a library has for her or his particular area of investigation.

Libraries with card catalogues sometimes have a *call number* or *serial number* catalogue which can be useful. This catalogue, where available, contains cards for all books according to subject area and arranged in the same order as the books on the shelves. This catalogue is used by the library when taking inventory and, like the subject catalogue, it can also be useful to the researcher when looking for material in a particular subject area. This catalogue, however, has the same limitation as the subject catalogue — some books may have been placed in a classification different from what a researcher would expect, and therefore appear in the serial catalogue at a place other than where s/he would normally think of looking. Generally, online catalogues cannot be searched by call number and serial number, but libraries with online catalogues will often maintain a 'shelf list' which is the equivalent to a call number catalogue. At a few major libraries, such as the Library of Congress in the U.S., it is possible to search for books by the Library's call number and by the International Standard Book Number (ISBN) — a number which uniquely identifies each book printed by publishers who participate in this numbering system.

A third type of catalogue sometimes available in libraries with card catalogues consists of the *specialized indexes*. This is a smaller catalogue which lists books and important articles on certain general topics. These have usually been developed because of the particular interest of some faculty person or agency in the past. For a researcher who happens to be doing research in an area covered by one of these indexes, they can be helpful. However, such indexes are usually available for only a few topics, were not necessarily comprehensive at the time they were prepared, and have not necessarily been kept up to date. Since online catalogues can be readily searched for any subject, they do not have separate specialized indexes.

A fourth type of card catalogue is the *thesis catalogue*. This catalogue, where available, lists all theses and dissertations which

are kept in the library (often in its archives). A review of these can help in determining whether someone else has already written a thesis or dissertation in the same area as that of the proposed research. While it is expected that a thesis or dissertation will be the product of original research, the discovery of a thesis or dissertation in a closely related area can often help the researcher in further defining the area to be investigated and in locating some of the relevant source materials. The thesis catalogue is normally limited, however, by the fact that it lists only theses and dissertations kept in that particular library; it normally does not list theses and dissertations available elsewhere, and does not necessarily provide a complete listing of all theses and dissertations written by persons who have studied at the institution to which the library belongs.

In a comprehensive online catalogue, theses and dissertations will normally be listed under author's name, title, and subject. A subject search of the library's online catalogue should, therefore, result in a listing which includes not only books on the subject of the search but also any theses and dissertations which the library has on that subject. Note, however, that an online catalogue may be incomplete and not contain theses and dissertations.

Instead of starting with a catalogue search, some persons prefer to begin their research by going to their subject area in the library's book stacks. There they can examine books which appear relevant to their research and make some judgement about which may be of greater importance for their proposed research. At the same time, it is important to note that persons following this procedure will not only miss relevant books classified under other subject headings; they will also miss books which, while classified under the subject of their research, have been checked out by other users of the library, placed on temporary reserve, wrongly filed elsewhere in the book stacks, or perhaps sent to the bindery for repair. For such reasons as these, the examination of books in the book stacks is of greatest value as a complement to a card or online catalogue search; it is not a substitute for the latter.

Frequently, *reference books and related materials* can be sources of significant help to a researcher. While a library's holdings of such materials may be included in its card or online catalogue, these are somewhat specialized sources which may not be found, or be overlooked, in an author, title or subject search. Moreover, even where found in a catalogue search, further exploration will be necessary to determine the relevance of such sources. The following discussion draws attention to some of the main reference books and related materials which researchers should consult. A distinction can be made here between those which are regularly issued and those which appear only occasionally.

Of the *regularly issued* reference materials, the ones which are probably used most frequently are those dealing with material in periodicals. Much research will appear in the form of articles in periodicals long before it becomes available in book form. A survey of the cumulative indexes for major periodicals in the researcher's discipline, or of the tables of contents for the last five to ten years, can often lead to the discovery of a considerable amount of promising material. However, since relevant articles may appear in various periodicals at different points in time, locating the needed material can involve a laborious process of searching through individual journals. Periodical indexes can help the researcher to use his or her time more efficiently. Of these, two in particular should be noted.

The first is the *Index to Religious Periodic Literature*, which from 1977 has been published in an expanded form as *Religion Index One: Periodicals*. These references, published quarterly and consolidated annually, provide author and subject indexes for articles published during the previous year in a wide range of periodicals. Volume I, published in 1949, indexed just 31 periodicals. Over the years additional periodicals have been added and Volume 33, published in 2001, provides an index to material in 602 religious periodicals, in English and several other languages. An additional

feature of the more recent volumes is that they also provide an abstract of many, though not all, articles. Also, beginning with the 2001 volume this *Index* includes multi-author works — a category which had been published separately, 1960-1999, as *Religion Index Two* (see below). The use of these indexes can obviously enable the researcher to more efficiently search for material in periodicals. At the same time, two limitations should be noted. The first is that each annual index deals only with material in periodicals published during the previous year. Therefore, unless the researcher is dealing only with material published during a particular year, s/he will need to search through several annual numbers. A second limitation is that these indexes, although extensive, do not include *all* periodicals; therefore some material which might be of much value to a researcher may not have been included. This may be particularly true for the earlier years when fewer periodicals were indexed. And of course these indexes provide no help for locating material in periodicals published prior to 1949.

A second type of regularly issued reference on periodic literature is the *Guide to Indian Periodical Literature*. Started in 1964, this guide is issued quarterly and provides an author and subject index to material in 'about 500' Indian periodicals in the social sciences and humanities. It can be a helpful means of locating material in periodic literature not included in *Religion Index One: Periodicals*, especially material of a secular nature relating to India. In addition to the type of limitations noted for *Index to Religious Periodic Literature* and *Religion Index One: Periodicals*, the *Guide to Indian Periodical Literature* is also limited in that it deals only with material in English; materials in other languages of India are not included.

There are also regularly issued references which can be helpful guides for locating books related to your area of research. The *Index to Religious Periodic Literature* and *Religion Index One: Periodicals* up through 1985 provide information of this type in the form of an index to periodicals in which reviews of books have appeared. From 1986 this service has been enlarged and

enhanced with the annual publication of *Index to Book Reviews in Religion*. The 1999 number provides information on 11,391 book reviews, review essays and review articles as found in over 500 journals and a few annuals. The majority are in English, but a substantial number of reviews in other languages are also included. These indexes can help a researcher to quickly find out where certain books have been reviewed. A quick examination of those reviews can often be helpful in determining whether or not a book will be of interest for more detailed study as part of the on-going research.

For 1977-1999 these indexes were supplemented by *Religion Index Two: Multi-Author Works*. A number of books, such as an edited collection of essays from a conference or in honour of a well-known person, are usually published under the name of the editor or compiler and it is often difficult to know what writings are included without examining the individual books. *Religion Index Two: Multi-Author Works* addresses this problem. The 1999 volume, for example, provides indexes for 490 books and their 8,015 otherwise often difficult-to-find essays in religion or closely related areas, listing these by both author and subject and indicating in which book each appeared. This source therefore provides a readily useful means of locating such material. Two companion volumes in which earlier material has been indexed are: *Religion Index Two: Festschriften 1960-1969*, and *Religion Index Two: Multi-Author Works, 1970-1975*. Publication of *Religion Index Two* ceased with the 1999 volume. From 2001 multi-author works are included in *Religion Index One*.

Use of the above *Indexes* has been made somewhat easier with the development of the electronic resource, "Religion Index," available at <<http://search.epnet.com/login.asp?profile=web&defaultdb=rhn>>. This "Religion Index" contains Religion Index One: Periodicals (1949-); Religion Index Two: Multi-Author Works (1960-1999); Index to Book Reviews in Religion (1949-); Research in Ministry (1981-), and Methodist Reviews Index (1818-1985). Access requires a User ID and Password, arranged by the user's Library.

Another type of regularly issued reference material consists of the various collections of *Books in Print*. For example, the United Theological College Library has the Indian, British and U.S. editions for a number of years. These list books according to author, subject and title published in each of these countries, primarily in English, and which were in print at the time of publication. These sources are normally published annually and cover books published during the preceding year. These can often help researchers to identify books which may be relevant for their purposes and which if not in their library may be available in another library or perhaps acquired by the researcher or by the library for the researcher's use. The *Indian National Bibliography* serves a similar purpose. Started in 1957 and published annually, it lists books in English and various other languages of India published in India during the previous year. One limitation which a researcher desiring to use these sources may face is that these sources may not be available in their library or, where available, the collection may not be complete or up-to-date.

Of the reference material *issued only once or occasionally*, the major types are specialized bibliographies, encyclopaedias, dictionaries and materials dealing with particular persons and particular topics.

Bibliographies on various subjects are published occasionally and can often be useful sources for information about works relevant to an area of research. But how does one locate such bibliographies? An initial step is to look in the card catalog under 'bibliographies'. Upon checking this entry in the U. T.C. Library when revising an earlier draft of this manual, I discovered that there were at that time 123 entries dealing with published bibliographies held in that library, on such varied topics as the "The Gospel of Mark", "Gregory of Nazianzus", "Indian Nationalist Movement", "Human Rights", "Women's Studies" and "Judgment of the Dead".

Foremost among published bibliographies are general guides to reference works. Three in particular merit noting. The first is *A Guide to Reference Materials on India*, a two-volume work published

in 1974 which is basically a 1536 page bibliography of reference works under 61 sub-headings which provides around 20,000 annotated entries covering materials in various languages. The second is the *Guide to Reference Books*, a one-volume work published by the American Library Association, which in its 11th edition in 1996 provides a 2020 page bibliography of reference works up through 1994 under five broad categories of "General Reference Works", "Humanities", "Social and Behavioural Sciences", "History and Area Studies", and "Science, Technology and Medicine". The third is *Recent Reference Books in Religion: A Guide* which, in its second edition in 1998, provides a 328 page review of over 300 reference works "concerning the world's religions in general and each of the major traditions and methodologies in particular," published during 1970-1997, with an emphasis on those published since 1980. Needless to say, these three guides to reference works can provide valuable help in locating reference works specific to a researcher's discipline or research area. One limitation to be noted, however, is that these list only works already published at the time of their publication; hence *A Guide to Reference Material on India* will not contain reference works published since 1974; the *Guide to Reference Books* will not mention reference works which have appeared since 1994, and *Recent Reference Books in Religion* will not provide any help on reference works published after 1997. A somewhat more recent work on Indian references, but less comprehensive, *Indian reference sources: an annotated guide to Indian reference material* covers around 5,500 entries published up through 1985.

Encyclopaedias constitute another type of reference work which can often be a useful source. Sometimes general encyclopedias such as the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* can provide some surprising help. In addition to these, specialized encyclopaedias can be found in many fields of study. These will typically have articles, often of several pages in length, on fairly specialized topics in the field, supplemented with

a select bibliography. Such articles and bibliographies can often help a researcher identify some of the main issues and the more important works in which those issues have been addressed. Two examples are the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* in 15 volumes and the *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* in 19 volumes. Both of these, for example, have articles on "caste" of several pages in length. However, a major limitation of these references, as with all encyclopedias, is that they are dated. The latest *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* is from the 10th printing of 1963. However, actual publication was in 1930, which means that none of the research on caste since 1930 will be reflected in any of the material in this encyclopedia. This problem has been to some extent corrected in the *International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, published in 1968. Articles in this encyclopedia are somewhat more up to date but are, of course, unable to take into account developments since 1968, except for Vol. 18 subtitled "Biographical Supplement" which was published in 1979, and Vol. 19 dealing with social science quotations, which was published in 1991. Similar types of specialized encyclopaedias may be found in many other disciplines and areas of studies.

Specialized dictionaries constitute another type of reference material which can often be surprisingly helpful. Some years ago one of my students in Christian Ethics was working on a paper on family planning and told me that he could not find any material on "contraception". I immediately asked him if he had consulted the *Dictionary of Christian Ethics*. He had not. Upon consulting it, the entry on "contraception" referred him to "procreation" where he found an article of more than 3000 words, with a bibliography of nine books, at that time fairly recent, four of which were available in the College library. That dictionary was published in 1967. An extensively revised edition was published in 1986 under the title of *The Westminster Dictionary of Christian Ethics*. My former student would find this even more helpful as it contains separate articles on both "contraception" and "procreation". Similar specialized dictionaries are available in many areas of study. Articles in these, like those in encyclopedias, are always dated so one needs to take note of when they were written.

Materials dealing with a particular person can be extremely helpful to a researcher who is engaged in a study in some way related to that person. For example, C.W. Kegley's *The Theology of Rudolf Bultmann* contains a complete listing of all publications — books, articles and related materials — by Bultmann, published up to 1965, updated by Bultmann. Similarly, a book of essays in honour of a particular scholar (a *Festschrift*) will almost always contain a bibliography of that person's works. For example, *The Bible and the Ancient Near East*, edited by G. Ernest Wright, is a collection of essays in honour of W.F. Albright and contains an extensive bibliography of Albright's works published between 1911 and May, 1958 — consisting of 26 pages, two columns per page.

Another very helpful source to persons engaged in studies of the life and thought of particular persons are collections of those persons' published and unpublished writings, including letters, diaries and personal papers. Examples of these types of materials are the collections of writings by P.D. Devanandan, M.M. Thomas and S.J. Samatha in the United Theological College Archives. The United Theological College Archives was chosen as the repository for their writings and these collections constitute invaluable sources for anyone engaged in research on one or more of these men. Similar collections on other persons, and on specific subjects, can often be found in some libraries, archives and personal holdings.

Materials dealing with a particular topic will often be available in the form of specialized bibliographies, or writings on specialized topics with extensive bibliographies, both of which will help the researcher in locating relevant materials. Serious researchers will obviously want to see what sources other persons working on topics related to theirs have used. While this can involve looking through a rather large number of books and journals related to one's topic, valuable help can often be secured from two types of materials. The first is a published bibliography in one's own area of specialization. One example of this is the *Bibliography of Original Christian Writings in India in Gujarati*, compiled by Parimal Roy and published in 1991. This is the first of several volumes on original

Christian writings in various languages of India. These volumes can be useful sources for persons doing research on various dimensions of how Christianity and the Christian faith have been understood and reflected upon in a particular language region of India. Another example would be a specialized bibliography which brings together in a single volume materials which could otherwise be secured only by examining several separate sources — such as the volume on *Poverty, Hunger and Religion*, a 332 page bibliography which brings together all entries on these subjects in the first 14 volumes of *Index to Religious Periodical Literature* and *Religion Index One: Periodicals*. Persons working in biblical studies have often found much help from *Elenchus of Biblica* (*Elenchus of Biblical Bibliography*, formerly *Elenchus Bibliographicus Biblicus*), an annual publication which provides an extensive index to articles in periodicals, books of various kinds including memorial volumes, and proceedings of meetings, from the preceding year and related to biblical studies. A particular merit of this work is that apart from general bibliographies and materials on general topics the other materials are arranged in the order of the books of the Bible, and in the order of chapters within books.

Another type of material on a particular topic which can often provide valuable help in locating sources consists of dissertations and theses related to one's area of investigation. All such works will have bibliographies — often quite extensive ones. Such works should constitute fairly exhaustive studies, and an examination of their bibliographies will often help a researcher to identify relevant sources which might otherwise be discovered only through a much longer process — if at all. Of course, it is not always easy to find out what dissertations and theses have already been written in one's general area and which among these would be most useful. However, it is possible. A researcher can begin by checking to see whether his or her college or seminary library has a thesis and dissertation catalogue and, if so, consulting that catalogue. A researcher can also check holdings in the libraries of seminaries and universities. This need

not always involve making a trip to such institutions. For example, the Indian Council on Social Science Research has published a volume on *Research in Sociology* which contains titles and abstracts of 145 master's theses and dissertations in sociology at the University of Bombay for the period of 1925- 1971; this volume, and similar volumes in other areas, are available in many libraries.

Among the many other fruitful sources which one should check are the professional journals in one's field of study. Often these will provide listings of theses and dissertations completed in various schools, seminaries and universities during the previous year. A good practice for both new and experienced researchers is to regularly read two or three professional journals in their area. This will help such persons to keep up with developments in their disciplines and areas of special interest, and assist them in keeping abreast of new and important literature.

Research on a particular topic can often be enriched by reference to a fourth type of information — statistical data. Such data is widely available on a broad range of subjects and can often be useful in quantifying and giving more precise expression to what may otherwise be very general and amorphous. For example, *census data* can often be very helpful in dealing with such things as documenting population trends, analysing changes over time in the level of education, or examining changes in the strength of different religious groups. Similarly, empirical studies of local congregations, denominations, localities, social groups or institutions can often be of significant help in identifying and analysing important patterns which might otherwise go unnoticed or be dismissed as merely the impression of a few.

A fifth type of source on a particular topic consists of living persons. For some research purposes, the most valuable data will be those obtainable only from living persons and not yet available in any library; for other research purposes, information from living persons can complement and enrich research based substantially upon other sources. In some cases securing such information might involve nothing more than correspondence with a person for such

purposes as clarifying a point which that person has made elsewhere. At the same time, some types of research might be dependent upon all of the primary data being secured through direct contact with persons — through such means as surveys, interviews, case histories, ethnographic studies and participatory-action research.

In concluding this section on locating sources, it may be helpful to again take note of the assistance which can be provided by electronic retrieval systems. Such systems are referred to collectively as *electronic resources*. These can be of much help to researchers and writers. During recent years there has been a rapid growth in the variety and quality of electronic resources available — which includes not only online catalogues and the online resource *Religion Index* which have been mentioned, but also CD-ROM resources, online books, journals and newspapers, electronic correspondence, and an almost endless variety of websites. As the form and variety of such sources is growing rapidly, it is not possible to provide a comprehensive discussion. In what follows below we shall briefly note some of the main types of electronic resources which are likely to be of interest to users of this manual.

Online catalogues are increasingly becoming available and can be of much help in the research process. Through the use of online catalogues a researcher can often search, from the computer s/he is using, libraries having online catalogues.³ Online catalogues can be accessed directly over the Internet by use of the protocol, “http://www” followed by the domain name (website name used by the library to be accessed — for example, “www.nlindia.org” [National Library, India], or “www.jnu.ac.in” [Jawaharlal Nehru University]). When the site name is not known, help can be sought through use of what are known as ‘search engines’ where the researcher can enter the name of the library or institution to be accessed. After the search engine makes its search, the results will be displayed — usually in the form of a list of possibly relevant

³ Some libraries require user registration or use some other form of restricted access.

sites in a prioritized order. Usually through a process of accessing the more promising sites, the researcher can locate the desired site and proceed with an author, title, subject or keyword search of the online catalogue available at that site. Through such searches, a researcher can fairly easily and quickly find out whether one or more libraries has materials which s/he needs. The content of the needed books and periodicals will probably not be available through the online catalogue. However, having identified where any needed materials are available, the researcher will be in a position to either request such materials through inter-library loan, or to know which libraries s/he should visit. At the same time, a researcher needs to be alert to a limitation of any online catalogue noted earlier: a library's online catalogue may be incomplete — in which case an online catalogue search might miss valuable material which has not yet been included in the library's online catalogue.

A *CD-ROM* (Compact Disc — Read Only Memory) is another type of electronic resource that is increasingly being used. This is a storage device designed to hold large amounts of information. A growing range of material is becoming available in CD-ROM form — for example, various translations of the Bible, encyclopaedias, specialized scholarly projects, and many volumes of a periodical (often including many back volumes no longer available in print form). Libraries having such resources will normally include these in their card or online catalogue, where they will be identified as available in CD-ROM form rather than in a print medium. Researchers should be alert to the possibility that potentially useful material not available in print form might either be available in CD-ROM form in one or more libraries, or possibly acquired by the researcher or by a library to which s/he is related.

In the past, theological research at the graduate and post-graduate level has relied largely upon materials available in print form, largely to be found in libraries. With the development of online catalogues it has become easier to search other libraries

having online catalogues, and use of the CD-ROM has helped to expand the range of material available to the researcher. But these deal largely with print-based resources — either as books, periodicals and manuscripts in libraries, or as material now on a CD-ROM which was originally published in print form, such as census records.

As we look to the future, library-based research of printed material and CD-ROM resources will continue to be a significant part of the research process. In addition, for some types of research it will be necessary to undertake field studies of various kinds. For this reason, a brief discussion of this type of inquiry is provided later in this chapter. And for most types of research, resources from the *World Wide Web* (www) are likely to continue to increase in range and quantity and be of importance to researchers. These resources will include, to name only a few, online books, periodicals, newspapers and scholarly projects; government documents; archival materials; websites of corporations, educational institutions, non-government organizations, professional associations, and email messages. A researcher will therefore need to become familiar, early in the research process, with the range of resources available over the World Wide Web in his or her specific area of inquiry, and become proficient in locating, accessing and, in many cases, downloading the needed materials. Collecting materials from such sources, quoting from them, providing documentation and listing materials from such sources in one's bibliography will be akin to doing the same with materials from printed sources. However, some special considerations apply to citing materials from electronic sources; some of these will be discussed in Chapter 6 to illustrate appropriate citation styles for selected types of web-based resources.

Collecting Material

What has been said so far suggests some of the most important sources of data which many researchers have found helpful, and readers will doubtlessly discover other sources in their own research.

As researchers proceed with their research, their task will be not only to consult their sources, but also to get out of them the material needed for their research projects. It is here that many budding researchers encounter major difficulties. After reading a few books, they often find it difficult or impossible to remember what they have read, or where what they do remember is located. For such reasons as these, it is imperative that researchers follow a systematic method in gathering their materials so that they get what they need in a permanent and usable form. Again, what works well for one person may not be so useful for another person. There is no one universally best method. Each researcher will need to determine what works best for himself or herself. The points discussed below deal with concerns which many researchers have found to be important. These may be of some help to the reader also or, hopefully, at least stimulate you to work out your own method. For illustrative purposes, we will examine how these guidelines might apply to the work of an anonymous researcher whom we shall call Samuel.

Prepare a working outline. To help him gather material systematically, Samuel should prepare a working outline for his research project.⁴ For a discussion on collecting materials to begin with the suggestion that Samuel start by preparing a working outline may seem very strange — how can an outline be prepared without first gathering material? At first glance this may appear to be a valid objection. At the same time, the potential usefulness of preparing a working outline quite early in the research process — if possible, even prior to actually beginning to consult the sources — can hardly be over emphasized. Such a working outline will, among other things, help direct Samuel's research into areas which he has reason to believe are logically connected. This specification

⁴As noted in the previous chapter, in some cases a tentative outline may be included in the research proposal. Where that is the case, the 'tentative outline' would become the 'working outline'; in Samuel's case, we are assuming that a tentative outline was not included in his proposal. It is therefore recommended that he now prepare a 'working outline'.

of areas to be examined can provide explicit direction to Samuel's research and help him avoid meandering over a vast area in an unproductive way.

Suppose, for example, that Samuel wishes to undertake research to find out the beliefs of Christians about abortion. There are several ways by which he might approach such a study. He could, for example, approach it in terms of the official teachings of the churches. In this case he might begin with a very simple working outline based on the three major branches of the Christian church:

Working outline I:

1. Roman Catholic
2. Orthodox
3. Protestant

Using this as his working outline, Samuel could proceed to look for his sources — in this case, official teachings in these traditions. But very soon Samuel might find it necessary to develop sub-headings. In the case of Protestants, especially, he would probably need to develop some classificatory principles by which he could group certain churches together — for it would simply be unmanageable to have over 300 sub-points! And as Samuel proceeds further he might find that he would like to alter his outline — for example, he might decide that it appears important to distinguish between what the early and later church had to say on the subject, in which case he might decide to change his outline to the following:

Working outline II:

1. The church in the Pre-Reformation Period
2. The church in the Reformation and Post-Reformation Period

In this case, Samuel would probably very soon want to add appropriate sub-headings for each time period. Or, as he continues his investigation Samuel might decide that his research could be best organized in terms of neither church traditions nor chronological eras, but rather in terms of what he sees as important issues central to his investigation. In this case, he might then want to completely reorganize his working outline into an entirely new form, such as:

Working outline III:

1. The rights of the fetus
2. The rights of the mother
3. The rights of society

with appropriate sub-headings.

In each case, Samuel's working outline — even in these very simple and general terms — could serve as a guide to help him move more deeply into his research; at each stage, he would probably begin to discover new material and also begin to see old material from a new perspective. Thus, in the research process there will be much interaction between Samuel's working outline and the data he gathers: his current working outline will help him to organize his research and focus his attention upon particular areas; at the same time, the materials he gathers will lead him to reflect back upon his outline and see the data as either confirming the outline or requiring that it be modified to take new data into account. Indeed, it may not be possible, and often is not possible, to have a finalized outline until the gathering of all of one's material is completed — and in some cases much of the writing. Nevertheless, it is important that research be guided by some working outline, for additional reasons which we shall shortly note. But first we need to consider some other concerns related to collecting materials.

Gather material on loose paper of a uniform size. With a working outline at hand, Samuel could proceed to gather his material in a

permanent and usable form. One very simple guideline for helping Samuel do this is the advice from many experienced researchers that one use a uniform size of loose paper for making notes. By following this advice, it will be easy for Samuel to organize and reorganize his notes, and to file them for easy use. If Samuel were to use various sizes of paper for making notes, it would be easy for the smaller pieces to get lost. If he were to use a bound book, it would not be possible for him to easily re-arrange his notes, especially if he writes on both sides of the paper. In my own work, I often find a five by eight inch note pad quite useful; if I can take only an hour for research, I can simply keep all my notes in the pad and at some later time remove them and file them with previous notes.

Enter only one reference on each note-page. By following this guideline of entering only one reference on each note-page, Samuel will preserve maximum flexibility for organizing his notes. For example, if he records three references or quotations on one note-page, he might later find that he needs to place these references or quotations in different places when organizing his notes — but this will not be possible unless he either makes copies, which would be a time consuming and inefficient, or divide the note-page into three separate pieces, which will leave him with smaller notes of unequal size which would be more difficult to handle and would more easily become lost.

Record the complete bibliographical source. A piece of information in Samuel's notes will generally be of little use unless he is able to identify the source — who said it, when, where, and upon what occasion; where certain statistical data was reported, and so on. Samuel could do this by giving the full bibliographical information on each note-page. This, however, would be a rather uneconomical use of his time. A more efficient method would be for Samuel to keep a separate bibliography card file. Then, each time he consults a new source he can simply prepare one card for that source, giving all the necessary reference data, and add the new card to his bibliography

card file at the appropriate location — which in most cases would be alphabetical by author. Then, on each of his note- pages Samuel could simply use some type of abbreviated reference which will adequately denote the exact source.

The amount of reference information which Samuel will need to record on each note-page can vary greatly. In some cases he may know that a particular person has written three books and he may have reason to believe that only one of these would be relevant for his research. Assuming that in his bibliographical card file he has recorded the complete bibliographical data for this book, then on his note-page about a particular point in that book it will be sufficient for Samuel to simply indicate the initials of the author and the page on which this note is based or from which a quotation is taken — for example, the abbreviated reference "PM-2" on a note-page might mean that an idea or quotation written on this note-page was taken from page two of Prabhati Mukherjee's *Beyond the Four Varnas. The Untouchables in India*.

Many times, however, Samuel will probably be using several books or articles by the same writer. In this case, it will become necessary for him to give more extensive identifying information on each note-page. For example, in his research he might be consulting several pieces of writing by M.M. Thomas. One of these may be Thomas' critique of the Papal Encyclical *On Human Life* which appeared in the March, 1969 number of *Religion and Society*. Assuming that Samuel has recorded in his bibliographical file the full bibliographical data on the several writings by Thomas which he is using, then Thomas' initials, the initials of the journal, date and page number will be sufficient to distinguish a note-page on this critique from other notes — for example, "MMT, R&S, Mar 69, p.72" could be used to refer to the author, the periodical in which the writing was published, the date of the periodical, and the number of the page to which the note-page refers.

Samuel should leave some space, preferably in the bottom or side margins, for making his own comments, either at the time of

making the note, or at a later stage in the research process. It will be desirable for him to also leave some space at the top of each note-page for 'titling', indexing or identifying each note page with one or more points in his working outline. Then, when the gathering of material is completed, Samuel should be able to easily arrange his notes according to the order in which they would be used when writing his thesis, dissertation or other research report.

Should I quote or summarize? It is difficult to give any firm rule on this point. As a general guideline, it is worth noting that extensive quoting will be not only very time consuming for Samuel but also would provide him with much material which he will probably never use. Samuel will probably never use *very long* quotations — at least not in their entirety. Normally, Samuel will probably be able to make better use of his time if he summarizes long passages and quotes only that portion which seems decisive or in other ways very significant. If Samuel is able to summarize a passage in one or two brief sentences, this will most likely be an indication that he has understood it. If later Samuel believes it desirable to include a longer quotation, his reference notations will enable him to go back to the source and do this. It is important to note here that if Samuel is not able to summarize a passage, he probably has not yet understood it — in which case his time will be better spent in trying to understand it rather than copying material which may appear to be profound but which he really does not yet understand.

When quoting, quote accurately. It is easy to inadvertently omit a word or punctuation mark when copying, or to make some other error when attempting to quote someone. For example, if when copying the phrase "I do not agree with...." Samuel omits the crucial word "not" he will have completely misrepresented the writer. Such misrepresentations are not limited to the omission of words. Sometimes a researcher may inadvertently commit other mistakes when making notes — such as omitting an entire line of text, misspelling names of people and/or places, being inaccurate when referring to dates and/or numerical data, and making faulty summarizations. Most such misrepresentations are not intentional,

although there are times when apparently deliberate misrepresentations will be found. But whether done unintentionally or deliberately, a matter of professional ethics is involved. If Samuel is going to quote another person in the course of the argument in his research paper, he must represent that person's position accurately and in context. Whether deliberate or by accident, misrepresenting another person is a serious matter. If Samuel makes any such misrepresentations, this may indicate that he has not understood the writer, or that he has been careless and is not yet a scholar, or that he has been intellectually dishonest.

There is a further reason for quoting accurately. By quoting accurately Samuel will not only represent another person correctly but also safeguard himself against mistakes made by that writer. If Samuel finds that he wishes to use a quotation which contains an apparent misspelling or other error, he should quote it as it appears and then protect himself by placing [*sic*] (= 'so', or 'thus', as in the original) immediately after the apparently misspelled word, inaccurate date or other mistake in the original source to indicate to the reader that the error was in the original — for example, "According to the report of the foreign visitor who came two weeks ago, his country 'owed India 18 kores [*sic*] of rupees' as of the end of last year."

Distinguish between direct quotations, paraphrases, and comments/ reflections by you on these. As Samuel investigates his sources, there will be times when he will want to include in his notes a phrase, sentence or perhaps an entire paragraph exactly as it appears in a source. This will be a direct quotation, and such material may help Samuel to illustrate a point or provide documentation when preparing his research report. At other times he may think that it will be more useful to restate a writer's central idea in his own words. This will be a paraphrase, and such material might be useful to him later in various ways — such as, for example, helping him to connect ideas with particular people. On other occasions when investigating his sources certain observations, ideas and

criticisms will occur to Samuel. It will be helpful for him to write these down immediately — otherwise they may be easily forgotten and not easily retrieved. It will be useful for Samuel to include these ideas and thoughts in his note-pages as they occur to him in order to keep a record of all such thoughts which might help him later in his analysis and evaluation of his materials and the preparation of his research report. However, it will be important for Samuel to distinguish between these three different types of materials in his notes in order to avoid any confusion later. Some researchers make these distinctions by using a code of some sort, such as a 'Q' for a direct quotation, a 'P' for a paraphrase, and a 'C' for their own comment; other researchers have found other coding systems helpful, such as using a pen of one colour to mark a quotation, a pen of another colour to mark a paraphrase, and so on. Each researcher should use whatever coding system s/he is most comfortable with, while also being sure that the distinctions are clear in his or her notes.

Organize your notes. It is here that a working outline will serve another useful function. For example, Samuel will presumably have consulted a wide range of sources to secure material on his research topic as suggested by points in the various versions of his working outline. On the basis of his current working outline he could proceed to label each note-page according to the relevant points in his working outline — as, for example, the reference "III.2.b." on a note-page could mean that the reference on this note-page is related to Chapter 3, section 2, subsection 'b'. Note pages which appear to be perhaps related to more than one point/subpoint of the working outline can be appropriately cross-referenced. After all note pages are labeled Samuel can then easily arrange them in the same order as his outline. Better yet sometimes, if Samuel consistently labels his notes as he gathers his materials, then when he completes his data gathering he will have notes which are organized according to each topic in his outline and he will be ready to begin writing his research report. Of course, whenever Samuel makes any changes in his working outline, this will also necessitate changes in the arrangement of his notes. However,

having organized his notes according to one scheme will mean that they are in a certain logical order and this will facilitate any needed re-organization. Ideally, Samuel should end up with his notes arranged in the order in which he will be using them in the writing of his research report.

Field Research

What we have considered so far applies primarily to library research. At the beginning of this chapter it was indicated that we would also consider a few concerns connected with gathering and organizing material from investigations which involve field research. Field research can become necessary where there is an absence of a long written tradition, where one wishes to undertake participatory-action research, where one wishes to study the actual religious beliefs and/or practices of a people, where there is a need to document an oral tradition or to do oral history, where a researcher needs to gather data on such concerns as the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and/or practices of persons representing a particular population and the relationships of these kinds of data to social background factors through comparative analysis, and so on. Quite apart from whether they wish to engage in any field studies themselves, a majority of readers will likely, at some time or another, want to make use of some results of field research. Some readers may engage primarily in library research but like to undertake a limited field investigation as part of a larger project. Other readers may be interested in research which will be to a large extent based on field research. It is therefore appropriate that we briefly consider three very general concerns regarding field research.

Field research presupposes library research. Some persons have the impression that library and field research are alternative forms of investigation, that a researcher may engage in one or the other but not necessarily both. Such impressions are false. Field research presupposes library research. Hence, everything which has been mentioned so far in this chapter applies not only to library research but also to field research. Field research, like all research, seeks to

build upon the existing body of knowledge in the area of investigation or to examine alternative perspectives in areas where basic assumptions which underlie existing knowledge are questioned. For this reason, in the early stages of their investigations field researchers should undertake library research to find out what has already been done. This applies not only to research projects following the traditional paradigm, but also to participatory-action research — the researcher and other participants will need to find out what relevant 'knowledge' is in the public domain and make some judgement about the validity of that 'knowledge'. Field research is therefore not a substitute for library research; it is, rather, research which seeks to go beyond what is available in the library in a search for answers to questions or problems which cannot be answered on the basis of existing library resources.

Field research normally requires the use of procedures which are different from those required for library research. Field research is largely directed toward securing information from people, not books. For some types of field research documents not available in libraries may be sought, but primary attention is usually given to gathering data from persons. An enduring question here is whether a quantitative or qualitative method, or some combination of the two, should be used. These two methods are based on somewhat different assumptions and serve somewhat different purposes.

The *quantitative* approach assumes that persons have distinctive characteristics such as specific opinions, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours, that these can be identified, that appropriate quantifiable measurements can be made (e.g., importance of belief in life after death on a scale from very important to very unimportant), and that a pattern of relationships can be found among such opinions, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours and also between these and background characteristics such as ethnic origin, level of education, socio-economic status and so on. This approach is appropriate when the purpose of the research is to describe a population as in a census of a village or larger geographical unit, to identify causal relationships and to give explanations, to test

certain hypotheses or theory, and to be able to make generalizations and/or predictions.

The *qualitative* approach also assumes that persons have distinctive characteristics, such as opinions, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. However, a major assumption of this approach is that such characteristics are complex and interwoven aspects of the lives of persons, and that any effort to identify and measure any of these separately results, at best, in superficial understanding. Instead of identifying patterned relationships, giving explanations, and making generalizations and predictions, persons doing qualitative research are more interested in acquiring an in-depth understanding of persons or groups and being able to make an accurate interpretation of that understanding to others.

In view of these differences; some researchers view the quantitative and qualitative approaches as incompatible. However, many see these as complementary and utilize both approaches in their work. But, even so, the differing approaches do require different procedures. The quantitative approach can be especially useful for making general surveys and studying characteristics and relationships of persons in groups and institutions such as congregations, dioceses and other religious institutions; villages, districts and other civil units; action-groups, social movements and labour unions; schools and colleges, hospitals, businesses, industries, governmental bodies and other institutions, and persons in various occupational groups such as pastors, teachers, farmers and so on. Studies of such social units will typically make extensive use of observation (including participant-observation), questionnaires and interviews for data collection; these are often supplemented by case studies through which more in-depth study is made of selected persons or social units. On the basis of a large amount of experience, substantial literature has been developed on how such studies can be carried out in ways which will provide information that is both valid and reliable. For small studies, such as a 150 member congregation, all members may be included; for larger

studies, where resources do not permit contact with every person in the relevant population, such as members of a religious group nation-wide, women living in a large city or persons in a particular state living below the poverty line, procedures have been developed for selecting samples which can be highly representative of the relevant population unit.

By way of contrast, the qualitative approach can be especially useful for exploratory studies, where the main interest may be identification of the major dimensions of a perceived problem, and for more in-depth studies where the main interest may be upon such concerns as comprehending and describing the complex and interwoven 'world' of a specific population — which can be as varied as a single person, an institution (e.g., a seminary), a territorial unit (e.g., a village), a religious practice (e.g., a religious pilgrimage), an occupational group (e.g., money lenders), or an ethnic or tribal group (e.g., the Mizos), understanding 'deep' cultural assumptions (e.g., norms governing interactions between men and women within a particular culture), or discerning the moral and political commitments which underlie everyday activities such as the struggle of the poor against their subordination. Typically a study will look at only a few cases, in some instances only one, and attempt to examine these in depth. Typically, also, much use will be made of interviews, which may be only loosely structured or non-structured, and extensive participant-observation.

The specific procedures to be followed in a qualitative inquiry will depend upon what is being investigated. However, there is a growing interest in and use of the ethnographic approach. As its name implies, ethnography is, broadly, the study of a people or culture, which may be descriptive, interpretive, or both. The role of the researcher can vary from that of a 'disinterested' observer to that of a participating political advocate (both roles raise methodological issues). Within the broad ethnographic tradition are three more narrowly defined types of inquiry: the study of *oral tradition* (the handing down of information — such as beliefs, customs and practices — in oral form from one generation to another),

folkloristics (the study of folklore -the sayings/ maxims/ proverbs, songs and tales preserved in the oral tradition of a people), and *oral history* (which has the double meaning of doing history in areas where history in written form does not yet exist, and of preserving the oral information provided by a people about their oral tradition in the form of tape recordings which are deposited in a library or archives and thereby making available to others this oral record of a people's oral tradition).

A major strength of qualitative studies is the rich description/ interpretation which they can provide as in-depth studies; a major limitation is that since such studies deal, at most, with only a few cases it is not possible to make generalizations and explanations about a larger number of cases. A major strength of quantitative studies is their breadth: since they cover a large number of persons — through either actual contact with all relevant persons or a representative sample selected through reliable sampling procedures — patterned relationships can be identified, causal explanations can often be offered, and frequently generalizations can be made to similar population units; conversely, a major limitation of quantitative studies is that when breadth comes at the expense of depth the quantitative study will lack the 'thick' description of qualitative studies and the interpretative force which the best of these provide.

Which procedure will be most appropriate will depend upon the type of inquiry being undertaken. A field researcher concentrating on a narrowly defined disciplinary concern might make use of only a single procedure, while a field researcher with interdisciplinary interests might utilize several procedures, perhaps combining certain quantitative and qualitative approaches. Persons engaging in participatory-action research will often make use of selected qualitative and quantitative procedures to gather relevant information which will help them to describe, interpret and understand their situation and provide a basis for formulating an action programme.

While neither space nor propriety permit a more extended discussion here, the interested reader can pursue the above concerns and related issues in the extensive literature now available.⁵

Field research is almost always based, as has been noted, on the study of all members of an identified category or a selected sample out of a much larger population. This raises the crucial issue of representation, at two levels. First, when a *sample* is selected, it is crucial that the field researcher follow procedures which will help to ensure that the sample studied is indeed *representative* of the much larger population which it is presumed to represent. For example, if a researcher wishes to study the opinion of Christians in Chennai on minority rights, it will be necessary to include persons from the Catholic, Orthodox and various Protestant traditions. It will also be necessary to include both men and women, persons of various age categories, educational levels and different caste/ class backgrounds. Only by having such a diverse sample can we have some assurance that the sample is indeed representative of the diverse Christian population in Chennai. Field research can therefore be a complex undertaking. This complexity could be reduced by limiting the study in some way — for example, to adult male members of one tradition, say, the Church of South India. But then the results would be similarly limited, for we would not know the opinions of women in the C.S.I., or of members of other Protestant traditions, or of members of the Catholic and Orthodox traditions. At the same time, field research is not

⁵ Readers interested in the theory and practice of field research with an emphasis on quantitative methods may profitably pursue such standard works as: Earl R. Babbie, *The Basics of Social Research*, 8th ed. (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1998), and *The Practice of Social Research*, 8th ed. (Belmont California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1998) which includes links with online resources; William J. Goode and Paul K. Hatt, *Methods in Social Research*. International Student Edition (Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, 1952), and Pauline V. Young, *Scientific Social Surveys and Research*, 4th ed., 1966, Reprint (New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India, 1975). Although the latter two works have been in print for many years, they are enduring works which continue to be used in many colleges and universities. Persons whose interests are clearly in the use of quantitative methods, and the use of statistical analysis in data processing, will find help in *Research Methodology. Methods and Techniques*, 2nd ed., by C.R. Kothari (New Delhi: Wiley

necessarily more complex than library research, for both confront the same problem. Library researchers are seldom able to read everything that has been written on the subjects they investigate. In many cases what they are able to examine will be but a sample of the existing material on that topic. Hence, both field researchers and library researchers are confronted with the question of whether the sample they have studied is sufficiently representative to enable them to confidently reach a conclusion about what really happened or what is really going on.

The second representation issue is with regard to the *research report*: Regardless of whether the study has included all members of a category or is based upon a sample from a larger population, does the report re-present the people studied in a way which is faithful to the people and their context and may therefore be said to be representative? Does the report address not only the researcher's interests, but also the interests of those studied?

When a study is carried out in such a way that it passes both of the above tests of representation, the results as set forth in the research report may be considered valid not only because the study

Eastern, 1990). While the above works include some attention to preparation of a research report, help on the use of tables and graphs in such reports can be found in *Reporting Research*, 2nd ed., by Vimal P. Shah (Ahmedabad: Rachava Prakasan, 1977).

Persons interested primarily in qualitative research will find much help in what is probably the single most comprehensive work now available, *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, edited by Norman K. Denzin and Yvonna S. Lincoln (Thousand Oaks/London/New Delhi: Sage, 1994 [hardback]; 1998 [3 vol. paperback ed.]). Much help on ethnography can be found in such works as *Ethnography. Principles in Practice*, 2nd ed., by Martyn Hammersley and Paul Atkinson (London: Routledge, 1995); *Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes*, by Robert M. Emerson, Rachel I. Fretz and Linda L. Shaw (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1995); *The Ethnographic Imagination. Textual Constructions of Reality*, by Paul Atkinson (London: Routledge, 1990); *Tales of the Field. On Writing Ethnography*, by John van Maaten (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1988); *Writing Culture. The Poetics and Politics of Ethnography*, edited by James Clifford and George E. Marcus (Berkeley: University of California, 1986), and two quite different approaches to reading ethnography: *Reading Ethnographic Research: A Critical Guide*, 2nd ed. by Martyn Hammersley (London: Longman, 1998), and *Reading Ethnography*, by David Jacobson (Albany: State University of New York, 1991). For some enduring ethnographic 'classics', see Clifford Geertz's

has satisfied the researcher's methodological concerns but also because the people included in the study can look at the results and say, "That's us!"

Epilogue

Let me conclude with one final note regarding a type of material which the researcher should consciously collect, regardless of whether s/he is doing library or field research. As the researcher pursues his or her inquiry there will be moments when s/he will have flashes of insight, see possible relationships and interpretations, raise crucial questions about the data, and perhaps make some rather profound observations. These moments of 'insight' may occur during moments of quiet reflection upon one's notes, in casual conversations or a long interview when the researcher feels that s/he has begun to really 'know' a person, issue or situation, or during the heat of an action struggle when seemingly disparate 'facts' suddenly and momentarily coalesce into a clear insight and long

The Interpretation of Culture (New York: Basic Books, 1973; Reprint, 2000), especially Chapter 1, "Thick Description: Toward an Interpretive Theory of Culture"; Chapter 4, "Religion as a Cultural System", and Chapter 5, "Deep Play. Notes on the Balinese Cockfight". Although more specialized works on oral tradition, folkloristics and oral history are now available, a useful beginning point which in one way or another touches on all three of these is *Oral History. An Interdisciplinary Approach*, edited by David K. Dunaway and Willa K. Baum (Nashville: American Association for State and Local History in cooperation with the Oral History Association, 1984). An update is provided in their second edition (Walnut Creek, California: Alta Mira Press, 1996). A further update on the theory and practice of oral history can be found in *The oral history reader*, edited by Robert Perks and Alistair Thomson (London: Routledge, 1998). For a detailed discussion on steps in carrying out an oral history study, see *Doing Oral History* by Donald A. Ritchie (New York: Twayne Publishers, 1995) and *Oral History. A Handbook*, by Ken Howarth (Gloucestershire: Sutton Publishing, 1998).

Attention may be drawn to a few 'middle ground' works which can be helpful to persons doing research from either the quantitative or qualitative approach. From a critical perspective is *A Methodology for Social Research*, by Gideon Sjöberg and Roger Nett (New York: Harper & Row, 1968; Jaipur: Rawat Publications, 1977), which examines the impact of theory upon research and the impact of the researcher upon the research process. Two specialized works which can be helpful in conjunction with studies from either approach are: *Case Study Research. Design and Methods*, 2nd ed., by Robert K. Lin (New Delhi: Sage, 1989), and *Content*

desired understanding. The researcher should write these 'insights' down as they occur, or as soon as possible thereafter, and keep a record of them. A researcher may think that s/he will remember these later, but quite often we find that we cannot remember them even five minutes later; they become lost, beyond our recall. Yet they may direct our attention to crucial data or help us in analysing and interpreting our data. It is therefore important that the researcher make a record of these for later use; they have perhaps occurred only in *his* or *her* experience, are not written down anywhere else, and unless the researcher records them they may be irretrievable. Such creative insights remind us that good research is both a science and an art. Research is a science which requires that we follow systematic methods in collecting, organizing and analysing our data; it is also a human art which requires that we be sensitive to our materials, including the people whom we study, be aware of our observations and insights, discern subtle but significant meanings, and appropriate that which is valuable.

Analysis. A New Method in Social Research, by Raghuvir Sinha (New Delhi: Ambika Publications, 1980). Two collections of essays on doing field work in India which have relevance for both quantitative and qualitative research are: *Encounter and Experience. Personal Accounts of Field Work*, edited by André Beteille and T.N. Madan (Delhi: Vikas, 1975), and *The Fieldworker and the Field*, edited by M.N. Srinivas, A.M. Shah and E.A. Ramaswamy (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1979). Another volume, *Social Change in Modern India* by M.N. Srinivas contains both Srinivas' well known but sometimes contested concept of 'sanskritization' and a useful chapter on "Some Thoughts on the Study of One's Own Society" (Berkeley: University of California, 1966; Bombay: Orient Longman, 1972 [Indian edition]).

Chapter 4

Analysis and Evaluation of Materials

Each stage of the research process has its own importance. This is particularly true with regard to the analysis and evaluation of the materials which a researcher gathers or considers collecting in the course of his or her research. The shape and value of what is produced as a research report will be significantly determined by how well the researcher does this analysis and evaluation. No matter how good the composition of the report, or how elegant the style in which it is written, it will be of little value if it is based upon unreliable materials.

How does one go about evaluating the materials which one has gathered for a research project? In this chapter an effort will be made to provide a brief discussion of the importance of the critical method and then to deal with some of the procedures or 'tools' which are widely used in various disciplines. In addition to these, some disciplines will have other more specialized procedures for evaluation.¹

The Critical Method

All scholarly research claims to make use of the critical method. This approach is based upon at least two basic presuppositions.

¹The discussion in this chapter assumes that for advanced research, particularly at the doctoral level, the material gathered will be informed by the latest work by others, even if unpublished, and, where relevant, the latest empirical data. Indeed, for advanced research, being able to assure yourself that your material is as up-to-date as possible constitutes a major step in the evaluation of the adequacy of your materials.

The first presupposition is that research materials can be properly understood only when viewed with reference to their original cultural-historical context. For example, it has become widely known, especially since Schweitzer's *The Quest of the Historical Jesus*, that we can properly appreciate Jesus' thought pattern only in the context of the socio-cultural conditions which prevailed in the place and time in which he lived. And so it is in other areas. We understand Karl Barth's early theology best when we see him as a person trying to theologize and speak to the people of Western Europe who were in a state of shock and disillusionment following World War I. Liberation Theology in Latin America and Dalit Theology in India are best understood not with reference to Barth or other western theologians but as efforts by persons in Latin America and India to reflect theologically upon their specific socio-historical context. Even language itself is contextual. Meanings of old words change with time, new words evolve, and even the same word in the same time period can have different meanings among different groups of people. No area of research is free of socio-cultural influences. Therefore, researchers must seek to understand their data in terms of the historical context from which they are drawn.

The second presupposition is that materials gathered during research are not necessarily free from error, can be misleading, and may be misinterpreted. It is a common misconception that a date, opinion or statement which has been found in published materials or oral sources is a proven 'fact'. But this is not true. A published or oral statement tells us only something about what the person making the statement believes, but not about whether what has been stated is accepted by others. For example, in many published works and oral statements claims have been made that 'women are inferior to men'. Such statements *do* indicate that the persons making these statements *believe* women to be inferior to men. Such statements *may* indicate that in a particular socio-cultural context women have been *treated* as inferior to men. But such statements *do not* indicate that women are innately inferior to men. Claims that

women are inferior to men are therefore challenged by persons who view such statements as signs of oppression rather than as 'proven facts'. Hence, what some persons regard as 'facts' are not necessarily self-evident and do not speak for themselves. Rather, what are often regarded by some people as 'facts' may actually be biased perceptions of reality which rationalize self-interest. Materials gathered during research will often be not only diverse — like the proverbial reports from the blind men examining an elephant — but at times even contradictory. Due to reasons such as these, researchers will need to critically examine and evaluate their materials.

There are sound theological grounds for doing this. Regardless of their level of training, persons who provide data, whether in written or oral form, are finite beings. They may have sought to do their best, but nothing that they do can be regarded as perfect or complete. The written and oral word of persons as finite beings can seldom be the final word on any research subject, is on numerous occasions in error, and is often influenced by the distortion of personal bias or self-interest. A good guideline might be to always examine your materials from the perspective of a hermeneutic of suspicion. This can be a healthy corrective to the tendency toward an uncritical acceptance of anything that is printed as 'a proven fact'. All the data with which we deal are, in the last analysis, persons' expressions of their partial and imperfect understanding of the world in which they live.

Some Procedures in Analysis and Evaluation

As already noted, in this chapter attention will be given primarily to some general procedures or 'tools' which are widely used in various theological disciplines (and many other disciplines as well) for the analysis and evaluation of materials. We shall not attempt to deal with specialized procedures specific to an individual discipline. 'Tools' which have been found useful in various ways in many disciplines are: authentication, type of source, credentials of the writer, reliability of the material, representativeness of the data, and

corroboration. We shall consider each of these below. For illustrative purposes, we shall at certain points examine how these tools might be used by Samuel, the otherwise anonymous researcher introduced in the previous chapter.

Authentication

Does Samuel really have what he thinks he has? Does a particular piece of material come from the person whom Samuel thinks it comes from? From the particular place and time period which Samuel thinks it represents? In other words, is the data genuine, actually belonging to the reputed source? Or, has it been misidentified? Is it only a forgery? A deliberately misleading fabrication? Out of the various procedures which have been developed to help establish authenticity, we may note at least three:

Authorship. In the case of written materials, who wrote it? For modern published materials the determination of authorship is normally not a problem, for the name of the author is usually clearly given. However, it is only within the last 200 years that it has become fashionable to put the name of an author on a work. Before that time this was considered immodest. Hence, we cannot always accept at face value any supposed authorship. This is one of the problems faced in the critical study of the Bible — for example, who wrote a particular passage and for what purpose? Is a particular piece of writing by the supposed author, or by someone else who has attempted to claim the authority of another writer? For example, it is said that some writings were circulated in North India entitled “Acts of Thomas” and claiming to be by St. Thomas, one of the twelve disciples of Jesus, but were actually written in the Third Century by a person with heretical ideas. This practice of circulating one’s writings under the name of a well-known person in order to gain readership is a device which has been widely used. The matter of establishing authorship applies not only to historical documents or writings by persons no longer living. Reports from conferences and committees can also present problems when their usefulness depends upon knowing which persons or groups were primarily

responsible for introducing particular ideas or the shape of particular recommendations. Oral reports attributed to others will need to be verified. Sometimes in such cases authenticity can be established by consulting with participants. Where there is no external way of checking authorship, it may be necessary to rely upon internal evidence such as the main ideas, often repeated expressions which are also found in other works of a known person, and the style of writing.

Date. When was the material written? This is usually not a problem with modern published works which usually give the date of publication. Do not be misled, however, by reprints which give only the date of reprinting but do not mention that the item is a reprint. Where the date is unknown, various tests can be employed. For example, are other editions of the same work, or translations, available and include a publishing date? Does the style of language agree with that in use during the period in question, or does it appear to be from a different period? Does the writer show a knowledge of events which happened during the time period in question? Such tests can help to establish a date or approximate period of origin. In addition, chemical and other tests can be used on materials such as wood, paper, ink and pottery to help date such materials. For example, a few years ago several newspapers carried sensational reports about the supposed discovery of Hitler's diaries. If these were genuine, they would be a treasure trove for historians. However, tests revealed that the paper used was a kind which began to be manufactured only many years after Hitler's death; it was therefore concluded that the alleged diaries were not Hitler's but worthless fabrications.

Textual accuracy. Is the text accurate in substance and composition, or does it contain errors? If there are errors, were these part of the original text (written or oral) or were these errors made in the transmission of the original text — thereby diminishing the value of the transmitted text? Errors in transmission may be of a direct kind, such as those which occur when copying scripture by hand. For this reason, copies which are nearer to the original are usually

more authentic. Textual errors may also occur indirectly, as in the case of translations of written or oral materials which fail to accurately convey the intended meaning. It is therefore sometimes useful to check the reputation of a translator in order to be on the alert for possibly inaccurate translations.

Sources

Although Samuel may have determined the authenticity of his materials, he has not necessarily established the value of his materials in relation to his area of research. Does his material have the strength of coming directly from a person being studied, or by persons involved in an event being investigated? Or, does his material come mainly from others who are reporting about the person or event? Does his material have the strength of an eye-witness account, or does it consist mainly of inferences drawn by other persons based on what they have heard? In the previous chapter a distinction was made between primary and secondary *sources*. After research materials have been gathered, a distinction will need to be made between primary and secondary data or materials. The value of Samuel's research materials in relation to his area of research will significantly depend upon whether these constitute *primary* or *secondary* data. Their value will also depend upon whether they consist of *direct* or *circumstantial* evidence.

Primary data are materials *by* persons being studied or by those involved in an event being investigated. This is often known as the 'pure gold' of research data. It is this which would make the discovery of a new first century Christian document of great interest to biblical scholars, the discovery of a previously unknown writing by Dietrich Bonhoeffer of great value to Bonhoeffer scholars, and the discovery of Dalit poetry, stories and myths of great usefulness to Dalit historians and theologians. While such materials will often be from written sources, they may also be from oral traditions and non-verbal sources such as archaeological evidence.

Secondary data are materials *about* other persons, or about events in which the authors have not participated. Usually *interpretations*

of such things as the thought of another person, census data, opinion surveys and oral traditions would be classified as secondary data.² For example, books, articles and papers *by* P.D. Devanandan would be primary materials for a researcher studying Devanandan's life and thought; book, articles and papers by others *about* Devanandan would constitute secondary data. Similarly, for a researcher studying a particular tribal group material *by* a member of that tribe about the life and culture of that tribe would normally be primary data, while material by non-tribals *about* that tribe would normally be secondary data.³

As these examples indicate, secondary data are materials by others *about* a person, an event being studied or other phenomena, while primary data consists of materials either *by* that person, participants in the event or witnesses to the phenomena. Primary materials will normally have much greater value for helping a researcher to more directly know a person, event or other phenomena. It is for this reason that so much stress is given to the importance of getting into primary sources.

The value of Samuel's research materials can often be further evaluated according to the extent to which they constitute *direct* or *circumstantial* evidence.

Direct evidence consists of eye-witness reports and other material by persons who were present at an event being studied. For example, testimony provided by an eye-witness to a murder would be one type of direct evidence. While this example is drawn from legal affairs, analogous examples can be given from other areas—reports

² Note, however, that for some investigations such interpretations would be primary data — as, for example, in a comparative study of how two or more biblical scholars have understood the same biblical text. In this case, the biblical text would have been primary data for the biblical scholars, but for a study of the biblical scholars' understanding of that text the primary data would be their interpretation of the text, not the text itself.

³ However, exceptions do occur. For example, for certain purposes an eye-witness account of a traditional Mizo festival in 1900 by a non-Mizo might be considered a primary source, and what a Mizo writes today about the 1900 Mizo festival might be regarded as a secondary source (since it is not an eye-witness account).

by participants in inter-faith dialogue, statements by persons who had witnessed the preaching of a well known preacher, descriptions provided by persons who experienced living through a major earthquake or other disaster, and so on.

Circumstantial evidence consists of materials from which inferences can be drawn about what happened at an event but which do not directly witness to that event. For example, statements that a person was seen near the scene of a murder or had been heard to make threats against a person who was later murdered would be circumstantial evidence. Such materials link persons to suspicious circumstances which may or may not be connected with the murder. On the basis of such indirect evidence, others may draw inferences and decide whether an accused person has committed an alleged crime. Again, while this example is drawn from legal affairs, analogous examples can be given from other areas — allegations that some persons have embezzled funds on the grounds that funds are missing from an organization and that persons who had access to these funds are living beyond their known income; attributing an unsigned manuscript to a particular author in view of substantial similarities of writing style, and so on; on the basis of such circumstantial reports others may draw inferences about such things as the moral rectitude of persons who had handled funds, the authorship of a manuscript, and so on.

Since research is concerned with finding a persuasive answer to a question or problem, primary materials will be more valuable than secondary materials, and direct evidence will be more valuable than circumstantial evidence. Primary materials and direct evidence provide the views of the person being studied and the views of witnesses who have been involved in the event being investigated; secondary materials and circumstantial evidence provide us only with the opinions of other persons about these and materials from which certain inferences (but no conclusive proof) can be drawn. At the same time, even though primary data and direct evidence are preferable, sometimes a researcher may be working on a problem

for which only secondary, indirect, circumstantial evidence is available—in which case such materials will need to be rigorously scrutinized.

Research materials can therefore be graded on a scale of value according to their sources. For example, for a person doing research on the *content* of the preaching of Archbishop Desmond Tutu, the most valuable material would be Tutu's sermons; these would be the primary materials providing direct evidence of the content of his preaching. Reports by persons who had heard him preach might be useful but these would be somewhat less valuable: they would be secondary materials about the content of his preaching and, even though these would be eye-witness reports and therefore direct evidence, these reports would tell us only what was heard and remembered by those preparing these reports and not necessarily the full content of his preaching.⁴ Of less value, generally, than the sermons or reports by persons who have heard his preaching would be reports about how some people have responded to Tutu's preaching by persons who themselves have neither heard him preach nor read any of his sermons. Their reports would constitute only secondary, indirect, circumstantial evidence regarding the probable content of Tutu's preaching.

Credentials of the writer

To some extent it will probably be necessary in most areas of research to make some use of secondary materials, although this can never be a substitute for the use of primary materials. Secondary data can have value, but it is necessary to recognize that the use of such material means making use of other persons' opinions. Before relying too heavily upon others' opinions it is useful to assess the possible worth of their views. To state this differently, we need to find out what credentials or qualifications are held by the authors of secondary sources. One way to do this is to ask such questions as the following:

⁴ At the same time, it may be noted that for a person doing research on Tutu's *delivery* of sermons the reports of persons who had seen or heard him preach would be primary sources.

What else has this author written? How is he or she regarded by others in the same discipline? For example, has the author published in professional journals in his or her field — and thereby at least met the standards of some peers in the same area of studies — or has this author published only in popular journals and/or privately printed works? Is this all s/he has published? How has the person's published work been received?

What sources did the writer use? Did s/he depend mainly upon primary and direct evidence, or mainly upon secondary and circumstantial materials? A secondary source written by a well qualified scholar who has used primary and direct data will obviously be of much greater value than material written by an unqualified person dependent on secondary and circumstantial data. We therefore need to determine not only to what extent a writer acknowledges his or her indebtedness to others, but also to what types of materials he or she is indebted. By checking — in the case of books — such things as prefaces, footnotes and bibliographies, it is possible to make an early judgement about the probable usefulness of the prospective material.

Who is the publisher? Is the publisher reliable? Well known book houses are usually reliable and refuse to publish works of doubtful value. Nevertheless, there are occasional exceptions. When material is printed by small or unknown publishers, it is useful to discover the reason why. Was it because a better known publisher would not accept it and the writer was more eager to get his or her work into print than to make it reputable? Or was it because the work, clearly of a high quality, is of such specialized interest that a commercial press was unwilling to make the necessary investment in a book of limited saleability? Or is the work of such a radical nature that well-established firms, wedded to the establishment, did not want to be associated with it? Although it may not be easy to find adequate answers to such questions, one can often find helpful clues by consulting librarians and writers knowledgeable about the publishing industry, talking with persons acquainted with the author, and examining book reviews.

Is the writer qualified in the area in which he or she is writing?

Occasionally researchers like Samuel will encounter material written by a person who has a well deserved reputation in one field who ventured to write in another field for which s/he has no particular qualifications. Such works may be attractive to publishers who can profit from the sales of works by persons who are well known, but what such persons have to say may be of limited value because they have ventured into fields outside their competence. This may apply not only to a person trained in biology who ventures to write on religion, but also to the systematic theologian who ventures to write on Biblical studies or Religion and Culture — both may be competent in their areas of specialization but unequipped to deal with areas outside those specializations.

This does not mean that a researcher should automatically reject material outside of the area of an author's original training or the area for which an author is best known. There are persons who have competence in more than one discipline, and the desirability of persons acquiring competence for interdisciplinary work has been noted in Chapter 1. Our point here is that the process of evaluating a secondary source should include attention to an author's qualifications, or lack of qualifications, for writing in that area.

Reliability of the material

When Samuel has established that he is dealing with primary and direct material from a known writer in the particular period of his study who has reasonably good credentials he may think that he has established the usefulness of his materials — but has he? Are the materials dependable and therefore justify being taken at face value? Although the previous steps may have led him to have increased confidence in his materials, he still needs to inquire further about their trustworthiness. Here it will be useful for Samuel to probe into at least three areas:

Self-interest. To what extent is the self-interest of the writer involved in the position taken? A few examples may help to make clear the importance of this question: Police reports tend to

understate the extent of atrocities against such groups as Dalits, tribals and women — often because a more complete report would reflect negatively upon both the police and the political establishment. Biographies of the main candidates published at the time of a national election campaign will tend to be either written from a partisan point of view seeking to idealize the candidate, or to be a piece of 'quick journalism' by a writer eager to capitalize on the saleability of such materials during an election year. Even the work of a scholar who has earned his reputation on the basis of a particular theory can be subject to self-interest, leading him to overdefend his theory rather than seriously consider contrary evidence which might undermine his theory — and, consequently, the reputation which he has built on the basis of that theory.

In each case the principle of self-interest is at work — influencing persons to take positions from which they are likely to benefit: police who understate the incidence of atrocities, writers who produce election year biographies, a scholar who belittles evidence which might undermine his theory. Each of these will present problems to the researcher who seeks to secure an accurate and reliable understanding of such things as atrocities or political candidates or a scholar's work. It is therefore usually helpful to assume a skeptical attitude when a particular position is found to be linked with self-interest. Correspondingly, one can have greater confidence in a writer's position if it is clearly *contrary* to his or her own self-interest — as, for instance, a work by a person of high-caste and high-class background who concludes from her investigation that more government benefits should be extended to persons of SC and ST origin.

To what extent can a writer be considered an authoritative source? While this has already been touched upon, it should be noted that this concern applies not only when considering materials from secondary sources but also when evaluating primary and direct evidence. Even if some persons were participants in or witnesses to an event, this does not mean that they really understood what

was happening. For example, there are many books about countries such as India written by tourists who have spent just a few weeks (or only a few days) in the country. While their impressions may be of some general interest, their work is likely to be of little or no value for a serious study of Indian society (although their work could be of much value if one were studying how tourists perceive India).

To what extent does a writer have a bias which prejudices his or her work? Bias here refers to the tendency to make prejudgements about something — either positively or negatively. For example, the tendency of many persons of high caste or high class background to view persons of lower caste or lower class backgrounds as somehow innately inferior and to view only those belonging to their own group as their equals — or, conversely, the tendency of persons of a particular theological or political persuasion to rather uncritically accept the opinions of persons belonging to the same theological or political persuasion. Being finite, all persons have biases. This is a part of our human condition. Our social background and prior experience influence the type of 'prejudgement' we bring to a new area.

For a researcher, the concern here is not so much whether a writer has a bias but whether because of personal bias or predisposition a writer has overemphasized evidence favourable to his or her bias, or has been unable to recognize and reasonably consider contradictory evidence. To a certain extent, prejudgements will always be present. They function to make possible and justify our current level of understanding. Hence, since researchers can seldom be neutral investigators, they need to be self-critical and have the capacity to recognize and judiciously consider data, evidence or materials which conflict with their prejudgements or biases and thereby provide the possibility of growth in understanding — perhaps by way of reaffirmation of current understandings, some modification of those understandings, or the emergence of a creative new horizon of understanding.

Persons differ in the kind of biases or prejudgements which influence the way they approach a subject, the strength of these, and the extent to which they recognize their prejudgements or biases. Sometimes authors will indicate their bias in a preface, and where such prejudgement or bias is consciously recognized there is greater likelihood of the author having made a conscious effort to provide a balanced treatment. But bias may be unconscious and of many kinds — for example, personal life style, theological views, political persuasions, linguistic or regional identity, and so on. Knowing something about a writer's background will be helpful in seeking to detect any bias. For example, was the writer of a particular work on Indian history during the British period pro-British or anti-British? If evidence is presented which would be contrary to the writer's bias, this helps to increase the likelihood of the author's work being a reliable report.

Representativeness of the data

For a researcher such as Samuel another important concern will be the extent to which his data are comprehensive, and the extent to which his data merely represent the proverbial 'tip of the iceberg'. Are the most important aspects of the phenomenon being studied represented in his data, or are some of these unrepresented? Obviously, regardless of the area of investigation, the more comprehensive Samuel can be, the greater will be the confidence which he can have that his data does in fact represent the full range of factors relevant to his subject.

Researchers should recognize that even when one has collected all available written material their data is still not necessarily representative. For example, a person making a study of social conflicts between Mahars and upper caste groups, 1960-1990, may have read everything that has been published on such conflicts. However, published accounts are often disproportionately prepared by persons from upper caste backgrounds. To the extent that this is true, published accounts may be biased in favour of such groups and fail to adequately represent what actually took place. It may

therefore become necessary for the researcher to visit localities where such conflicts took place and consult persons who were involved in order to secure material which represents a wider range of views. In the case of formal field studies, the researcher may need to utilize some type of sampling plan to help ensure that the sample to be studied is likely to be representative of the larger population. In the case of studies limited to published sources, the researcher may need to adopt other devices to help ensure that his or her material is as representative as possible. In some cases the initial area of investigation may be found to be so broad that even reasonable representativeness will not be possible — in which case it will be necessary to narrow one's area of investigation to the point where satisfactory representativeness can be obtained.

Corroboration

A further step for Samuel in evaluating his data is that of corroboration — examining his materials to see how far data from different sources are in agreement. Relying upon data from a single source or from only a few sources can be very risky because other sources might provide contradictory evidence. Samuel will therefore need to search for data from as many different sources as possible to substantiate a point — preferably sources that are independent of each other. If he finds only one reference to an event or statement, he may best be suspicious about whether the report is reliable until he is able to find supporting evidence from other sources (although a single source can be important if he is dealing with a point of view which is likely to have been suppressed). If primary material from several writers witness to the same event, then a high value can be assigned to that material. This is one of the reasons why in the Christian tradition a high value has been given to the Synoptic Gospels: they provide similar accounts which, despite certain differences, are in much agreement about the life and ministry of Jesus. Where sources are not in agreement, the danger signal is up and one has to look for further evidence to see which source is likely to be more correct. Through such critical examination of materials from different sources it becomes possible

to separate the strong evidence from the weak. If Samuel is unable to find persuasive evidence to resolve or explain differences, then as a responsible researcher he should recognize and report that disagreement rather than accept a particular point of view which has only weak support from his data.

Seeking to understand materials in terms of the cultural-historical conditions surrounding their origin, recognizing that data is prone to error, authenticating the data, establishing whether it is direct or circumstantial, determining whether it comes from a primary or secondary source, examining the credentials of the author, determining the reliability and representativeness of the data, and seeking corroboration from other sources — these are some of the procedures or 'tools' which the serious researcher will need to utilize. Some disciplines will have their own more specialized procedures. When through the use of such procedures Samuel has determined which of his data have the highest value for the purposes of his research, he can proceed further with his analysis and the development of his research report.

Obviously, the evaluation of data is a crucial step in the research process. If Samuel bases his research report on erroneous material, it will not be possible for him to make a contribution to knowledge in his field. On the other hand, if he critically evaluates his data, separates the valuable from the not so valuable, distinguishes between that which can be conclusively established, that which is open to question and that which is simply erroneous, the way toward making a contribution will be open to him.

Epilogue

It should be noted that the procedures discussed in this chapter are in a real sense nothing more than tools to help researchers such as Samuel evaluate their data. As with tools in any trade, these tools will be useful to Samuel to the extent that he becomes thoroughly acquainted with them and proficient in using them. Just as a typewriter by itself cannot produce typed material, these tools by themselves cannot do Samuel's work for him. They will

be useful to him only as he develops familiarity with them and an ability to use them. A researcher working with tools that he or she has mastered will be able to progress far beyond persons attempting to do research without a knowledge of the available tools.

Beyond the availability of good tools is the artisan's creative use of these. Like good handicrafts and good art, a good research report is shaped not merely by the tools which are used but also by the way in which the tools are used. The same artist's brush may be used to paint a quite ordinary picture or a masterpiece; the same hammer and chisel can be used to turn a piece of stone into a fence post or a piece of beautiful sculpture; the same sitar can be used to create quite ordinary music or the soaring ragas of the great masters. And so it is in research: the finished product depends not only upon the available tools but also upon the creativity with which they are used. Good research is a blend of science and art — a blending of scholarly and scientific procedures with creativity which results in an original piece of work.

Both of these elements are of fundamental importance to the beginning researcher. On the one hand are the tools of a researcher's discipline — the scholarly and scientific procedures which must be learned and mastered. The second is the element of judgement and creativity which the researcher brings to the research undertaking. It is here in this blend of procedures and judgement, of science and art, that a researcher can make an original contribution to knowledge in his or her field. The first is largely established by the discipline, although to a certain extent there is growth and development. The second, however, is a quality possessed by the researcher — a quality which is uniquely the researcher's own and which is possessed in exactly the same way by no other person, however famous. Part of the difference which separates great researchers from ordinary researchers is to be found just here — in their daring to give expression to their own thinking, to seeing things in a new light, rather than simply regurgitating the thinking of others. But their ability to make such creative contributions also rests in part upon them having so mastered the

tools of their discipline that they are able to use them almost unconsciously in the service of their creative thinking. Thus, the possibility of researchers such as Samuel making a significant contribution in their area of study to a large extent rests upon starting now, if they have not already done so, to master tools such as those discussed in this chapter and to develop their own creative ways of using these.

Chapter 5

Interrogation of a 'Text'

In the previous chapter attention was given to certain 'tools' which a researcher may use to determine the authenticity and general value of materials investigated and collected during the research process. As a further step in the process of analyzing and evaluating such materials, there is usually a need to scrutinize more deeply the *substantive content* of such materials. Whether preparing a course assignment, thesis, dissertation or other research report, the researcher will typically need to critically examine the substantive content of his or her materials. This will require much deeper study than what would be involved in establishing the authenticity of one's materials or preparing a summary of such materials. This deeper study will be necessary for both a limited piece of research, such as a few readings for a seminar paper or analyzing rudimentary field research data, and for scrutinizing a much larger corpus of materials for a thesis or dissertation. In this chapter, after some general introductory considerations, we will discuss two methods for undertaking this critical interrogation of one's research materials — the logical reasoning approach, and the critical thinking approach.

To help simplify reference, the term 'text' will be used in the discussion which follows to signify what might otherwise be referred to as a 'written text', 'document', 'oral tradition', 'statistical data', 'piece of evidence' or other kinds of data gathered in the research process. These may be as diverse as a biblical exegesis, historical document, theological treatise, ethical inquiry, religious discourse, pastoral care verbatim, or other material from a field study — which might consist of survey data, an interview, an oral history, or cultural forms, all of which, for research purposes, we will also regard as

'texts'. In what follows, we shall use the term 'text' in inverted commas to signify this inclusive sense in which the word is used here. Similarly, the term 'author' will be used generically to refer to the person(s) who prepared or passed on the 'text' being interrogated — who may be as diverse as the author or editor of a book, the principal informants about an oral tradition, or participants in a participatory-action research undertaking. We recognize that using 'text' and 'author' as generic terms is not entirely satisfactory, but this does reflect a developing usage in the absence of more suitable generic terms. When going through the remainder of this chapter the reader may find it helpful to think of 'text' as representing any specific piece of research material s/he is currently gathering or studying, and 'author' as representing the actual author, informant or other source of that material.

Some of the concerns discussed below will be more applicable than others when interrogating a particular 'text'. The occasional points of overlap with the previous chapter are intended as a continuation of those discussions. At a general and preliminary level, questions such as the following should be asked when beginning to interrogate a 'text':

First, at a general level, what is the main thesis, primary question or central concern being addressed in the 'text'? Some 'authors' will state this clearly at the beginning; others may do so less directly, and some may simply imply a central/primary concern without clearly stating what this is. Whatever be the case, identification of the main thesis, primary question or central concern being addressed is necessary before one can move forward in interrogating a 'text'.

Second, what is the main thrust, dominant line of reasoning or central argument in the 'text'? 'Texts' can vary enormously with regard to the level of sophistication in their development. Some 'texts' may largely describe an event or assert that something is true. Other 'texts' may begin with certain premises and proceed through a tightly-woven line of reasoning to build an argument which leads to specific conclusions. An oral tradition as a 'text' may provide certain unifying themes within an area of research. In participatory-

action research there are likely to be specific issues or concerns which can be ranked according to priority. Regardless of the case, a central thrust, basic argument or unifying theme can usually be identified. These provide the 'central core of meaning' or 'hermeneutical key' in light of which the 'text' can be understood. This is normally true even with regard to 'texts', written or oral, which may at first appear to provide only a description of an event. Most 'descriptions' are not exhaustive and are therefore only partial descriptions. It may therefore become important to ask such questions as: What level of importance has been given to the different elements included in the description? What has the 'author' omitted? Through such interrogation as the above it will usually be possible to begin to gain insight, perhaps recognize a pattern, and discern the main thrust of a 'text'.

Third, what conclusions does the 'author' arrive at (or imply) in the 'text'? Some 'texts' may end with clearly enumerated conclusions. In other cases, such as where an 'author' addresses a series of issues, conclusions may be found at the end of the discussion of each item in the series. For a third category of 'texts' it may appear that no conclusions were reached because either conclusions were not directly stated, or the materials presented or reviewed were so diverse that the 'author' was unable to arrive at any conclusion — which in itself is a conclusion. For a fourth category of materials there may appear to be no conclusions in the usual sense of that term because the nature of the 'text' is not that of a linear argument leading to specific conclusions; instead, the 'text' is more like a 'story' with an implicit 'message'. Where conclusions are not stated, it will be necessary to examine the 'text' more closely to identify any conclusions or 'message' implicit in the 'text' which may have been indirectly expressed.

In the above fashion, interrogation of a 'text' can begin with three general concerns: what is the basic question or issue being addressed? What is the central thrust or basic argument? What is the conclusion or implicit message? Usually, especially when dealing with long 'texts', it is helpful to prepare a brief outline summary

covering these concerns. For example, upon examining a written text, we may find that the author has (1) addressed what s/he perceived as a problem of rapid population growth; (2) argued that while family planning education and the provision of free contraceptives has helped to lower the birth rate, significant further reduction of the birth rate can be achieved by helping women exercise more control over their reproductive capacities; (3) concluded that while continuing its current family planning programme the government should develop and implement a programme providing for universal education of all girls through at least middle-school level as a means of empowering women, since it had been found that women with such education have significantly fewer children than those without such education, and (4) further concluded that families living in poverty who have been dependent in part upon income from working female children should be provided with financial assistance to compensate for income lost during the period of the girl children's formal education up through middle school level. Although this is only one example, it is perhaps sufficient to indicate that a brief outline or summary can help the researcher to discern the main concerns of a 'text' and prepare the way for a more detailed analysis and evaluation.

While critical interrogation of a 'text' can often fruitfully begin by identifying its central thrust, the researcher will need to build on this by asking critical questions such as: Is there progressive development of the argument? Where the 'texts' being examined come from different time periods, are there any shifts and changes in the point of view presented? If so, is any justification provided? Are the conclusions supported by the data presented? If so, how strong is the argument? Is it persuasive? What is the implicit message and how persuasively is that presented? Are there flaws in the reasoning process? Are there any contradictions? Is the perspective relevant? Critical interrogation of the 'text' requires that one move beyond simple answers such as 'yes', 'no' or 'maybe' and explicate the reasons for one's evaluation. Various procedures

have been developed to help persons undertake the more critical analysis and evaluation which these questions imply. In the discussion which follows, we shall draw attention to two approaches which we will refer to as 'logical reasoning' and 'critical thinking'. Although their names may lead one to think that these are very similar approaches, they are quite different. Many see the two approaches as complementary, but some view them as contending paradigms.

Logical reasoning

The logical reasoning approach understands reasoning as an activity which we all engage in when we attempt such things as thinking through a problem, interpreting someone's behaviour, and drawing conclusions on the basis of available evidence. Whether we are aware of it or not, reasoning is an everyday activity. As distinct from physical activity, reasoning is primarily a mental or intellectual activity in which we try to reach a conclusion or decision through the power of thought rather than physical force. While reasoning is often an individual activity, such as when we struggle to think through a personal problem in our life, reasoning is also a public activity, such as when one person or group tries to persuade another person or some organization to a particular course of action by offering more persuasive reasons in support of that action than another person or group is able to offer for a different course of action.

Formally, reasoning has been defined as "the process of forming conclusions, judgments or inferences from facts or premises" (Random House Dictionary), and "the arguments and reasons involved in arriving at a conclusion or judgement" (The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary). With reference to our concern about interrogation of a 'text', the criterion of logical reasoning is concerned with the *process* by which a movement is made from facts and premises to judgements and conclusions: Is the process sound? Is the movement from facts and premises to judgements and conclusions correctly reasoned, coherent and free of any

contradictions or inconsistencies? Within the logical reasoning tradition two methods have been developed to help answer such questions: the search for fallacies approach, and the structure of argument approach.

The search for fallacies. One of the oldest procedures used in a search for answers to such questions is the search for fallacies — errors or flaws in the reasoning process which weaken or invalidate the argument being made. For example, some arguments may initially sound quite persuasive, yet upon closer examination be found to be flawed. We shall give some attention below to ways in which such flaws can be made. The intention here is not to give undue attention to the formal procedures for identifying such flaws but, rather, to draw attention to the importance of careful logical reasoning in the construction of a persuasive argument.

One of the earliest forms of reasoning used to demonstrate the problem of fallacies is the *sylllogism* — a form of reasoning in which a conclusion is deduced from a major proposition or premise and a minor proposition or premise, both of which have a middle term which does not appear in the conclusion. An example of a valid and invalid syllogism may help to illustrate the reasoning process involved:

A — A Valid Syllogism

Major premise: Prof. Ego is prejudiced against
women students.

Minor premise: I am a woman student.

Conclusion: Prof. Ego is prejudiced against me.

In example A we have a major premise, a minor premise, a conclusion, and the two premises contain a 'middle term' (women student[s]) which does not appear in the conclusion. The structure conforms to that of a syllogism. The major premise states an inclusive claim (Prof. Ego is prejudiced against women students), the minor premise provides a more limited statement about belonging in the general category covered by the major premise (I am a woman student), and the conclusion indicates the deduction

which has been made on the basis of the major and minor premises (Prof. Ego is prejudiced against me). Since the major premise is inclusive (presumably all women students), the deduction that Prof. Ego is prejudiced against a particular member of that category is a sound and valid process of reasoning. Note, however, that this would be true only if the premises are accepted as stated and attention is given only to the reasoning process. Therefore, the final test of syllogistic reasoning is 'are the premises true?' If the major premise in example A is false, then the conclusion given would probably be invalid (However, Prof. Ego could still be prejudiced against the student, but on grounds other than her being a woman student).

B — An Invalid Syllogism

Major premise: Prof. Ego is prejudiced against some students.

Minor premise: I am a student.

Conclusion: Prof. Ego is prejudiced against me.

In example B, the major premise is not inclusive (Prof. Ego is said to be prejudiced only against *some* students). On the basis of this premise alone, there is no way of knowing whether Prof. Ego is prejudiced against the student referred to in the minor premise. Therefore, the student's conclusion that Prof. Ego is prejudiced against him or her is not valid. Note again that in this analysis the premises are accepted as stated and attention is given entirely to the reasoning process (making a deduction from the premises). If the student had concluded that "Prof. Ego *might* be prejudiced against me," that would have represented more valid reasoning. Note, however, that if the major premise is false, then even this more qualified conclusion would be invalid (although Prof. Ego could be prejudiced against the student on other grounds).

From the above discussion, it may appear that the concept of a syllogism is rather formal and artificial — remote from our everyday life since few people today express themselves in syllogisms and the term may not have been a part of the vocabulary of some

readers. Nevertheless, it can be helpful to note that our thought processes may resemble the syllogism more frequently than we think. For example, a student may say, "Prof. Ego is prejudiced against me because I am a woman student." The statement *assumes* that Prof. Ego is prejudiced against women students in general and concludes that Prof. Ego is prejudiced against this particular student because she belongs to the category of women students. Or, someone may say, "Shanta cannot be ordained because she is a woman." The statement *implies* that women cannot be ordained (the major premise here) and concludes that Shanta cannot be ordained because she belongs to the category of women (the minor premise here). The statement assumes an unstated major premise. When the unstated major assumption is brought out, the statement can then be tested. In both of the above cases, if the unstated major premise can be shown as untenable, then the conclusion *cannot* be valid.

This brief discussion is perhaps sufficient to help us see how statements which may initially appear to be simple and straight forward often assume an unstated premise which may or may not be true. Even though we may not normally express ourselves in syllogisms, one of the values of examining syllogism as a concept is that this can help us see the connection between premises and conclusions, and the conditions under which a conclusion may be valid or invalid. This helps us to identify the reasoning process behind a given statement or opinion and enables us to better judge whether the reasoning process is logical and sound, or illogical and unsound.

Against the above general background, we shall now turn our attention to a few common types of flawed reasoning known collectively as *fallacies*. While fallacies as a formal term from the logician's vocabulary is not widely used in everyday language, most of us are aware of the wide-spread practice of trying to 'pick apart' an opponent's argument. Such efforts to 'pick apart' an argument may be rooted in disagreement about some 'factual' content, take the form of a dispute about some stated or implied allegation, or

call into question an opponent's reasoning process as in some way unsound. We are concerned here with the latter type of objection. One outcome of the formal study of unsound reasoning is the concept of *fallacies* — types of flawed reasoning which are widely recognized as weakening or invalidating an argument.

Before proceeding to look at some specific types of fallacies, it may be helpful to clarify what we mean by 'argument'. In popular usage, an argument is often understood to be a 'quarrel' or 'shouting dispute' in which the one who wins is the one who can shout the loudest and/or longest. We use the term here in a very different sense. By 'argument' we mean an attempt to influence or persuade others by appealing to their sense of reason. This attempt is made through a process of critical thought in which relevant facts or evidence are examined, their significance evaluated and, in view of this analysis, alternative interpretations are weighed with the total process leading to what is believed to be the most compelling and defensible judgement or conclusion. In the context of this understanding of argument, we can readily apprehend the significance of fallacies — errors or flaws in the reasoning process which weaken or invalidate an argument. When interrogating a 'text', we will, among other things, want to look for fallacies and examine how any fallacies, if present, affect the argument being made. Within the space available here we will look at six of the more common types.¹

Fallacy of false generalization. Most of us make generalizations quite frequently. These may range from whether the trains are likely to be running on time to whether persons from a particular background are trustworthy. When making a generalization, we are essentially making an inference or reaching a conclusion about a category of persons or things on the basis of our experience with a limited number of persons or things belonging to that particular category. When analyzing and evaluating an argument, one criterion

¹ There is considerable literature dealing with fallacies. As might be expected, the quality is uneven and there is much variation in the types of fallacies discussed.

for testing a generalization is its literal truth as stated. For example, if a generalization makes a claim about *all* members of a category, or does not include any limiting qualifications, then the discovery of even one contrary case reveals that the claim cannot be true as stated.

The two most common forms of faulty generalizations are *hasty* generalization and *unrepresentative* generalization. 'Hasty generalization' is the name that logicians give to what we in popular language call 'jumping to conclusions' on the basis of only one or a few experiences. For example, Joseph purchases a pair of new sandals. But, much to his disappointment, within just a few days of use a strap on one sandal breaks loose and he has to have it repaired by the cobbler. On the basis of this single experience, Joseph concludes that the company which made his sandals is unreliable and resolves to never again purchase a product manufactured by that company. In similar ways, we often form opinions or make a judgement about an entire category of products, persons, or writings by certain authors on the basis of only one or a few experiences. In each case, we *assume* that *all* other products, persons or writings by such authors are like the few we have known, heard about or read. But this assumption may be problematic: is it true that *all* other products, writings or persons belonging to a particular category are like the limited number that we have known? Since in most cases that is highly unlikely, we will most probably have committed the fallacy of hasty generalization — and perhaps also have weakened our credibility if we have publicly demonstrated our flawed reasoning. Therefore, when scrutinizing a 'text', we should ask: Has the 'author' made any hasty generalizations?

The fallacy of 'unrepresentative generalization' is the obverse of the hasty generalization. An unrepresentative generalization occurs when we make a claim and then offer as evidence selected and unrepresentative cases. For example, some persons have claimed that the Bible supports the subordination of women and offer as evidence Exod. 19: 15 where those who are preparing to enter the

covenant were exhorted to "not go near a woman", and I Cor. 14:34-35 where Paul writes that women should be silent in the churches and counsels "If there is anything they desire to know, let them ask their husbands at home." But offering these selections as evidence ignores other selections such as Exod. 1:15-19 where women are portrayed as strong leaders who disobeyed Pharaoh's orders and prevented the murder of Israelite boys, and Paul's metaphor in Rom. 8:18-25 where he writes about the whole creation groaning in labour pains to be set free from bondage. Persons who cite only biblical passages supporting the subordination of women may not see themselves as deliberately ignoring biblical references which provide alternative views on the status of women. Nevertheless, since their claim is supported only by unrepresentative examples, the flaw in their reasoning becomes obvious. When scrutinizing a 'text', we may ask: Has the 'author' made an unrepresentative, and hence fallacious, generalization?

Fallacy of false cause. Quite often we may want to not only describe some events but to also show how we believe they are causally related — that is, we may want to not only describe A and B but to also argue that A caused B as in "Hundreds of people died in Bhopal in December, 1984, because of the massive leakage of poisonous gas (methyl isocyanate) from the Union Carbide plant." It was not difficult to demonstrate that such a causal relationship existed: poisonous gas did escape from the plant during the early morning hours of December 3, 1984, while people slept; persons in huts in the path of the drifting gas were most affected, persons in solidly built houses with closed doors and windows were less affected, and persons living farther away and outside the path of the dissipating gas were not affected.

There are times, however, when it is difficult to establish a causal relationship and an 'author' may falsely claim causation in either of three ways: (1) confusing time order and causation; (2) wrongly attributing causation, and (3) confusing concomitant occurrence and causation.

The fallacy of confusing time order and causation occurs whenever it is claimed or implied that any event or condition is caused by something that has happened *later* in a time sequence. This is, of course, a logical impossibility. But such flawed reasoning is sometimes found and is usually due to careless thinking. A search for the *cause* of an event, condition, opinion or perspective must look closely at things which occurred *earlier* in a time sequence — that is, *prior* to the event, condition, opinion or perspective.

Unfortunately, in that search for a cause one can simply be *mistaken* about the cause of a phenomenon and thereby wrongly attribute causation. For example, a few years ago a friend of mine who had always been quite effusive noticed that he was beginning to have some difficulty when attempting to express his thoughts orally. He went to see his doctor who arranged a consultation with a specialist. Later the two doctors concluded that my friend's speech difficulties were due to him having had a mild stroke. They therefore put him on a medication which would help to prevent further strokes. My friend took the medicine quite dutifully for almost two years. However, he found that he was increasingly having difficulty in speaking. His doctor then referred him to another specialist. After additional investigation it was found that my friend's problem was not that he had suffered a minor stroke, but that he had a brain tumor. Fortunately, surgery to remove the brain tumor was successful and his speech deterioration was arrested. The unfortunate part is that due to a wrong initial diagnosis the tumor grew larger over a two-year period and caused more permanent damage before a correct diagnosis was finally made. In their initial investigation the doctors correctly looked for something which had happened which might have been the cause of my friend's speech difficulties; unfortunately, they wrongly attributed causation to a mild stroke.

Wrongly attributing causation can happen in many other areas and in subtle ways. For example, we sometimes hear it said that certain persons are poor because they belong to a particular caste or

tribe or race. Initially the statement may not be questioned since (1) there was an earlier event (these persons were born into a particular caste, tribe or race); (2) there is a present condition (these persons are poor, and presumably many others in their caste/tribe/race are also poor), and (3) it is assumed that their present condition (their poverty) is due to this particular earlier event (being born into a particular caste, tribe or race). But a moment of brief reflection is perhaps enough to recognize that the statement needs to be challenged: Are *all* members of that particular caste or tribe or race poor? If not, then membership in that particular caste or tribe or race alone is not a *sufficient* reason to account for these particular persons being poor. There may be, and probably are, other factors which provide a better explanation of why these particular persons, and presumably many others in their caste, tribe or race are poor — factors such as historical oppression, lack of opportunity, and negligent public policy.

The error of confusing 'concomitant occurrence and causation' is another frequent but somewhat more complex mistake. Formally, concomitant occurrence refers to one quality or circumstance existing or occurring along with another quality or circumstance. This phenomenon is often seen in public policy discussions. For example, a new government comes to power. Six months later an economic report indicates a strong growth in agricultural and industrial productivity, gross national product and personal income. The new government gives wide publicity to this welcome news which it claims is a result of its new policies. Here is a concomitant occurrence: a new government with new policies, and a favourable economic report. The government's attempt to link the two things and claim that it is the new policies which has brought about the improved economic conditions will sound good to its fervent supporters. And while a new government with new policies can, over time, help bring about significant changes in a nation's economy, the thoughtful person will want to examine the report more closely. For example, do the improved economic indicators reflect domestic policies, or are these largely

the result of a more robust international economy? If the improved economic indicators are said to reflect domestic policies, on what data are they based? Gathering comprehensive national data from a multitude of agencies is a major undertaking. Typically, by the time such data are gathered, collated and interpreted the data are at least a year old — in which case the true cause behind the improvement of the economy may be the fiscally sound (although unpopular) policies of the previous administration, the fruit of which is only now beginning to appear in the national data.

The fallacy of confusing concomitant occurrence and causation is also at times found in the interpretation of statistical correlations. For example, studies of education and income often find a positive correlation — a higher level of income is often found to be associated with having a higher level of education. However, when caste background is also considered in the analysis it is not uncommon to find that persons holding higher paying positions come disproportionately from higher caste backgrounds. Such circumstances disclose that a person's level of income may be only partly related to level of education. Indeed, in some cases caste background may be found to be the factor which has provided access to higher education and to higher paying positions — in which case a person's caste background may be the more important factor contributing to that person holding a higher paying position, with level of education being a less important or incidental factor.

The above examples illustrate three different types of fallacies of false cause — confusing time order and causation, wrongly attributing causation, and confusing concomitant occurrences and causation. In each case, it can be seen that the flawed reasoning arose out of superficial analysis and over-simplification. In real life situations there are usually many interacting factors. Therefore, careful analytical reasoning is necessary. The task of the analyst, interpreter and critical reader becomes one of not only identifying

which factors occurred first or were present before an event or condition, but also a task of identifying which of these factors was either the actual cause or the more important contributing factor. This requires careful analytical reasoning.

The remaining fallacies to be considered can be dealt with somewhat more briefly.

Fallacy of false analogy. Analogies, where appropriate, can assist our understanding. Sometimes these are expressed through metaphors — for example, we use the expression ‘head of state’ analogously to liken the role of a prime minister, president or king to the head of a person, the head in both cases exercising certain directive functions or powers. When making an analogy we are going beyond a metaphor and claiming that some things which resemble each other in some ways will resemble each other in some other ways. But all analogies break down at some point. We end up with a false analogy when we compare things which, while similar in some respects, are not similar in certain relevant and significant respects. For example, someone may comment that ‘Anand is a good husband and father; he would make a good chief minister.’ Being a ‘good husband and father’ suggests that Anand is a person of good character and temperament. Certainly it would be desirable that a chief minister possess such qualities. But these qualities alone would not equip Anand to be a good chief minister. Well-developed executive and political skills are indispensable for being an effective chief minister, and it could be argued that a person can be a good chief minister without being either a father or husband. The analogy attempted above would compare the role of chief minister with that of a husband and father. But this is at best a very weak analogy since one can be a good husband and father while at the same time utterly lacking the political and executive qualities necessary for being an effective chief minister.

Fallacy of appeal to authority. As our age increasingly becomes an age in which specialized knowledge is important, we often must rely on specialists in different areas. We take our appliances to a repair shop to be fixed, we see a medical doctor to be treated for an

illness, and the medical doctor takes his car to a mechanic for repair. Similarly, our efforts to construct a persuasive argument can frequently be strengthened by consulting, and perhaps referring to and even quoting, a well known authority in the area under investigation — as is sometimes done when we refer to a biblical scholar, historian, theologian, ethicist or some other person who is regarded as having expert knowledge.

Problems emerge, however, when the appeal to authority is misused. An appeal to authority is valid where (1) the source is personally reliable (is trustworthy and conscientious), and (2) the source is qualified as an expert in the area under investigation (this would normally include having professional standing, being competent to express an opinion in the particular area being investigated, and having current knowledge in that area).

The appeal to authority is *misused*, for example, when the 'expert' cited is an expert in one area but has no particular expertise in the area being examined — such as where the opinion of a well known physicist is cited for her views on a moral or political issue, areas in which she happens to have no particular competence. The appeal to authority may also be misused where an authority is invoked as the last word on a subject — such as where the opinion of a bishop or the Pope or some other authority is presented as the final word on the matter in question, closing discussion on the topic by implying that the authority cited is somehow omniscient, infallible and not to be questioned. Further, the appeal to authority is misused where a cultural tradition, religion or political ideology is invoked to maintain the status quo and forestall consideration of the merits of a proposed change — such as where it is asserted that "we have always done it this way", "the Bible does not permit ordination of women" and so on — as though certain practices have become so hallowed by usage that loyalty to one's group requires unquestioned continuance of those practices. Conversely, the appeal to authority is also misused where the authority of a culture, religion or political ideology is invoked to justify imposing (by military force, government policy and similar means) a tradition, religion or

ideology on others as the one and only legitimate cultural tradition, religion or political ideology. When scrutinizing a 'text', a researcher might want to ask: Has the 'author' misused the appeal to authority?

Fallacy of non sequitur: Logicians have retained the Latin name for this fallacy which literally means "it does not follow". This refers to a situation where an inference or conclusion does not logically follow from the premises; more broadly, it refers to any response which does not logically follow from what has gone before. One illustration of this would be what is known as the "is-ought" or "fact-value" tension: does possession of a capability mean that one should develop that capability? For example, the construction of huge dams accompanied by the displacement of a large number of people has been a matter of much controversy in India. Proponents argue that we now have the technology and engineering expertise to construct large dams to provide much needed electrical power through big hydro- electric projects. Persons of this persuasion assert that since the technology for building such projects is now available, efforts should be made to proceed with such projects as quickly as possible for the benefit of the country. On the other hand, critics of such policies and projects contend that the social cost is too high: hundreds of families are displaced from their ancestral land and source of livelihood; the dams will be vulnerable to earthquakes and are therefore inherently hazardous; the power generated will go to distant cities and be of little or no benefit to the people most directly affected, and so on. Here the critics bring into the debate the moral dimension of social responsibility and argue that the availability of technological and engineering resources is not a sufficient ground for deciding that huge dam projects should be undertaken. Stated differently, according to the critics it does not follow from the proponents' premises alone that the country should proceed expeditiously with the construction of huge dams and hydro-electric projects; social costs and proportionate benefits should also be taken into account and serious consideration of these concerns would likely lead to

significantly different policies and projects. To the extent that the critics' concerns are regarded as valid, it will be evident that those who advocate huge dam projects solely on the availability of technological capability implicate themselves in a *non sequitur*—a faulty reasoning process which draws unjustified conclusions from narrow premises which omit other important considerations.

While the above example refers to a large, complex and perhaps somewhat extraordinary situation, *non sequiturs* are actually quite common. For example, the simple statement "It is better to be alive than dead" implies a premise that whenever a person confronts a 'life or possibly death' situation one should always choose to safeguard one's life. But this does not necessarily follow. Some persons have chosen to become martyrs for the sake of religious or political values. Behind each case has been the conviction, not that in every situation one should seek to safeguard one's physical life at whatever cost but rather that some causes are worth dying for, that in certain circumstances it is "better to die for a cause than to have lived in vain". Behind an alertness for a *non sequitur* is a concern for logicity: does a conclusion or inference logically follow from the premises given, from what has gone before?

Fallacy of ambiguity and vagueness. A fallacy of ambiguity is found where a word or expression is used with more than one meaning, thereby sometimes causing some uncertainty or confusion about what a writer or speaker means. This is not the same as a fallacy of vagueness, which is found in situations where some of the expressions used are imprecise, indefinite or nebulous—such as "I will visit you sometime", which fails to indicate anything except that a visit will be made sometime in the future, or "The only thing he could remember was that he thought he had seen the suspect somewhere before" which is much too general for helping to either incriminate or exonerate the suspect. Ambiguity, on the other hand, occurs in situations where it is not clear as to which of two or more legitimate and distinct meanings

of a word or expression is intended. While the meaning of fallacy of vagueness may be readily apparent, some additional discussion may help to further clarify the meaning of fallacy of ambiguity.

The possibility of ambiguity arises out of the fact that many words have several different meanings. For example, consider the shifting meaning of the word 'speech': "Your speech is easy to understand" (pattern of oral communication) is different from "I like his speech" (which may refer to the content of what a speaker has said, or to the style of speaking, or both) which is different from "Nehru's midnight Independence address to the nation is a model speech" (an oration or address on a special occasion). Or, consider the word 'income'. When referring to a person's 'income', is one referring only to daily wages/monthly salary? Should the value of any payment in kind be included? How about the value of accommodations and any other benefits provided? What about passive earnings such as interest on a bank account or a fixed deposit? 'Income' can mean different things, depending upon what is included.

In many cases it will be clear from the context as to which of several meanings of a word or expression is intended by a writer or speaker. In some other cases, an 'author' will provide a definition for an important term and this will usually clarify the usage of the term. Problems can arise, however, when there is a shift in the way a word or expression is used in a statement or argument. The shift may be unconscious and unintended or deliberate with an intention to deceive or mislead. But whether unconscious or deliberate, the effect is the same — ambiguity as to what a person really means, which can give rise to the demand from frustrated and exasperated readers, "define your terms". Clarity and persuasiveness in argument requires consistency in the way in which words and expressions are used, and inconsistency can be an indication of either carelessness in thought or deceptive intent. When scrutinizing a 'text', a researcher might in certain cases rightly conclude that an argument has been seriously weakened by the use of ambiguous terms.

A special case of ambiguity can arise where an 'author' has used a familiar word to convey a meaning-content specific to his or her thought. A researcher is most likely to encounter this problem in written and oral communications by creative thinkers who attempt to express new insights and understandings within the limitations of an existing language. Such thinkers may find it necessary to use a familiar term to convey an unfamiliar shade of meaning. If the 'author' does not draw attention to the particular meaning which s/he intends to convey by such use of a familiar word, the researcher is likely to assume that the customary meaning is intended and therefore misunderstand the 'author'. While researchers might wish that 'authors' would always draw attention to the specialized way in which they use certain familiar words, 'authors' will often assume that the meaning to be conveyed by such words will be self-evident and that an explanation is unnecessary. A researcher will therefore need to be alert to the possibility that an 'author' has used familiar words in specialized ways without drawing attention to this usage. Where such a possibility seems to be present, the researcher will need to make a deliberate effort to identify the meaning intended by the 'author'. Once the particular meaning intended by the use of such words is recognized, the researcher will be able to more easily and clearly understand the 'author's' thought.

The fallacies discussed above indicate some of the most common ways in which arguments can be weakened or even seriously undermined by flawed reasoning. Those discussed above are illustrative, but by no means exhaustive. In the literature on fallacies writers typically discuss several additional types and sub-types. One of the benefits of giving some attention to the problem of fallacies is that this can help us to more fully appreciate the crucial role of clear, logical reasoning for constructing strong and persuasive arguments. This is a concern to which readers can be alert in both their own writing and when analysing and evaluating others' writings. In the next section we will look at another way within the logical reasoning approach for examining arguments.

The structure of argument perspective. In the previous section attention was given to the problem of fallacies — flaws in reasoning — to how fallacies can weaken or undermine a writer's case. But a problem remains: Suppose that in a particular 'text' the 'author's' argument appears to follow the norms of logical reasoning and no fallacies are found. But, nevertheless, the argument does not appear to be persuasive. Why might this be so?

Intuitively, we may sometimes feel that an 'author' has what is essentially a valid case even though there are some logical flaws at certain points. Conversely, we may also sometimes intuitively feel that even though no logical flaws can be found, a 'text' is nevertheless not persuasive. It is out of such dissatisfactions as these that efforts have been made to approach the interrogation of 'texts' from a broader perspective concerned with the structure of the argument. Persons working from this broader perspective argue (1) that the syllogistic approach which places emphasis on the logical relationship between premises and conclusions — while important — oversimplifies the nature of argument, and (2) that a search for fallacies — while important — errors by concentrating on flaws in logical reasoning and thereby misses other elements which are important for persuasive argumentation. Advocates of this broader view contend that argument is better understood as a process consisting of several components interlinked with each other in such a way as to constitute a specific pattern or structure. Hence, instead of analysing an argument from the perspective of premises, conclusions and possible fallacies in the reasoning process, they advocate a broader view which typically conceptualizes argument as a structure with six component units: claims, grounds, warrants, backing, qualifiers and rebuttals. A brief discussion of each may help to bring out their understanding of these elements and their interrelationship.²

²This model was initially set forth by Stephen Toulmin in his *The Uses of Argument* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1958). Later, Toulmin along with Richard Rieke and Allan Janik presented a somewhat more extensive discussion of this

It may be helpful to first note again what is meant by argument. As used here, argument refers to an attempt to influence or persuade others by appealing to their reason. Stated negatively, an argument, as understood here, is not a 'shouting match'; neither is it merely a debate. Rather, by argument we mean a rational process in which relevant 'facts' or 'evidence' are examined, the significance of these is weighed, alternative interpretations are thought through, and an opinion, conclusion or course of action is decided. Normally, most of us go through some such process to construct arguments — not primarily for our own self-satisfaction but to influence others. Apart from persons in the judicial, military and police systems, most of us do not have the authority and power to move others directly by issuing commands or orders. We may make dogmatic assertions, but by themselves these are seldom persuasive. The alternative for most of us is to try to influence others by developing arguments which they can accept as reasonable and persuasive. Students do this as they prepare course assignments, theses and dissertations which, they hope, will persuade their professors that they have developed the expected level of competence. Professors do this as they prepare lectures and scholarly articles, lawyers as they prepare legal briefs, film producers as they produce documentary films, and so on. Argument, then, is a way of reasoning, a rational process, in which 'facts' or 'evidence' are examined, weighed and interpreted, and certain claims or conclusions are made and defended.

As already noted, the structure of argument approach to the interrogation of a 'text' typically has six component units. We shall now briefly consider these units at the conceptual level and then show how this approach could be used to analyze and evaluate two different types of arguments.

1. From the perspective of structure of argument, it is important to note that *all* arguments make *claims* of some sort — put forth a

model, along with discussions about the use of this model for analysing arguments in different professional areas, in their *An Introduction to Reasoning* (New York: Macmillan, 1979).

hypothesis, state an opinion, arrive at a conclusion, propose a course of action and so on. Such claims represent the 'destination' which the 'author' has reached, his or her current position after making an examination and interpretation of the evidence. Claims of this sort will have been made by 'authors' in the belief that these are well founded and entitled to acceptance. From the standpoint of interrogation of 'texts', we will assume that the 'author' will have made some such claims. Our first task then in interrogating the 'text', in attempting to analyse and evaluate the 'author's' argument, is to identify what claims are being made. Exactly what does the 'author' claim? Where does the 'author' stand on the issue being examined? What is the conclusion or judgment which the 'author' is asking us to accept? The concern here is not to evaluate these claims but rather to clearly and precisely specify the claims which have been made.

2. After identifying the claims, a second area for interrogation is the *grounds* for these claims. Presumably, the 'author' will have arrived at certain claims on the basis of some underlying foundation which is regarded as indisputable and reliable. We will therefore need to ask: Why does the 'author' make these claims? On what grounds or reasons are these made? What are the basic starting points from which the argument begins?

The specific grounds will vary, depending upon the area of investigation and the type of claim being made. The grounds may be as various as historical evidence, personal testimony, statistical data, matters of common knowledge and similar kinds of 'factual' materials. Here the task of the interrogator will be to identify the grounds and, in view of the claims made, evaluate the grounds: Are the grounds given relevant to the claims which have been made? If so, do the grounds appear to be of only marginal relevance or completely relevant? How about the sufficiency of the grounds: are they too slim or too few? Do they provide an adequate basis for the claims made by the 'author'? It is important to note here that the claims can be no stronger than the grounds on which they are based. If the grounds are weak, then the claims will be weak.

3. Identifying claims and examining grounds lead to the third area of concern in the analysis and evaluation of 'texts': *warrants*. How did the 'author' move from the given grounds to the stated claims? *Why* did s/he reach these particular conclusions and not others? Implicit in this perspective is the view that, generally, a particular set of grounds does not necessarily and automatically lead to a particular sort of claim. Stated differently, 'facts' do not speak for themselves; they speak only through an interpreter. The question which arises here is: what *warrants* are used to legitimate and justify the acceptance of one particular interpretation rather than another in the move from grounds to claims? The need here is not for additional information but for reasons which can serve as a 'bridge' authorizing a particular movement from grounds to claims as both appropriate and justified. Such reasons are regarded as *warrants*. What will serve as appropriate warrants will depend upon the general area of investigation and the type of claim made.

Movements from grounds to claims have become 'warranted' in different ways in religion, in science, in law and in other areas. Compared to grounds, warrants are more general considerations which may be expressed in the form of legal principles, established practices, religious beliefs, inferences and similar authorizing and justifying reasons which underlie the movement from grounds to claims. Grounds have to do with answering the question, "What have you to go on?" Warrants have to do with "How did you get there" — why does the 'author' regard a particular set of claims as the most appropriate and legitimate conclusions to be drawn? Warrants may be explicit in the 'text'. At other times warrants may not be explicit but are nevertheless implied in the ways a writer has argued and what s/he has regarded as trustworthy procedures. From the standpoint of analysing and evaluating a 'text', the task of the interrogator will be to both (1) identify the warrants which have been used, and (2) evaluate the warrants: Do they apply in this particular case? Are they sound and reliable? Do they provide justification for the movement the 'author' has made from the stated grounds to specific claims? Or, do they fail this test

and thereby reveal the 'author's' movement from grounds to particular claims as unwarranted?

4. A fourth area of concern is what Toulmin and his colleagues call *backing*. Their concern about 'backing' arises out of the fact that sometimes the general acceptability of a warrant will be questioned. This can occur because warrants are not self-validating. Rather, valid warrants are based on a body of experience and knowledge which has become accepted in the form of general categorical statements in such forms as legal statutes, scientific 'laws', ecclesiastical practices, and general maxims. But not all that is put forth as 'warrants' meets this standard. Here the interrogator of a 'text' is not concerned about the factual basis of the grounds but, rather, about the general body of knowledge on which a particular warrant is based. Therefore, it becomes necessary to ask: Is the warrant adequately backed up?

In some arguments the grounds, warrants and backings are so firm that a particular claim can be regarded as necessary or certain. But for the majority of arguments, claims cannot be asserted at the level of absolute confidence. Instead, for most arguments the claims made are less than certain due to such weaknesses as 'soft' or limited evidence, 'limited' warrants which may only tentatively authorize a claim, lack of adequate backing, and exceptional circumstance which delegitimize a claim. Implied here is the idea that arguments are not of uniform strength. While a few may support a particular claim as certain, in most arguments the claims can be better characterized as supported with varying levels of probability.

5. To help recognize this element of conditionality in the structure of argument, Toulmin and his colleagues add as a fifth element the concept of what they call *modal qualifiers* — adverbs and adverbial phrases which indicate the strength to be attributed to claims in view of the grounds, warrants and backing. We will refer to these simply as 'qualifiers'. When analysing and evaluating a 'text', an interrogator should ask questions such as: How firm are the grounds and how reliable are the warrants for holding this conclusion? Is there adequate backing? Do these guarantee

the claim as certain? Do they support a qualified but probable claim? Or, do they provide support for what may at best be regarded as a weak claim? What qualifier will best describe the likelihood of the claim being true: 'In all probability'? 'Presumably'? 'As far as the evidence goes'? 'Very likely'? 'Possibly'? Or some other level of probability?

6. As the sixth and final element in the structure of argument, Toulmin and his colleagues bring in the concept of *rebuttal*. Conceptually we need to recognize that all arguments, other than those which support a particular claim as certain or necessary, are open to the possibility of rebuttal. While in some cases the possibility of a rebuttal may be difficult to foresee, the rational merits of an argument can be most fully understood when the argument includes attention to any exceptional circumstances which might weaken or undermine the authority of the warrants and the overall strength of the argument. The interrogator of a 'text' will therefore need to ask some final questions such as: Are there any exceptional circumstances under which the claim would become invalid? Under what conditions might it not be safe to rely upon any implicit assumptions?

As may be inferred from this brief overview, in the structure of argument approach the six components of claims, grounds, warrants, backing, qualifiers and possible rebuttal are understood as functionally interdependent. Where grounds, warrants and backing are strong, and where qualifiers are minimal and possible rebuttals satisfactorily anticipated, an 'author' will have a strong argument which helps to carry the reader along and understand why the specific claims have been made. But claims can be strong only if rooted in appropriate, sufficient and relevant grounds. The move from grounds to claims must be justified by reliable warrants which are backed up by a body of generally accepted experience and knowledge. Finally, if the movement to claims is not necessary or certain, the movement to claims should be recognized as having a certain likelihood or probability and being dependent upon the absence of any exceptional rebutting circumstances. When

evaluating an argument as a whole, an interrogator will need to ask questions such as: Is the argument substantively correct? Is it reasonable? Is it persuasive?

The above discussion has been directed toward understanding the structure of argument approach conceptually by considering each of the six component units separately. Since conceptual considerations are somewhat abstract, it may be helpful to illustrate how the structure of argument approach might be used in the analysis of some practical situations. We shall attempt to do so below — first by reference to a medical situation where accepted technical data permit a fairly clear cut decision. Afterwards, we shall attempt to illustrate the structure of argument approach by reference to an ethics case where the lines are less clearly drawn.

Consider a simple scenario. Dr. Rao, a physician, is talking to Mr. Prasad who has come complaining of a sore throat, cough and fever. On the basis of these symptoms and an examination of Mr. Prasad which indicated congestion in the upper respiratory track, Dr. Rao concludes that Mr. Prasad has an uncomplicated upper respiratory infection (URI). She then prescribes a seven-day course of penicillin, suggests that he take three or four days off from work to give his body some rest, and indicates that the medicine and rest should enable him to soon be back to normal health. In this simple scenario, Dr. Rao has made specific *claims* (Mr. Prasad has uncomplicated URI, and should fully recover by following her recommendations) on the basis of certain clearly identified *grounds* (sore throat, fever, cough and results of the physical examination).

However, Mr. Prasad has some reservations about the diagnosis. He asks if she is sure it is only URI. There is a history of tuberculosis in his family. Is she sure he does not have TB? Responding to his concerns, Dr. Rao tells him that there are no indications that his lungs have been affected in any way, there is no blood in his sputum, his symptoms are consistent with URI; she can request a chest x-ray if he insists, but she believes that would be an unnecessary expense. She also adds that the standard treatment now for URI is penicillin, which has proven to be very effective in

By clearly stating the grounds for her diagnosis, and by providing a warrant and backing for the proposed treatment, Dr. Rao makes a fairly strong argument to support her claim that he has URI and that this can be effectively treated with penicillin. This calms Mr. Prasad's apprehension about the diagnosis, but he *rebutts* the argument that penicillin is what he needs (his allergy to penicillin provides an exceptional circumstance to which the standard treatment does not apply). Dr. Rao accepts the rebuttal as invalidating the use of penicillin and prescribes an alternative medicine which has been found to be appropriate in such exceptional circumstances. In this way, justification has been provided for both the diagnosis and for the modified recommended treatment. The structure of this argument up to the rebuttal is illustrated in Figure 1.

In this case Dr. Rao was able to make a relatively strong and uncomplicated argument about the nature of Mr. Prasad's problem and the proper treatment for it — partly because of the relevance of some widely accepted technical data. But for many arguments technical data may either not be relevant or not widely accepted. Often arguments are more complex, especially where there is some ambiguity as to what are the most relevant grounds, warrants and possible rebuttals. This is often the case when ethical and public policy questions are raised — as, for example, in connection with movements in India such as the Naxalites, People's War Group and the Naga Underground.

Consider a scenario where three members of a People's War Group (PWG) are apprehended by the police on grounds of suspicion, detained and interrogated about PWG activities. During the interrogation the detainees either refuse to answer, give misleading answers, or give answers which the police believe are not true. The police decide that the PWG suspects are not cooperating, become more suspicious and decide to detain them for a longer period and further interrogation. The next day PWG leaders issue a protest in which they accuse the police of being instruments of the ruling class and argue that even if the detainees lied, they were

justified in doing so because as prisoners of war their first duty is loyalty to their comrades, not cooperation with the enemy. The PWG leaders also state that the allegations against the detainees are false, and call for their immediate release. The police retort that the detainees were not prisoners of war but rather members of a subversive terrorist organization, that as citizens of India they owe their first loyalty to the nation, not to a subversive group, and that they must cooperate and 'tell the truth'.

Although the above is only a brief sketch, several things may be noted as either stated or implied. (1) On the basis of their interrogation, the police made a *claim* (the detainees have been evasive, thereby increasing suspicions) on certain *grounds* (detainees told lies, were not cooperating) and justified detaining them for a longer period and further questioning on an implied *warrant* (detainees have an obligation to tell the truth) with implied *backing* (legal codes, generally accepted understanding that persons should be truthful). (2) PWG leaders then enlarge the argument by issuing a *rebuttal* (lying to an enemy was justified since suspects were 'prisoners of war'; police system is a repressive tool of the ruling class; detainees had demonstrated a higher loyalty), with an implied additional rebuttal (detainees' loyalty to the PWG struggle for what they believed would be a more just society is a higher value than support for the status quo). (3) The response of the police then further expands the argument by attempting to rebut the rebuttal (detainees are members of a terrorist organization, not prisoners of war; a citizen's first obligation is loyalty to the nation). Figure 2 portrays this expanding argument diagrammatically. Note that the rebuttal given at one stage of the argument becomes part of the claims, grounds and warrants for the next stage of the argument.

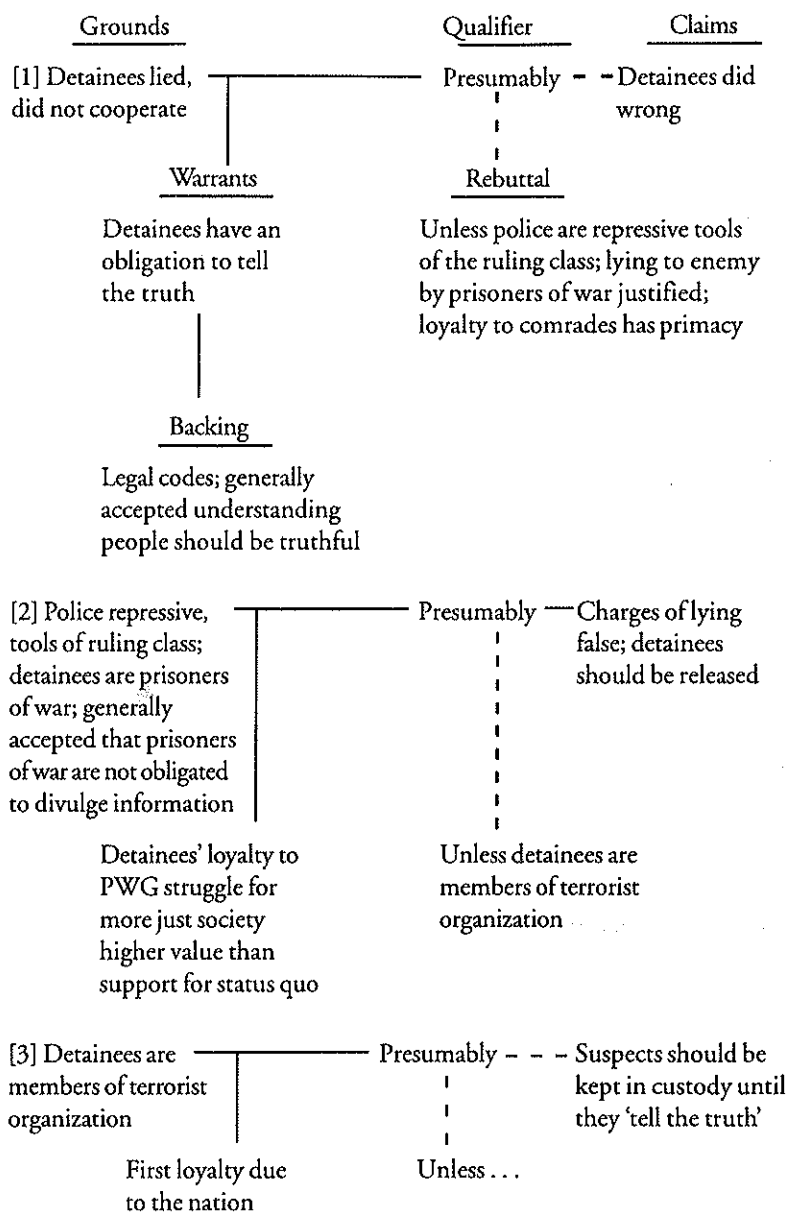


Figure 2. Structure of Argument, Case of People's War Group Detainees

As may be readily evident, from both the foregoing discussion and Figure 2, this is a much more complex case than the one about Dr. Rao and Mr. Prasad. At almost every level there are disputes about what is at stake. Competing *claims* are made: Did the detainees commit a wrong, or do the police serve as a repressive tool of the ruling class? These competing claims arise out of different *grounds*: Did the detainees lie, or were they prisoners of war and under no obligation to divulge information that could help the enemy? The movement from grounds to claims is supported by diverse *warrants*: Should the detainees be regarded as suspects having a legal obligation to divulge secret information, or should their loyalty to the PWG struggle for a more just society be regarded as having a higher value than support for the status quo? The diverse warrants are met with diverse rebuttals: Should the detainees be seen as prisoners of war, or as members of a dangerous, subversive terrorist organization?

It is probably evident by now that here we are dealing with a very complex argument in which there is a very serious lack of agreement at nearly every level about what is at stake, about the relevant grounds and warrants, and about what values should have primacy. Space does not permit further development of the argument here. However, what has been presented is perhaps sufficient to indicate, at least in part, another illustration of how the structure of argument approach might be used when analysing an argument. This approach does have the merit of drawing attention to the different parts of an argument and how these are interrelated.

This type of close scrutiny of an argument may help disclose concerns which should be kept in mind when evaluating an argument. For example, where there is serious disagreement about the relevant grounds and warrants it is unlikely that any significant progress can be made in building a persuasive case and having certain claims accepted until there has been some sort of agreement regarding at least some of the relevant grounds and/or warrants.

At an evaluative level, we might note a certain inconsistency in positions taken by the PWG leaders who (1) claim that the PWG detainees are under no obligation to 'tell the truth' since they are prisoners of war and it is generally accepted that prisoners of war are under no obligation to divulge such information to the enemy, and at the same time (2) claim that the detainees are innocent and should be released. If the detainees are to be given the status of prisoners of war, as called for in the first claim, then it would be inconsistent to call for the release of these prisoners of war on the grounds of their 'innocence', as called for in the second claim. If the detainees are to be given the status of 'prisoners of war', then the relevant warrant regarding whether they can continue to be held by the 'enemy' is not guilt or innocence but the generally accepted right of parties to a war to hold persons captured from the enemy as prisoners of war for the duration of the war. Of course, so long as the police refuse to recognize the detainees as prisoners of war, this inconsistency on the part of the PWG leaders is of little practical consequence.

At another level, it may be noted from the analysis that the claim made by the police that they have the right to hold the suspects 'until they tell the truth' is a matter of concern. This would seem to imply a determination to secure a 'confession' and connotes the possible use of extreme methods of interrogation. Here the PWG leaders might set forth a more persuasive claim, supported by legal grounds, if they were to demand that the police not violate the rights of the detainees. However, such a demand could imply recognition of the existing government — a point which the PWG leaders may not be willing to concede.

On the basis of the above discussion, it would appear that, short of the use of force, progress on the Police-PWG argument would depend upon arriving at some minimum points of agreement about what is at stake, what values should have primacy, what grounds and warrants will be regarded as most relevant.

As one example, it may be relevant here to recognize that ethical issues arise precisely at those points where values are being contested. If there were no conflict of values, then ethical issues would not arise. While the above case may be somewhat unusual, ethical issues always arise in contexts where there is lack of agreement about what is right or wrong, good or bad, appropriate or inappropriate. A major part of the task of ethics is to help participants in contested issues to arrive at an understanding of certain common values, principles or guidelines which will help them to sort their way through such conflicts. While this is not the place to pursue that task with regard to the above case, this case has been used to help illustrate how the structure of argument approach might be used to help analyse and evaluate what is happening in a specific case, to identify weaknesses in an argument, and to find out what may be needed to construct a more persuasive argument.

In this section an effort has been made to briefly describe the structure of argument perspective as a tool which might be of help in the analysis and evaluation of 'texts'. An attempt has been made to show, at least in a preliminary way, how the approach might be used when examining two very different situations. While the specific content of any analysis will depend upon the subject area, proponents of the structure of argument approach contend that this model provides a helpful tool for bringing out the underlying structure and unstated assumptions, for identifying weaknesses or errors in an argument, and for critically analysing and evaluating arguments in a wide variety of subjects.

It could be argued that the search for fallacies and the structure of argument perspective have some similarities. For example, the fallacy of false generalization and the fallacy of *non sequitur* direct attention to an unauthorized movement from grounds to claims. Similarly, the fallacy of false cause and the fallacy of false appeal to authority direct attention to inappropriate use of grounds, warrants or backing. At the same time, it does not appear that any specific units in the structure of argument perspective deal with the concerns

of fallacies of analogy or ambiguity — although it could be argued that these types of errors in logical reasoning might be found in the way different units of an argument are said to be related. Overall, a search for fallacies is primarily concerned with identifying any errors in the reasoning process which would invalidate or qualify a claim which is made at any stage in the reasoning process, while the structure of argument perspective is primarily concerned with identifying any weaknesses in an argument's structure — with whether all the requisite units or 'building blocks' have been included, the adequacy of each of these, and the strength of their interrelationship.

Critical thinking

In the preceding section, attention has been given to fallacies and structure of argument as two dimensions of a 'logical reasoning' approach to the interrogation of a 'text'. The emphasis there was upon the need for the 'author' to demonstrate logical reasoning in order to be persuasive. Clearly, a text which does not demonstrate logical reasoning cannot be rationally persuasive. Making use of logical reasoning criteria when evaluating a 'text' requires critical thought, and on these grounds some writers argue that logical reasoning is also critical thinking.

However, over the past two decades a school of thought has been gradually developing which argues that the approach of logical reasoning is too restrictive for understanding human thought. There are, it argues, additional dimensions which must be taken into consideration. Persons of this persuasion hold that the type of intellectual work required when dealing with these additional dimensions go beyond logical reasoning and can best be described as critical *thinking* to distinguish this approach from the perspective of logical *reasoning*. This critical thinking approach, to be discussed below, has been developed primarily by persons working in educational theory with a concern for nurturing persons to be critical thinkers, not merely logical reasoners. It would appear that this approach may also have relevance and significance for how

we can best carry out the work of interrogating, analysing and evaluating a 'text' and therefore merits some consideration here. The differences between the critical thinking and logical reasoning approaches, and some of the implications of these differences, can perhaps be best brought out by considering some of the criticisms which advocates of the critical thinking approach have made about the logical reasoning approach, some of the additional dimensions emphasized by proponents of 'critical thinking', and some of the implications for the interrogation of 'texts'.³

Critique of logical reasoning. A basic premise of critical thinking proponents is that good thinking is not reducible to logical thinking. For example, it does not take a lot of effort to imagine a situation where we would have a 'text' on a subject matter in an area of our interest which contained no fallacies, which was clearly structured and coherent, which presented an argument for a particular position and which met the standard for logical reasoning, but which leaves us entirely unmoved and viewing the 'text' as irrelevant. Why might this be so?

Critical thinking advocates would begin to answer this by drawing attention to how the logical reasoning tradition has usually attempted to separate reason and emotion, the cognitive and affective domain. This became especially so in the western tradition from the time of the Enlightenment when all things were to be tested by reason, while feeling and intuition were less trusted, and often mistrusted, as ways of knowing and understanding human affairs. Preference was then given to rational, linear deductive

³ For much of the discussion which follows I have benefited particularly from *Re-Thinking Reason. New Perspectives in Critical Thinking*, edited by Kerry S. Walters (Albany: State University of New York, 1994). Additional insights have been gained from Mark Weinstein, "Critical Thinking: The Great Debate," *Educational Theory*, 43/1 (Winter 1993): 99-117; Barbara J. Thayer-Bacon, "Caring and Its Relationship to Critical Thinking," *Educational Theory*, 43/3 (Summer 1993): 323-340; Sharon Bailin, "Is Critical Thinking Biased? Clarifications and Implications," *Educational Theory*, 45/2 (Spring 1995): 191-197; Stephen P. Norris, "Sustaining and Responding to Charges of Bias in Critical Thinking,"

thought and the development of the ability to reason. Adherents of this approach hold that proper use of logical reasoning requires that persons be detached — not personally involved — since it has been believed that an attitude of detachment is a prerequisite for objectivity and sound thinking by logical principles, free of bias, prejudices and logical fallacies.

Along with faith in reason, the logical reasoning tradition has also tended to conceive of truth as atemporal and propositional. From this perspective, knowledge is believed to be 'out there' in the form of discrete, hierarchical propositions which can become known by the proper use of logical reasoning; cognition of this propositional knowledge has been believed to provide explanation and 'enlightenment' — understanding of 'the way things are'.

Critical thinking advocates accept an important role for reason in human understanding and acknowledge that reasoned judgement and the principle of non-contradiction are basic to any logical inquiry. However, proponents of critical thinking argue that the logical reasoning approach is too limited. From the perspective of critical thinking adherents, a concentration upon logical reasoning erroneously circumscribes the capacity of human knowing to the cognitive dimension and one's current way of thinking, and thereby deprives human understanding of the enrichment which can be had through other ways of knowing. Because of such circumscription, the logical reasoning tradition is seen as biased and the insights which it provides are viewed as partial or one-sided. It is therefore regarded as a flawed epistemological model.

Educational Theory, 45/2 (Spring 1995): 199-211; Jennifer Wheary and Robert H. Ennis, "Gender Bias in Critical Thinking: Continuing the Dialogue," *Educational Theory*, 45/2 (Spring 1995): 213-224; Kal Alston, "Begging the Question: Is Critical Thinking Biased?" *Educational Theory*, 45/2 (Spring 1995): 225-233, and Sophie Haroutunian-Gordon, "Some Issues in the Critical Thinking Debate: Dead Horses and Red Herrings, Anyone?" *Educational Theory*, 48/3 (Summer 1998): 411-425. Some proponents of critical thinking argue that critical thinking, out of its own logic, should supersede logical reasoning. My discussion here follows the predominant view that critical thinking stands in an evolutionary and complementary relationship to logical reasoning.

Another distortion believed to be rooted in this flawed epistemological model is the conception of knowledge as 'out there' in the form of 'timeless hierarchical truths'. Advocates of critical thinking argue that this conceptual framework is oppressive: those who posit atemporal value-hierarchical thinking as the nature of ontological order promote (and probably reflect) "a *logic of domination*, i.e., a structure of argumentation which explains, justifies and maintains the subordination of an 'inferior' group by a 'superior' group *on the grounds* of the (alleged) superiority and inferiority of the respective groups."⁴ Historically, this kind of thinking is found in patriarchal, casteist and racist conceptual frameworks which assign greater value and status to that which has been identified, respectively, as 'male', 'high caste', and 'white', and which functions to maintain the subordination of women, 'low (or out) caste' persons, and 'coloured' people. In such ways persons who claim to have discovered, through 'detached' inquiry, truths/laws/rules which are timeless and universalizable have often reflected a way of thinking which, far from being detached, is actually rooted in an entrenched system of social relations which assumes that authority is given from the *top* of a hierarchy and which uses the supposedly ontologically rooted truths/laws to explain, justify and maintain the point of view of those on top.

As an extension of the above point, advocates of critical thinking hold that *all* thinking is situated in particular social locations within history and, deliberately or unwittingly, tends to reflect ideological and political interests associated with those locations. Examples abound: Colonial administrators usually supported policies which served the interests of the colonial power they represented; political parties advocate policies which serve the interests of their primary constituency; caste and other ethnic associations usually promote the interests of the caste or other ethnic group they represent;

⁴ Karen J. Warren, "Critical Thinking and Feminism" in Walters, op. cit., 157.

multinational corporations follow policies which serve the interests of their owners/shareholders, and discontented members of an underclass support social movements working for shared concerns.

As a further extension of the above point, critical thinking proponents radically question the premise that it is possible for an observer or inquirer to be detached, free of bias, neutral and thereby capable of objective perception of truth or ultimate reality. Conceptually, 'truth', in the sense of the 'truth' pursued by an academic discipline, or the 'truth' of a socio-historical situation, is best understood as 'reigning theory', built through or directing a process of knowledge construction, and comprising that for which the most persuasive case can be made at a given point in time. But our capacity to conceive such 'truth', or to agree upon such 'truth', is socially conditioned. Advocates of critical thinking hold that each of us is located at a somewhat different point in history and in society, and that we each have somewhat different interests. "We organize or conceptualize the world and our place in it in somewhat different terms than others do." We think and reason within thought systems shaped and influenced by the culture of which we are a part. None of us is capable of complete objectivity. But what we can do is to move toward increasing our impartiality by bringing out the assumptions, beliefs and ways of seeing by which we proceed, and in dialectical relationship with others move toward an increased understanding which transcends the 'boundedness' of our individual thinking and reasoning. Indeed, discovery of the limits of one's perceptual awareness and moving beyond that is seen as the very essence of critical thinking: "Critical thinking, at least as I conceive it, is defined in the strong sense as inescapably connected with discovering both that one thinks within 'systems' and that one continually needs to strive to transcend any given 'system' in which one is presently thinking."⁵

⁵ Richard W. Paul, "Teaching Critical Thinking in the Strong Sense: A Focus on Self-Deception, World Views, and A Dialectical Mode of Analysis," in Walters, *op. cit.*, 187, 182. Paul is regarded as one of the leading exponents of critical thinking.

Several additional concerns are implied in this understanding of critical thinking. One is that the goal is not the possession of some timeless truths 'out there' but rather a growing capacity to interpret, understand and give meaning to our human situation within the vision of a new humanity/society. It is believed that this can be gradually realized as persons mutually interact and, in the dialectic of confronting the limits of 'boundedness' in their personal thinking and in their viewpoints or world views, discover ways of transcending, in some measure, some of the limits in their current way of thinking. Being able to do this requires not only reasoning skills but also a disposition of open-mindedness and sensitivity or responsiveness to others as persons, to the depth of their feelings and passions, and the ability to empathize with others and comprehend their way of thinking. This implies a disposition which is faith-sensitive, gender-sensitive, and caste- and tribe-sensitive — an ability to place one's self in the place of a person of another faith, or another sex, or from another caste or tribe, and comprehend their way of thinking.

The above implies a way of knowing which is significantly more inclusive than the logical reasoning approach. Instead of individual reasoners working alone, and from time to time confronting each other in an argumentative and adversarial fashion in their quest for 'objective facts', there is a kind of 'connected knowing' which emerges out of the dialectic of the self and the 'other' (including 'texts'), of doubt and belief, of personal experience and the experience of others. Instead of knowledge being conceived as something 'out there' to be discovered by logical reasoning, knowledge is understood to be a human construct in which the knower participates and through which meaning is found for organizing socio-political life.

Since every person is understood to perceive the world from their own particular location, the critical thinking approach makes no claim of neutrality. But being a critical thinker requires that one attempt to be impartial by listening to the views of others —

especially those in subordinate positions — and by being inclusive. Such 'listening' helps one to have a larger database from which to make judgements and generalizations — and thereby helps to control for bias and to avoid omitting or disregarding relevant data from others.

Attempting to be inclusive and impartial, along with a disposition of openedness, means that the critical thinker is one who is also sensitive — respectful and appropriately responsive — to her or his context. This is seen as a natural extension to others of the recognition that (1) each of us occupies a particular social location, and (2) our beliefs and outlook have been considerably influenced by that background. Hence, contextual sensitivity requires that one recognize and understand (although not necessarily approve) contextual factors which predispose others to particular points of view — and to be creative in finding ways to help others transcend the 'boundedness' of their context while at the same time being relevant to that context. This implies that some dimensions of critical theory will have ramifications for the organization of political life and social transformation.

As the above implies, to become a critical thinker is to become a certain type of person — a person who has not only certain reasoning skills but also "particular values and traits of mind,"⁶ such as those described above — a person who is able to not only engage in logical reasoning but who also has a clear sense of his or her own identity and autonomy and who can critically assess contexts with a concern for nurturing critical thinkers and maximizing human freedom rather than thoughtless conformity and perpetuation of the status quo.

Following a critical thinking approach also has implications for the type of material or data considered relevant. Instead of giving primacy to debating dogmatic propositions, significant space is often given to narrative discourse. This is because narrative discourse situates participants in a relationship of equality, as

⁶ The phrase is Paul's, *op. cit.*, 182.

listeners and sharers, and encourages a disposition of valuing others' views. Such a context invites a discussion of why persons think as they do, what motivates them, how socio- historical factors are related to certain views, and the meaning associated with their ideas. Such narrative discourse is less threatening than argumentation and generates the possibility of learning from those who share their narrative much that would not be learned from a logical reasoning approach. In such ways as these, narrative discourse can both empower those who share in that discourse, and at the same time significantly enlarge and enrich the database for interpreting and comprehending diverse human experiences and understandings arising out of these. Without doubt, this is a major reason that narrative discourse has occupied a significant place in the development of Black Theology, Dalit Theology, Feminist Theology, Liberation Theology and Minjung Theology. Their narratives/stories, however profound, have not been ends in themselves; rather, these have helped to significantly enlarge and enrich the data base for critical reflection on human experience.

To sum up, the critical thinking approach, while appreciative of and including logical reasoning, attempts to be more inclusive and holistic. It stresses not only the cognitive faculty of reasoning but also the affective domain — the disposition of empathy, contextual awareness and connected knowing — and it insists that the history and experience of subordinate and marginalized people be a part of the database for critical thinking and action. Perhaps, paradoxically, the claim is made that the critical thinking approach may be said to be more fully rational in the best sense of that word — in contrast to a narrow exclusive concentration on the logic of falsification/justification.

What concerns for the interrogation of a 'text' arise out of this somewhat brief consideration of the critical thinking approach? While certainly not exhaustive, the following are suggestive of the kinds of concerns which could be raised:

- ◆ What conceptual framework is evident in the 'text', and how does this affect what is taken as given and/or considered relevant?
- ◆ Does the 'text' show evidence of critical thinking? If so, how is this demonstrated? In what ways does the 'author' give attention to both the cognitive and affective domain, to matters of disposition as well as logical reasoning?
- ◆ In what ways is the content of the 'text' shaped by the 'author's' context, social location and experience? What are some of the forces which have shaped the 'author's' life, and how have these impacted the 'author's' interests and worldview? Whose interests and views are articulated through this 'text'?
- ◆ Are there shifts and changes over time in the 'author's' point of view? If so, what interpretation provide the most persuasive explanation for these changes?
- ◆ Does the content of the 'text' appear to have been arrived at impartially, or is there some evidence of bias? If biased, does the 'author' recognize this and provide any justification? Is there any evidence of sexism, casteism, classism or racism? If so, what is the evidence and how has this affected the 'author's' treatment of the subject matter of this 'text'?
- ◆ Might this 'text' be regarded as in some way authoritative? If so, in what way might it be authoritative? For whom? Could any wider claims be made?
- ◆ As you interact with the 'text', what new possibilities emerge which have potential for helping you to move beyond or transcend the limits of the way of thinking which you brought to the 'text'?

An illustrative application

Before concluding this chapter, it may be helpful to look at how the methods for interrogating a 'text' discussed in this chapter might be put to practical use when interrogating a specific 'text'. For illustrative purposes, we shall use the following 'text':

The Right to Life

Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.
(Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 3)

Article 3 presents an appearance of an inalienable right but its fragmentation either allows it to be annulled or produces spaces into which the West can import its own for-profit institutions for exploitation.

Whatever the Declaration may state at present, the right to life is interpreted in a purely negative manner as a right not to be killed by a criminal or maniac, or if killed, to have the murderer punished. The state need not strive to keep its citizens alive.

Interpreted comprehensively, this Article should exclude any activity by individuals, governments or international institutions, which reduces or threatens to reduce a person's access to essential sustenance and, therefore, diminishes her or his life span or its quality. Economic impoverishment usually results in malnutrition or starvation which is a threat to health, and therefore an abuse of the right to life.

Article 25, therefore, unnecessarily states: "Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment...."

What this conveys is that the right to life does not automatically imply a right to health, well-being, food and so on. That is, even if people are ill, malnourished and miserable, their right to life is deemed to be satisfied.

A just interpretation of the right to life requires that all human beings living today and those who will be born in an indefinite number of future generations, have their basic needs satisfied so that their life is not diminished, in duration or quality.

The right to security cannot be limited to the payment of subsistence welfare during unemployment — as it has been, but increasingly is ceasing to be, in practice, in the West — but must include freedom from indirect threats from toxic pollution, global climatic change, and even the WTO's⁷ adverse effects on self-reliance in agriculture and food.

Recognition of the inclusive right to life would imply that the State will so organize itself as to ensure that each and every citizen receives adequate supplies of food and other basic necessities in a healthy environment and that people live and grow in dignity. Allowing people to die of neglect is as abusive as direct murder. The right to work, the right to housing and other rights follow, and those who are unable to work due to physical disability, old age and lack of job opportunities, should still have access to food and other basic entitlements.

Moreover, the failure to meet basic needs is not seen as a direct abuse of the right to life, because it is assumed that the needs of the poorest will be met by the right to "trickle down development". But the imposition of this type of development in the "developing" countries serves merely to transfer the already meagre resources of the masses to an affluent few; within the country or outside it, making the situation of the impoverished even worse.

Genocide is the most practised abuse of the right to life. Article 11 of the UN Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, also adopted in 1948, defines genocide as "any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial, or religious group, as such [sic]: (a) Killing members of the group; (b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group; (c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life

⁷ World Trade Organization — ed.

calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;...."

Many of the activities of the Western system come within this definition, though the intent is rarely so starkly stated. Mass murders and genocide by deprivation are practices which have continued with increasing intensity towards the end of the 20th century. Killing goes on all the time, in the fields of farmers (through synthetic pesticides), in the factories (through worker exposure to pollution) and in homes (through the policies of the free market economy). The deaths often occur at places remote from the centres of origin of the abuse (the Washington offices of the World Bank, the vehicles and industries which "manufacture" atmospheric and oceanic pollution), and far into the future (carcinogenic and mutagenic effects, climatic change and so on).

No ceremony, however, attends the dying hour of dispossessed people, hungry children and sick adults, whose lives are circumscribed or cut short by poverty, insufficiency and lack of livelihood. The real rites take place in Western celebrations of affluence based on the sacrifice of impoverished victims to the great god Mammon.

Article IV of the UN Convention on Genocide however does state that "Persons committing genocide. . . shall be punished, whether they are constitutionally responsible rulers, public officials, or private individuals." But the narrow interpretation of genocide ensures that the West gets away with its mass murder.⁸

Our interrogation of the above 'text'⁹ will proceed through the three steps discussed in this chapter: A preliminary review,

⁸ From *Inhuman Rights. The Western System and Global Human Rights Abuse*, by Winin Pereira (Mapusa, Goa: The Other India Press, in association with The Apex Press, New York, and Third World Network, Penang, 1997), 29-31.

⁹ Keeping with usage in this manual, reference to the above selected material will be made by enclosing the word text within inverted commas to indicate that this

an assessment of the logical reasoning demonstrated in the 'text', and an appraisal of the extent to which the 'text' shows evidence of critical thinking.

From a preliminary review, it is evident that (1) the main concern dealt with in this 'text' is the *meaning* of the 'right to life', (2) the central thrust is a critique of what the author perceives as a 'narrow' interpretation which has, in the author's judgement, permitted much abuse of persons' 'right to life', and (3) the implicit conclusion is that a correct understanding of the 'right to life' requires an *inclusive* interpretation in order to safeguard persons from the abuse permitted by a narrow interpretation. Using somewhat different language, it could be said that the central thesis of the 'text' is that a correct understanding of the 'right to life' is to be found only in an inclusive interpretation and that to support this thesis the author argues (1) that a narrow interpretation has permitted gross abuses of this right, and (2) only an inclusive interpretation will protect persons from such abuse. Such statements are descriptive. Statements of this kind can, in certain instances, also be analytical. But they are not evaluative.

At the level of logical reasoning assessment, our earlier discussion in this chapter drew attention to logical fallacies and structure of argument. Are there any errors or flaws in the reasoning process which weaken or invalidate the author's argument?

As a first step toward answering this question, a second review of the 'text' can be helpful, keeping in mind the types of fallacies discussed earlier. Are any of these fallacies to be found in the 'text'? I think some such criticism can be fairly made.

For example, in the second paragraph the author asserts that "the right to life is interpreted in a purely negative manner." But to whom does the author refer, and is the assertion correct? The author is rightly critical of many aspects of the "Western system",

material is only one of several kinds of material which could be treated by a researcher as 'text'. At the same time, since this material is known to be by a particular person, reference to the author will be made without the use of inverted commas.

yet even within the West the right to life is interpreted in positive ways by various agencies such as human rights organizations that advocate on behalf of the poor and marginalized by exposing and criticizing policies and practices of governments, military troops, corporations and other forces which operate in authoritarian and exploitative ways to deprive persons of their right to life. Here it appears that while the author has a valid point, by his unqualified assertion he has made a faulty generalization.

Similarly, what does the author mean by a "narrow" interpretation of the right to life and by "inclusive" right to life? In the first part of the 'text' the author seems to equate narrow interpretation with negative interpretation. Later in the 'text' the author mentions food and other basic necessities, a healthy environment, housing and work as *examples* of rights required by an inclusive right to life. Presumably there are additional rights which would be included in an inclusive right to life, but this is uncertain since a clear definition of "inclusive right to life" is not provided. It appears that by "narrow interpretation" the author may actually be referring to a tendency in the West to interpret human rights primarily in terms of civil rights, and that by "inclusive right to life" the author has in mind not only civil rights but also economic and social rights. But the author does not say this. In the absence of more specified content, the meaning of "narrow interpretation" and "inclusive right to life" is not entirely clear and, to the extent that is so, the discussion is weakened by the fallacy of vagueness.

While the above 'text' seems to be flawed by faulty generalization and a certain vagueness, it should be noted that a fallacy in an argument is not necessarily a *fatal* flaw: The presence of a fallacy indicates a weakness in the reasoning process. The author's argument could probably be made more persuasive if the weaknesses discussed above are corrected, but even with these flaws the reader is able to grasp the author's general point. In some other instances, however, an argument can be seriously weakened or even effectively undermined if there are many fallacies, or even just one crucial fallacy.

From a structure of argument perspective, the above 'text' can be assessed with regard to the claims, grounds, warrants and related concerns discussed earlier in this chapter. The author's central *claim* is that the 'right to life' as set forth in Article 3 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) should be interpreted comprehensively as "the inclusive right to life", rather than negatively or narrowly — which, in the author's perception, has been the practice within "the Western system".¹⁰ The *grounds* for this claim is the author's contention that a comprehensive interpretation is inherent in the concept 'the right to life' (e.g., 'A *just* interpretation of the right to life *requires* [emphasis added]).

Difficulties arise, however, in providing *warrants* for this step in the reasoning process. Conceivably, warrants might be found in other parts of the UDHR or other legal instruments which attempt to delineate or specify in greater detail the meaning of 'the right to life'. "Article 25 of the UDHR might be regarded as a potential warrant. However, the author rejects this possibility: "Article 25 . . . *unnecessarily* states 'Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being'" (emphasis added). In the author's view, the rights specified in Article 25 are 'automatically' implied in 'the right to life' which should be understood as an inclusive right to life. From this perspective,

¹⁰ It could be argued that the author has not defined the meaning of "the Western system". While such a definition is lacking in this 'text', the author does provide a definition in his "Introduction" to the volume from which this 'text' is taken: "The term 'West', it must be clearly understood, is not used in a limited geographical sense. In our global society a formidable, entrenched, well organised elite promotes or substantially benefits from installed, imposed Western political, economic, industrial and military systems. This bloc is referred to throughout the book as the 'West'. It includes the essential collaborators in the Two Thirds World who promote and willingly depend on the Western cultural system with its particular aims, objects and the means used to achieve them. Conspicuous are Western-oriented gentlemen (WOGs) dressed in the insignia of mental servitude: suits and ties, socks and shoes, worn in a tropical climate. Excluded from the term 'West' are the powerless in all countries ruthlessly impoverished by these unholy alliances, those living in the geographical West who reject its values and practices and individuals working outside these systems who fight against such exploitation." Pereira, op.cit., p.1, footnote.

it would appear that an effort to delineate the content of the concept 'right to life' is not only unnecessary; any such effort will be less than inclusive, thereby implying that what has not been specified is not included in the 'right to life'. Here the author seems to (1) hold that the 'right to life' must be regarded as an open-ended inclusive right, and (2) reject the need of providing any warrant (other than his insistence that this is the 'just interpretation').

On the other hand, when considering genocide as "the most practised abuse of the right to life", the author refers to Article II of the UN "Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide", notes how genocide has been defined, and then argues that in his view "Many of the activities of the Western system come within the definition", but the perpetrators escape punishment because of a "narrow interpretation of genocide". Here the author seems to argue that the abuse of the right to life *can* be defined, that Article II provides a potential warrant for an inclusive understanding of the right to life, and that an inclusive interpretation of this Article would provide grounds for punishment of perpetrators of genocide.

While it could be fruitful to analyse the above 'text' with attention to backing, qualifiers and rebuttal, we shall limit our discussion here to warrants. Overall, with regard to warrants, it appears that the author wishes to have it both ways: in one instance he rejects the need for any warrant other than his insistence that an open-ended inclusive understanding is inherent in the right to life as a concept, but in another instance he seems to accept part of an existing UN document as providing a warrant for an inclusive interpretation of the right to life. To the extent that this is true, there is a contradiction or at least an inconsistency in the reasoning process. It seems relevant to note here that to the extent that by inclusive right to life the author refers to economic and social rights, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights could serve as a warrant. Use of some such warrants

could have helped to avoid the apparent inconsistency. It appears that the author has at times tended to reject the use of such covenants, viewing them as part of the apparatus of Western domination. However, he seems to approvingly refer to the UN "Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide", faulting not the content of the Convention but the way in which it has been narrowly interpreted by the West. It is not clear why the author has not made similar use of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

An important distinction should be kept in mind with regard to the above critical comments: these comments do not demonstrate, nor are they meant to demonstrate, that the author's basic claim is wrong in the sense that it cannot be defended. Rather, these comments point to certain flaws or weaknesses in the author's effort to defend or support his position by a process of logical reasoning. To the extent that such weaknesses can be overcome or avoided it would, presumably, be possible to provide a stronger argument in support of the author's claim.

A review of the above 'text' from the critical thinking perspective draws our attention to several concerns central to that approach.

First, the 'text' reveals an awareness by its author of the importance of context and social location. It is apparent that the author writes out of a non-Western context and has a critical awareness of how social location shapes persons' thinking: those from the West make a narrow interpretation of 'the right to life' which serves their self-interest — e.g., import their "own for-profit institutions", avoid responsibility for such things as toxic pollution and "WTO's adverse effects on self-reliance in agriculture and food", and "transfer the already meagre resources of the masses to an affluent few."

Secondly, after disclosing such biases in 'western interpretations', the author emphasizes the need for moving beyond the 'boundness' of this interpretation by recognizing 'the right to

life' as a comprehensive or inclusive claim. In doing so, the author demonstrates sensitivity to the context — an awareness of the adverse effects of a narrow interpretation of 'the right to life' upon the length and quality of life of persons in the non-West (e.g., reduced access to adequate food and other basic necessities diminish persons' "life span or its quality"; 'development' practices which produce "carcinogenic and mutagenic effects" which extent "far into the future").

Third, implied in the 'text' is a perception of the 'Western system' as oppressive and the need not for the correction of some mistakes in the application of the Western system, but rather for a different perspective, a perspective which is more comprehensive and inclusive, which is affirmative and enables people to "live and grow in dignity." In ways such as this the author calls for overcoming an oppressive system with one which is liberative, which enables or empowers people to realize their 'right to life'.

At the same time, on the basis of this brief 'text' it is difficult to discern how the 'text' has been shaped by the author's context and social location (although some conjectures could be made), whether there has been any change in the author's view, whether the author is aware of the 'boundness' of his perceptual awareness, and related critical thinking concerns. Further analysis of the 'text' might throw light on other questions such as justification for any bias or the extent to which the 'text' may be regarded as authoritative. But even without such further analysis, the above findings are perhaps sufficient to indicate that a major strength of the critical thinking perspective is that it draws attention to, and brings out, important dimensions of a 'text' which are not readily discerned by a logical reasoning approach with its emphasis upon linear argument. In this sense, the logical reasoning and critical thinking perspectives should be regarded as complementary, rather than competing, ways of interrogating a 'text'.

In this chapter attention has been given to the importance of interrogating a 'text' when analysing and evaluating one's research

materials. After noting a few general concerns, we took up the logical reasoning approach. There we noted that the search for fallacies — flaws in the reasoning process — is one of the oldest ways by which efforts have been made to determine the logical soundness of an argument. We then considered the structure of argument perspective, which draws attention to six component units, their interrelationship and how the strength of an argument can depend upon the strength of these units and the way they are linked in a 'structure of argument'. We then considered the critical thinking perspective, noting its critique of the logical reasoning perspective and how proponents of the critical thinking perspective see their approach as providing a more inclusive and enriching perspective. Through reviewing a brief selected 'text' an effort was made to show how each of these have their own strengths and provide certain 'tools' for interrogating a text. Each is concerned, in different ways, with the construction of sound, reasonable and persuasive argument. These different perspectives may be viewed as complementary — with, where appropriate, the analysis and evaluation of a 'text' being made more complete where the use of the logical reasoning approach is enriched by critical insights obtained through use of the critical thinking perspective, and where use of the critical thinking perspective is enriched by concern for valid reasoning processes, order and structure which are central to the logical reasoning approach.

Finally, neither of these approaches should be regarded as a substitute for another when interrogating a 'text'. At the same time, these different approaches will probably not be equally applicable to all 'texts'. They can be usefully viewed as different 'tools', each useful in its own way, in the critical analysis, and in the construction, of argument. The usefulness of each approach for interrogating, analysing and evaluating a 'text' will depend not only upon the inherent strengths of each but also upon the type of 'text' being interrogated and the creativity of the researcher.

Chapter 6

Footnotes, Endnotes, Textnotes, Bibliographical Entries and Reference Abbreviations

Introduction

This chapter will deal primarily with matters related to the preparation of reference notes (footnotes, endnotes, textnotes), bibliographical entries and reference abbreviations. Matters related primarily to the use of quotations and paraphrases in the development of a research report will be considered in Chapter 7. What follows is neither comprehensive nor exhaustive. More extended treatments will be found in guides such as those listed at the end of this manual.

Footnotes, endnotes, textnotes and bibliographical entries are ways of documenting the sources investigated and acknowledging the help received from others. A researcher can also use footnotes or endnotes for other purposes such as where the writer would like to make comments, observations or explanations, draw attention to other sources or views, or make some other point which might be of interest to some readers but which would interfere with or detract from the flow of the argument in the main text if incorporated there.

Failure to provide documentation can weaken one's argument. Failure to acknowledge help received from others in the form of information, ideas and composed material incorporated into one's

report can constitute plagiarism — copying material directly from any source, or simply paraphrasing such material, and submitting it as one's own. This is also known as literary theft.¹ For such reasons, proper acknowledgment of sources is necessary as a matter of intellectual honesty and personal integrity. Material taken directly from another source should be acknowledged by the use of quotation marks and a footnote, endnote or a textnote. Material paraphrased from other sources should also be acknowledged in a similar fashion.

The basic rule for preparing reference and bibliography entries is clarity and consistency. An entry should be clear so that a reader will know the exact source to which reference is made. Entries should be consistent to avoid confusion which might arise if entries are given in different formats.

In this chapter attention will be given to two widely used systems — the author-title system, and the author-date system. Each system has its own logic. The discussion which follows is intended to draw attention to some of the more important and frequently used type of entries under each system for making reference notes and bibliographical entries in research papers, theses and dissertations. The notes and examples generally follow the style given in *The Chicago Manual of Style* (14th ed.) and in Turabian's *A Manual for Writers* (6th ed.). Other styles are also in use. Whatever style is chosen should be consistently followed.

¹ Institutions promoting scholarly research and writing therefore treat plagiarism as a very serious matter. Depending upon the extent of plagiarizing, punishment can vary from a severe reprimand up to expulsion and disqualification. More broadly, persons who engage in plagiarism will undermine and ultimately destroy their reputation and professional potential. It is recognized that some students come from a background where copying from other sources for such things as course assignments — and in some cases even examinations — has been quite widespread. But such practices do not promote the capacity for independent thought, personal intellectual growth and basic honesty in reporting what is one's own work and what is the work of someone else — qualities which are essential for serious research. Since plagiarism is wholly incompatible with the development of these qualities, and with the conduct of credible and respectable research, any evidence of plagiarism is treated as a serious offense.

Footnotes are placed at the bottom of a page of text and separated from the text by a short line. Endnotes are placed at the end of a short research report, and at the end of each chapter in a thesis or dissertation. Textnotes are placed in the text, normally within parentheses. Footnotes and endnotes are associated primarily with the author-title system of giving references, although they are sometimes also used with the author-date system for other purposes. Textnotes are associated with the author-date system of giving references. In the discussion which follows, we shall first give attention to the author-title system and then look at the author-date system for giving references.

Reference notes in research reports will, for the most part, refer to print and electronic sources. Since persons doing theological research still depend heavily upon printed sources, a substantial part of this chapter will deal with the preparation of reference notes for citations from and references to books, periodicals, reports, unpublished manuscripts and similar print materials, starting below. On these matters of style there is general agreement across academic disciplines. On the other hand, while the range and quality of electronic sources is growing rapidly, the referencing information provided by these sources is often uneven. Additionally, in most cases preparation of reference notes for citations from and references to electronic sources requires attention to some concerns which do not apply to print sources. For these reasons, preparation of reference notes for electronic sources will be considered in a separate section later in this chapter.

The Author-Title System

Footnotes and endnotes

Most readers of this manual will already have a basic familiarity with the *author-title* system. Under this system reference material in footnotes and endnotes should be placed in the following order: Author, Title (place of publication: Publisher, year of publication), page reference. The author's full name is given first, followed by a

comma. The title is then given in italics as it appears in the book being cited (if the research report is composed on a typewriter, the title should be underlined). Following the title is an open parenthesis, name of the place where the work was published, followed by a colon; the name of the publisher is then given, followed by a comma, the year of publication, and a closed parenthesis. If any page reference is given, a comma is placed after the closed parenthesis, followed by the page reference and a full stop. If no page reference is given, a full stop is placed after the closed parenthesis. Note, therefore, that for footnotes and endnotes there is only *one* full stop, which appears at the end. A helpful guideline here is to remember that footnotes and endnotes are given in a 'sentence form' — a continuous statement containing commas, parentheses and a colon between the major parts of the note, with only one full stop which is placed at the end. Footnotes and endnotes may contain other punctuation marks but almost never two or more punctuation marks together except when giving page numbers — for example, as in "... Press, 1981), 161." where the closing parenthesis and comma are together. Some illustrative examples of footnotes can be found in Chapters 1, 3 and 4, and on the following pages.

For edited works, the name of the editor appears in the place of an author, followed by a comma and "ed." to denote that it is an edited work, followed by a comma. Although it was formerly customary to place "ed." in parentheses, the parentheses do not add clarity and it is now becoming customary not to use parentheses.

For works which list more than one place of publication it is customary to use the first place mentioned. The name of the publisher should be given as stated in the work consulted, as this was the legal entity at the time of publication.

The basic logic of bibliographical entries under the author-title system is the same as for footnotes and endnotes, with the

following exceptions: (1) The order of the author's name is changed, with the author's surname appearing first followed by a comma and then the remainder of the author's name. In the case of name systems which do not follow family names, the name by which the person is usually known appears first. If there are two or more authors, the order of only the first author's name is changed. (2) No parentheses are used. (3) Full stops are placed after the author's name, the title, and the date. A helpful guideline here is to remember that in a bibliographical entry each unit of information is normally treated as a separate statement ending with a full stop. (4) Page references are normally omitted.

The following examples are given to illustrate how the above general logic is applied in preparing footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries for different types of works. In these examples, the footnote and endnote form is denoted by 'N' and the bibliographical form by 'B'. Book titles are given in italics; if italics are not available, the title should be underlined. For footnotes and endnotes the first line is indented; additional lines after the first line may extend to the left and right margins; for bibliographical entries, additional lines are indented so that the name(s) of the author/ editor/ compiler can be easily located. The number at the beginning of each 'N' (footnote or endnote) entry in the listing which follows represents a footnote/endnote number for that reference. For the 'B' (bibliographical) entry, no number is given; the bibliography should be organized alphabetically without numbers for individual entries.

(1) One author:

- N 1. Romila Thapar, *The Past and Prejudice* (New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975), 45-46.
- B Thapar, Romila. *The Past and Prejudice*. New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975.

(2) Two authors, with sub-title:

N 2. Herman E. Daly and John B. Cobb, Jr., *For the Common Good. Redirecting the Economy Toward Community, the Environment and a Sustainable Future* (Boston: Beacon Press, 1989), 399.

B Daly, Herman E. and John B. Cobb, Jr. *For the Common Good. Redirecting the Economy Toward Community, the Environment and a Sustainable Future*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1989.

(3) Three authors, with sub-title:

N 3. Lester R. Brown, Christopher Flavin and Sandra Postel, *Saving the Planet. How to Shape an Environmentally Sustainable Global Economy* (New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1991), 86.

B Brown, Lester R., Christopher Flavin and Sandra Postel. *Saving the Planet. How to Shape an Environmentally Sustainable Global Economy*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1991.

(4) More than three authors:

N 4. Claire Sellitz, et al., *Research Methods in Social Relations* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964), 361.

B Sellitz, Claire, et al., *Research Methods in Social Relations*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

(5) Institution, association, group and similar bodies as 'author':

N 5. Public Interest Research Group, *Alternative Economic Survey 1993-94* (Delhi: Public Interest Research Group, 1994).

B Public Interest Research Group. *Alternative Economic Survey 1993-94*. Delhi: Public Interest Research Group, 1994.

(In this case the 'author' was also the publisher.)

(6) No author given:

N 6. *Religion and Development in Asian Societies* (Colombo: Marga Publications, 1974).

B *Religion and Development in Asian Societies*. Colombo: Marga Publications, 1974.

(Where no author, editor or compiler is given, the work appears under the title of the work.)

(7) Editor of a collection:

N 7. Harjinder Singh, ed., *Caste Among Non-Hindus in India* (New Delhi: National Publishing Company, 1977), 61.

B Singh, Harjinder, ed. *Caste Among Non-Hindus in India*. New Delhi: National Publishing Company, 1977.

(Note that 'ed.', being an abbreviation, requires a full stop and, for 'N' entries, is followed by a comma.)

(8) More than one editor:

N 8. Utsa Patnaik and Manjari Dingwaney, eds., *Chains of Servitude: Bondage and Slavery in India* (Madras: Sangam Books, 1985), 149.

B Patnaik, Utsa and Manjari Dingwaney, eds. *Chains of Servitude: Bondage and Slavery in India*. Madras: Sangam Books, 1985.

(9) Compiler or compilers of a collection:

N 9. Ivan Alberts, Alwin Maben and Arun Kumar Wesley, comps., *Bibliography of Original Christian Writings in India in Kannada and Tulu* (Bangalore: Board of Theological Education of the Senate of Serampore College, 1994), 15.

B Alberts, Ivan, Alwin Maben and Arun Kumar Wesley, comps. *Bibliography of Original Christian Writings in India in Kannada and Tulu*. Bangalore: Board of Theological Education of the Senate of Serampore College, 1994.

(10) Translator of an original work:

- N 10. Leonardo Boff, *Ecclesiogenesis. The Base Communities Reinvent the Church*, translated by Robert R. Barr (Maryknoll: Orbis Books, 1986), 23-33.
- B Boff, Leonardo. *Ecclesiogenesis. The Base Communities Reinvent the Church*. Translated by Robert R. Barr. Maryknoll: Orbis Books, 1986.

(11) Edition:

- N 11. H.D. Trivedi, *Indian Penal Code, 1960*, 2nd ed. (Lucknow: Eastern Book Co., 1981), 207-208.
- B Trivedi, H.D. *Indian Penal Code, 1960*. 2nd ed. Lucknow: Eastern Book Co., 1981.

(Where a date is part of a title, such as '1960' above, the date is included as part of the title and italicized or underlined. Arabic numerals are used for edition.)

(12) Series — book or monograph:

- N 12. Sheila McDonough, *The Authority of the Past: A Study of Three Muslim Modernists*, AAR Studies in Religion 1970:1 (Chambersburg, Pennsylvania: American Academy of Religion, 1970), 16.
- B McDonough, Sheila. *The Authority of the Past: A Study of Three Muslim Modernists*. AAR Studies in Religion 1970:1. Chambersburg, Pennsylvania: American Academy of Religion, 1970.

(In the above example, "AAR Studies in Religion, 1970: 1" identifies this work as the first volume in the 1970 series of the American Academy of Religion Studies in Religion. The date of the series is included since in some cases a book or monograph may be prepared as part of a series of studies undertaken in a particular year but actually published in a later year—in which case the date of publication would be later than the series year.)

(13) Component part by one author in a collection edited by others:

N 15. Norman Perrin, "Redaction Criticism at Work: A Sample," in *The Bible in its Literary Milieu*, edited by Vincent L. Tonnies and John R. Maier (Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1979), 356.

B Perrin, Norman. "Redaction Criticism at Work: A Sample." In *The Bible in its Literary Milieu*. Edited by Vincent L. Tonnies and John R. Maier. Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1979.

(14) A work which is one of several volumes under one title by the same authors or editors:

N 12. B.S. Kesavan and Y.M. Mulay, eds., *The National Bibliography of Indian Literature, 1901-1953*, vol. 2, *Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam* (New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi, 1966).

B Kesavan, B.S. and Y.M. Mulay, eds. *The National Bibliography of Indian Literature, 1901-1953*. Vol. 2, *Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam*. New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi, 1966.

(15) A work which is one of several volumes under one general title and edited by the same person(s), with each volume under a separate title and by a different author or authors:

N 15. John Ernest Leonard Oulton and Henry Chadwick, trans. and eds., *Alexandrian Christianity*, vol. 2 of *The Library of Christian Classics*, edited by John Baille, John T. McNeill and Henry P. Van Dusen (Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1954).

- B Oulton, John Ernest Leonard and Henry Chadwick, trans. and eds. *Alexandrian Christianity*. Vol. 2 of *The Library of Christian Classics*. Edited by John Baille, John T. McNeill and Henry P. Van Dusen. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1954.

(In this case, the editors of the volume cited were also the translators.)

- (16) A work which is part of one of several volumes by the same person under a general title, with each volume under a separate title and having its own translator and/or editor:

- N 16. Martin Luther, "Temporal Authority: To What Extent it Should be Obeyed", translated by J.J. Schindel, revised by Walther I. Brandt, in *Luthers Works*, vol. 45, *The Christian in Society*, edited by Walther I. Brandt (Philadelphia: Muhlenberg Press, 1962), 81-129.

- B Luther, Martin. "Temporal Authority: To What Extent it Should be Obeyed". Translated by J.J. Schindel. Revised by Walther I. Brandt. In *Luthers Works*, vol. 45, *The Christian in Society*, edited by Walther I. Brandt. Philadelphia: Muhlenberg Press, 1962.

(In the above example, the work is listed under the name of its author which, in this case, is deemed more important than the name of the editor. The name of the editor is given after the volume number and title to indicate that Brandt was the editor of this volume and implying that other persons edited other volumes. If Brandt had been the editor of all volumes, then his name would be given after the general title—i.e., "*Luther's Works*, edited by Walther I. Brandt, vol. 45". Since the basic reference cited is part of a larger volume, this larger reference is introduced by "in" or "In". Note that for the "N" form the entire statement is given as a continuous 'statement', with commas between the major parts and a full stop at the end.)

(17) Selected works:

- N 17. Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, *Selected Works*, 3 vols. (Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1976).
- B Marx, Karl and Frederick Engels. *Selected Works*. 3 vols. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1976.

(18) Collected works, in several volumes, published over a period of years:

- N 18. Mahatma Gandhi, *The Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi*, vols. 1-100 (New Delhi: Government of India, 1958-1994).
- B Gandhi, Mahatma. *The Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi*. Vols. 1-100. New Delhi: Government of India, 1958-1994.

(19) Report:

- N 19. Amnesty International, *Report on Torture* (London: Duckworth, 1973).
- B Amnesty International. *Report on Torture*. London: Duckworth, 1973.

(20) Article in a periodical — author given:

- N 20. Mathew K. Kurien, "A Contemporary Indian Marxist Interpretation of Salvation," *Bangalore Theological Forum* 5/2 (July-December, 1973): 54.
- B Kurien, Mathew K. "A Contemporary Indian Marxist Interpretation of Salvation." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 5/2 (July-December, 1973): 45-63.

(Note that in the above examples, [1] The volume number '5' and the issue number '2' appear alone, without the words "volume" or "number"; [2] A colon, not a comma, is used after the closing parenthesis; [3] The exact page reference is given for the footnote/endnote form, while pagination for the full article is given for the bibliographical

form, and [4] The place of publication and publisher are not given. By convention, these usages generally apply when giving references to material in periodicals, encyclopaedias and dictionaries. However, giving full pagination in the bibliographical entry is primarily a matter of preference. Inclusive page numbers for the whole article should be given in a footnote/endnote when the reference is to the article as a whole. The numerals '5' and '2' refer to the volume and issue number; these are not part of the title and therefore are not italicized or underlined. For some discussion of alternatives regarding both volume number and issue number, see pages 188-189. Note that for periodical, encyclopaedia and dictionary references the name of the editor is normally not given; however, inclusive page numbers may be given to indicate the length of an article.)

(21) Article in a periodical — author not given:

- N 21. "People vs. Planners," *Economic and Political Weekly* 33/11 (March 14-20, 1998): 551.
- B "People vs. Planners." *Economic and Political Weekly* 33/11 (March 14-20, 1998): 551-552.

(22) Book Review:

- N 22. Sue Embree, review of *The Inner World: A Psycho-analytic Study of Childhood and Society in India*, by Sudhir Kakar, *Religion and Society* 27/2 (June 1980): 114.
- B Embree, Sue. Review of *The Inner World: A Psycho-analytic Study of Childhood and Society in India*, by Sudhir Kakar. *Religion and Society* 27/2 (June 1980): 108-114.

(23) Signed article in an encyclopaedia — editor's name given:

- N 23. Frank Lillingston, "Chamars," *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics*, edited by James Hastings, vol. 3 (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1910): 351-355.

- B Lillingston, Frank. "Chamars." *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics*. Edited by James Hastings. Vol. 3 (Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1910): 351-355.

(24) Unsigned article in an encyclopaedia:

- N 24. *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 1991 ed., vol. 21, s.v; "India", 1-164.
- B *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. 1991 ed. Vol. 21. S.v. "India", 1-164.

(For encyclopaedias and other widely known reference works, the name of the editor(s) and facts of publication are normally not included. But for specialized encyclopaedias and other specialized reference works for which only one edition has been published, and which in some cases are known by the name of the editor, and full facts of publication should be given — as in example 23 above and example 25 below. Where more than one edition of an encyclopaedia or other reference work has been published, the edition used should always be given, as in the above example. Above, 's.v.' = see under the heading.)

(25) Signed article in a dictionary — editor's name given:

- N 25. Gilbert Cope, "Vestments," *A Dictionary of Liturgy and Worship*, edited by J.G. Davies (London: SCM Press, 1972), 374.
- B Cope, Gilbert. "Vestments." *A Dictionary of Liturgy and Worship*. Edited by J.G. Davies. London: SCM Press, 1972, 365-383.

(Reference to an unsigned article in a dictionary would be given under the title of the article.)

(26) Article in a newspaper — author given:

N 26. Bharat Dogra, "The Cost of the IMF Loan,"
Deccan Herald, 27 June 1984, 8.

B *Deccan Herald*, 27 June 1984.

(27) Article in a newspaper — no author given:

N 27. "Church language: Kannada Writers back Catholics," *The Hindu* (Bangalore), 3 July 1981, 9.

B *The Hindu* (Bangalore), 3 July 1981.

('Bangalore' is not part of the title but should be mentioned to indicate which edition is meant.)

(28) A work cited or quoted by another author:

N 28. Charles Hartshorne, *The Divine Relativity: A Social Conception of God* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1948), 58-59, cited by Schubert Ogden, *The Reality of God and Other Essays* (London: SCM Press, 1967), 222.

Alternatively, if for the researcher's purpose it is more important to draw attention to an author citing another author's work, the order should be reversed:

Schubert Ogden, *The Reality of God and Other Essays* (London: SCM Press, 1967), 222, citing Charles Hartshorne, *The Divine Relativity: A Social Conception of God* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1948), 58-59.

B Ogden, Schubert. *The Reality of God and Other Essays*.
London: SCM Press, 1967.

(Only the work consulted by the researcher is listed in the bibliography.)

(29) Multiple references in a single footnote or endnote:

- N 29. See Joseph Fletcher, *Situation Ethics* (Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1966); John A. T. Robinson, *Christian Morals Today* (Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1964); Paul Ramsey, *Basic Christian Ethics* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954); *Deeds and Rules in Christian Ethics* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967).

(Where reference is made to more than one work by the same author, the different works are listed consecutively, in alphabetical order by title, in both the footnote or endnote and in the bibliographical entry. It is necessary to give the author's name only once, before the first work cited. In the bibliography each work would be listed separately, in alphabetical order; the author's name would be given before the title of the first work listed; for other works by the same author, a line of the same length as the author's name, followed by a full stop, would be used in place of the author's name, as shown below:)

- B Fletcher, Joseph. *Situation Ethics*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1966.
- B Ramsey, Paul. *Basic Christian Ethics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954.
- B ————. *Deeds and Rules in Christian Ethics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.
- B Robinson, J.A.T. *Christian Morals Today*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1964.

(30) Unpublished thesis or dissertation:

- N 30. Jonathan H. Thumra, "The Religion of the Meiteis of Manipur: A Study of the impact of Hinduism, with special reference to the Chaitanya Vaishnavism, on the Meitei Culture" (D. Th. dissertation, Senate of Serampore College, 1971).

- B Thumra, Jonathan H. "The Religion of the Meiteis of Manipur: A Study of the impact of Hinduism, with special reference to the Chaitanya Vaishnavism, on the Meitei Culture." D. Th. dissertation, Senate of Serampore College, 1971.

(31) Manuscript collections (Collected unpublished papers of particular persons):

- N 31. P.D. Devanandan, Papers, United Theological College Archives, Bangalore.
- B Devanandan, P.D. Papers. United Theological College Archives. Bangalore.

(32) Unpublished manuscript in an archival collection:

- N 32. M.M. Thomas, "The Church and the World" (Manuscript of a lecture delivered at the Madura S.C.M. Regional Leaders' Conference, December, 1945), Thomas Papers, United Theological College Archives, Bangalore.
- B Thomas, M.M. "The Church and the World." Manuscript of a lecture delivered at the Madura S.C.M. Regional Leaders' Conference, December, 1945. Thomas Papers. United Theological College Archives. Bangalore.

(33) Government documents and records:

- N 33. Government of India, Department of Social Welfare, *Report of the Committee on Untouchability, Economic and Educational Development of the Scheduled Castes* (Elayaperumal Committee), 1969.
- B Government of India. Department of Social Welfare. *Report of the Committee on Untouchability, Economic and Educational Development of the Scheduled Castes* (Elayaperumal Committee). 1969.

(The above examples provide the information which is generally essential [name of the government, name of the department or agency, title of the document, and date]. If the document is also known by another name, that name may be given within parentheses. The order in which these elements are given may vary according to the preference of the writer, relevance to the subject, and clarity of reference. For example, the following form could be equally acceptable for the above reference:

- N *Report of the Committee on Untouchability, Economic and Educational Development of the Scheduled Castes* (Elayaperumal Committee), Department of Social Welfare, Government of India, 1969.
- B *Report of the Committee on Untouchability, Economic and Educational Development of the Scheduled Castes* (Elayaperumal Committee). Department of Social Welfare. Government of India. 1969.

If the name(s) of the person(s) who prepared the report are given in the document, this information should be included. When the form of the first example above is followed, this information should be given after the title: "Report prepared by (names) "; when the form of the second example is followed, the name(s) of the person(s) who prepared the report should be given at the beginning of the entry (as for authors' names), followed by the title of the document. If the document has a serial or other reference number, this should be given at the end of the entry. It is normally not necessary to include the place of publication when that is the capital city; if the place of publication is elsewhere, the place name may be given, immediately before the date.)

(34) Minutes/proceedings of a meeting:

- N 34. Methodist Church in India, South India Regional Conference, Minutes of the Meeting of the Executive Board, 21-23 February 1983,7. (Cyclostyled).

- B Methodist Church in India, South India Regional Conference. Minutes of the Meeting of the Executive Board, 21-23 February 1983. (Cyclostyled).

(35) Interview:

- N 35. Interview with Packim Arokiaswamy, Archbishop, Archdiocese of Bangalore, 5 July 1981.
- B Arokiaswamy, Packiam. Archbishop of Bangalore. Interview, 5 July 1981.

(36) Personal correspondence:

- N 36. I. Jesudason, Moderator, Church of South India, letter to the author, 22 March 1984.
- B Jesudason, I. Moderator of the Church of South India. Letter to the author, 22 March 1984.

Further explanatory notes on footnotes and endnotes:

1. *Numbering of footnotes and endnotes.* When the author-title reference system is used, an arabic number is placed in the text immediately after the reference or quotation:

As Thapar has argued, "The origin of Indian civilisation has to be traced, not to the Aryan race, but to the inter-action of a number of cultures, of which what have come to be called the Aryan and the Dravidian were the more dominant."²

Generally the same number should be placed at the bottom of the page on which the citation appears and the source given as shown at the bottom of this page. Such entries are called footnotes. When the same entries are made at the end of a research paper or chapter in a thesis or dissertation, they are called endnotes. Footnotes and endnotes should be numbered consecutively beginning with "1" for each chapter of a thesis or dissertation. For a shorter research report in which there

² Romila Thapar, *The Past and Prejudice* (New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975), 45-46.

are no chapters, references should be numbered consecutively throughout the report. Where research reports are composed on computers, most major word processing software will automatically number footnotes and endnotes consecutively and also automatically renumber these as may be needed when new footnotes or endnotes are added, or when any existing footnote or endnote is deleted. Such computer programmes will print note numbers in superscript characters. If superscript is not available, the note number may be given within parentheses in the text. For the footnote or endnote, the note number should be given, followed by a full stop, without parentheses.

2. *Page abbreviations.* Quite often, in footnotes and endnotes, page references are shown with the letter 'p.' (page) or 'pp.' (pages) placed before the page number. However, the trend in many places is to omit the 'p.' or 'pp.' Since the elements of the entry are in a standardized order (author, title, place of publication, publisher, date of publication, page reference), there is no need to use 'p.' or 'pp.' unless their use will add clarity. Either of the following would be acceptable; whichever style is chosen should be followed consistently.

1. Romila Thapar, *The Past and Prejudice* (New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975), 45-46.

1. Romila Thapar, *The Past and Prejudice* (New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975), pp. 45-46.

3. *When in doubt* A writer should always follow the standard forms for footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries — forms such as those found in this manual and/or other guides. If after consulting appropriate guides any doubts remain, it is helpful to follow the "CC" rule — the clarity and consistency rule: Entries should be as clear as possible, and the forms followed for different types of entries should be consistent throughout the research report.

Organizing the bibliography

The bibliography is a list of the sources consulted and found relevant for the preparation of the research paper, thesis or dissertation. All sources to which reference has been made in the

text should be listed in the bibliography. Other sources consulted and found relevant but not cited or referred to in the text may also be included. However, sources not found relevant or not personally consulted should not be listed. This listing has conventionally been entitled "Bibliography". But since a bibliography seldom includes all that has been written on a given subject, quite apart from other possible sources, the listing might more appropriately be entitled "Sources Consulted".

The bibliographical entries may be arranged in various ways. The most common is a single list in which all materials — books, articles, unpublished materials and other sources — are alphabetically arranged by the last name of the author (or name by which the person is most commonly known in the case of persons from name systems which do not use a family surname). When there is more than one work or other source by the same author, each should be listed under the author's name, alphabetically by title. Works without an author should be incorporated, alphabetically by title.

In a long bibliography, the materials may be divided into different classifications if this would make it easier for the reader to use. A common procedure in this case is to prepare separate subdivisions according to the type of material; books, articles, unpublished materials and other sources could be listed separately under appropriate subheadings and arranged alphabetically by author in each subsection. This, however, may not always be the most appropriate form for subdivisions. If the research deals with the work of one person — for example, the concept of new creation in the thought of P. Chenchiah — it would generally be best to list first works by Chenchiah, and then in a subsequent section works about Chenchiah. In this case, the works by Chenchiah would normally be listed in chronological order by date of publication, while the works about Chenchiah would be listed alphabetically by author. In some studies, entries might be subdivided according to different historical periods or arranged according to certain themes and so on. In other cases primary and

secondary sources might be listed separately. For studies which draw upon various government documents, it may be appropriate to list these in a separate subsection; similarly, for studies which draw upon various materials in different archival collections, it may be desirable to have a separate subsection for materials from each archives. Which type of classification will be more appropriate will depend upon the type of research undertaken.

Several different types of sources have been listed in the preceding pages to illustrate how these would appear in footnote/endnotes and bibliographical entries where the author- title system is used. For some purposes a bibliography of these materials could consist of three categories: books and periodicals, newspapers, and unpublished materials, as shown below. Other subdivisions, or a single alphabetical listing, would also be possible. Note that for a bibliography the entries are *not* numbered — as a result, (1) attention is drawn to the entries [not to numbers], and (2) when preparing the bibliography the writer can insert additional entries without having to worry about changing the number for other entries.

Books and Periodicals

Alberts, Ivan, Alwin Maben and Arun Kumar Wesley, comps.
Bibliography of Original Christian Writings in India in Kannada and Tulu. Bangalore: Board of Theological Education of the Senate of Serampore College, 1994.

Amnesty International. *Report on Torture*. London Duckworth, 1973.

Boff, Leonardo. *Ecclesiogenesis. The Base Communities Reinvent the Church*. Translated by Robert R. Barr. Maryknoll: Orbis Books, 1986.

Brown, Lester R., Christopher Flavin and Sandra Postel.
Saving the Planet. How to Shape an Environmentally Sustainable Global Economy. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1991.

- Cope, Gilbert. "Vestments." *A Dictionary of Liturgy and Worship*. Edited by J.G. Davies. London: SCM Press, 1972, 365-383.
- Daly, Herman E. and John B. Cobb, Jr. *For the Common Good. Redirecting the Economy Toward Community, the Environment and a Sustainable Future*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1989.
- Embree, Sue. Review of *The Inner World: A Psycho-analytic Study of Childhood and Society in India*, by Sudhir Kakar. *Religion and Society* 27/2 (June 1980): 108-114.
- Encyclopaedia Britannica*. 1991 ed. Vol. 21. S.v. "India".
- Fletcher, Joseph. *Situation Ethics*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1966.
- Gandhi, Mahatma. *The Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi*. Vols. 1-100. New Delhi: Government of India, 1958-1990.
- Kesavan, B.S. and Y.M. Mulay, eds. *The National Bibliography of Indian Literature, 1901-1953*. Vol. 2: *Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam*. New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi, 1966.
- Kurien, Mathew K. "A Contemporary Indian Marxist Interpretation of Salvation." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 5/2 (July-December, 1973): 45-63.
- Lillingston, Frank. "Chamars." *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics*. Edited by James Hastings. Vol. 3 (1910): 351-355.
- Luther, Martin. *Temporal Authority: To What Extent it Should be Obeyed*. Translated by J.J. Schindel. Revised by Walther I. Brandt. In *Luthers Works*, vol. 45, *The Christian in Society*, edited by Walther I. Brandt. Philadelphia: Muhlenberg Press, 1962.
- Marx, Karl and Frederick Engels. *Selected Works*. 3 vols. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1976.
- McDonough, Sheila. *The Authority of the Past: A Study of Three Muslim Modernists*. AAR Studies in Religion 1970:1. Chambersburg, Pennsylvania: American Academy of Religion, 1970.
- Ogden, Schubert. *The Reality of God and Other Essays*. London: SCM Press, 1967.

- Oulton, John Ernest Leonard and Henry Chadwick, trans. and eds. *Alexandrian Christianity*. Vol. 2 of *The Library of Christian Classics*. Edited by John Baille, John T. McNeill and Henry P. Van Dusen. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1954.
- Patnaik, Usha and Manjari Dingwaney, eds. *Chains of Servitude: Bondage and Slavery in India*. Madras: Sangam Books, 1985.
- "People vs. Planners". *Economic and Political Weekly* 33/11 (March 14-20, 1998).
- Perrin, Norman. "Redaction Criticism at Work: A Sample." In *The Bible in its Literary Milieu*. Edited by Vincent L. Tollers and John R. Maier. Grand Rapids, Michigan: William B. Eerdmans Publishing Company, 1979.
- Public Interest Research Group. *Alternative Economic Survey 1993-94*. Delhi: Public Interest Research Group, 1994.
- Ramsey, Paul. *Basic Christian Ethics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1954.
- . *Deeds and Rules in Christian Ethics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.
- Religion and Development in Asian Societies*. Colombo: Marga Publications, 1974.
- Robinson, J.A.T. *Christian Morals Today*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1964.
- Singh, Harjinder, ed. *Caste Among Non-Hindus in India*. New Delhi: National Publishing Company, 1977.
- Sellitz, Claire, et al., *Research Methods in Social Relations*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.
- Thapar, Romila. *The Past and Prejudice*. New Delhi: National Book Trust, 1975.
- Trivedi, H.D. *Indian Penal Code, 1960*. 2nd ed. Lucknow: Eastern Book Co., 1981.

Newspapers

Deccan Herald, 27 June 1984.

The Hindu (Bangalore), 3 July 1981

Unpublished Materials

Arokiaswamy, Packiam. Archbishop of Bangalore. Interview, 5 July 1981.

Jesudason, I. Moderator of the Church of South India. Letter to the author, 22 March 1984.

Methodist Church in India, South India Regional Conference. Minutes of the Meeting of the Executive Board, 21-23 February 1983. (Cyclostyled).

Thumra, Jonathan H. "The Religion of the Meiteis of Manipur: A Study of the impact of Hinduism, with special reference to the Chaitanya Vaishnavism, on the Meitei Culture." D. Th. dissertation, Senate of Serampore College, 1971.

An Alternative Style: The Author-Date System

The footnote, endnote and bibliography style illustrated in the previous section and known as the author-title system is, with minor variations, used by innumerable writers — especially in the humanities. However, a significantly different system is now in general use among writers in the natural and social sciences, and is gradually being used in other fields as well, because of its economy in space, time and cost. This is known as the author-date system under which *textnotes* are used to provide documentation for sources cited or to which reference has otherwise been made.

Textnotes

When the author-date system is followed, footnotes and endnotes are not used for providing references. Instead, the reference is given directly in the text by showing, in parentheses, the author's name, date of publication and page reference, if any.

The various works cited are alphabetically arranged in a bibliography at the end of the research paper, thesis or dissertation.

In the author-date system, the basic reference consists of the last name of the author (or the name by which the writer is most commonly known if s/he does not use a family name) and the year of publication of the work. If a page reference is given, this is shown after the date with a comma separating the date and page reference. The reference is placed directly in the text, instead of a footnote or endnote number, and any footnotes or endnotes are for other purposes. A few examples may help to provide further clarification about how source references are given under this system:

As Thapar has argued, "The origin of Indian civilisation has to be traced, not to the Aryan race, but to the inter- action of a number of cultures, of which what have come to be called the Aryan and the Dravidian were the more dominant" (Thapar 1975, 45-46).

In the above example, the text reference indicates that the quoted material is from pages 45-46 of a work by Thapar published in 1975. Normally the 'p.' or 'pp,' is omitted before page numbers unless needed to avoid confusion. Full bibliographical details would be available in the bibliography for the interested reader.

Where the text reference is to a work by two authors, both names are given:

(Daly & Cobb 1986, 399)

When the reference is to a page in a multi-volume work, a colon is used to separate the volume and page numbers:

(Oulton & Chadwick 1954, 2:37)

If a reference is to a volume only, without a page number, clarity will usually require use of 'vol.':

(Kesavan & Mulay 1966, vol. 2)

In cases where reference is made to two works by the same author, published in the same year, these may be distinguished by placing an 'a' after the date of the earlier work:

What is the Christian mission in these times where we see rapid scientific developments, technological breakthroughs, rapid industrialisation, growing urbanisation, the breakdown of traditional social institutions, and growing secularism? Addressing some of these concerns, Thomas has argued that over against a retreat into pietistic individualism "A theology of mission should help the Christian Church to participate in these struggles of secularism and secular men for an authentic understanding of man as he is confronted with the historical task of humanising the world, and with the radical demand for meaningful personal human existence" (Thomas 1971a, 45).

and a 'b' after the date of the second work:

As Thomas has so eloquently argued, the struggle for justice in India cannot be confined to efforts directed toward changing the political party in power or restructuring the economic order or modifying social institutions. Rather, the success of such efforts "depends on the cultivation of basic attitudes and powerful commitment to the spirit of justice conducive to the institutional change and the realization of justice through them" (Thomas 1971b, 181). Churches and other voluntary organizations have a significant role to play in helping to create and sustain this new ethos.

The above references in parentheses indicate that the first quotation is taken from page 45 of the first work listed in the bibliography as published by Thomas in 1971 and that the second quotation is from page 181 of the second work listed in the bibliography as published by him in the same year. Similar entries would be made for other types of references. For example, the above point could have been made in the following way without direct quotation:

As Thomas (1971b, 181) has so eloquently argued, the struggle for justice in India cannot be confined to efforts directed toward changing the political party in power or restructuring the economic order or modifying social institutions, but must also include the development of attitudes and commitments which support the spirit of justice and efforts toward institutional change. Churches and other voluntary organizations have a significant role to play in helping to create and sustain this new ethos.

In all three of the above references it is assumed that only one writer with the name of Thomas is being cited. If more than one author with the same surname is cited, then one or more initials will need to be included to distinguish which is meant.

Since in the use of the author-date system there is always a clear reference to a specific work or a particular writer, there is no need for using footnote or endnote abbreviations such as *ibid.* and *op. cit.* which are sometimes easily misused and which require referral to earlier footnotes or endnotes to identify the writer and work cited.

While under the author-date system textnotes are used to give references, footnotes or endnotes can also be used occasionally for other purposes as in the author-title system — such as where the writer would like to make an observation, draw attention to a diverse tradition, or make some other point which might be of interest to some readers but which would interfere with the argument being made if included in the text of the research report.

Organizing the bibliography/reference list

Normally, when the author-date system is used all works cited are arranged alphabetically by authors' names in a single list and the listing is entitled "Reference List". If other works consulted and found relevant are also included, the listing should be entitled "Sources Consulted" or "Bibliography". Classified subdivisions are not normally used. The form of the entry closely follows the

style described for the author-title system, except that the date of publication is shown immediately after the author's (editor's, compiler's) name, and works by the same author are arranged in chronological order under the author's name, rather than alphabetically by title as is often done in the author-title system. The following listing illustrates how the works mentioned above as text references under the author-date system would appear in an author-date reference list/bibliography:³

Daly, Herman J. and John B. Cobb, Jr. 1989. *For the Common Good. Redirecting the Economy Toward Community, the Environment and a Sustainable Future*. Boston: Beacon Press.

Kesavan, B.S., and Y.M. Mulay, eds. 1966. *The National Bibliography of Indian Literature, 1901-1953*. Vol. 2: *Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Malayalam*. New Delhi: Sahitya Akademi.

Oulton, John Ernest Leonard, and Henry Chadwick, trans. and eds. 1954. *Alexandrian Christianity*. Vol. 2 of *The Library of Christian Classics*. Edited by John Baille, John T. McNeill and Henry P. Van Dusen. Philadelphia: Westminster Press.

Thapar, Romila. 1975. *The Past and Prejudice*. New Delhi: National Book Trust.

Thomas, M.M. 1971a. *Salvation and Humanization*. Madras: Christian Literature Society, for the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, Bangalore.

³A technical clarification may be useful here. The author-date system is often also called the "scientific style" in view of its usage by writers in the natural sciences. Under the strict form of this style, only the surname and initial letter of the first name for an author are given in the list or bibliography, and only the first letter of the first word in the title is capitalized. I have not followed that practice here for two reasons: (1) Giving only the surname and initial letter of the first name does not enable us to accurately identify an author—for example, does "J. Solomon" mean "James Solomon", "John Solomon", or perhaps some other Solomon? (2) Capitalizing only the first letter of the first word in a title is contrary to the guideline that when citing material from an author word-for-word we should either cite the material exactly as in the original or with any changes appropriately noted. For these reasons, in the examples provided above I have given the full name of the authors and the titles as given in the original source.

.1971b. "Search for a new Humanism as Foundation for the Struggle for a Just Society." In *Political Prospects in India: A Post-Election Inquiry*. Edited by S.K. Chatterji. Madras: Christian Literature Society, for the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, Bangalore.

Note that where there is more than one entry by the same author, a line of the same length as the author's name, followed by a full stop, is used in place of the author's name.

Sometimes the name of the author and the date of publication are further separated from the title by placing the author's name on a separate line and the date beneath the author's name so that the date of publication is made more prominent:

Thapar, Romila.

1975 *The Past and Prejudice*. New Delhi: National Book Trust.

Thomas, M.M.

1971a *Salvation and Humanization*. Madras: Christian Literature Society, for the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, Bangalore.

1971b "Search for a new Humanism as Foundation for the Struggle for a Just Society." In *Political Prospects in India: A Post-Election Inquiry*. Edited by S.K.Chatterji. Madras: Christian Literature Society, for the Christian Institute for the Study of Religion and Society, Bangalore.

The above style can add clarity when several works by the same author are cited. Either of the above two forms — author's name followed by date, or author's name on one line with the date beneath — can be used, but they should not be mixed. Whichever is chosen should be followed consistently. Note that where more than one work by the same author is listed in the reference list/bibliography, the author's name is given only for the first entry.

Standard and/or Permissible Variations in the Two Systems

A number of variations in both the author-title (A-T) and author-date (A-D) systems are either a matter of standard practice or are permissible so long as consistently observed. A few examples are given below.

Personal titles and academic degrees. For footnotes, endnotes, textnotes and entries in bibliographies and reference lists personal or professional titles such as "Dr.", "Prof.", "Rev." and "Mrs.", and academic degrees such as "D. Th.", "M.D.", and "B.D." should be omitted except for those occasional situations where their inclusion would help to clarify the significance of a reference.

Use of "ed." and "edited", "trans." and "translator". For edited works, the abbreviation "ed." is always given after the name of the editor, without parentheses, with a comma separating the editor's name and the abbreviation. In an earlier era it was customary to use "(ed.)". However, the addition of parentheses does not add further clarity and is no longer recommended; the single comma between the name of the editor and the abbreviation for editor is normally sufficient to identify the abbreviation as separate from the author's name:

A-T Singh, Harjinder, ed. *Caste Among Non-Hindus in India*.
New Delhi: National Publishing House, 1977.

A-D Singh, Harjinder, ed. 1977. *Caste Among Non-Hindus in India*. New Delhi: National Publishing House.

But when the work cited is a translation and/or one which has been edited by another person, this information is preferably given in full form:

A-T Weber, Max. *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. Translated by A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons. Edited with an introduction by Talcott Parsons. New York: The Free Press, 1947.

- A-D Weber, Max. 1947. *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. Translated by A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons. Edited with an introduction by Talcott Parsons. New York: The Free Press.

Volume number and issue number for a periodical. Under either the author-title or author-date system, the volume number of a periodical or book may be given in arabic form even when printed as a roman numeral in the periodical or book. In the case of a periodical, the volume and issue number are often given, followed by the date in parentheses, followed by a colon and then the page reference. Since the issue number and date overlap, one or another of these are sometimes omitted. The abbreviations for 'volume' and 'number' are also sometimes omitted. Any of the following three forms would be acceptable bibliographical entries under the author-title system:

Collision, J.G.F. "Biblical Perspectives on Stewardship of Earth's Resources." *Bangalore Theological Forum* Vol. 18, No.4 (October-December 1986):153-160.

Collision, J.G.F. "Biblical Perspectives on Stewardship of Earth's Resources." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 18 (October-December 1986):153-160.

Collision, J.G.F. "Biblical Perspectives on Stewardship of Earth's Resources." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 18/4:153-160.

When the pages in a periodical are numbered consecutively throughout each volume (not just each number), the issue number and date may both be omitted; the volume and page numbers will provide sufficient reference information:

Collision, J.G.F. "Biblical Perspectives on Stewardship of Earth's Resources." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 18:153-160.

But note that this last style cannot be used if pagination is consecutive only for each issue of a periodical and not for all issues comprising a volume cited. Note also that while each example might

be technically acceptable, each provides successively less information for reference. The last two examples do not include the date of publication, but often inclusion of the date provides important documentation for the argument being made and helps a reader to more easily know where the work referred to stands chronologically in a series. For such reasons as the above, the full form as in the first example, or omission of only the issue number as in the second example, are the preferred forms. A very acceptable compromise which provides all of the information while economizing on space is to omit the abbreviations for 'volume' and 'number', and to use a slash to separate the two numerals:

Collision, J.G.F. "Biblical Perspectives on Stewardship of Earth's Resources." *Bangalore Theological Forum* 18/4 (October-December 1986): 153-160.

Use of "ibid.", "id.", "loc. cit.", "op. cit.", and short titles

Abbreviations and short titles are commonly used in footnotes and endnotes to economize on the use of space while at the same time clearly communicating to the reader all of the necessary information. Normally, abbreviations are not used in textnotes.

Unfortunately, the abbreviations "ibid.", "id.", "loc. cit." and "op. cit." have often been used incorrectly in footnotes and endnotes, causing confusion for the reader. Some ways by which such confusion can be avoided are discussed below.

The abbreviation "ibid." (From *ibidem*, meaning 'the same place') refers to the same source or work as cited in the immediately preceding footnote or endnote. See, for example, the three sample footnotes below:

1. C.T. Kurien, *The Economy: An Interpretive Introduction* (New Delhi: Sage Publications, 1992), 20.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid., 31.

The first example provides full reference information. In the second example, "ibid." is used to refer to the same author, work and page as cited in the first example; in the third example "ibid." is used to refer to the same author and work but to a different page. The use of "ibid." can obviously economize on the use of space. However, if "ibid." is used in a footnote, clarity and efficiency for the reader are best served where "ibid." appears on the same page as the previous footnote providing more complete information on the work cited; if the separation is greater, the reader will need to spend more time to find out what work is being cited and will perhaps become frustrated.

The abbreviation "id.", derived from *idem* which means "the same," is a more restrictive abbreviation which refers only to the name of an author in successive references to several works by the same author in *one* footnote or endnote — for example:

1. C.T. Kurien, *Poverty, Planning and Social Transformation* (Bombay: Allied Publishers, 1978), 33; id., *The Economy: An Interpretive Introduction* (New Delhi: Sage Publications, 1992), 20; id., *Global Capitalism and the Indian Economy* (Hyderabad: Orient Longman, 1994), 88.

Note, however, that where an author's name is given only for the first work in a note listing several works it is now normally assumed that all of the works listed are works by the same author.⁴ The use of "id." in the above example is, therefore, not necessary and does not economize on the use of space. Because of this, and because "id." has sometimes been wrongly used in place of "ibid.", the use of "id." is not recommended.

The abbreviation "loc. cit." is from *loco citato* which means "in the place cited." This is a more ambiguous abbreviation since, unlike "ibid.", which refers to "the same place" (the immediately preceding note), "loc. cit." refers only to the place cited but provides

⁴ Except for works which are obviously from a different source, such as an unsigned article in an encyclopaedia or a report from a government or non-government organization — for examples, see pages 168.19, 170.24 and 173.33.

no information about where that place can be found. For this reason, and because "loc. cit." has often been wrongly used, its use is no longer recommended.

The abbreviation "op. cit.", from *opero citato* which means "in the work cited," has often been used to refer to a work previously cited in the same research (but not to the *immediately* previous cited work — a function served by "ibid."). Note, however, that while "op. cit." can be used to economize on space, its use, like the use of "ibid.", does not serve clarity or efficiency for the reader if the reader has to go back to some previous page to find out what work is being cited. If used, "op. cit." should be used sparingly.

A short title, along with page citation and the author's surname (or main name by which the author is known), is often more preferable than use of any of the above abbreviations. The main advantage is that the author, the specific work, and the page being cited are all clearly identified, and the reader does not need to look elsewhere to locate this information. A short title should use key words from the title and be sufficient to identify the work being cited. Short titles can be used in notes following a note where full reference information has been provided, and may be used to refer to either a book, article or other writing. When a short title is not the first part of a longer title or might otherwise cause confusion, the short title to be used in subsequent citations can be noted along with the first and full reference note, within parentheses — as, for example:

James M. Gustafson, *Ethics from a Theocentric Perspective*, vol. 1, *Theology and Ethics* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1981), 69. (Hereafter, *Theology and Ethics*).

The primary usage of "ibid.", "op. cit." and short titles in footnotes/endnotes is noted in more detail in the following eight examples and brief discussion of these.

1. C. T. Kurien, *The Economy: An Interpretive Introduction* (New Delhi: Sage Publications, 1992), 20.

2. Ibid., 24.
3. Ibid.
4. Pramit Chaudhuri, *The Indian Economy: Poverty and Development* (New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House, 1978), 233.
5. Kurien, op. cit., 25.
6. C. T. Kurien, *Poverty, Planning and Social Transformation* (Bombay: Allied Publishers, 1978), 33.
7. Kurien, *The Economy . . .*, 221.
8. Ibid., 350-351.

In reviewing the above examples, we will assume that this listing represents the first eight footnotes or endnotes in either a short research report or a chapter in a thesis or dissertation.

Example 1 provides the full information for a reference to C.T. Kurien's book, *The Economy: An Interpretive Introduction*, including the number of the page from which a quotation has been made or to which reference has otherwise been made. When any work is mentioned in a footnote or endnote for the first time, the appropriate full form should be given.

Example 2 is a reference to a different page in the work mentioned in the immediately preceding footnote or endnote (Example 1). Hence, "Ibid." (= same source/same work) is used to denote this. Since the note begins with "ibid.", the first letter is capitalized. A comma is placed after "Ibid." and then the page number is given, followed by a full stop. This simple entry provides all of the necessary information. It is understood that when a page reference is given in a footnote or endnote, the page reference appears as the last piece of information at the end of the note about the source. Neither the word 'page' nor the abbreviation 'p.' are needed, except where necessary to distinguish between the page reference and other numerical data which may in some cases immediately precede the page reference.

Example 3 is a reference to the same work and the same page as given in the immediately previous footnote or endnote (Example 2). "Ibid." is therefore all that is needed. "Ibid." could also be used for any number of additional consecutive footnotes or endnotes, so long as *all* of these refer to the same work and do not include reference to any other works.

Note, however, that this use of "ibid." provides clear information to the reader only if the note providing full reference information is on the same page. If the full reference information is provided on some previous page, then it would be preferable to use the short title form rather than "ibid."

Example 4 refers to a book by Pramit Chaudhuri, *The Indian Economy: Poverty and Development*. Since this is the first reference to this book, the full form is required.

Example 5 provides reference to page 25 in the only book by Kurien which has been mentioned so far — in this case, footnote or endnote 1 (Example 1 above). Since the full form has already been provided in footnote/endnote 1, it is not necessary to mention all of that information again. However, "ibid." cannot be used here since the immediately preceding reference is to a work by Chaudhuri, not Kurien. It is therefore necessary to mention the author's name (Kurien); this is followed by "op. cit." (= in the work previously cited), a comma, and the page number.

This example is technically correct. Note, however that it is not immediately clear from Example 5 what work has been cited since there are three intervening notes between Example 5 and Example 1 which provides the full reference. This lack of immediate clarity would be even more of a problem if Example 1 (the full reference note) were on some previous page. Therefore, even though Example 5 is technically correct, in this and similar cases use of the short title form will often provide greater clarity and therefore be preferable.

Example 6 refers to another book by Kurien. Since this book has not been previously mentioned, the full form is necessary.

Example 7 is a reference to page 221 in a work by Kurien which has been previously mentioned. But since two books by Kurien have been mentioned in previous footnotes or endnotes, it is necessary to specify which of these is being referred to in this note. This is accomplished by mentioning the author's name, a *short* form of the title, and then the page number. Use of "op.cit." is not needed since use of the short title form denotes that full reference information can be found in a previous footnote or endnote and in the bibliography.

Example 8 provides a reference to pages 350-351 in the book by Kurien mentioned in the immediately preceding footnote or endnote (Example 7). Therefore, all that is needed here is "Ibid.", followed by the page numbers. It could be argued that the short title form should be used rather than "Ibid." That would be true if examples 7 and 8 appear on different pages. At the same time, if Example 7 were the first full reference note on a page and if there are one or more additional successive references on the *same* page to the *same* work, then use of the short title form for the additional footnotes would be unnecessary redundancy; all of the information a reader would need to identify the reference being cited would be provided in these footnotes or endnotes.

In summary, full reference information is necessary in footnotes/endnotes when citing a work for the first time in a short research report or in a chapter of a thesis or dissertation; thereafter, a short title form is generally the most appropriate. "Id." and "loc. cit." should not be used. While "op. cit." can sometimes be technically correct for repeated reference to a work previously cited, its use will meet the tests of clarity and economy in the use of space only on rare occasions. To help avoid redundancy, "ibid." can be used for successive references on the same page to the same work following a full reference note or a short title note.

One qualifying concern is worth noting. Where research reports are prepared on word processing equipment, often with several changes or even major revisions, the page location of specific textual references and corresponding reference notes will often not be clear until the final draft is prepared. In view of this, some guides advise writers to use the short title form for all references after the first full reference and not use any of the abbreviations discussed in this section. This practice will provide all of the information needed for each reference note. To a certain extent, it also simplifies preparation of reference notes. On the other hand, it sacrifices some economy of expression for a certain amount of unnecessary repetition which can be avoided by some well-chosen use of "ibid." — such as in Example 8 above when Example 7 and Example 8 appear as successive notes on the same page.

Missing Facts of Publication

No author/editor given. If the name of an author or editor is not given in a work, the title takes the place of the author's or editor's name in footnotes, endnotes and the bibliography or reference list; for textnotes, a short form of the title can be used in place of the author's or editor's name. If the name of the author or editor can be definitely determined from other sources, the name should be given in brackets — for example, "[F.R. Singh]". If there are reasons to believe the work is by a specific person but this cannot be confirmed, the name followed by a question mark may be given, in brackets — for example, "[F.R. Singh?]".

No place of publication or no publisher given. If the place of publication is not given, "N.p." takes its place — for example, "(N.p.: Chutney Press, 1971)." If the publisher is not given, "n.p." takes the place of the publisher's name — for example, "(Hyderabad: n.p., 1957)." If neither the place of publication nor publisher are given, "N.p." and "n.p." should be used — for example, "(N.p.: n.p., 1946)."

No year of publication given. When the date of publication is not given in a printed work, "n.d." takes the place of the date in

the facts of publication. But if the date can be definitely determined from other sources, it is given, enclosed in brackets — for example, “[1963]”. If there are reasons to believe a work was published in a particular year but this cannot be confirmed, that date should be given, with a question mark, enclosed in brackets — for example, “[1959?]”.

New Editions and Reprints

New editions. A writer should always provide the facts of publication for the edition of a work which has been quoted or to which reference has been made. When this is a later or new edition of an older work by the same publisher, it is often helpful to also give the original date of publication, in brackets — for example:

R.C. Majumdar, H.C. Raychaudhuri and Kalikinkar Datta,
An Advanced History of India, 3rd ed. (London:
Macmillan [1946], 1967).

Reprints. A reprint is either a book that has been reissued by its original publisher or by a different publisher. A reprint is a reissue of an older book, not a new edition. Therefore, in addition to the usual facts of publication, it is important to give the original date of publication and the notation that the work is a reprint — for example:

Rabindranath Tagore, *The Religion of Man*, 1931, Reprint
(London: George Allen & Unwin, 1961).

If the original issue and the reprint are by different publishers, the facts of publication for both should be given — for example:

E.H. Carr, *What is History?* (London: Macmillan, 1961;
Harmondsworth: Penguin Books, 1978).

When the author-date system is followed, the bibliographical entry for the above book by Carr would be:

Carr, E.H. [1961] 1978. *What is History?* London:
Macmillan; Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

The above examples cover the main types of entries for reprints. The information provided by publishers at the time of reprinting is uneven. In some cases the researcher will need to devise appropriate entries based on available information. Unfortunately, some publishers of reprints provide no acknowledgment that a work is a reprint. When such a work is cited in a scholarly research report, it is important that the writer indicate that the work is a reprint to signify her or his awareness of this fact and avoid conveying the impression that the work cited had not been previously published.

Classical and Patristic Sources

Some studies may draw upon classical and/or patristic sources, such as Plato's *Republic* or Augustine's *City of God*. Where only a few such references are to be given in a study which draws mainly upon other sources, references to classical and patristic sources may be made in the same manner as for other sources. However, in a study which draws substantially upon classical and/or patristic sources, referencing can be simplified by (1) using standard abbreviations which have been developed for classical and patristic sources for referring to an author's name, the title of a work, and collections of such works, and (2) making use of standard numbers identifying the various parts of such works (e.g., books, sections, lines) which are the same in all editions in much the same way that the various parts of scriptures are generally identified by the name of the book and the number of the chapter and verse(s), not by page numbers. When such standard names and numbers are used, it is not necessary to give the place of publication, publisher, date of publication or page number. However, the edition used should be indicated the first time the work is cited. Two examples are given below for references to Augustine's *City of God* when such references are only a few among many others from non-classical and non-patristic sources:

1. Augustine, *City of God*, translated by Gerald G. Walsh *et al.*, abridged edition (New York: Image Books, 1958), Bk. 14, Ch. 6.

2. *Ibid.*, Bk. 19, Ch. 14.

Example 1 shows the form for a first entry. Full details of publication are given (author, title, translator, edition, place of publication, publisher, and year of publication). This is followed by the sectional numbers in the work — in this case, the book and chapter numbers, using arabic numerals. Example 2 refers to the same work but to a different book and chapter. More detailed information on standard abbreviations and numbers, to be used where classical and/or patristic references are the main type of references, and guidance regarding their use, can be found in other guides such as *The Chicago Manual of Style*, Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses and Dissertations*, and Gibaldi's *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*.⁵

Electronic Sources

In Chapter Three it was noted that in addition to using traditional print sources, researchers will often need to draw upon the rapidly growing range of sources available in electronic form — such as CD-ROM materials and resources from the World Wide Web. When a researcher cites from or otherwise makes reference to electronic sources, s/he should usually prepare reference notes as documentation of the specific source used, in ways similar to preparing reference notes for traditional print sources. But some special concerns arise because the referencing information provided by electronic sources is often uneven, and because reference notes for electronic sources require inclusion of some elements which do not apply to reference notes for print sources. In this section we will examine these concerns and consider the

⁵ For bibliographical information on *The Chicago Manual . . .*, Turabian, and Gibaldi, see the bibliography at the end of this manual.

main elements of reference notes for some frequently used types of electronic sources.⁶

In addition to the essential elements provided in reference notes for print sources, the preparation of reference notes for electronic sources must (1) take into account any difference between *publication date* and *access date*, and (2) normally provide a website address or location for the source cited.

Except for reprints, reference notes for print sources normally contain only one date which is the year of publication. But reference notes for electronic sources may require inclusion of two or more dates. One required date is the date of publication — the year in which the source became available in electronic form. But since electronic sources can be readily modified and updated, tomorrow an online source may be different from what it is today. It is therefore important that the reference note include both any date of publication indicated in the source and the date on which the researcher accessed the source. In addition, if the electronic source being cited had an earlier existence in print form, for some purposes it may be important to include the year of publication in print form, along with the date of electronic publication and the date of access since the work cited may have been different at each stage.

Providing page references for citations from online sources can sometimes pose problems. Where online documents are displayed

⁶ For a more detailed discussion about preparation of reference notes for electronic sources, and about publishing electronic resources, see Janice R. Walker and Todd Taylor, *The Columbia Guide to Online Style* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1998). Helpful chapters on using electronic resources can also be found in other guides such as the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* by Joseph Gibaldi, 5th and later editions (New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1995). In addition, helpful guidance is increasingly available on the World Wide Web — for example, a search for either “Chicago Manual of Style” or “MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Reports” will provide not only the websites of dealers from whom these guides can be purchased but also several other websites which provide helpful guidance for citation and documentation of many kinds of sources, and a few interactive websites where the user can obtain guidance on specific concerns in writing and documentation.

as page images, page numbers will generally be shown and can be cited. Sometimes online documents will have part numbers and/or paragraph numbers, but not page numbers — in which case the part numbers and/or paragraph numbers can be cited. At other times where neither page, part nor paragraph numbers are provided, the document can be downloaded and printed, after which the relevant page numbers of the document in printed form can be cited.

As noted earlier in this chapter, reference notes for citations from books published in print form normally include the name of the publisher and place where the work was published. The corresponding information for reference notes for electronic books and other web-based documents is the Internet or site address, which is known as the URL (Universal Resource Locator). Every web-based document has a unique URL, which serves as the address at which any Internet user can locate that document. However, the URL for a particular document may change, and Internet sites and resources are sometimes moved to other sites or removed entirely. It is therefore often advisable for the researcher to download into disk or print form the document being cited in order to have permanent documentation in case the document cannot be located online at a later time.

The following is in many ways a typical URL:

<http://www.corpwatchindia.org/issues/PID.jsp?articleid=3123>

Here “http://” (Hypertext Transfer Protocol) is the protocol used to make the Internet connection. This is the most common protocol for browsing the web. Your browser assumes that this is the protocol unless you enter a different one. For this reason it is normally not necessary to include this protocol when making a search on the web, but the protocol should be included as part of the URL in the reference note. The next three elements in the above example, “www.corpwatchindia.org”, comprise the domain name — the name of the website with which your browser

communicates, which in this case is the World Wide Web server for CorpWatch India, an organization for researchers and activists which seeks to hold corporations accountable, "locally and globally." Here ".org" is the root domain. There are also several other three-letter root domains such as .com, .net, .edu, .mil, and .gov, and two-letter root domains for most countries, such as '.in' for India and '.uk' for the United Kingdom. The remainder of the above URL consists of the directory ('issues' in this case), followed by the ID for the file and an article in that file (When using the above URL at the time of preparing this section in late January, 2003, I found that the article at that location at that time was "Coke and Pepsi Vandalize the Himalayas," by Ann Ninan). Some URLs will be longer with, for example, one or more sub-directories. Whatever be the case, the complete URL for any web-based document being cited should be included in the reference note. If it is necessary to divide a URL over two lines, it is best if the break comes immediately after a slash. Regardless of where the break is made, a hyphen should never be added.

In view of the above discussion about special concerns to be taken into account when preparing reference notes for electronic sources, and in view of the discussion earlier in this chapter of elements to be included in reference notes for print sources, we can now turn our attention to the main elements for a reference note on a citation from or a reference to an electronic source. In the generic description which follows, an effort has been made to provide a logical ordering of the likely elements for several types of electronic sources as a general model — which is in several ways similar to the format for reference notes on print sources:

Author's name/"article or document title"/*title of any larger document or ebook*/edition or version/name of editor, compiler or translator/facts of publication — volume, number (year) and page number for a citation from an online periodical; (year) and page number for a citation from a

different document or an online book/name of database, medium and date of publication, if applicable/complete URL (day, month and year of access).

The elements listed should be presented in the order shown. For a footnote or endnote, the slashes in the above example should be replaced by commas, while for bibliographical entries, the slashes should be replaced by full stops. For notes, the author's name should be given in the normal order; for bibliographical entries, the author's surname (or name by which the author is usually known) should be given first, followed by a comma. For both notes and bibliographical entries, the title of the article or document should always be given within quotation marks, and the title of any larger document or ebook in which the article or document cited appears should always be given in *italics* (underlined if *italics* are not available). If a database is used, the name of the database should be given in *italics* (underlined if *italics* are not available), the medium of the database should be indicated (CD-ROM, diskette, or magnetic tape) and the date of publication should be provided. All dates should be given within parentheses and in the order shown, with the date of access given last, followed by a full stop.

Some reference notes for electronic sources will require additional elements — such as reference notes for reviews and multi-volume documents — while other reference notes may have fewer elements, such as reference notes for emails. Generally, where additional elements are to be included, these can be added in the same logical order as for print sources discussed earlier. Similarly, where no author's name is given, the name of the sponsoring organization may be given as author, or the reference note can begin with the title of the document. While the elements to be included in a reference note for an electronic source should always be presented in the order shown in the above generic example, a reference note will not necessarily include all of these elements — for example, the name of an editor, compiler or

translator will not apply to many documents. Where some elements for a reference note are not provided in the online source material, the researcher should include all available elements. The objective should be to provide reference notes which are as accurate and complete as possible and which, thereby, not only document the sources cited but also enable readers to easily locate those sources as part of our knowledge sharing and knowledge building enterprise.

A few examples are given below to illustrate how the above general logic is applied in preparing footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries for some different types of electronic sources. In these examples, the footnote and endnote form is denoted by 'N', and the bibliographical form by 'B'. For footnotes and endnotes the first line is indented; additional lines after the first line may extend to the left and right margins; for bibliographical entries, the first line is not indented, but additional lines are indented so that the name of the author/ editor/ compiler can be easily located. The number at the beginning of each 'N' entry in the following examples represents the footnote/endnote number for that reference. For the 'B' entry, no number is given; the bibliography should be organized alphabetically without numbers for individual authors. Comments below each example will draw attention to some concerns which should be kept in mind when preparing reference notes for electronic sources. The comments for each example are not exhaustive but, taken together, they should help not only to explain these examples but also to provide guidance for preparing reference notes on a wide variety of electronic sources. For the examples below we shall begin with electronic sources which are in some ways most similar to print sources and then consider somewhat different web-based sources.

1. An article in a periodical on a CD-Rom:

- N 1. H. Jai Singh, "Christian Faith Amidst Religions in India," *Response* (May 1972): 6-10, *Response Magazine 1969-1998* (1999), CD-ROM, Vol. 1.
- B Jai Singh, H. "Christian Faith Amidst Religions in India." *Response* (May 1972). *Response Magazine 1969-1998* (1999). CD-ROM. Vol. 1.

(The above is an example of a reference note for an article in a CD-ROM database containing complete volumes of a periodical extending over several years. The author of the article is listed in this database simply as H. Jai Singh. Some readers will recognize the writer to be Herbert Jai Singh. However, the author's name in the reference note should appear either as given in the source or, where further identification is deemed important, with the part of the name not provided in the source enclosed within square brackets to indicate a change made by the writer of the research report — for example, H[erbert] Jai Singh. *Response* is the official monthly magazine of United Methodist Women, and this CD-ROM contains thirty volumes covering the period of 1969-1998. While the above notes for the article in its electronic form, the article appeared earlier in print form, in the May, 1972, issue on pages 6-10. It is therefore helpful to provide reference data on the original print version, as given in the database [hence, '*Response* (May 1972): 6-10.']. No volume or issue number was provided in the database. The database is *Response Magazine 1969-1998*; since it is in CD-ROM format, this needs to be stated in the reference note. This database was published in 1999 as a five disc CD-ROM, each labeled as a different volume. We know from the above reference note that the article cited can

be found in Vol. 1 on this CD-ROM. Since this article is from a CD-ROM, the matter of providing a URL is not applicable. This would also be true when citing from a database of any periodical collection in CD-ROM format. Also, for this type of CD-ROM material, which is not subject to later modification, no date of access is needed.)

2. An article in an online periodical:

N 2. Arundhati Roy, "Confronting Empire," *Frontline* 20/3 (1-14 Feb 2003): 2 of 7, <http://www.flonnet.com/fl2003/stories/20030214007313000.htm> (7 Feb 2003).

B Roy, Arundhati. "Confronting Empire." *Frontline* 20/3 (1-14 Feb 2003). <http://www.flonnet.com/fl2003/stories/20030214007313000.htm> (7 Feb 2003).

(This article is Arundhati Roy's address at the World Social Forum in Brazil in January 2003, as published in the online version of *Frontline*. Facts of publication were shown online as Volume 20, Issue 3, for February 1-14, 2003. To economize on use of space, this information is provided in the above reference notes in shortened form, "20/3 (1-14 Feb 2003)". The next piece of information in the 'N' note ('2 of 7') tells us that no page numbers were provided in the online version, that the article was downloaded into print form consisting of seven pages, and that the citation from this article is found on the second page. The complete URL is given next, and the date of access is provided. Later researchers who desire to see this article might find it still available at the above URL; if not, or if they do not have access to the Web, they would know where to look in the print (hard copy) version of *Frontline* since the facts of publication for that version have been provided.)

3. An article in an online newspaper — author given:

N 3. Jeremy Seabrook, "Clinical depression: Intellectuals and the Left," *The Statesman* (19 Jan 2003), <http://www.thestatesman.net/page.arcview.php?date=2003-01-19&cldid=4&id=9790> (7 Feb 2003).

B Seabrook, Jeremy. "Clinical depression: Intellectuals and the Left." *The Statesman* (19 Jan 2003). <http://www.thestatesman.net/page.arcview.php?date=2003-01-19&cldid=4&id=9790> (7 Feb 2003).

(These are reference notes for an article by Jeremy Seabrook, as found in the online version of *The Statesman* published on 19 January 2003. No page numbers were provided. These reference notes are for the article, not for a citation from the article. The complete URL for this article has been provided, followed by the access date. From the URL we can recognize that the article was found in the newspaper's archive ["arcview"] where it will presumably be available at this URL for other researchers at a later date.)

4. A signed article online, from a dictionary in its second edition:

N 4. S. Wesley Ariarajah, "Dialogue, interfaith," *Ecumenical Dictionary*, 2nd ed. (2002), <http://www.wcc-coe.org/wcc/who/dictionary-article1.html> (8 Feb 2003).

B Ariarajah, S. Wesley. "Dialogue, interfaith." *Ecumenical Dictionary*. 2nd ed. (2002). <http://www.wcc-coe.org/wcc/who/dictionary-article1.html> (8 Feb 2003).

(In this reference note, the title of the article is given as found online. The *Ecumenical Dictionary* is a publication of the World Council of Churches. The entire *Dictionary* is not

currently online. However, for 2003, twelve articles have been selected to be placed online — beginning with the above article placed online in January, with an additional article to be added each month.)

5. An online article or scholarly paper posted at an organization's website:

N 5. A. Wati Longchar, "Globalization and Its Challenges for Theological Education," Christian Conference of Asia — Featured Paper, <http://www.daga.org/cca/resources/papers/issues/glob-wati.htm> (8 Feb 2003).

B Longchar, A.Wati. "Globalization and Its Challenges for Theological Education." Christian Conference of Asia — Featured Paper. <http://www.daga.org/cca/resources/papers/issues/glob-wati.htm> (8 Feb 2003).

(The above paper was found on the web site of the Christian Conference of Asia as a "Featured Paper" on the access date given above. No date or other publication information was provided. Some would argue that, at least technically, it is not necessary to include "Christian Conference of Asia — Featured Paper." However, this information identifies the organization sponsoring the electronic publication of this paper, would be of interest to some readers of a research report, and could help a later researcher know where to look for a print version of this paper if s/he finds that it is no longer available online.)

6. Report of a Commission:

N 6. *Commission on Intellectual Property Rights: Integrating Intellectual Property Rights and Development Policy — Final Report* (2002), http://www.iprcommission.org/graphic/documents/final_report.htm (8 Feb 2003).

- B *Commission on Intellectual Property Rights: Integrating Intellectual Property Rights and Development Policy — Final Report* (2002). http://www.iprcommission.org/graphic/documents/final_report.htm (8 Feb 2003).

(As the above reference notes indicate, the name of the Commission is included as part of the title in the online report. The Commission was "set up by the British government to look at how intellectual property rights might work better for poor people and developing countries." The full report is posted at the Commission's web site "as a means of explaining the work of the Commission and providing access to the final report and supporting documents, which can all be downloaded from this site." The Report consists of eight chapters plus appendixes, and can be downloaded in PDF [Print Document Format], HTM [Hypertext Markup], or as a Word file. The PDF provides page images of the original Report, but HTM and Word file do not. A researcher making citations from a downloaded HTM or Word version should indicate which version s/he is using since page references would not be the same as page references to the same citations in PDF or the Report in print format — for example, Chapter 1 in PDF consists of 18 pages; as a Word file, 20 pages, and in HTM, 21 pages.)

7. An online government document:

- N 7. "Selected Indicators of Human Development For Major States," *Government of India Economic Survey 2001-2002*, <http://indiabudget.nic.in/es2001-02/tables.htm> (8 Feb 2003).
- B "Selected Indicators of Human Development For Major States." *Government of India Economic Survey 2001-2002*. <http://indiabudget.nic.in/es2001-02/tables.htm> (8 Feb 2003).

(The above is one of eighty-nine documents which can be accessed from the web page at the above URL address. The reference notes provide all of the essential information — name of the document, name of the larger document of which it is a part (including the relevant date, which is part of the title), the URL, and the date of access. Although “www.” is not part of the domain name, I found that in this case the URL will work with, or without, ‘www.’)

8. An online book:

- N 8. *Noam Chomsky: A Life of Dissent*, by Robert Barsky, <http://cognet.mit.edu/Books/chomsky> (8 Feb 2003).
- B *Noam Chomsky: A Life of Dissent*. Robert Barsky. <http://cognet.mit.edu/Books/chomsky> (8 Feb 2003).

(The above references are to the electronic version of *Noam Chomsky: A Life of Dissent*, a biography by Robert Barsky. No facts of publication are provided for this “latest electronic version.” At the time of access, this book could be read online, but it was not a downloadable document. No page numbers were provided. However, chapter numbers, and numbered sections within chapters, were provided and these could be used for referencing citations in the absence of page numbers — for example, ‘Sec 2 of Ch 4’. Technically, the name of the author could have been given first in the above notes. However, when a work is about a well known public figure it is often desirable to give the title of the work first.)

9. An email:

- N 9. Victor Samuel, “Dalit Movement Growing” (6 Nov 2002), Personal Letter to the author (10 Nov 2002).

- B Samuel, Victor. "Dalit Movement Growing" (6 Nov 2002). Personal letter to the author (10 Nov 2002).

(For reference notes, the name of the sender of an email is given first, followed by the title of the message as indicated in the subject line (within quotation marks), followed by the message date, a description of the message that includes the recipient [for example, 'Personal letter to the author'], and date of access if different from the date of the message. To protect privacy, the email address of the sender should not be included.)

10. A scholarly paper online at a website different from the publisher of the print version:

- N T.K. Oommen, "Religion as a source of Violence: A Sociological Perspective," *Ecumenical Review*, 53/2 (Apr 2001): 168-179, American Theological Library Association Serials Project, http://63.136.1.23/pls/eli/eli_bg.superframe?PID=n0013-0796_53_02_cov2 (29 Jan 2003).
- B Oommen, T.K. "Religion as a source of Violence: A Sociological Perspective." *Ecumenical Review*, 53/2 (Apr 2001): 168-179. American Theological Library Association Serials Project. http://63.136.1.23/pls/eli/eli_bg.superframe?PID=N0013-0796_53_02_cov2 (29 Jan 2003).

(Shown above are reference notes for the electronic version of a paper by T.K. Oommen originally published in print form in *Ecumenical Review*. The facts of publication for the original print version are included in the reference note, as given online. The sponsor of the electronic publication is given next ['American Theological Library Association Serials Project']. In this case, the Serials Project is a current, on-going program of the ATLA to make selected journals available online to its member

institution, and no date for the electronic publication of this paper was provided. The above URL is for the web page of the Table of Contents of the volume containing Oommen's paper; from there, the user can access this paper [and other articles in the same volume]. Access is restricted to member institutions. Researchers desiring to use such electronic resources having restricted access should consult with their librarian for a User ID and Password.)

The above examples illustrate some of the variety of electronic sources, some of the main concerns to be kept in mind when preparing reference notes for such sources, and some of the ways these concerns can be dealt with. It is hoped that in view of these examples and the general logic for preparing reference notes, users of this manual will be in a position to prepare suitable reference notes for the electronic sources they draw upon in their research.

The above examples are illustrative, but certainly not exhaustive, and some guides may suggest other ways for preparing reference notes. As noted earlier, a helpful guideline is clarity and consistency in whatever style is followed. Guidelines for referencing electronic sources are still in their developmental stages, and the author would welcome comments and suggestions regarding ways by which reference notes for electronic sources can be more suitably and clearly prepared.

Common Abbreviations

As a general rule it is preferable to avoid the use of abbreviations in the text. However, abbreviations are useful in footnotes, endnotes, textnotes and bibliographies to provide information with economy in the use of space. Listed below are some of the more commonly used abbreviations, shown in their standard form, along with their meaning. For those which are abbreviations of foreign words, their full form is given

within parentheses. Note that those italicized should normally be italicized or underlined (following the practice that foreign words and their abbreviated forms are italicized or underlined — except when part of a quotation in that language, or when the word has become generally accepted in the English language). Also, those capitalized should always be capitalized, while those not capitalized here should be capitalized only when they are used to begin a sentence, footnote or endnote. The abbreviations “id.” and “loc. cit.” are not included in the following list because the use of these is no longer recommended. These two abbreviations have often been incorrectly used, and their purpose can normally be better served by the use of a short title or, under limited conditions, “ibid,” or “op.cit.” Since the following abbreviations are in standard use, it is not necessary to give their meaning when using them. Obviously, where standard abbreviations are available, these should be used. When none of the commonly accepted abbreviations will meet a writer’s needs, the writer may develop his or her own abbreviations. As an aid to the reader, such abbreviations, along with their full meaning, should be shown in a “List of Abbreviations” in the preliminaries. As far as possible, the meaning of such abbreviations should be self-evident so as to minimize the need for the reader to refer to the List of Abbreviations.

anon.	= anonymous
art., arts.	= article, articles
ca. (<i>circa</i>)	= about (used to give an approximate date — e.g. “ca. 1856”)
cf. (<i>confer</i>)	= compare (one source with another; not to be used in place of “see” or “see also”)
chap., chaps.	= chapter, chapters
col., cols.	= column, columns

- comp., comps. = compiler, compilers
- e.g. (*exempli gratia*) = for example (one illustration from among several of the same class)
- ed., eds. = editor, editors, edition, editions
- 2nd ed., 3rd ed. = second edition, third edition
- et al. (*et alii*) = and others (usually used to mean 'and other authors'. Note that a full stop is not placed after "et", as "et" is not an abbreviation.)
- etc. (*et cetera*) = and others of the same class, and so forth (but usage in scholarly writings is discouraged because of indefiniteness)
- f., ff. = and the following page(s) (but, mention of the exact pages is preferable — e.g., "pp. 42-49" rather than "pp.42 ff".)
- fig., figs. = figure, figures
- ibid. (*ibidem*) = same source/same work as cited in the immediately preceding footnote/endnote
- i.e. (*id est*) = that is to say (used to introduce a more complete, specific or alternative rendering of the immediately preceding point)
- infra* = below (refers to a later part of the text; "see below" is generally preferable)
- l, 11 = line, lines (but often best to spell out to avoid being mistakenly read as the numbers one and eleven)
- lit. = literally
- MS, MSS = manuscript, manuscripts
- N.B. (*nota bene*) = note carefully (give special attention to)

- n., nn. = note, notes (referring to footnotes or endnotes)
- n.d. = no date of publication given
- n.p. = no place of publication given, no publisher given
- no., nos. = number, numbers
- op. cit. (*opero citato*) = in the work cited (a work previously cited in the same research report; may be used where full citation has already been given on the same page; otherwise, it is preferable to give author's name and a short form of the title)
- p., pp. = page, pages
- para., paras. = paragraph, paragraphs
- passim* = here and there (at various places in the same work— e.g., "pp. 82, 104, *passim*")
- pt., pts. = part, parts
- rev. = revised, revised by, revision
- sec., secs. = section, sections
- [*sic*] = thus (used to indicate that an error in a quoted passage was in the original; placed immediately after the error; see examples on pp. 76, 224)
- supra* = above (refers to a previous portion of the text; "see above" is generally preferable)
- s. v. (*sub verba*,
sub voce) = under the word (or heading; used for making references to listings in encyclopaedias and dictionaries; for an example, see page 170, number 24)

trans.	=	translator, translated by
v., vv.	=	verse, verses
viz. (<i>videlicet</i>)	=	namely (used to introduce an amplification or explanation of an immediately preceding point)
vs. (<i>versus</i>)	=	against
vol., vols.	=	volume, volumes, as in "vol. 4", "vols. 1-4"

Abbreviations may also be used to refer to frequently used sources — for example:

ERE	=	<i>Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics</i>
IJT	=	<i>Indian Journal of Theology</i>
RSV	=	Revised Standard Version
ZAW	=	<i>Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft</i>

Biblical References

General references in the text to books and chapters of the Bible are normally spelled out, as shown in the following examples:

Jesus' Sermon on the Mount is found in Matthew, chapters 5-7.

Down through the centuries, mourners have found comfort and help in reciting and meditating upon the Twenty-third Psalm.

More exact references to biblical materials, in both the text and in the notes, are ordinarily made by the use of abbreviations rather than the full name of books to which reference is made, except for books with very short names. The general guideline is that book names of up to four letters in length are normally given in their full form; longer book names are given in an abbreviated form, normally of up to four letters. The following reference abbreviations are based on *The New Oxford Annotated Bible* (New Revised Standard Version) and *The New Interpreter's Bible*. While

some writers use abbreviations which are in some cases shorter than those shown below, clarity of reference should be given priority over economy of space. Note that to help reduce the amount of punctuation in exact scriptural references, and as an exception to the general rule, a full stop is not placed at the end of these abbreviation.

Old Testament

Gen	Genesis	EccI	Ecclesiastes
Exod	Exodus	Song	Songs of Songs
Lev	Leviticus	Isa	Isaiah
Num	Numbers	Jer	Jeremiah
Deut	Deuteronomy	Lam	Lamentations
Josh	Joshua	Ezek	Ezekiel
Judg	Judges	Dan	Daniel
Ruth	Ruth	Hos	Hosea
1 Sam	1 Samuel	Joel	Joel
2 Sam	2 Samuel	Amos	Amos
1 Kgs	1 Kings	Obad	Obadiah
2 Kgs	2 Kings	Jon	Jonah
1 Chr	1 Chronicles	Mic	Micah
2 Chr	2 Chronicles	Nah	Nahum
Ezra	Ezra	Hab	Habakkuk
Neh	Nehemiah	Zeph	Zephaniah
Esth	Esther	Hag	Haggai
Job	Job	Zech	Zechariah
Ps	Psalms	Mal	Malachi
Prov	Proverbs		

The Apocrypha

Add Esth	Additions to Esther
Bar	Baruch
Bel	Bel and the Dragon
1 Esdr	1 Esdras
2 Esdr	2 Esdras
Jdt	Judith

Let Jer	Letter of Jeremiah
1 Macc	1 Maccabees
2 Macc	2 Maccabees
3 Macc	3 Maccabees
4 Macc	4 Maccabees
Pr Azar	Prayer of Azariah and The Song of the Three Jews
Pr Man	Prayer of Manasseh
Sir	Sirach (Ecclesiastus)
Sus	Susanna
Tob	Tobit
Wis	Wisdom

The New Testament

Matt	Matthew	1 Tim	1 Timothy
Mark	Mark	2 Tim	2 Timothy
Luke	Luke	Tit	Titus
John	John	Philem	Philemon
Acts	Acts of the Apostles	Heb	Hebrews
Rom	Romans	Jas	James
1 Cor	1 Corinthians	1 Pet	1 Peter
2 Cor	2 Corinthians	2 Pet	2 Peter
Gal	Galatians	1 Jn	1 John
Eph	Ephesians	2 Jn	2 John
Phil	Philippians	3 Jn	3 John
Col	Colossians	Jude	Jude
1 Thess	1 Thessalonians	Rev	Revelation
2 Thess	2 Thessalonians		

References should be given in the following order: name of the book, number of the chapter or chapters, number of the verse or verses. The page number should not be given. A space should be left between the name of the book and the number of the chapter. The general rule for citing chapters and verses are: (1) Arabic numerals should be used; (2) References to a chapter and verses are separated by a colon; (3) References to continuous chapters or verses are separated by a short (em) dash, and (4)

References to chapters or verses which are not continuous are separated by a comma. The following examples illustrate these usages:

Deut 26:5-11	Deuteronomy, chapter 26, verses 5 through 11.
Amos 2:1,4,6-8	Amos, chapter 4, verses 1 and 4 and 6 through 8.
2 Sam 15:10; 2 Kgs 9:13	2 Samuel, chapter 15, verse 10, and 2 Kings, chapter 9, verse 13.
Luke 4-9	Luke, chapters 4 through 9.
1 Cor 13,15	1 Corinthians, chapters 13 and 15.
Gen 1:31a	Genesis, chapter 1, the first part of verse 31.

Sometimes the counting of chapters and verses in the RSV and other translations is different from the counting of verses and chapters in the standard texts in the original languages. In scholarly writings references should normally be given according to the numbering of chapters and verses in the standard texts in their original languages and scholarly translations.

Since various versions of the Bible are in use, a reference should be given to indicate which version is being used by the writer. If only one version is being used, this should be clearly indicated in either the preface, a footnote on the first page, or at some other suitable point in the preliminaries of the work—for example, "All scripture references refer to the Revised Standard Version of the Bible." If most of the references come from one version, a similar statement can be made in the preliminaries—for example, "Unless otherwise indicated, all scripture references refer to the New Revised Standard Version of the Bible."

A scriptural reference should appear on the same page in the text as the material cited or otherwise referred to, either in the text in parentheses—for example, "(Luke 16: 19-31)"—or, if preferred when using the author-title system, as a footnote or endnote.

If the reference is to a version different from the one mentioned at the beginning of the work, or if no version is cited at the beginning, then the version to which reference is made should be indicated along with the scripture reference — for example, "(Luke 16:19-31 NEB)" refers to the New English Bible, while "(Luke 16:19-31 RSV)" refers to the Revised Standard Version.

In addition to abbreviations for the names of books in the Bible, there are a large number of other abbreviations which are in common use among biblical scholars. The following are some of the main additional abbreviations which are widely used:

Ancient versions of the Old Testament:

Gk or Sept or LXX	Septuagint, Greek Version of the Old Testament
MT	Masoretic Text: Hebrew of the Old Testament in the form transmitted by Jews
Sam	Samaritan Hebrew text of the Old Testament
Syr	Syriac Version of the Old Testament
Tg	Targum, Aramaic Version of the Old Testament
Vg	Vulgate, Latin Version of the Old Testament

Other Abbreviations:

Apoc	Apocrypha
Aram	Aramaic (text or word)
ARV	American Authorized Version
Gk	Greek (text or word)
Heb	Hebrew (text or word)
Lat	Latin (text or word)
JB	Jerusalem Bible
KJV	King James Version
NT	New Testament

NEB	New English Version
NRSV	New Revised Standard Version
NIV	New International Version
or	indicates an alternative translation
OT	Old Testament
RSV	Revised Standard Version
Vs., Vss.	Version, Versions

Locus of Responsibility

It is the responsibility of the person preparing a course assignment, thesis, dissertation or other research report to prepare correct footnotes, endnotes, textnotes, bibliographical entries and reference abbreviations and to see that these are followed by the person who types the research report. Typists (or computer processors) will not necessarily be familiar with the rules for preparing these and may wish to introduce their own variations or short-cuts. This should not be permitted. It is the writer's responsibility to prepare accurate entries, and it is the responsibility of the person who does the typing or computer processing to reproduce these. Hence, the material given to a typist or computer processor should be in exactly the same format as it should appear when typed or printed.

Chapter 7

The Use of Quotations

The preparation of research reports, whether perhaps somewhat brief as in the case of course assignments and seminar papers, or considerably longer and more substantial presentations as in the case of theses and dissertations or other large reports, involves reporting on what are often extensive investigations. Such investigations normally include the examination of previous work done by others. When reporting on their investigations, researchers will sometimes want to refer to ideas and information from others by actually quoting what they have said. Indeed, research at the post-graduate level and beyond often requires the researcher to demonstrate awareness of what others have said on a subject. The use of quotations provides a means of referring directly to ideas, opinions and information from others in a way that provides both documentation and acknowledgement. As documentation, a quotation provides evidence for the thought attributed to others. And since the source of a quotation must be given, this provides acknowledgement of material from others. Such acknowledgements help to give integrity to one's research and avoid any appearance of plagiarism.¹

The following guidelines are provided to help draw attention to some of the main concerns related to using quotations in the most effective and acceptable way. More extended discussions will be found in guides such as those listed at the end of this manual.

(1) When to quote. During the course of an investigation researchers will frequently gather a large amount of material from

¹ Plagiarism is a serious offense. For some discussion of this, see Chapter 6, Introduction and n. 1.

the work of others. Since much effort may have been invested in gathering materials, and since these materials may contain some very striking statements, there is often a strong temptation to quote frequently and often at great length. However, it should be noted that a research report — whether a course assignment, thesis, dissertation or other report — is a work in which the writer presents his or her findings and normally includes some type of analysis and an argument for some type of interpretation on the basis of which certain conclusion are reached. This means that a research report is, ideally, an original piece of writing in which the author presents his or her argument in his or her own words. This further means that quotations should be used sparingly and judiciously to either document a point or to illustrate and amplify a point. A long series of quotations does not become a substitute for a well thought out argument; on the contrary, too frequent use of quotations can dangerously distract from the flow and development of an effective argument.

Here a comparison can be made with the construction of a sermon or speech. A 'sermon' or 'speech' which consists of only a series of stories may be entertaining, but not edifying. A research report — normally expected to be presented in the form of rational discourse — which consists of only a series of quotations is likely to be neither entertaining nor edifying. Therefore, when considering whether to quote, writers should first ask: Can I make the point more effectively in my own words? Will a quotation distract from the flow of my discussion? Would a paraphrase be more effective? If the answer to each of these is negative, then one may wish to use a direct quotation. Even so, however, it should be remembered that while a particular quotation may be appealing, its use will be effective only if it helps to strengthen an argument which is already being developed. Even though a quotation may be particularly striking in its own right, it will be quickly recognized as a 'space-filler' if it does not document, illustrate or amplify a point already being made.

(2) **How much to quote.** Since the purpose of a quotation is to either document or illustrate and amplify a point already being made, the material quoted should be sufficient to serve this purpose, but no more. Extraneous material, no matter how interesting or how well phrased, can detract from and compete with the flow and development of the report and the case which the writer is trying to make. Hence, material quoted needs to be carefully chosen so as to effectively serve its purpose. An overuse or misuse of quotations suggests that a writer has not carefully thought through what he or she wishes to say; on the other hand, a few brief, well-chosen quotations may help to provide that extra bit of support or illustration needed to make the presentation effective and persuasive.

(3) **Quote accurately.** Since the use of quotations in a research report means that an author is directly incorporating one or more statements made by another writer, it is of utmost importance that the quoted material be reproduced exactly as it appears in the original. Any change in the material quoted, whether accidental or deliberate, means that the writer is attributing to an author something which he or she did not say. Where such changes alter the meaning of what the writer said, this also involves falsification of evidence. Obviously, neither of these are acceptable. Observe how in the following example a difference of just one letter in one word can completely change the meaning of a statement:

He emphasized that the documents were worth noting.

He emphasized that the documents were worth nothing.

I have seen above error ('nothing' instead of 'noting') in a paper by a prominent church leader — which is a reminder that we all need to beware! It is the responsibility of the writer to exercise care in taking notes and in citing quotations when preparing the manuscript, and to meticulously check the final typescript, to avoid any problem of misrepresentation.

Exactness in reproduction applies to actual wording, spelling, capitalization and punctuation. For example, words which are spelled incorrectly in the original should be spelled the same way in the quotation. In such cases, the term '*sic*' ('so' or 'thus', as in the original) should be inserted after the wrongly spelled word, in brackets, to indicate that the mistake was in the original and is not the writer's error — as in an example noted in Chapter 3:

According to the report of the foreign visitor who came two weeks ago, his country "owed India 18 kores [*sic*] of rupees" as of the end of last year.

Sometimes a researcher may find a quotation used by another writer which the researcher would also like to use. As far as possible, such quotations should be checked against the original to ensure accuracy.

Occasionally a writer may be interested in using a quotation made by another writer from a writing in another language and based upon his or her own translation — for example, where a writer in English has quoted from a text in Kannada by making his or her own translation from the Kannada text. Obviously, it will be desirable, as far as possible, to check the translation against the original text to determine whether the translation has been faithful to the meaning of the original.

Within the above limitations, established usage permits a few minor changes where this helps with the structure and flow of material. The two most common are:

(a) *Changing the initial letter of the first word of a quotation.* When a quotation is not dependent on the rest of a longer sentence and forms a complete sentence as quoted, the quotation may begin with a capital letter even though in the original the first word of the quotation is not capitalized — for example:

Jesus replied to the Pharisees, "The kingdom of God is among you."

In the original (Lk 17:21), 'The' appears within a longer sentence and therefore is not capitalized.

However, when a quotation is a dependent part of a longer sentence and does not constitute a complete sentence standing alone, it should begin with a lower case letter:

As the Dar Es Salaam Statement of EATWOT rightly puts it, the development of theologies today should be guided by "a new vision of a theology committed to the integral liberation of persons and structures" arising out of participating in the struggles of the oppressed and the quest for a just world.

In the original, "a" is capitalized since it introduces a longer sentence of which the above quote is a part. In such cases, the initial letter of the quotation should always be given in lower case, even when in the original it is capitalized — unless, of course, the initial word is a proper noun, such as 'Jesus', which is always capitalized.

(b) *Capitalization following omitted material.* Sometimes it may be desirable to abbreviate a quotation by omitting some material from the original in order to improve readability or more clearly make a point (see section 6 below). Where the omission is followed by a complete sentence, the first word in the quoted sentence may be capitalized even though it is not the first word of the sentence in the original:

Amartya Sen has brilliantly argued that economics and ethics have a dual relationship: "[E]conomics . . . can be more productive by paying greater and more explicit attention to the ethical considerations that shape human behaviour and judgement . . . [S]ome of the insights used in economics in tackling problems of inter-dependence can be of substantial importance in dealing with complex ethical problems even when economic variables are not involved."

In the above example, the introductory sentence is set off from the quotation by a colon. In the original source from which the

above quotation is taken, the words "[E]conomics" and "[S]ome" appeared within longer sentences and therefore were not capitalized in the original. However, in the above quotation these two words appear at the beginning of what are complete sentences (even though some words from the original have been omitted) and are therefore capitalized. The square brackets are used to denote this distinction. While not always necessary, for scholarly and legal works the change is denoted by placing the capitalized letter in brackets so that a reader who wishes to look for the quotation in the original source will be aware of the change and thereby neither misguided nor having reason to believe that you have misquoted. But note that in some cases a more simple and direct structure of the sentence may make it desirable to add a connective in brackets rather than to introduce capitals:

Amartya Sen has brilliantly argued that "economics . . . can be more productive by paying greater and more explicit attention to the ethical considerations that shape human behaviour and judgement . . . [and] some of the insights used in economics in tackling problems of interdependence can be of substantial importance in dealing with complex ethical problems even when economic variables are not involved."

In the above example the introductory words and both parts of the quotation are blended into one continuous sentence. In this case, the first word in each part of the quotation is not capitalized since in both the original source and in the above example these appear within a longer sentence.

In both of the above examples some material has been omitted. Such omissions are indicated by the use of ellipsis points (. . .). For a discussion of ellipsis points, see Section 6.

(4) **Relation to the text.** Quotations may be incorporated in a research report in either a run in format, or a set off format.

(a) In a run in format, the quotation is included *within* the text and *enclosed* in quotation marks:

The spirit and hopes of India's transition from colonialism to independence is epitomized in Nehru's famous address to the Constituent Assembly just before midnight on 14th August 1947 during which he proclaimed, "At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom."

(b) In a set off format the quotation is *set off* from the main text *by indention*, without quotation marks. Quotations set off from the text are often called block quotations. Since they are already distinguished from the text by being set off, quotation marks are not used:

The spirit and hopes of India's transition from colonialism to independence is epitomized in Nehru's famous address to the Constituent Assembly just before midnight on 14th August 1947 during which he proclaimed:

Long years ago we made a tryst with destiny, and now the time comes where we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom. A moment comes, which comes but rarely in history, when we step out from the old and to the new, when an age ends, and when the soul of a nation, long suppressed, finds utterance. It is fitting that at this solemn moment we take the pledge of dedication to the service of India and her people and to the still larger cause of humanity.

Which format should be used? As a general guideline, brief quotations of five or six lines or less are given in the run in format, while longer quotations are usually indented, in the set off format. Occasionally a long quotation can be so skillfully woven into the text in a run in format that it better serves its purpose and appears less distracting than it would in a set off format. An exception to this would be where quoted material is being compared. Such

comparison may be facilitated if all quotations to be compared are set off from the main text, regardless of length. The discerning writer will need to decide which format will best serve his or her purpose, keeping in view the nature of the material, the purpose of the quotation, and the flow of thought in the research report.

With regard to how far quotations should be indented, see the section on "Indention" in Chapter 9.

(5) **Quotation marks.** When the run in format is followed, the quoted material is enclosed in double quotation marks. In case there is a quotation within the quotation, the main quotation is enclosed within double quotation marks and the quotation within the quotation is enclosed within single quotation marks:

According to E. Stanley Jones, the spirit of the Sat Tal Ashram in the Himalayas "may be gathered from the mottoes on the wall of our meeting-room: 'Leave behind all race and class distinction ye that enter here' — we felt the Kingdom of God is race - and class-blind, so our society must also be."

When the set off format is followed, the main quotation is not enclosed in quotation marks. However, double (not single) quotation marks are used to enclose any quotation within the quotation:

John Chrysostom was one of the church's most ardent campaigners against luxury in the midst of poverty during the Fourth Century A.D. In a sermon at Antioch, much to the discomfort of wealthy persons in his congregation, he declared:

"Anyone who would not work should not eat" (2 Thessalonians 3:10) But the laws of Saint Paul are not merely for the poor. They are for the rich as well We accuse the poor of laziness. This laziness is often excusable. We ourselves are often guilty of worse idleness. But you say, "I have my paternal inheritance!" Tell me, just because he is poor and was born of a poor family possessing no great wealth, is he thereby worthy to die?

When quoting from conversations and direct dialogue, the quoted material should be enclosed in quotation marks regardless of which format is used. However, if only a reference is made to what was said without quoting the actual words spoken, no quotation marks are used.

(6) **Omission of material within quotations.** At times a writer will find it desirable to abbreviate a quotation by omitting certain words, phrases or even whole paragraphs in order to more effectively make his or her point by eliminating material regarded as extraneous. Certain rules have been developed to indicate omissions and thereby avoid the appearance of misrepresenting the source cited.

The basic rule is that any omission — whether a word, phrase, sentence or whole paragraph — must be indicated by ellipsis point (. . .) which are placed on the line like full stops. This is to signal to the reader that certain material has been omitted. In typed material these ellipsis points are separated from each other, from the adjacent text and from any punctuation marks by either single or double spaces. Whichever spacing is used should be observed consistently throughout the report.

The number of ellipsis points to be used is determined by two general rules. The first applies when material is omitted at the beginning or within a sentence which has been quoted — in which case three ellipsis points are used. Other punctuation which appears on either side of the omitted material in the original and helps to express the sense of the quotation may be included. For example, some intellectuals believe that one of Marx's key ideas is expressed in the following passage from his writings:

Since we are dealing with the Germans, who are devoid of premises, we must begin by stating the first premise of all human existence and, therefore, of all history, the premise, namely, that men must be in a position to live in order to "make history."

A writer might wish to quote this in an abbreviated form to emphasize what he or she sees as the central idea:

One of the central ideas in Marx's thought is found in his argument that "we must begin by stating the first premise of all human existence . . . namely, that men must be in a position to live in order to 'make history.'"

Here the three ellipsis points indicate that some material has been omitted from within the quoted statement. Note that (1) the first word in the quoted material ("we") is not capitalized, indicating that it was not capitalized in the original and that one or more preceding words have been omitted, and (2) both the main quotation and the quotation within the quotation end after the word 'history' and therefore a single quotation mark and a double quotation mark are both needed after the word 'history'.

The second general rule regarding the number of ellipsis points to be used is related to the omission of the ending part of a sentence, or a whole sentence or more, or a whole paragraph or more. In such cases, four ellipsis points are used: three to signify omitted material and the fourth to indicate a full stop. Thus, a long sentence such as

The British, however, while encouraging them to adopt their life-styles, in order to provide markets for their goods, supported the conservative thinking among the new class which they were promoting, by encouraging among them pseudo-religious sentiments, ideas and prejudices based on the latter.

could be shortened to emphasize a central idea by omitting phrases near the beginning plus the ending part of the sentence:

The British. . . supported the conservative thinking amongst the new class which they were promoting. . . .

Note that the first three dots indicate an omission within the sentence; the parts of the sentence on each side of this ellipsis require each other and would be incomplete standing alone. On

the other hand, the second ellipsis (four dots) indicates an omission at the end of the sentence and a full stop. Had the original sentence ended with a question mark or an exclamation point, this mark could have been retained and three dots used for the ellipsis. For two other examples of using ellipsis points to signify omitted material, see Section 3(b) of this chapter.

Normally, an ellipsis of four points is adequate to indicate the omission of material at the end of a sentence, an entire sentence or a whole paragraph or more. However, if a quotation consists of two or more parts of prose which are widely scattered in the source (for example, scripture at the beginning and end of a chapter), a full line of ellipsis points can be used to indicate this. In the case of a quotation from poetry, a full line of ellipsis points is always used to indicate the omission of a full line or of several consecutive lines:

In the midst of foes I cry to Thee

.....

And beneath Thy wings may I find sheltering grace.

- (7) **Emphasizing part of a quotation.** Sometimes a writer may wish to emphasize or draw attention to a certain word or words in a quotation. This may be done by underlining or italicizing the concerned words. However, the reader needs to be informed that this emphasis has been added and does not appear in the original. This clarification may be given either in brackets following the underlined or italicized portion — for example, “[emphasis added]”, or in parentheses following the full quotation — for example, “(italics mine)”, or in the footnote or endnote or textnote which gives the source of the citation — for example, “Prabhakar, *op. cit.*, 27. Emphasis added.” Either “emphasis added” or “italics mine” are acceptable clarifications; whichever placement of the clarification is chosen should be used consistently throughout the research report.

Sometimes it may be desirable to point out that underlining or italics in a quotation were in the original and have not been added

by you. This may be similarly indicated by adding a phrase such as "italics in the original" or "Majumbar's emphasis" in the manner described above.

(8) **Citing sources when using quotations.** All direct quotations must be acknowledged by indicating the source. This may be shown by either using a reference number in the text to indicate the footnote or endnote in which the source is given when the author-title system is used, or by a brief reference in the text itself (a textnote) when the author-date system is used. Both forms are illustrated below where "A-T" refers to the author-title system and "A-D" to the author-date system. Since the exact placement of the source reference varies slightly depending upon whether the quotation is given in run in or set off format, these differences are noted.

(a) *Run in format.* When a quotation is given within a sentence, the source is referred to immediately after the closing quotation mark and before the rest of the sentence, as in the following examples:

A-T Bonhoeffer's phrase "when Christ calls a man, he bids him come and die"¹ excellently summarizes the essence of Christian discipleship.

Here the numeral "1" in superscript would refer to the first footnote or endnote in a course assignment or research paper, or chapter of a thesis or dissertation, in which the source of this quote is given. Subsequent quotations would be numbered consecutively throughout the paper or chapter (i.e., '2', '3', and so on). Normally, each chapter in a thesis or dissertation is treated as a separate unit with the first quotation in each chapter given the reference numeral '1' and subsequent quotations numbered consecutively. If superscript numerals are not available, reference numbers in the text can be given within parentheses, immediately after the quotation.

A-D Bonhoeffer's phrase "when Christ calls a man, he bids him come and die" (1959, 79) excellently summarizes the essence of Christian discipleship.

In the above example for the author-date system, the textnote "(1959, 79)" would refer to a book by Bonhoeffer listed in the bibliography as published in 1959, with the quoted material to be found on page 79 of that book. Since Bonhoeffer's name is already given in the text, it is neither necessary nor desirable to repeat his name in the textnote.

But when a quotation is given at the end of a sentence, the exact placement of the reference depends upon which reference system is being used. Under the A-T system the quotation ends with the required punctuation (full stop, question mark, or exclamation point), the closing quotation mark, and then the source reference:

A-T Thapar reminds us that we have frequently misunderstood our past because "in the conventional study of our past it was tended to be assumed that the theoretical aspect was the reality."²

When the A-D reference system is used, a quotation appearing in a *run in format* ends with the required ending quotation mark, the textnote, and a full stop:

A-D Thapar reminds us that we have frequently misunderstood our past because "in the conventional study of our past it was tended to be assumed that the theoretical aspect was the reality" (1975, 66).

(b) *Set off format.* When a quotation is used in the set off format, it will normally be a self-contained unit, without beginning and ending quotation marks. Quotation marks are unnecessary and would be redundant, since a distinction between the text and the quotation is made by use of the set off format: Under the A-T system, the appropriate final punctuation mark (full stop, question mark, or exclamation point) should be placed at the end, followed by the source reference. When the A-D system is used, the text note is placed at the end, after the full stop or other ending punctuation mark:

While many condemn communal violence and call for 'peace committees'. Chandra points toward a deeper understanding:

A-T [C]ommunalism is basically and above all an ideology, and politics based on that ideology, and not, in the main, communal rioting or communal violence, including its latest version, terrorism. The two are linked but basically the latter are episodic or conjectural consequences of the former; they are the concrete manifestations and products of the spread of communal ideology. Communal ideology can prevail without violence but communal violence cannot exist without communal ideology.³

A-D [C]ommunalism is basically and above all an ideology, and politics based on that ideology, and not, in the main, communal rioting or communal violence, including its latest version, terrorism. The two are linked but basically the latter are episodic or conjectural consequences of the former; they are the concrete manifestations and products of the spread of communal ideology. Communal ideology can prevail without violence but communal violence cannot exist without communal ideology. (1987, 317)

(9) **Paraphrase.** Quite often the point made in a quotation, and especially if the quotation is a long one, can be just as effectively made by a paraphrase — by restating the basic idea in different words. Quotation marks should not be used for a paraphrase, although they should be used within a paraphrase if an exact phrase from the source is maintained. But since a paraphrase is based directly upon the work of another person or persons, the source should be indicated by an appropriate source citation following one of the forms mentioned in Section 8 above.

Chapter 8

Illustrative Materials and Tables

For some research reports a writer may wish to use illustrative material, such as a map, to help the reader follow the subject matter being discussed. In the same report or in other reports a writer may wish to use numerical data, perhaps from his or her own research, to show the data base for the analysis and interpretation made in the report. Through the judicious use of such material it is often possible to make a research report not only more attractive but also more clear and persuasive. To paraphrase the old adage that "a picture is worth a thousand words," sometimes a well-conceived piece of illustrative material can communicate more clearly and forcefully than several paragraphs of prose.

For the most part, especially in theology, and in the humanities in general, writers of research reports have not utilized this communicative potential of illustrative material. One of the problems is that in some reports where writers have attempted to use illustrative materials, what is presented has sometimes been difficult to understand and has at times contributed to confusion rather than clarity. This is often because such writers, lacking experience in the use of illustrative materials and tables, did not follow some of the basic and simple guidelines for the effective presentation of such materials.

In this chapter we shall be concerned with elucidating some guidelines which help to make illustrative materials and tables clear and easily understood. A few illustrative examples will be provided. Whether one should use such materials and, if so, what

type, will depend upon one's discipline, area of research and nature of available data. Space does not permit a thorough discussion here; readers desiring a discussion which goes into greater detail are referred to materials listed in the bibliography at the end of this volume.

Guidelines Common to the Use of Illustrative Materials and Tables

There are certain guidelines which apply to the use of both illustrative materials and tables. In this section we shall discuss some of these before considering additional guidelines specific to illustrative materials, and to tables, in subsequent sections.

Before doing so, however, it may be useful to first define our basic terms. As used here, *illustrative materials* refers to maps, photographs, drawings, charts, graphs and similar matter; when used in research reports these are collectively known as "figures" and separately referred to as "Figure 1" or "Fig. 1", "Figure 2" or "Fig. 2" and so on. And as used here, *tables* refers to the presentation of information in numerical form — such as amounts, frequencies of occurrences and percentages — usually on two or more items or variables at the same time, arranged in rows and columns to facilitate easy comparison. Where numerical data is presented on only one item or variable, such as the number of men and women in Village X, a table may be unnecessary and superfluous. However, where numerical information is presented on several items or variables — such as the religious beliefs of men and women in Village X, Village Y and Village Z — a table provides a means of organizing this information in a compact, quantified and standardized form which makes it easy for readers to make comparison.

Illustrative materials and tables are, then, means of presenting information in graphic or numerical form to facilitate understanding, to provide additional details beyond those noted in the textual discussion, to show the basis for an interpretation made in the discussion, and to serve other similar purposes.

Placement. A figure or table should normally appear in the research report as soon as possible after the place where it is first mentioned in the text. Where possible, the paragraph in which its first mention occurs should be completed before the figure or table is presented. If the remaining space on a page is insufficient for presenting the figure or table, the text should be continued to the bottom of that page and the figure or table should be placed at the top of the next page. The main exceptions would be figures and tables which are not essential for supporting the argument being made in the text but which provide further details or supplementary data to which the interested reader may refer and which can therefore best be placed in an appendix. The criteria here should be to include in the main body of the research report figures and tables essential for the argument being made while at the same time maintaining a smooth flow in the development of thought, uninterrupted by non-essential material.

Margins. Pages on which figures and tables appear should at a minimum have the same margins as other pages — one and one-half inches on the left side and one inch on the top, bottom and right side. Figures and tables, including captions and any footnotes, may extend up to these margins but should not extend beyond them. Figures and tables which do not extend up to the left and right margins should normally be centred between these margins.

Pagination. The numbering of pages containing figures or tables should conform to the same guidelines as for other pages in the research report — that is, all pages in the main body of the text and any appendix should be numbered consecutively, using arabic numerals, whether or not some of these contain figures or tables. On pages containing figures or tables the page number should appear in its normal position — in the upper right corner, one inch from the top and one inch from the side, or centred at the top — even when a figure or table is presented in broadside style or on a foldout page (see below under “Large figures and tables”).

Abbreviations and symbols. The use of abbreviations and symbols in the text is generally discouraged. However, these may be used in figures and tables, except in titles, where saving space will make a figure or table more readable. Where standard abbreviations or symbols already exist, these should be used. Where standardized forms are not available, the writer may devise suitable abbreviations or symbols; if these are not self-explanatory, their meaning should be given in a note below the figure or table, or in a legend or scale placed within or beside the figure. When abbreviations or symbols are used, these should be consistent throughout the report.

Large figures and tables. A figure or table which is too large to be accommodated on a single page presents a special problem which can usually be satisfactorily resolved through one of the following ways:

Photoreduction. Many modern photocopying machines are equipped with facilities which make it possible to reproduce a large figure or table in a smaller size. Where such photoreduction makes it possible to accommodate a figure or table on a single page in a form which is easily read and understood, this is often the best solution.

Broadside style. Sometimes a figure or table which is too wide to be accommodated on a single page in the conventional position can be accommodated if placed lengthwise, facing the right hand side rather than the bottom of the page. This position is known as the *broadside* style. When this option is used, the figure or table should face the right side, no text should be placed on that page, and the page number should appear in its usual position.

Two facing pages. Sometimes a figure or table which is too large to be accommodated in broadside style can be accommodated on two facing pages. Where this option is used, the figure or table appears on the back of the first page (the other side of which remains blank) and on the front of the next page. Special attention will need to be given to make sure that the relevant

parts of the figure or table appearing on the two pages are in exact alignment.

A foldout page. Where photoreduction of a figure or table is not feasible and where the material cannot be accommodated in broadside style or on two facing pages, the figure or table can be placed on a larger sheet and folded. The sheet can be folded right to left; this fold should be not more than seven and one-half inches from the left side. If an additional fold is necessary, the fold should be at least one inch from the left side. If folding from top to bottom is necessary, the first fold should be not more than ten inches from the bottom of the sheet; a second fold, if necessary, should be at least one inch from the bottom of the sheet, and a strip one inch wide should be cut from the left side of the folded portion. Observance of these precautions will help to ensure that none of the folded material is caught when the report is stitched or otherwise bound, or cut off when the report is trimmed.

Additional Guidelines for Using Illustrative Materials

In addition to the above guidelines which apply to the use of both illustrative materials and tables, there are a few additional guidelines which should be followed when using illustrative materials such as maps, photographs, drawings, charts and graphs. As noted earlier, when these are used in a research report, they are collectively known as "figures" and in the text should be referred to as "Figure 1" or "Fig. 1", "Figure 2" or "Fig. 2" and so on rather than as, for example, "the first map", "Chart 1" or "the photograph on page 13".

Caption. Each figure should have a *caption* which, by convention, is placed *below* the figure with one blank line between the figure and the caption. A figure caption consists of two parts: a figure number, and a descriptive title. The figure number, always given with an arabic numeral, for the first figure should be "Figure 1" or "Fig. 1". Consecutive higher arabic numerals are used throughout the report for each additional figure. A full stop is

placed after the figure number, and after two blank spaces a brief title describing the subject matter of the figure is given. The first word in the title and all nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are capitalized. Since the description of the figure is given in the form of a title and not in the form of a complete sentence, a full stop is normally not placed after the title. A short caption of less than one line is centred below the figure. Longer captions are single-spaced, with each line extending the full width of the figure or up to the full width of the text. If the last line is less than a full line, it may be centred. Two specimens may be seen in Figures 3 and 4.

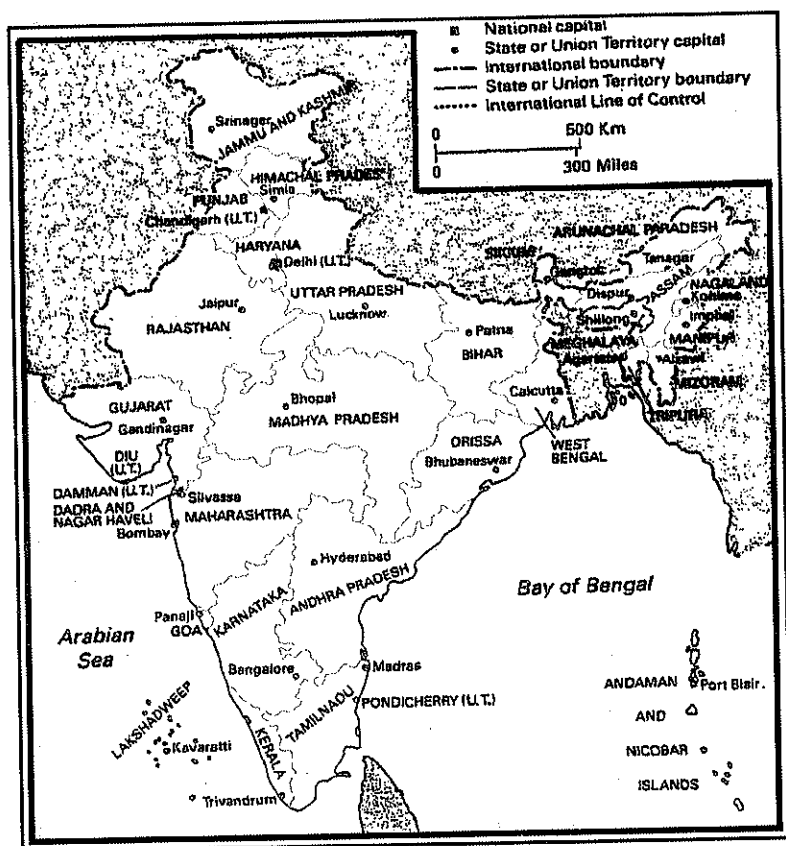


Figure 3. Political Map of India

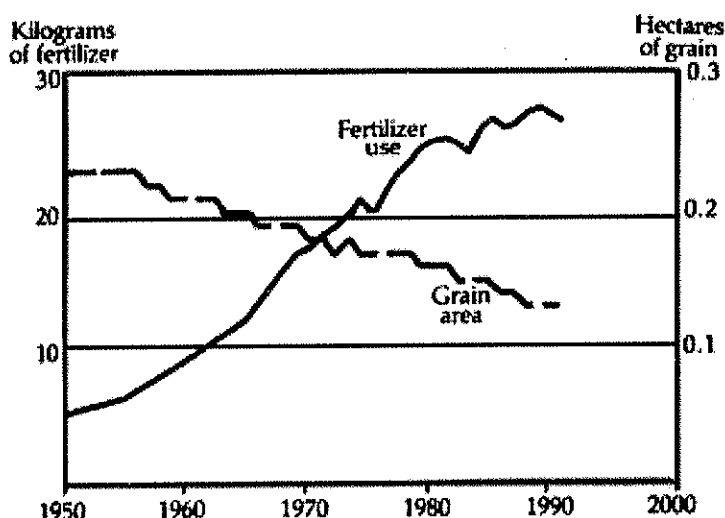


Figure 4. World Fertilizer Use Per Person and Grain Area Per Person, 1950-1991. Adapted from *Saving the Planet. How to Shape an Environmentally Sustainable Global Economy*, by Lester R. Brown, Christopher Flavin and Sandra Postel, The Worldwatch Environmental Alert Series (New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1991), 90.

Figure matter. A figure may consist of such things as a map, photograph, drawing, diagram, chart, graph or other schematic designs. Since the purpose of a figure is to communicate information, the figure should be clear and easily comprehended. Any words(s) or symbols in the figure should be clearly legible. Any term or symbol which is not in common usage or self-explanatory should be explained in a *legend* or *scale* which is normally included within the figure (see Figure 3 for one example). Where it is not possible or not feasible to include a legend or scale within a figure, these should be placed beside the figure. When a figure consists of a graph, normally the full horizontal and vertical scales should be shown. In some cases where the data cluster around the higher measures on the vertical scale it is permissible to show only part of the vertical scale (e.g., 40-100 rather than 0-100); if this is done, the vertical scale is not continuous from zero and this should be signified by a break in the vertical scale below the lower number shown.

Identification of parts. Where parts of a figure need to be identified, this can usually be done by incorporating the identification in the figure caption. For example, where the identification of persons in a photograph needs to be provided, this can be done after the descriptive title by adding an introductory label (italicized or underlined), followed by a colon — as in, for example, “Figure 8. Three Nationalist Leaders. *Left to right:* Jawaharlal Nehru, Mahatma Gandhi and Sardar Patel.” Where parts of other illustrations need to be identified, such as in a map or diagram, this can usually be satisfactorily accomplished by devising a similar scheme and using numbers or other reference symbols to refer to the different parts.

Acknowledgements. When a figure is taken from a work by another person, either in its original form or an adapted form, the source should be acknowledged. Similarly, when a figure such as a graph is based upon data from another person's work, this should be acknowledged. The use of photographs is normally acknowledged by giving the name of the person or agency which provided the photograph or gave permission for its use. These acknowledgements can be included under the acknowledgements section of the preliminaries (for an example, see the first entry under Acknowledgements for this manual which gives the source for Figure 3). Normally it is not necessary to acknowledge the source of illustrations which are the writer's own. However, in certain cases such as where most of the figures have been acknowledged in the preliminaries as from sources other than the writer, it would be appropriate to acknowledge a photograph taken by the author with a brief credit line such as “Photograph by the author”. Where a needed acknowledgement of a figure is not given in the preliminaries, an appropriate acknowledgement can usually be incorporated in the figure caption, after the descriptive title (see Figure 4 for one example).

Additional Guidelines for Using Tables

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that through the use of tables it is possible to organize and present a large body of numerical

data in a compact and standardized form which enables readers to readily see patterns and make comparisons. The word 'possible' has been deliberately chosen here. While the tabular presentation of data provides a means which has the *potential* of showing numerical data in a form that is easily understood, we often see tables which are either confusing or at best very difficult to understand. In such cases the problem is usually not the use of tables *per se* but the writer's failure to follow certain guidelines for the preparation of tables. In what follows attention will be given to some of the most important guidelines which apply to the preparation of tables. These are in addition to the general guidelines given earlier regarding the preparation of both illustrative materials and tables.

However, before considering additional guidelines, it may be helpful for users of this manual who have not had much experience with using tables to first give brief consideration to the use of tables and then to take note of specific guidelines. Readers who have some general familiarity with tables may wish to go directly to the discussion of specific guidelines which begins on page 246 with Caption.

A table is normally used to show in a concise form the relationship between two or more items (which social scientists call *variables*). The data for each item or variable can normally be placed in one or another of two or more *classes* (sometimes referred to as 'categories'). One of the purposes of preparing a table is to show how variation on one item or variable is related (or *not* related) to variation on another item or variable. It is not uncommon to find in popular journals listings such as the following as the outcome of a survey:

Number of men	2089
Number of women	1911
Favour ordination of women	1440
Oppose ordination of women	2560

Note, however, this is simply a *listing*. Such a listing does not require a table, for it does not attempt to demonstrate whether a person's opinion regarding ordination of women is associated with anything else such as whether that person is a man or women. Such a listing is not particularly useful and is often somewhat pretentious. The same information could have been communicated just as clearly and in less space if given in a single sentence — such as, "The survey covered 2089 men and 1911 women, of whom 1440 supported the ordination of women while 2560 were opposed." This tells us just as clearly that the views of men and women were almost equally represented and that a strong majority opposed the ordination of women. If this was all that one was interested in, the inquiry could stop here.

On the other hand, if we were interested in knowing whether men and women hold the same view about the ordination of women, the above information would be insufficient. It would be necessary to know the breakdown by sex — that is, how many men supported the ordination of women, how many were opposed, and the same for women. Assuming that this information is available, it could be useful to construct a table — which might look like Table 1.

Table 1. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex (Number)*

	Support	Oppose	Total
Men	648	1441	2089
Women	<u>792</u>	<u>1119</u>	<u>1911</u>
Total	1440	2560	4000

*The numerical data used here and in the remainder of this section are hypothetical and used only for purposes of providing these examples.

From Table 1 we can see that while a majority in each group opposed ordination of women, support for ordination was somewhat greater among women (792 out of 1911) than among

men (648 out of 2089). While this reveals that women are somewhat more likely to support ordination of women than men, the extent of this support is not entirely clear since the comparison is between groups which differ in size — 2089 men and 1911 women. This difficulty can be overcome by using percentages instead of actual numbers. This is done in Table 2 which provides a much clearer picture. While among both men and women a majority opposed the ordination of women, support for ordination was substantially larger among women: 41 percent versus just 31 percent for men.

Table 2. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex (percent)

	Support	Oppose
Men ($n = 2089$)	31%	69%
Women ($n = 1911$)	41	59

Table 2 is a fairly simple table in which two classes or groups (men and women) are compared with each other with regard to which of two positions they held about a selected issue (support for or opposition to the ordination of women). Sometimes this level of analysis may be all that is needed. At other times deeper analysis may be necessary to provide the desired level of understanding. For example, we might wish to gain insight on why among both men and women a substantial minority supported the ordination of women despite the fact that a substantial majority in each group held the opposite view. Out of a variety of possible contributing factors we might conjecture that views which people have on issues such as this tend to be associated with, among other things, their level of education. To determine whether this conjecture is supported by the empirical data it would be necessary to construct a more complex table which would disclose the relationship between sex, level of education and view on ordination of women. The resulting data might be as given in Table 3. This is a somewhat more complex table in which both

sex and level of education are treated as independent variables which influence people's opinion about ordination of women. While men tended to have less favourable views on the ordination of women, the data in Table 3 indicate that the opinions which people hold on this tend to be also related to their level of education. For example, among men with less than SSLC only 19.6 percent supported the ordination of women. However, at each higher level of education support for the ordination of women increased and this pattern is consistently true among both men and women.

Table 3. View on Ordination of Women, by Sex and Education

Sex		Support	Oppose	Total
Men (n=2089)				
-SSLC	(n = 856)	19.6%	80.4%	100%
SSLC	(n = 982)	36.7	63.3	100
Graduate	(n = 251)	47.8	52.2	100
Women (n=1911)				
-SSLC	(n = 1261)	35.8%	64.2%	100%
SSLC	(n= 535)	50.3	49.7	100
Graduate	(n = 115)	62.4	37.6	100

In such ways as the above tables can be helpful devices for analysing data, enlarging our understanding in many areas of research, and for presenting the results of such inquiries in the research report. To help ensure that tables are clear and easily understandable, there are certain guidelines which should be followed.

Caption. Each *table* must have a *caption* which, by convention, is placed *above* the table, with one blank line between the caption and the table. A table caption consists of two parts: a table number, and a descriptive title. The table number, always given with an arabic numeral, for the first table in a research report should be "Table 1". Consecutive higher arabic numerals should be used throughout the report for additional tables. A full stop is

placed after the table number. After two blank spaces a brief title describing the subject matter of the table is given. The first word in the title plus all nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are capitalized. Since the description of the table is given in the form of a brief title and not in the form of a complete sentence, a full stop is normally not placed after the title. A short caption of less than one line is centred above the table. Longer captions are single-spaced, with each line extending the full width of the table or up to the full width of the text. If the last line is less than a full line, it may be centred. For some specimens, see Tables 1-3.

Table matter. A table will normally consist of two main elements — the *stub*, and the *data columns*. Since the purpose of a table is to communicate information, all stubs and data columns, as well as captions, should be clear and easily comprehended. The following discussion will draw attention to some of the main considerations involved in constructing a table which can be easily understood.

The *stub* is the first vertical column in a table and consists of the names for the different classes or categories of the independent item or variable. For example, in Table 1 the terms 'men', 'women', and 'total' appear in the first column and these would be referred to as the stub of this table. Since these terms are self-explanatory, no heading is needed at the top of this column. However, when the names of the different classes or categories appearing in the stub are not self evident, an explanatory heading should be given. All class names and any heading used should always be clear and easily understood.

The other columns in a table are known as the *data columns*. In Table 1 these columns consist mainly of numerical data which indicate the responses or counts for each class or category of the dependent variable (support or oppose ordination of women) according to the classes or categories of the independent variable

(men and women) shown in the stub.¹ Since these numerical data are not self-explanatory, brief headings representing classes or categories of the dependent variable are required — such as in Table 1 where 'Support', 'Oppose', and 'Total' appear as headings of the three data columns.

Spacing. Sufficient space should be left between columns so each column can be easily read, yet not so much space that comparison of data in different columns is difficult. The horizontal lines are known as *rows*. Rows may be single-spaced or more widely spaced, depending on the nature of the data and which arrangement will make it most readable. When the tabular presentation of data is grouped, as in Table 3, single-spacing for each subdivision within each group and double-spacing between groups is often appropriate. When items in the stub are subdivided, the subdivisions should normally be indented three spaces. When totals are given in the data columns, as in Table 1, the heading 'Total' should be placed in the stub as the last line, indented three spaces.

Alignment. In order for a table to be easily read, all information within the table should be properly aligned. Names of classes or categories listed in the stub should be left-justified, and any subdivisions of these should be indented three spaces (see Table 3 for an example). Numbers in the data columns should be right justified. When numbers in the data columns are expressed in decimal form, all numbers should be expressed in the same number of decimal digits (normally not more than one) and aligned on the decimal points. Column headings should be centred over their respective columns.

Percentages and base numbers. When numbers in the data columns are expressed as *percentages*, a percent sign ("%") should

¹ 'Independent' and 'dependent' are terms used by social scientists to indicate which variable may be regarded as perhaps influencing the value on another variable. One guideline is the time factor: For Variable A to be regarded as an independent variable having an effect upon Variable B as a dependent variable, Variable A must act or exist before Variable B. For example, Table 1 provides data on the relationship between sex and opinion on ordination of women. Sex is a quality possessed by

be placed immediately to the right of the first percentage figure in each data column; if there is a break in the data column, a percent sign should also be placed immediately to the right of the first percentage figure after the break (see Tables 2 and 3 for examples). When percentages are used, the actual number of which each percentage is a part (also known as the *base number*) should be given so that interested readers will be able to calculate the number which each percentage represents. This information is provided by placing at the appropriate location and within parentheses the symbol 'n' (for number), followed by the equal sign and the base number (see Tables 2 and 3 for examples).

Omissions. If a row for any data column is blank, a dash or double hyphen should be placed in that space to indicate that this is a blank and not an inadvertent omission. Where all figures are in large numbers such as lakhs or crores, space can be saved by omitting the relevant zeros and mentioning this at the end of the caption in parentheses — as, for example, “(All numbers in lakhs)”.

Lines. A horizontal line should be placed the full width of the table (1) between the caption and the beginning of the table, (2) between the column headings and the remainder of the columns, and (3) at the bottom of the table. Sufficient space should be left on each side of these lines so that all material can be easily read and so that these lines do not have the effect of making any words appear to be underlined. Where totals are given, a horizontal line should be placed across the columns above each total (see Table 1 for an example). As a general rule, vertical lines are not necessary in tables. In certain cases such as large tables where some columns are close together, one or more lines may be desirable to facilitate

persons from birth; their opinions about ordination of women are formed much later. It is therefore reasonable to think of sex as possibly one factor having some influence on persons' opinions on ordination of women — in which case sex can be regarded as an independent variable, and opinion about ordination of women can be regarded as a dependent variable. It would not be reasonable to expect the opposite relationship — that persons' opinions about ordination of women influence their sex.

easier reading. However, the trend is not to use vertical lines unless absolutely necessary so that the table will appear as 'clean', spacious and uncluttered as possible.

Acknowledgements. When data in one or more tables has been taken from another source and is not the writer's own, the source(s) should be acknowledged. When the source(s) for several tables need to be acknowledged, this can be done in the general acknowledgements in the preliminaries. If data for only a few tables need to be acknowledged, this can be done in a *source note* which should begin immediately below the table after one blank line with the word "Source(s)" followed by a colon and then the note in the same form as used for a footnote or endnote — for example:

Source: J.P. Naik, *Policy and Performance in Indian Education* 1947-74 (New Delhi: Orient Longman, 1975), 85-94.

Footnotes. Sometimes it is desirable to make a comment or provide an explanation about a table or a part thereof, none of which may seem appropriate within the table or the text. Such comments can be made in a *table footnote* (see Table 1 for one example). If table footnotes are used, these should begin below the table, leaving an extra half space between the bottom of the table and the first line of the footnote. Each footnote should be single-spaced. If there is more than one footnote, an extra half space should be left between each. Non-numeric reference symbols should be used to distinguish table footnotes from text footnotes or endnotes. Commonly used reference symbols are the asterisk (*), number sign (#), and lower case letters of the alphabet. Where there is more than one footnote, the same symbol can be doubled or tripled (e.g., **, ***) or a combination of the above symbols can be used (e.g., *, #, a). Whichever system is used should be followed consistently throughout the research report.

Chapter 9

Format of the Research Report

When presenting a research report, there are a number of format conventions which the writer should follow. These conventions serve as guidelines which can help to provide a logical and sequential framework. Adherence to these practices will not only help the writer to organize and present his/her materials; it will also facilitate others' reading and interpretation of the report.

A research report normally has three parts: the preliminaries, the text, and the reference material. The length of each part will depend upon the type of research report. For a long research report, each of these three parts may consist of several sections; for a short report, such as for a course assignment, the only material preceding the text may be the title of the report and the name of the author.

Each of the three main parts of the research report may consist of several components which should appear in the order given below. Some reports will require more components than others, but the order shown should be strictly followed, regardless of which components may be omitted unless specified otherwise by the conventions of a discipline.

The Preliminaries

Title page

Acknowledgments

Preface

Table of Contents
List of Illustrations
List of Tables
List of Abbreviations
Glossary

The Text

Introduction
Main body of the report
Conclusion

The Reference Material

Appendix(es)
Bibliography

In this chapter we will consider important guidelines for preparing each component and then take up some general guidelines which apply to all parts of the research report. The discussion here is directed toward preparation of research reports within an academic setting. When preparing research reports in other settings, the writer will need to keep in mind the purpose of the report, the 'audience' or readership for which it will be prepared, and make adaptations as appropriate.

The preliminaries

Title page. For course assignments, the title page should normally include the exact title of the research report, the name of the author, the name of the course for which the assignment was prepared, the name of the college or seminary, and the date on which the report is due or submitted. For theses and dissertations, the title page should include the exact title, the name of the author, the degree for which the thesis or dissertation is submitted, and the year of submission.

The title of the report should be centred in upper case letters near the top margin. If the title is too long to be centred on one line, an inverted pyramid form should be followed without splitting words. The name of the author should be centred at the

middle of the page, and the remainder of the material should be centred near the bottom of the page. All material should be centred between margins of at least one and one-half inches or more on the left side and one inch or more on the right side; there should be a margin of at least two inches between the top edge of the page and the first line of the title, and a margin of at least one inch between the date and the bottom edge of the page. For some examples, see Figures 5 and 6 at the end of this chapter.

Acknowledgements. Acknowledgements are normally included in theses and dissertations, but not in course assignments, to thank mentors, colleagues and others who have provided guidance and significant help, and to give credit to institutions which provided funds or other resources. It is not necessary to give an expression of formal thanks for routine help provided by others. The heading ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS should appear in upper case letters, centred over the text, on the first page of this part of the research report.

Preface. A preface may be included in theses and dissertations and other long research reports to provide certain general material about the study — such as the context out of which it originated and other background information — which the author believes may be of interest to readers but which is not included in the introduction to the text. If acknowledgements are brief, these may be included in the preface. However, if the writer has nothing of significance about the study to add to what is included in the text and wishes only to acknowledge the help received, these comments should appear under an acknowledgements section. If a preface is included, the heading PREFACE should appear in upper case letters, centred over the text, on the first page of this part of the research report. A preface is not normally included in shorter reports such as course assignments.

Table of contents. A table of contents is necessary in theses and dissertations, but normally is not needed for shorter reports such as course assignments. The table of contents lists all parts of the research report except the title page. If the

chapters are grouped in parts, the headings of these (e.g., PART I. THE FREEDOM MOVEMENT) are also included in the table of contents. Subheadings within chapters, and subdivisions of these, may or may not be included.

The purpose of the table of contents is to provide an overview of the report and to facilitate easy access to its component units. There is much latitude regarding both the amount of information included and the way in which this is presented. The relationship between the different units should be shown by an appropriate system of capitalization, indention and numbers. Some ways in which this can be done are described below; specimens illustrating these are shown in Figures 7-10 at the end of this chapter.

The title of all parts, chapters and sections should follow the same wording as used in the body of the report. The normal rule on capitalization is as follows: For the title of all major divisions (acknowledgements, preface, table of contents, list of illustrations, list of tables, list of abbreviations, glossary, introduction, parts, chapters, appendix(es) and bibliography) capitalize all letters (e.g., ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS); for centred subheadings, capitalize the initial letter of the first word and all nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs; for further subdivisions, capitalize the initial letter of the first word and of all proper nouns.

Whether subheadings should be included in the table of contents depends upon the extent to which their inclusion will facilitate readers gaining an overview of the research report and locating specific sections. If subheadings are included, they should be indented three spaces from the left edge of the chapter title. If further subdivisions are included, they should be indented an additional three spaces. If any subheading is longer than one line, the second line of the subheading should be indented three spaces from the left edge of the first line.

Numbers in the table of contents for parts and chapters should be given as they appear in the text. Part numbers may be either upper case roman numerals (e.g., PART I) or spelled-out numbers

(e.g., PART ONE). Chapter numbers may be arabic or upper case roman numerals, or spelled out numbers (e.g., Chapter 1 or Chapter I or Chapter One). Subheadings may or may not be numbered; if numbered, either arabic numerals or lower case roman numerals within parentheses or lower case letters within parentheses may be used (e.g., 1, or (i), or (a)). For some illustrations, see Figures 7-10 at the end of this chapter; for further discussion on numbering sections, see the discussion on sections and subsections below.

A chapter number in a table of contents is always followed by a full stop, and the various chapter numbers are aligned on these full stops. For some examples, see Figures 7-10 at the end of this chapter.

Page numbers are normally given in the table of contents for the beginning page of each of the preliminaries other than the title page, for any introduction if that is not treated as a chapter, and for each chapter, appendix(es) and the bibliography. These page numbers should be justified right (made flush with the right margin), following a line of full stops between each title and the number of the page on which that part of the research report begins. If the text is divided into parts, the part-titles appear in the table of contents, centred, but without page numbers. Page numbers for subheadings within chapters may be either given or omitted; if page numbers are given for subheadings under one chapter, they should be given for subheadings under all chapters.

List of illustrations. The list of illustrations is an inclusive listing of all maps, photographs, drawings, charts, graphs and other illustrative materials included in long research reports such as theses and dissertations. As noted in Chapter 8, in research reports these illustrative materials are collectively known as "figures" and separately referred to as "Figure 1" or "Fig. 1", "Figure 2" or "Fig. 2" and so on. Each illustrative item is given a caption (a figure number, and a descriptive title), and each caption is listed in the

list of illustrations. This listing should be presented under the heading **LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS** in upper case letters, centred, near the top margin. Two or more lines below the heading the subheadings Figure and Page should be given, flush with the left and right margins respectively. A figure number in a list of illustrations should be given with an arabic numeral, which should be followed by a full stop, and the various figure numbers should be aligned on these full stops. The descriptive title part of a caption in a list of illustrations should be given in the same form as used for the figures in the text, except for long titles which may be given in a shortened form. If a caption is longer than one line, the additional line(s) should be indented three spaces. After each caption there should be a line of full stops, and the number of the page on which the figure appears should be given flush with the right margin. For a sample, see Figure 11 at the end of this chapter.

List of tables. The list of tables follows the same format as for a list of illustrations, except that table captions should always be given in their complete form (never shortened). For a sample, see Figure 12 at the end of this chapter.

List of abbreviations. A list of abbreviations is useful when a report contains abbreviations which the writer has devised or which may otherwise not be generally accepted or not likely to be familiar to the anticipated readers. In the text the spelled-out version of a term should be given the first time the term is used, followed by the abbreviated version in parentheses — for example, “Board of Theological Education (BTE)”. In later references the abbreviated version may be used. In the preliminaries the various abbreviations should be presented under the heading **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS** in upper case letters, centred, near the top of the page. The abbreviations should be arranged alphabetically in a column on the left side, aligned by the first letter of each abbreviation. Following each abbreviation, the spelled-out meaning should be given in another column, aligned by the first letter of the spelled-out terms and separated from the longest abbreviation by a few spaces. For a specimen, see Figure 13.

Glossary. When a report contains words and phrases not likely to be familiar to the reader, such as foreign words and technical terms, these should be listed in a glossary where their translations or definitions are given. The heading GLOSSARY should be given in upper case letters, centred, near the top of the page. The words and phrases to be translated or defined should be listed alphabetically, flush with the left margin, and may be followed by a full stop, a dash or a colon. After each word or phrase, a translation or definition should be given. Short translations or definitions may be arranged in a second column similar to the format for a list of abbreviations. If some translations or definitions are complete sentences, then it is preferable that all translations or definitions be in the form of complete sentences, ending with a full stop. If most translations or definitions are more than a sentence long, then it will be preferable to place a full stop after each term or phrase to be translated or defined and then give the translation or definition in the form of an indented paragraph. For an example of a glossary, see Figure 14.

The text

Following the preliminaries is the text — the most important part of the research report in which major findings and argument are presented. The presentation should be well organized and without ambiguity — clear, concise, coherent and demonstrating the logical and progressive development of a persuasive argument. Such a presentation will normally involve organizing the text into certain well defined units such as parts, chapters, sections and subsections, and a summary or concluding section (consisting of a short summary of the findings, the conclusions, and often also the main implications and any areas needing further research). Although short reports will not have all of these units, the same overall organizing framework should be used: an introduction, the main body of the report which may be subdivided, and a concluding section.

Introduction. The introduction should be a concise and precise presentation of the problem being investigated. For short reports such as course assignments a single carefully formulated paragraph may be adequate. For longer reports such as theses and dissertations, the introduction may be chapter length. For dissertations the introduction will often cover the areas covered in the original proposal and will, in some cases, be substantively an elaboration and refinement of the research proposal in view of the research conducted. For such longer reports, the introduction will usually be entitled CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION. If the introduction is short, some writers prefer to entitle it INTRODUCTION and reserve the heading CHAPTER for longer sections of the report. Regardless of what title is used, the introduction constitutes the initial part of the text and the first page of the introduction will be page 1 (arabic numeral) of the report.

Main body of the report. The main body is where the major findings arising out of research are presented and an argument made about the extent to which these findings provide an answer to the problem which has been investigated. It is therefore important that the main body be well organized so that the presentation of both findings and a strong interpretative argument is clear, logical, coherent, and supported by appropriate and accurate documentation. For theses and dissertations, a clear division of the main body into certain logical units such as parts, chapters, sections and subsections helps to provide a clear and coherent presentation. The format for these units will be discussed below; for concerns regarding documentation, see Chapter 6.

A part is the largest logical division of the main body of the text. A long report might have several parts with several chapters under each part. While not all theses and dissertations will be organized in terms of parts, the division of the main body into part units is often appropriate and helpful where the main body can be organized according to major time periods, themes, or other distinct major

dimensions of the problem investigated. Where the report is organized by parts, a part-title page should be placed immediately before the first chapter in that part. The part-title should be in upper case letters, centred in the upper half of the part-title page. The part-title will consist of the word PART, followed by the part number in either upper case roman numerals or an upper case spelled-out number, followed by a full stop, and then followed by the subject title for that part in upper case letters — e.g., PART ONE. PAUL'S EARLY MINISTRY. Alternatively, PART ONE could be centred on one line, without punctuation, with PAUL'S EARLY MINISTRY centred on another line beneath. For illustrations of how part-titles would appear in a table of contents, see Figures 7-10 at the end of this chapter. Since the introduction introduces the entire research report, the introduction always stands alone at the beginning of the text and should not be grouped with some other chapter as the first part of the research report. Therefore, if a research report is divided into parts, the first part-title page should always be immediately *after* the introduction.

A chapter is the largest logical division of the main body of the text for long reports which do not use part divisions. Each chapter begins on a new page. The chapter title should be in upper case letters, centred, above the text. The chapter title may consist of the word CHAPTER, followed by the chapter number which may be spelled out or in numerals — either arabic or roman — followed by a full stop, followed by the subject title for that chapter in upper case letters — e.g., CHAPTER THREE. THE JUSTICE MINISTRY CHURCH, all on one line. Alternatively, CHAPTER THREE could be centred on one line and the subject title, THE JUSTICE MINISTRY CHURCH, centred beneath. Some writers prefer to omit the word CHAPTER and to use only numerals, followed by the chapter subject title. For some examples, see Figures 15-17. If the report has part divisions, different forms should be used for expressing part number and chapter number — e.g., PART TWO and CHAPTER 5.

To help bring out the progressive development of thought, and to help show more clearly how different dimensions of the research findings are related to each other and the relative significance of each, chapters are often divided into sections which may be further divided into subsections, sub-subsections, and so on. Each such division is normally given a title, and these titles are collectively called subheadings. Since sections are larger logical units than their subsections, the various subheadings are differentiated from each other by being referred to as first, second, third, fourth or fifth level subheadings. Since first level subheadings refer to the largest logical units within a chapter, first level subheadings should have greater attention value than any other subheadings, second level subheadings should have the second greatest attention value, and so on. Attention value is determined by whether a subheading is centred or placed on the left side, is or is not underlined or shown in boldface or italicized, and by whether or not the subheading is indented to begin a paragraph. Centred subheadings have greater attention value than side subheadings, underlined or boldface or italicized subheadings have greater attention value than those that are not underlined or shown in boldface or italicized, and subheadings used to begin a paragraph having the least attention value. These principles provide the following guidelines for determining how subheadings should be shown:

- First level: centred and either underlined or in boldface
- Second level: centred, not underlined or in boldface
- Third level: flush with left margin, underlined or in boldface
- Fourth level: flush with left margin, not underlined or in boldface
- Fifth level: indented to begin a paragraph, italicized or underlined or in boldface.

If less than five levels of subheadings are used, the style for the different levels of subheadings may be selected in any declining

order. Some writers prefer to also use a number or letter designation for each level. Clarity and simplicity are important guidelines for determining which style to use. Often well-chosen subheadings standing alone, unencumbered by numbers or letters, are preferred. For centred subheadings, capitalize the initial letter of the first word and of all nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs; for other subheadings capitalize the initial letter of the first word and of all proper nouns. For specimens of different styles, see Figures 15-17.¹

Conclusion. A concluding section serves the important function of bringing together the entire research undertaking in a way which provides completeness to the presentation. Here the writer should restate the research problem, summarize the major findings arising out of the investigation, and report the main conclusions. When specific answers have been found to major research questions, these should be reported and either discussed, bringing out their implications, or briefly summarized if already discussed in earlier sections. If as a result of the research there are important questions which remain unanswered due to the limitations of the research undertaking, these should be listed. This concluding section of the text may consist of one or more chapters in a long report such as a dissertation; for short reports such as course assignments it may be as brief as one paragraph.

A brief word of caution should be noted here. Research reports are often seriously weakened by concluding sections in which the writer (1) asserts 'conclusions' which are not adequately or logically supported by the findings in the main body of the report; (2) fails to answer or to adequately answer any questions or hypotheses posed initially; (3) includes as 'conclusions' claims which are unrelated or inadequately related to the research findings, and/or (4) uses the concluding section to sermonize on the subject, to set

¹ Elsewhere in this volume 'underlined' may be understood to mean either 'italicized' when a writer is using a typewriter or computer which is equipped to provide italicized characters, or to give emphasis. However, for subheadings underlining will often have more attention value than italicization and therefore be preferred.

forth exhortations and recommendations which may have little direct relationship to the investigation and which could have been made without the research undertaken.

Such deviations as the above should be avoided. The purpose of the concluding section is to bring together and highlight the main findings arising out of the research. These may be brought together from the perspective of one or both of the two paradigms discussed in Chapter 1. The writer should indicate in what way the research findings increase, qualify or challenge existing knowledge in a particular area, and/or how the research findings serve, potentially support or disserve, for example, positive change among the people studied. Here the beginning researcher may be tempted to report only findings which were expected, or those favourable to a particular perspective or theory. But a researcher, beginner or otherwise, must strongly resist any such temptations. Negative findings, unexpected findings, and findings unfavourable to a particular perspective or theory also add to our understanding and therefore should also be reported — indeed, in some cases the negative and unexpected findings have been of greater importance than the positive and expected findings. Hence, the concluding section, while normally somewhat brief, should bring together the major significant findings, expected or unexpected, positive and negative, within the overall perspective or theory which has guided the research.

The reference material

The reference material, the last section of a research report, may include **appendixes** and should always provide a **bibliography** listing the materials (e.g., books, articles, official documents and so on) and other sources (e.g., interviews) on which the research is based. The format to be used in preparing a bibliography is discussed in Chapter 6.

If **appendixes** are included, these should always be placed **before** the bibliography. Appendixes are the appropriate place for materials

which the writer believes maybe of interest to some readers and/or which provide further documentation but which were not included in the text because that would have detracted from the flow of the presentation and argument. These may include such things as technical notes, questionnaires used to gather data, copies or long extracts of documents not easily available, detailed and complex tables, and long case studies. Materials of different categories should be placed in separate appendices, and each appendix should be given a number or letter — for example, APPENDIX ONE, APPENDIX 1, or APPENDIX A. If a report has more than one appendix, each should be given a descriptive title, and the number and title of each appendix should appear in the table of contents (for a specimen, see Figure 10 at the end of this chapter). On each appendix, the appendix number and title should be centred and in upper case letters, following the same format as for chapter headings. If there is only one appendix, the writer may give it a descriptive title or simply entitle it APPENDIX.

General Concerns Regarding the Presentation of Preliminaries, Text and Reference Materials

While each research report will have its own distinctive subject matter, several common concerns have often arisen regarding the way in which the research report is presented. Some of those concerns have been discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter. In the remainder of this chapter we shall attempt to address more detailed concerns in several areas where persons preparing research reports have often sought guidance and clarification. The discussion which follows seeks to address these areas but is by no means exhaustive. For ease of reference, the concerns are taken up alphabetically.

Accuracy. The research report should be meticulously checked to ensure that it is correct in every respect, free of errors and messy corrections. It is the writer's responsibility to not only prepare an accurate final draft, but to also check the final typescript for accuracy

of spelling, punctuation, figures, tables, references and similar concerns.

Capitalization. The general rule regarding capitalization of titles for parts, chapters and sections is given on page 254; applications of this general rule are discussed and shown on pages 258-263; the general rule for capitalization of subheadings is given on pages 253 and 261, and the general rule for capitalization in captions of figures and tables is given on pages 239-240 and 246-247.

Questions sometimes arise about the capitalization of *nouns*. A noun is the name of a person, place, thing or idea. *Common* nouns refer to *any* person, place, thing or idea; *proper* nouns refer to *particular* persons, places, things or ideas. Proper nouns are capitalized; common nouns are not — for example:

George, a Christian, took his books and went back to his college in Kerala.

In the above sentence, 'George', 'Christian', and 'Kerala', refer, respectively, to a particular person, a particular religion, and a particular state. These are proper nouns and require capitalization. On the other hand, 'books' and 'college' refer only to a class of things (books, colleges), not to a particular book or college. As used here, these are common nouns and therefore are not capitalized.

Sometimes there is a tendency to capitalize prestigious titles and names associated with persons, places, things or ideas regarded as sacred. However, such titles and names should be capitalized only when they are proper nouns — for example:

The devotees worshipped God.

The devotees worshipped Shiva, a Hindu god.

The Church of South India was founded in 1947.

The new family came from a small rural church in Orissa.

As both husband and wife were quite ill, they needed to be examined by a doctor.

Upon arriving at the hospital, they were seen by Dr. Mukherjee.

While the names of specific sacred writings are capitalized, adjectives derived from such names are usually not capitalized — for example:

The New Revised Standard Version of the Bible is an excellent translation.

She is becoming one of the best known biblical scholars.

Consistency in style. A good research report conforms throughout to a single style in areas where there is a choice of styles — for example, the spelling of certain words, the tense which is used in referring to the thought of a person, whether a first level subheading is underlined or given in boldface, and so on. Inconsistencies can be confusing to a reader and indicative of carelessness by the writer.

Definite and indefinite articles. Sometimes the proper use of the definite article 'the' and the indefinite article 'a' presents unusual difficulties, especially for some persons writing in English as a second language. The proper use of 'the' and 'a' is partly a matter of good grammar and partly a matter of good style.

At the grammatical level, it is helpful to note that the *definite* article 'the' is used when referring to a particular person, group, thing or place. For example, the sentence "She took *the* student to see *the* principal" implies that a particular student was taken to see a *particular* person. On the other hand, the *indefinite* article 'a' is used when referring in general to a member of a category of persons, groups, things or places. For example, the sentence "She took the student to see *a* teacher" implies only that the student was taken to see one among many teachers but not to any particular teacher. Uncertainties about whether the definite or indefinite article will be grammatically correct can often be satisfactorily resolved by examining whether the word to which the article is attached refers to a specific member of a category or only in a general way to members of a category.

At the level of style, uncertainties sometimes arise regarding when the definite article 'the' should be used and when it should be omitted. For example, is it better to say "The men and women gathered for the cultural programme" or "The men and the women gathered for the cultural programme"? The purist may argue that 'the' should be placed before 'men' and also before 'women', but this reveals an unnecessary and undesirable rigour. A second 'the' before 'women' would interrupt the flow of the sentence (the reader will perhaps notice this interruption even more clearly if s/he compares the two sentences in spoken form). Here, and more generally, when mentioning two or more groups or categories serially, and where these are of similar rank or marked by similar characteristics, a single 'the' at the beginning will not only be adequate but will also provide for a smooth flow of the sentence.

However, when mentioning two or more groups or categories of somewhat *different* rank or characteristics, additional definite articles will often be desirable. For example, a sentence such as "The men and the cows were gathered under the trees" will usually be preferred over a sentence such as "The men and cows were gathered under the trees."

A similar but somewhat different situation is presented when mention is to be made of a group and a person (or a constituent unit of some other category). Normally we will not say, "The teachers and principal met to discuss the new curriculum" but rather "The teachers and the principal met to discuss the new curriculum." Here the definite article 'the' is needed before 'principal' since reference is being made to a particular person (the principal). But note that if mention is to be made of two groups, such as teachers and principals, the single introductory 'the' would be the preferred form: "The teachers and principals met . . ."

The above is perhaps sufficient to note that in some situations there are rules which generally govern the use of the definite article 'the', while in other situations style and flow of language will be the main considerations. Writers should keep such

distinctions in mind and avoid being either so enslaved to rules that their writing becomes ponderous, or so captivated by style that they lose the discipline of clear writing.

Documentation. A good research report will give evidence of the research done, and provide supporting data for the interpretation made and the conclusions reached — both in the text and through appropriate quotations, footnotes and other references. Unsupported assertions may express an opinion but they do not document research and are not substitutes for a documented argument. Ways of providing documentation are discussed in Chapters 6-8.

Foreign words. When foreign words (words from a language other than the language in which the research report is written) are used in a research report, they should normally be italicized (underlined when italic characters are not available). There are two exceptions to this general rule: (1) Words of foreign origin which have become commonly accepted in the language in which the research report is written are not italicized or underlined. If there is some doubt about whether a foreign word has become commonly accepted, the form shown in a standard reference dictionary should be followed — for example, in the *New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* foreign words which have become commonly accepted in the English language appear in the usual form, while foreign words which are sometimes used by speakers of English but which have not yet become commonly accepted in the English language are listed in italics. (2) Materials quoted from a language other than the language in which the research report is written — words, phrases or longer quotations — are normally given in quotation marks without italicization or underlining.

Full stops. A full stop is placed at the end of a complete sentence in the text, at the end of each footnote, endnote and bibliographical entry, and at the end of abbreviations. A full stop is also placed at the end of a subheading which is part of the first line of a new paragraph, and after the numeral in the table number or figure

number of a caption. A series of full stops is used to mark omissions in quoted material (ellipsis points, see Chapter 7), and sometimes as leaders in tables and in a table of contents to guide the eye from material on the left side of the page to material in columns or on the right side of the page.

Hyphen and dash. A hyphen has sometimes been defined as a short dash, and a dash has sometimes been defined as a long hyphen. While these are not very precise definitions, the dash is the longer of the two. In word processing programmes these are normally represented by different keys; some typewriters have only a hyphen key, in which case a double hyphen is used to represent a dash. These two marks of punctuation serve different purposes.

A *dash* — the longer of the two — is primarily used for two purposes. First, to indicate a break in thought to incorporate some type of parenthetical phrase, as in the preceding sentence where there is a break in thought to remind the reader of how a dash differs from a hyphen ('the longer of the two') before continuing with the sentence. Here dashes have been used to indicate a stronger break in thought than would have been indicated by the use of commas. Dashes can be used to bring in numerous other types of parenthetical phrases when a writer wishes to indicate a stronger or more abrupt break in thought than would have been achieved if commas were used.

The second use of a dash is to give emphasis to something which has been stated in the main clause, or to provide an explanation or illustration. Some examples are:

The pastor spent many hours counseling the young man and woman — counseling which he hoped would help prepare them for the marriage they were about to enter into.

He looked to Gandhi, Nehru and Ambedkar — these were the leaders he most admired.

Various kinds of books were found in her room—historical novels, religious biographies, theological treatises, and works on adult learning as well as political economy.

Two observations are worth noting. First, commas in place of dashes would have been neither proper nor appropriate in the above sentences. Second, while the parenthetical phrase at the end of each sentence could have been given in parentheses, the use of dashes denotes a much stronger logical relationship with the main clause than would have been indicated if parentheses had been used.

Similarly, the *hyphen* is used primarily for two purposes. The first is to indicate a division of a word between the end of one line and the beginning of the next line. Where such division is necessary, the division should *always* be between syllables. For example, the word 'universal' consists of four syllables: u/ni/ver/sal. If the full word is too long to fit in at the end of one line, it would be technically correct to divide the word between any of these syllables. But this example also illustrates an exception to the general rule: when dividing a word at the end of a line, the word should not be divided in such a way that a syllable of only one letter stands alone at the end of one line or at the beginning of another line. In view of this exception, we could divide 'universal' after either the second or the third syllable, not after the first syllable and never between letters comprising one syllable.

A second usage of the hyphen is to indicate that two or more words are to be read together as a collective term with its own meaning. This may apply to some compound words describing a person's character (e.g., 'faint-hearted'), some phrase compounds (e.g., 'sister-in-law'), two nouns representing different but comparable functions (e.g., 'scholar-statesman'; 'kilowatt-hour'), and some modified nouns (e.g., 'anti-national'). A hyphen may also be used to indicate inclusive numbers such as years (e.g., '1900-1950'), or pages (e.g., 'pp. 120-128'), spelled out fractional

numbers (e.g., 'two-thirds'), spelled out compound numbers (e.g., twenty-one), and inclusive numbers in scripture references (e.g., 'Luke 6:20-26').

The above examples illustrate typical usages of a hyphen. When in doubt about the first usage, a writer can consult a standard reference dictionary for guidance on syllabification and where a word can be divided. Doubts about the second usage can also sometimes be resolved by consulting a standard reference dictionary, but the situation is sometimes more complex, due to several factors, three of which may be briefly noted.

First, the enormous variety of circumstances under which a hyphen may be used, or should not be used, and apparent inconsistencies or lack of clear differentiation make it extremely difficult to provide definitive guidance for every situation. For example, a hyphen is generally used for 'self-conscious' but not for 'selfhood'.

Second, as languages undergo change over time, some words which were formerly linked by a hyphen may later be regarded as one word—for example, 'coeducational'.

Third, whether a hyphen should be used depends not only upon the words being used but also upon the context and intended meaning—for example, the meaning of "This is a little- used book" is not the same as "This is a little used book". While help on sorting through such usages can often be found by consulting standard reference dictionaries and reference books on language usage such as *Fowler's Modern English Usage* and *Merriam Webster's Dictionary of English Usage*, much will depend upon a writer's sensitivity to the nuances of words and growing skill in the use of a language.

Indentation. A consistent form should be followed throughout a research report for indenting the first line of a paragraph, block quotations, and other material. The first line of a paragraph should be indented five to ten spaces; the length of indentation should always

be the same throughout a research report. Word processing software normally have a pre-set indention key (which can also usually be adjusted to the writer's preference). For block quotations, the entire quotation should be indented at least three to five spaces from the left margin. Where a block quotation includes the beginning of a paragraph, the first line of the block quotation should be indented a further three to five spaces. If the writer so wishes, a block quotation may also be indented a uniform distance from the right margin.

Logical reasoning, coherence and progressive development. As noted at several places in this manual, a research report should present the results of research in the form of a persuasive argument. Clear, well organized thought marked by logical reasoning which constructs a strong case step-by-step are characteristics of a good report. Lack of coherence, contradictions and circular thought seriously weaken a report and can be fatal. While research should be critical and creative, the most effective presentation of the research findings is normally that of a closely reasoned progressive argument.

Long sentences and paragraphs. Some writers have the mistaken impression that to be taken seriously one must write long and complex sentences and paragraphs. On the contrary, persons who write in long and complex sentences and paragraphs risk not being taken seriously — either because their writing is very difficult to understand, or because it appears that the writer does not have a clear understanding of what s/he has written about.

This is not to say that one should never write long sentences. A long sentence, properly composed, can be preferable to several short, chopped sentences. Clarity and readability are important criteria. Appropriate revision of a long and complex sentence will quite often result in a shorter sentence because unnecessary and confusing words will have been eliminated. Sometimes greater clarity and readability can be provided through the simple device of omitting the conjunction 'and', thereby converting a compound sentence into two simple sentences.

Similarly, there is no rule against long paragraphs. Sometimes a long paragraph which continues to develop a particular 'issue' and carries the reader along may be appropriate. But it takes a highly developed skill to construct such paragraphs. Readers tend to prefer shorter paragraphs as units of thought which can carry them along. As a general rule, a paragraph should consist of a short introductory segment which introduces the 'issue' (paragraph 'topic', 'theme', 'subject' or 'idea'), and a longer segment in which the 'issue' is discussed. This means that normally the one sentence paragraph is to be avoided (writing or quoting dialogue could be an exception). The above general rule also means that a paragraph should normally be limited to discussing only one 'issue' or part of an 'issue'. Confusion can arise when two or more 'issues' are taken up in a single paragraph. When in doubt, a writer will often find valuable counsel from Strunk and White:

In general, remember that paragraphing calls for a good eye as well as a logical mind. Enormous blocks of print look formidable to a reader. He has a certain reluctance to tackle them; he can lose his way in them. Therefore, breaking long paragraphs in two, even if it is not necessary to do so for sense, meaning, or logical development, is often a visual help. But remember, too, that firing off many short paragraphs in quick succession can be distracting Moderation and a sense of order should be the main consideration in paragraphing.²

Margins. The page size of paper for research reports is not universally uniform. However, the page size widely favoured varies between eight and one-half by eleven inches and eight and three-quarters by eleven and one-half inches. For research reports which will be bound, ample margins should be provided to allow for trimming. The general rule for margins is as follows: For titled pages (title page, part-title pages and *first* page of

² William Strunk, Jr. and E.B. White, *The Elements of Style*, 3rd ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1979), 17.

acknowledgements, preface, table of contents, list of illustrations, list of tables, list of abbreviations, glossary, chapters, appendix(es) and bibliography), a margin of five centimeters or two inches between the top edge of the page and the first line of the title, and a margin of four centimeters or one and one-half inches on the left side, two and one-half centimeters or one inch on the right side, and two and one-half centimeters or one inch between the last line (or page number if this is shown at the bottom) and the bottom edge of the page; for all other pages a margin of two and one-half centimeters or one inch between the top edge of the paper and the first line (or the page number if this is given at the top of the page), and margins of four centimeters or one and one-half inches on the left, two and one-half centimeters or one inch on the right, two and one-half centimeters or one inch between the last line (or page number if this is shown at the bottom) and the bottom edge of the page. For the title page of the report, and any part-title pages, additional space may be left at the top if necessary for a sense of balance and proportionality. For specimens of title pages, see Figures 5 and 6 at the end of this chapter.

Numbers in the text. As a general rule, numbers less than 10 should be spelled out in the text; numbers 10 and larger should be given in arabic numerals. The major exceptions to this general rule are the following:

When a number is used to begin a sentence, the number should always be spelled out even if the number is 10 or larger:

Thirty-two women participated in the training programme for community activists.

Caption numbers for figures and tables, and references to numbers in figures and tables, are always given in arabic numerals:

The data in Table 3 indicate that among persons who are graduates, 62 percent of the women supported the ordination of women while only 48 percent of the men did so.

In a series of numbers, some of which are one digit and others more than one digit, all numbers should be given in arabic numerals:

The winning participants are 6, 14, 23, 31, 45 and 57.

For very large numbers, a combination of arabic numerals and spelled out numbers may be used:

In 1989 there were 5.5 lakh primary schools in India with an enrollment of 9.6 crores of boys and girls.

Street numbers, time of day, and dates of the month and year are normally given in arabic numerals:

She arrived at 22 Kasturbai Road at precisely 9:30am (or 0930 hours) on 15 October 1997.

Fractions should be spelled out, unless part of a larger number:

To reach the remote village where two-thirds of the houses had collapsed during the severe typhoon, they had to walk 8½ kilometers.

Page numbering. The title page of the research report is not numbered, but this page is counted when assigning numbers of other pages of the preliminaries. The first page of the other parts of the preliminaries may be numbered, although this is optional; they are counted as pages when assigning numbers to other preliminary pages. All page numbers to be shown in the preliminaries should be in lower case *roman* numerals, centred at the bottom of each page.

The text and reference material should be numbered with consecutive *arabic* numerals, either centred at the top or in the upper right corner, beginning with the first page of the introduction and counting all pages, with the following exceptions: (1) No number appears on any part-title pages, but these pages are counted in determining page numbers, and (2) for the first page of each chapter, of any appendixes, and of the bibliography, the

page number may be omitted or centred at the bottom of the page; if the page number is omitted, the page is still counted when assigning numbers to other pages of the text and reference material. Some examples of first pages may be seen in Figures 7-9 and 11-14. The specimen pages shown in these figures are all *first* pages of their respective units and page numbers have been omitted for these specimen pages; the specimen page shown in Figure 10 presents a last page in a table of contents and a page number in roman numerals is shown at the bottom.

Parentheses and square brackets. Like commas and dashes, *parentheses* may be used in the text to indicate a break in thought, and to set off extensions of thought, explanations and illustrations. While commas are used when such material is quite closely related to the main clause, parentheses are preferred when the relationship is more remote or when confusion would likely occur if commas were used for a series of parenthetical elements where commas are already present. Two examples of such usage are:

Shanti's research data (collected under very difficult circumstances) provided some unexpected findings.

Old Testament materials composed during the height of Israel as a kingdom cover such topics as hymns for worship (Psalms), wisdom (Proverbs), history (Chronicles), and romantic love (Song of Solomon).

Parentheses are also used in the text to enclose a textnote, and to set off numbers or letters used in an enumeration:

In his *Discovery of India* Nehru expressed a hopefulness about the future of India, having discovered for himself that there was among the people "the cultural heritage of thousands of years, which no amount of misfortune had been able to rub off" (1946, 63).

Work in Christian Ethics tends to emphasize either a (1) deontological, (2) teleological, or (3) responsibility-relational approach. In simplified language, some refer to

these approaches as, respectively, the 'right', the 'good', and the 'fit' models of ethical reflection.

As noted in Chapter 6, parentheses are also used in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries to set off publication data for books (Publisher: Place, year), and the date of publication for periodicals (month, year).

Brackets are used when a writer wishes to provide supplementary information as part of a quotation which will help to make the quotation more clear to the reader. Such supplementary information may consist of editorial clarifications, explanations, comments, or indications that an error was in the original. These should be placed within the quotation, or immediately after the quotation where more appropriate, and enclosed by brackets to set off the supplementary editorial information from the quoted material. While such information can be helpful to the reader, the amount of information should be kept to a minimum to avoid distraction from the quotation:

"Politically, the Dalits can meet this challenge [their powerlessness] effectively if there is unity among them across different religions and political parties."

"Thomas has drawn to our attention an error of the Liberals who 'thought that with the increase of good, evil deceased' [*sic*; = *decreased*]."

"He [Jesus] said to them, 'Is a lamp brought in to be put under the bushel basket, or under the bed, and not on the lamp stand?'"

Brackets are also used (1) when a writer wishes to add to information given within parentheses — as, for example, to give the original date of publication where a work consulted is a later edition (see page 196 for an example); (2) in reference notes and bibliographies when either the name of an author or the date of publication is not given in a work but where these can be

reasonably determined from other sources (see pages 195-196), and (3) for scholarly and legal purposes, to enclose capitalization of the first letter of a first word in a quotation when such capitalization does not appear in the original (see page 225 for an example), and to insert a connective (e.g., 'and') within a quotation (see page 226 for an example).

Question mark. A query which is part of a longer sentence but not a direct quotation should be set off with a comma before the query and a question mark at the end:

The question on everyone's mind was, who will win in the Assembly elections?

When a query is a quotation within a longer sentence, the question mark is placed inside the quotation marks:

One of the questions on the entrance examination is, "Why do you want to study in this college?"

But when the question is a sentence containing a quotation, the question mark is placed outside the quotation marks:

Why did you say, "I feel confused and helpless"?

Repetition. Sometimes research reports are marred by needless repetition. This may sometimes be due to the writer having discovered what s/he believes to be an important finding which should be kept in mind. However, from the standpoint of the reader, it can appear that the writer has forgotten what s/he has already said and/or has nothing more to say.

The following guidelines can help a writer avoid such problems. A finding or idea can be referred to when the writer wishes to remind the reader about a point mentioned earlier *and* wishes to add to or qualify the earlier discussion, relate it to another point, or bring out certain continuities or relationships — for example, instead of repeating an earlier discussion, a writer could state that "Important new information confirms (or disputes) the traditional

understanding described in Chapter 3" In ways such as this a writer can avoid repetition while at the same time making reference to an earlier point and demonstrating progressive development in reporting on his or her research.

Where such reference to a finding or idea mentioned earlier seems desirable, this should be done briefly, preferably in not more than one sentence, noting that the finding or idea was discussed earlier — for example, "It was noted in Chapter 3 that" A one sentence reference of this sort is normally sufficient. On the basis of such reference, the reader can recognize that the writer is drawing attention to a point previously made. Since the reference indicates where the point was made (in this case, 'Chapter 3'), the reader will know where a discussion of that point can be found. The discussion itself should not be repeated.

Whether references to findings or ideas discussed earlier is desirable can be determined only within the context of preparing a research report. Sometimes it is sufficient to develop each section and each chapter as separate units; where this is done the major findings can be brought together in the form of a summary at the end of each chapter and/or a summary at the end of the research report. At other times it may appear desirable to make reference to points discussed earlier (or points to be discussed later) as a means of linking the points together and bringing out the progressive development of the research report.

Subject and verb agreement. The subject of a sentence may be a noun, pronoun or clause. A verb tells what the subject does, or what is done to the subject, or the subject's condition. The subject and verb should agree in number — that is, a singular subject takes a singular verb, and a plural subject takes a plural verb. Some of the main forms which this may take are noted below.

A singular subject with a singular verb, and a plural subject with a plural verb:

The *man* was old and feeble.

The *men* were strong and brave.

A subject consisting of two or more singular subjects connected by 'or' or 'nor' takes a singular verb; a subject consisting of two or more singular subjects connected by 'and' takes a plural verb:

Neither Prof. Mathew *nor* Prof. Rajashekar *is* willing to compromise.

Biblical Studies *and* Christian Ethics *are* his favourite subjects.

Summaries, translations and transliterations. When preparing a research report, there may be times when a writer would like to draw upon or directly quote material originally given in another language. Here a choice will usually need to be made from among three options: give a summary, provide a translation, or quote the original.

In some cases a writer may believe that a point can be more effectively made, or at least as effectively made, by providing a summary. It may be that a brief summary will appear preferable to a long or complex quotation, or that the anticipated readers will not know the language of the original. In such situations a short summary may be given, bringing out the main point or thrust of the original. A footnote, endnote or textnote should be given, providing the necessary reference information.

In some other cases, such as when writing for professional readers who also know the language, it may be desirable to quote from the original. In this case the material should be quoted in the language in which it was originally given, exactly as in the original, including any diacritical marks, either within quotation marks or in a set off format, and the necessary reference information should be given in a footnote, endnote or textnote. This will normally be followed by some interpretation or summary and discussion by the writer.

In still other cases a writer may either (1) believe that the desired point can be effectively made by use of a translation, or (2) believe that a translation is desirable since the anticipated readers will probably not know the language of the original, or (3) have access to the material only through a translation made by another person. In such cases, use of the translated material should always be acknowledged. When quoting, translated material should be given within quotation marks or in set off format, and reference information should be provided in an appropriate footnote, endnote or textnote. If the translation cited is by another person, the name of the translator should be included in the reference data (for an example, see entry 10 on page 165). If the translation has been made by the writer, this should be indicated by a phrase such as "author's translation" within parentheses immediately after the quotation, or in the footnote, endnote or textnote.

It should be noted that in some instances, such as those involving specialized terminologies, it may be preferable to use a word or phrase from the original rather than provide a translation—for example, in discussions of some aspect of Hinduism retention of an original term such as 'avatar' will often be preferable to a translation such as 'incarnation'. Since every translation is in a sense also an interpretation, retention of the original term or phrase may be preferred where a translation does not adequately communicate the nuances of the original. Retention of the original terminology may be especially desirable where those terms have become accepted in the language in which the research report is being written.

A new problem arises when the research report is being written in a language which uses a roman script and the word, phrase or longer material to be retained is given in a language which uses a non-roman script. In such situations the word, phrase or longer material to be retained should be given as in the original script or in a transliterated form in roman script. If a transliterated

form is to be provided, the writer should be aware that there are often distinct regional variations in transliterations of the same word. Hence, if a writer makes his or her own transliteration, there is a possibility that a reader may either not understand the transliteration or think that the transliteration is not correct. To avoid this potential problem, a standard scheme of transliteration should be followed. One such scheme widely recognized in India for Indian languages is the one used for the *Indian National Bibliography* and which is reproduced in this Manual as Appendix I. In some dictionaries a guide to transliteration can be found under 'alphabet'. Which transliteration scheme is followed should be mentioned in the text or a reference note. If at some point a writer wishes to deviate from a standardized scheme of transliteration and follow a regional usage, s/he should provide justifying reasons for doing so.

In the brief space here it has been possible to only touch briefly upon such concerns as the above, for this is not a manual on grammar. A writer will grow in clarity and confidence in dealing with such matters as s/he acquires increasing mastery of a language. Whether one wishes to become a fluent writer, or merely to clear up a doubt, much can be gained by consulting a person more fluent in the language in which one is writing or a good book on the grammar of that language — or, at times, both!

More extended discussions of the general concerns touched upon in this section, and related concerns, will be found in the additional resources listed in the bibliography.

HUMAN RIGHTS STRUGGLES OF DALITS IN KARNATAKA

A Case Study of Badanvalu

by

Student's Name

Department of Theology and Ethics

United Theological College, Bangalore

Date Month Year

Figure 5. Sample Title Page for a Course Assignment



THE THEOLOGY OF MARATHI CHRISTIAN LYRICS

by

Student's Name

A thesis (or dissertation) submitted to the
Senate of Serampore College
in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the
Degree of Master (or Doctor) of Theology
Year

Figure 6. Sample Title Page for a Thesis or Dissertation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
PREFACE	ix
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	
Importance of the Problem	
.....	
PART I. AN OVERVIEW OF THE AREAS OF INQUIRY	
2. LANGUAGES, RELIGION AND GROUP	
IDENTITIES	16
Introduction	
Nationalism, National Integration, and Nationality	
Formation	
India as a Multi-National State	

Figure 7. Sample Table of Contents. A first page, with upper case roman numerals for parts, arabic numerals for chapters, indention for sample subheadings and second line of long titles, and page numbers for beginning pages of preliminaries and chapters.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
PREFACE	iii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	v
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
1. Statement of the Problem	1
2. Importance of the Problem	1
.....	
PART ONE. AN OVERVIEW OF THE AREAS OF INQUIRY	
II. LANGUAGES, RELIGION AND GROUP	
IDENTITIES	16
1. Introduction	16
2. Nationalism, National Integration, and Nationality Formation	17
3. India as a Multi-National State	27

Figure 8. Sample Table of Contents. A first page, with spelled-out numbers for parts, upper case roman numerals for chapters, arabic numerals for subheadings, indentation for subheadings and second line of long titles, and page number for beginning pages of preliminaries, chapters and subheadings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
PREFACE	iii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	iv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	v
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Statement of the Problem	1
.....	
PART ONE. AN OVERVIEW OF THE AREAS OF INQUIRY	
2. LANGUAGES, RELIGION AND GROUP IDENTITIES	16
2.1. Introduction	16
2.2. Nationalism, National Integration, and Nationality Formation	17
2.3. India as a Multi-National State	27
2.3.1. Dual nationalism: problems of regionalism and national unity in India	27
2.3.2. Unresolved problems and issues	33

Figure 9. Sample Table of Contents. A first page, with spelled-out numbers for parts, decimal numbers for chapters and selected subheadings, indentation for two levels of subheadings and second line of long titles, and page number for beginning pages of preliminaries, chapters and sections within chapters.

CHAPTER	Page
PART III. SUPERSTRUCTURE	
8. IDEOLOGY AND RITUAL PRACTICE	211
Caste and class	
Inter-caste relations	
.....	
Some features of the religious universe and its ideological significance	
Conclusion: The new ideology of caste emancipation	
9. POLITICS AND REPRODUCTION OF "UNDERDEVELOPMENT"	255
The assertion of class-rule	
Politics and reproduction	
APPENDIXES	
1. Price list in Thaiyur-Kelambakkam, 1969-70	319
2. Conversion table for weights and measurements ..	322
BIBLIOGRAPHY	323
xiii	

Figure 10. Sample Table of Contents. A last page, with upper case roman numerals for parts, arabic numerals for chapters and reference material, indention of subheadings and second line of long titles, page numbers for beginning pages of chapters, appendixes and bibliography and page number for this page of this Table of Contents.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Political Map of India	xvi
2. Map of the Maithili-speaking Areas of Bihar and Nepal, according to Grierson; Divisions and Districts of Bihar, 1972	50
3. Linguistic Distribution of Bihar Districts according to Grierson and according to the Census of 1961	85
4. Distribution of Bihar Districts according to Levels of Literacy, Urbanization, and Industrialization, 1961	89
5. Voting Turnout by District in Bihar Legislative Assembly Elections, 1952-1969	94
6. Distribution of the Top Nine Support Districts for the Congress, Measured by the Percentage of Valid Votes Polled in Bihar Legislative Assembly Elections, 1952-69	96
7. Political Divisions of the Punjab, 1956-66	276
8. Punjab Suba, 1966	324

Figure 11. Sample List of Illustrations

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Growth in Number of College Students, 1950-1990	295
2. Growth in Number of Colleges and Universities, 1950-1990	297
3. Enrollment Growth Rates for Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education, 1950-1990	298
4. Student "Indiscipline", 1950-1990 (Reported incidents)	300
5. Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of Plan Expenditures (Center and States)	303
6. Change in Plan Allocations to Major Levels of Education (Percent)	304
7. Student Enrollment in First-Degree Courses of Study, 1950-1990	305
8. Unemployment Rate Among First- and Second-Degree Holders, 1990	306

Figure 12. Sample List of Tables

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AB	Anchor Bible
ANET	J.B. Pritchard, <i>Ancient Near Eastern Texts</i> (Princeton: Princeton University, 1950) and <i>Supplement</i> (1968)
ATR	<i>Anglican Theological Review</i>
BA	<i>Biblical Archaeologist</i>
BASOR	<i>Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research</i>
BGD	W. Bauter, F.W. Gingrich and F.W. Danker, <i>A Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament</i> (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1979)
BNTC	Black's New Testament Commentaries
CBQ	<i>Catholic Biblical Quarterly</i>
EvQ	<i>Evangelical Quarterly</i>
Int	<i>Interpretation</i>
JAAR	<i>Journal of the American Academy of Religion</i> (Successor to JBR)
JBR	<i>Journal of Bible and Religion</i>

Figure 13. Sample list of Abbreviations. A first page. Note that abbreviations referring to a specific publication are italicized; abbreviations referring to a name by which a book or a series is popularly known or to the names of the authors of a volume are not italicized.

GLOSSARY

<i>anna</i> :	1/16 part of a rupee
<i>cadjan</i> :	dried leaf of the palmyra palm
<i>Chetti</i> :	merchant or trader
<i>chuckram</i> :	tiny copper coin in Travancore, 28 of which were equal to one rupee
division :	largest administrative unit of 19th century Travancore
<i>dewan</i> :	prime minister
<i>dewan peishkar</i> :	government officer subordinate only to the <i>dewan</i> and in charge of a division
<i>fanam</i> :	silver coin worth four <i>chuckrams</i>
<i>kangany</i> :	labour recruiter and overseer
<i>makkathayam</i> :	inheritance and descent through the male line
<i>maumakkathayam</i> :	inheritance and descent through the female line
<i>Mukkavar</i> :	fishing community on the coast
<i>Nadan</i> :	a prominent subsection of the <i>Shanar</i> caste
<i>sambendham</i> :	marriage connection among matrilineal castes
<i>Shanar</i> :	caste of untouchable palmyra palm tappers and land labourers, now called <i>Nadars</i>

Figure 14. A Sample Glossary for a Research Report in English. Note that the glossary gives non-English words with their meaning, and the meaning of English words used in the report with a meaning different from their usual meaning.

CHAPTER THREE

THE ECOLOGICAL CRISIS AND THE ROLE OF CHURCHES

There was a time when we thought that ecological crisis was not a serious problem for us in the poorer countries. Our problem, it was assumed, was confined to poverty and economic exploitation

Theological Considerations

The church's response is shaped by its understanding and interpretation of its theology. A crucial aspect to be considered is the relation between humans and nature.

The Relation between Human and Nature

One may suggest at least three typologies that have influenced modern thinking on this: Humans above nature; humans in nature and humans with nature

The Church's Response

Although Christianity was born in a different cultural ethos where a holistic view of reality was in vogue, the Indian church's theology and practice have been, with some notable exceptions, heavily influenced by western missionaries. With the result, at least in our Protestant churches

Three models

There are at least three models that are available in church's life and practice for its response to ecological concerns.

Asetic, monastic model. Perhaps this is the oldest form of the church's response aimed at integrating some concerns relating to ecology as well

Sacramental/Eucharist model. Life and all its relationships are brought to the worshipful presence of God and they are constantly renewed. All

Liberative solidarity model. According to this model, the church is in solidarity with the weakest, with that part of the whole creation. It is

Figure 15. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, with Brief Selected Texts. Chapter number spelled out, no numerals used for subheadings.

III

THE ECOLOGICAL CRISIS AND THE ROLE OF CHURCHES

There was a time when we thought that ecological crisis was not a serious problem for us in the poorer countries. Our problem, it was assumed, was confined to poverty and economic exploitation

2. Theological Considerations

The church's response is shaped by its understanding and interpretation of its theology. A crucial aspect to be considered is the relation between humans and nature.

A. The Relation between Humans and Nature

One may suggest at least three typologies that have influenced modern thinking on this: Humans above nature, humans in nature and humans with nature

B. The Church's Response

Although Christianity was born in a different cultural ethos where a holistic view of reality was in vogue, the Indian church's theology and practice have been, with some notable exceptions, heavily influenced by western missionaries. With the result, at least in our Protestant churches

(i) Three models

There are at least three models that are available in church's life and practice for its response to ecological concerns.

(a) *Ascetic, monastic model.* Perhaps this is the oldest form of the church's response aimed at integrating some concerns relating to ecology

(b) *Sacramental/Eucharist model.* Life and all its relationships are brought to the worshipful presence of God and they are constantly renewed

(c) *Liberative solidarity model.* According to this model, the church is in solidarity with the weakest, with that part of the whole creation. It is

Figure 16. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, with Brief Selected Texts. Chapter number in upper case roman numerals; subheadings numbered in the following order: arabic numerals, upper case letters, lower case roman numerals, and lower case letters.

3

THE ECOLOGICAL CRISIS AND THE ROLE OF CHURCHES

There was a time when we thought that ecological crisis was not a serious problem for us in the poorer countries. Our problem, it was assumed, was confined to poverty and economic exploitation....

3.2. Theological Considerations

The church's response is shaped by its understanding and interpretation of its theology. A crucial aspect to be considered is the relation between humans and nature.

3.2.1 The Relation between Humans and Nature

One may suggest at least three topologies that have influenced modern thinking on this: Humans above nature, humans in nature and humans with nature....

3.2.2 The Church's Response

Although Christianity was born in a different cultural ethos where a holistic view of reality was in vogue, the Indian church's theology and practice have been, with some notable exceptions, heavily influenced by western missionaries. With the result, at least in our Protestant churches....

3.2.2.1 Three models

There are at least three models that are available in church's life and practice for its response to ecological concerns.

3.2.2.1.1 *Ascetic, monastic model.* Perhaps this is the oldest form of the church's response aimed at integrating some concerns relating to ecology....

3.2.2.1.2 *Sacramental/Eucharist model.* Life and all its relationships are brought to the worshipful presence of God and they are constantly renewed....

3.2.2.1.3 *Liberative solidarity model.* According to this model, the church is in solidarity with the weakest, with that part of the whole creation....

Figure 17. Sample Chapter Title and Four Levels of Subheadings, with Brief Selected Texts. Arabic numeral for chapter number and decimal numbers for subheadings.

Chapter 10

Preparation of Book Reviews/Reports

A book review or "book report" is a special case of a research report. Whereas preparation of a research essay, thesis or dissertation will normally involve consulting a wide range of written and/or oral sources, a book review involves focusing upon one book and preparing a report on that book. A teacher who assigns a book review as one of the requirements for a course will want to see in the report evidence that the student has read the book and understood its basic thrust.

How, then, should such a report be prepared? What distinguishes a good book review from those which are third-rate or even unacceptable?

How Some Book Reviewers Prepare Reviews

One way to begin to find an answer to the above questions is to examine how persons who review books have gone about their work. Examples can normally be found in such sources as major newspapers, book review journals, religious periodicals, and professional or scholarly journals. Persons preparing reviews tend to use the occasion to either (1) put forth their own views on the subject, or (2) provide a summary description of the contents, or (3) make a critical examination of the book.

Type-one reviewers — who utilize the review of a book as primarily an opportunity to set forth their own ideas about the subject — end up giving us a statement about their beliefs, not a review of the book. For example, while preparing this section

I noticed a 'review' by a former vice-chancellor which appeared in an all-India journal. Out of the approximately 1000 words, only about 100 were about the book being reviewed; in the other 900 words he discussed some of his own thoughts on the subject of the book but said nothing about the book or the author's treatment of the subject. Such 'reviewers' apparently presume that what they have to say is more important than the book. But we learn little from such a 'review' about either the book or what the 'reviewer' thinks about it. An eminent person such as a former vice-chancellor may get by with such a 'review' (since editors are often reluctant to reject or suggest changes in reviews by well-known persons). But, needless to say, teachers are not likely to regard 'reviews' of this sort from students as adequate — for such 'reviews' will give little indication of whether the student has understood the author's treatment of the subject, or even whether s/he has read the book.

Type-two reviewers — who provide a summary description of a book — normally represent a qualitative improvement over type one 'reviewers'. But reviews of this sort vary enormously in quality. Some may give little more than a listing of chapter headings. Since these can be secured from the table of contents, the 'review' is not likely to provide either an adequate description of what the book is about or assurance that the 'reviewer' has seriously examined the book. Other summary reviews may be much more substantial, providing a chapter by chapter description. Other reviewers may provide a much more analytical description — bringing out the author's basic conceptual framework, the major issues examined, the main sources used, and the principal conclusions reached. While not all descriptive reviews will exactly conform to one or another of the above kinds, it should be apparent that the amount of information which such reviews provide about the content of a book can range from very little to a great deal. A major limitation of all summary reviews, however, is that we do not learn anything from these about what the reviewer thinks about the book under review.

Type-three reviewers make a further qualitative improvement by not only providing a summary or analytical description of a book but by also giving their own critical evaluation. It is here that experienced book reviewers render their best service: they not only tell us what the book is about but *also* tell us what they think of the book. By providing a critical evaluation such reviewers help us to decide whether a book is one which we should read or perhaps even purchase. Good reviewers will thereby help us to sort through the large number of books becoming available and decide which are most relevant to our needs. It is important to note, however, that good reviewers help us by doing more than simply expressing their opinion about a book. To say only that "This is a good book" or "That is a bad book" does not tell us anything about the content of the book or why it is considered 'good' or 'bad'. Type-three reviewers are more helpful than type-one and type-two because they (1) tell us what the book is about, (2) make some assessment of the author's treatment of the subject, and (3) give reasons for their assessment. Such reviews enable us to learn something about both the content of the book and the adequacy of the author's treatment of the subject.

Some Guidelines For Students Preparing Book Reviews

The above brief discussion has noted three distinct types of book reviews which appear in newspapers, general periodicals and scholarly journals. While not all such reviews will exactly conform to one or another of these three types, these distinctions are useful for heuristic purposes. Nevertheless, having read this far the reader may now be asking: What has this to do with me? I have been asked to write a book review to meet a course requirement, not for publication in a journal. My teacher probably already knows what is in the book; why do I need to describe its content? Published reviews are by persons who are much more experienced and knowledgeable; how can I make an evaluation of a book by an author who is, after all, older, more experienced and presumably more knowledgeable?

These are important concerns and need to be addressed. One way of beginning to deal with these is to ask: What are my teacher's expectations? Why have I been asked to submit a book review? Answers to such questions will generally be along the following lines: When a book review is requested in connection with a course of study, the preparation of the review should be seen as part of an on-going educational process in which the teacher (1) seeks to expose the student to a point of view, (2) looks for evidence that the student has understood the point of view, and (3) searches for signs that the student has also been able to make some evaluation of the author's presentation of that point of view.

Each of these aspects is important. Note first that the selection of a book for review is not an arbitrary or random happening. Rather, students are typically asked to review either a particular book selected by the teacher, one book from a listing prepared by the teacher, or a book selected by the student and approved by the teacher. The book to be reviewed will be one which is regarded by the teacher as directly related to the course and providing a particular perspective or way of looking at some important issues.

Second, the teacher will want to see in the review evidence that the student has read the book and understood its major thrust. Obviously, a type-one review — in which the student simply gives her or his opinion on a subject without much reference to the book — will not be acceptable. Nor will it be adequate to simply assert, "I understand the book." Rather, it will be necessary for the student to demonstrate his or her understanding of the book. The student can do this by giving, in his or her own words, a summary and/or an analytical description of the book — elements of a type-two review. This may take the form of a brief description of each chapter, highlighting what are seen as the major concerns. It may take the form of a broader analytical description which brings out what the student sees as the author's overall framework and its major components. It may take some other form. Regardless of which form is used, the preparation of a summary and/or analytical description of the book, in the student's own words, will be the

means by which the student demonstrates his or her understanding of the book. On the basis of this, the teacher will be able to make some judgement about the extent to which the student has comprehended the point of view expressed in the book.

Third, the teacher will also be interested in the extent to which the student-reviewer has been able to make an evaluation of the book. If the reader is like some students, this may initially appear to be the most difficult part. After reading the book you may have only a vague feeling of like or dislike for what you have read. Yet, even here some reflection will often help to identify reasons for such positive or negative feelings. For example, was there a lack of clarity in what the author sought to communicate, making it difficult to understand certain parts? Was the style of writing so ponderous that it was difficult to follow the author's thoughts? Was the author inconsistent, making statements in different parts of the book which appeared to be contradictory and thereby weakening his or her credibility? Did the various chapters or major sections seem so disconnected that there was no overall coherence? Did the author make assertions or reach conclusions without providing supporting reasons? Was the quality of production poor, with many printer's errors, graphs which could not be easily read, and without either a glossary of difficult terms or an author/subject index to help a reader more easily locate topics of particular interest? Alternately, was the book characterised by simplicity of style, clarity in communication, clear organization around a central thesis or question, progressive development, consistency and coherence of argument, and persuasive reasoning which makes the conclusions convincing and liberative? Or was there some combination of positive and negative features such as these and other characteristics? How would the book compare with others known to you on this subject? As a reviewer, would you recommend the book to others? If so, to whom? If not, why not?

There are three other concerns which should also be addressed where relevant in a book review — either as part of the above

concerns or separately. As the importance of these is largely self-evident, they will be only briefly mentioned. First, what were the author's qualifications to write on this subject? Is the author a widely recognized specialist in this area? Has the author, even if a well known expert in one area, tried to write on a subject in another area for which s/he is not qualified? Has the author undertaken extensive research on the subject, or has the author simply expressed her or his personal opinion without providing any supporting evidence?

Second, what is the author's perspective? Does his or her treatment of the subject reflect either a colonial mentality or a neo-nationalist outlook? Is the author dependent on outdated theory, or is s/he acquainted with recent developments in the subject area? Does the author show an awareness of contemporary empirical realities in the relevant areas, or does s/he appear to be ill-informed? What is the relationship of the author to what is being reported upon — that of an 'insider' or an 'outsider'?

Third, for what audience is the book directed, and/or for what readership is it most suitable? For example, is the book intended primarily for specialists in a narrow and little known area of study? Was the book intended for wider use, such as an introductory textbook, or perhaps for a much wider general readership? What kind of reader might find the book most useful?

A reviewer will usually find it helpful to keep such concerns as the above in mind when evaluating a book. These are suggestive only. Not all will be equally applicable to every book; which will be most applicable may vary from one book to another, and other additional concerns will probably occur to the reviewer as s/he reflects upon a book and considers the purpose for which the review is to be prepared.

Thus, even though a student reviewer may not be as experienced or knowledgeable as a professional reviewer, some critical reflection along the above lines can provide considerable

material for a respectable evaluation. The teacher will thereby be able to see not only how well the student has comprehended a particular point of view, but also how well the student has been able to assess the author's presentation of that point of view. The preparation of a book review should therefore be seen as part of an on-going educational process which provides the student with an opportunity to demonstrate his or her growing ability to grasp competing points of view and to apply a maturing intellectual ability to the evaluation of these points of view.

When preparing a book review, the reviewer may sometimes wish to quote from the book to illustrate a point. Since a book review normally deals with only one book, footnotes are not used; instead, page numbers for quotations and other specific references to material in the book are given in the text, immediately after the quoted material within parentheses — as, for example, in the following quotation in a recent book review:¹

In the form of capitalization that is under way in Haryana, men tend to work on their own land and send the women out as wage labour. Chowdhry describes well how the "green revolution, instead of breaking down caste norms has not only adopted them but has also reinforced classes within castes and differing statuses within the hierarchies, between men and women and has actually pitted the scheduled caste women against other caste women. What emerges is a peculiar reinforced mix of patriarchy, caste and class" (p.180).

If the reviewer wishes to make reference in the book review to another book by the same author, this may be done by a textnote giving the book title and year of publication. If the reviewer wishes to make reference to a book by another author, this can

¹ This illustration is from R. Sudershan's review of *The Veiled Women. Shifting Gender Equations in Rural Haryana*, by Prem Chowdhry, in *Manushi* 87 (March-April 1995): 34.

also be done by a textnote, giving the title of the book and year of publication immediately after giving the full form of the author's name in either the text or the textnote. But when a reviewer wishes to refer to several works in a single note, a footnote or endnote may be preferable to avoid interrupting the review with a long textnote.

Concerns such as the above should be kept in mind when reading and making notes for a book review. Teachers will usually indicate their preferred length for a book review and may provide additional guidelines. Without in any way restricting what additional guidelines might be provided by individual teachers, in view of the discussion in this chapter the following may be noted as typical and basic components of a good review:

- ◆ Full bibliographical information on the book being reviewed, in the following format: Name of the author, Title of the book. Publisher: Place of publication, year of publication. Number of pages. Price (if known).

- ◆ A brief statement about the author's qualifications, expertise and present position (or last position held if retired or no longer living).

- ◆ A balanced and accurate description of the content of the book, bringing out those features which best characterize the book. This may be a description of each chapter or major section, or a description of the basic analytical framework, central questions, data examined and the main findings or conclusions, or follow some other descriptive form.

- ◆ An indication of the audience for whom the book is intended, and/or what readership the book may be most suitable.

- ◆ An assessment of the book, both positive and negative. The assessment may include concerns such as those mentioned in this chapter, but it need not be limited to these.

While the above elements may be regarded as typical and basic components of a good book review, this listing may be

best viewed as neither exhaustive nor as identifying parts to always be arranged in the same order. Rather, these elements may be best viewed as basic building blocks for constructing a book review. The form and substance of any particular book review can then be seen as depending upon the reviewer's critical reflective thought and creativity in developing and arranging these basic building blocks and any others s/he may choose to use.

In this chapter attention has been given to widely accepted general guidelines for the preparation of book reviews. Individual teachers may have additional concerns and/or particular expectations regarding both the form and content of a book review. To some extent, these expectations may vary between teachers. Students should therefore not only be familiar with these general guidelines but also make sure that they know any further particular expectations held by each teacher for whom they prepare a book review. Similarly, when later in life some prepare book reviews for newspapers, general periodicals and scholarly journals they should know the particular expectations of each — for each of these is a different entity and may have its own particular requirements which disclose the perceived needs and interests of a somewhat different readership.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF OTHER GUIDES FOR RESEARCHERS AND WRITERS OF COURSE ASSIGNMENTS, THESES, DISSERTATIONS AND OTHER RESEARCH REPORTS

The following guides may be found helpful for further discussion of some of the concerns dealt with in this manual, as well as related additional concerns beyond the scope of this manual:

Primarily on Research

- Atkinson, Paul. *The Ethnographic Imagination. Textual Constructions of Reality*. London: Routledge, 1990.
- Babbie, Earl R. *The Basics of Social Research*. 8th ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1998.
- . *The Practice of Social Research*. 8th ed. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1998. (With online guides and supplementary readings).
- Barzun, Jacques and Henry F. Graff. *The Modern Researcher*. 5th ed. Wilmington, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1992.
- Béteille, André and T.N. Madan, eds. *Encounter and Experience. Personal Accounts of Field Work*. Delhi: Vikas, 1975.
- Booth, Wayne C., Gregory G. Colomb and Joseph M. Williams. *The Craft of Research*. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1995.
- Clifford, James and George E. Marcus, eds. *Writing Culture. The Poetics and Politics of Ethnography*. Berkeley: University of California, 1986.
- Denzin, Norman K. and Yvonna S. Lincoln, eds. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks/London/New Delhi: Sage, 1994 (hardback); 1998 (3 vol. paperback ed.).

- Dunaway, David K. and Willa K. Baum, eds. *Oral History. An Interdisciplinary Approach*. Nashville: American Association for State and Local History in cooperation with the Oral History Association, 1984; 2nd ed. Walnut Creek, California: AltaMira Press, 1996.
- Emerson, Robert M., Rachel I. Fretz and Linda L. Shaw. *Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes*. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1995.
- Fernandas, Walter and Philip Viegas. *Participatory and Conventional Research Methodologies*. New Delhi: Indian Social Institute, 1985.
- Geertz, Clifford. *The Interpretation of Culture*. New York: Basic Books, 1973; Reprint 2000.
- Goode, William J. and Paul K. Hatt. *Methods in Social Research*. Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, 1952.
- Hammersley, Martyn. *Reading Ethnographic Research. A Critical Guide*. 2nd ed. London: Longman, 1998.
- Hammersley, Martyn and Paul Atkinson. *Ethnography. Principles in Practice*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge, 1995.
- Howarth, Ken. *Oral History. A Handbook*. Gloucestershire: Sutton Publishing, 1998.
- Jacobson, David. *Reading Ethnography*. Albany: State University of New York, 1991.
- Kothari, C.R. *Research Methodology. Methods and Techniques*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: Wiley Eastern, 1990.
- Longinio, Helen E. "Feminist Standpoint Theory and the Problem of Knowledge." *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*. 19/1 (Autumn, 1993): 201-212.
- Mathur, Kuldeep and Harsh Sethi, eds. *Action Research for Development*. New Delhi: Indian Institute of Public Administration, 1983.

- Mies, Marie. "Towards a methodology of feminist research." In *Theories of Women's Studies*. Edited by Gloria Bowles and Renate Duelli Klein. London: Routledge, 1983.
- Mauch, James E. and Jack W. Birch. *Guide to the Successful Thesis and Dissertation — A handbook for students and faculty*. 4th ed. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc., 1998.
- Nielsen, Joyce McCarl, ed. *Feminist Research Methods. Exemplary Readings in the Social Sciences*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1990.
- Perks, Robert and Alistair Thomson, eds. *The oral history reader*. London: Routledge, 1998.
- Ritchie, Donald A. *Doing Oral History*. New York: Twayne Publishers, 1995.
- Sinha, Raghuvir. *Content Analysis. A New Method in Social Research*. New Delhi: Ambika Publications, 1980.
- Sjoberg, Gideon and Roger Nett. *A Methodology for Social Research*. New York: Harper & Row, 1968; Jaipur: Rawat Publications, 1977.
- Srinivas, M.N. "Some Thoughts on the Study of One's Own Society," in his *Social Change in Modern India*. Berkeley: University of California, 1966; Bombay: Orient Longman, 1972 (Indian edition).
- Srinivas, M.N., A.M. Shah and E.A. Ramaswamy, eds. *The Fieldworker and the Field*. Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1979.
- van Maaten, John. *Tales of the Field. Writing Ethnography*. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1988.
- Yin, Robert K. *Case Study Research. Design and Methods*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: Sage, 1989.
- Young, Pauline V. *Scientific Social Surveys and Research*. 4th ed. 1966. Reprint. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India, 1975.

Primarily on the Writing of Research Reports

- Anderson, Jonathan, Berry H. Durston and Millicent Poole. *Thesis and Assignment Writing*. Sydney: John Wiley and Sons Australasia, 1970; New Delhi: Wiley Eastern, 1970 (Indian reprint).
- Becker, Howard S., with a chapter by Pamela Richards. *Writing for Social Scientists. How to Start and Finish Your Thesis, Book or Article*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1986.
- Berry, Ralph. *The Research Project: How to write it*. 3rd ed. London: Routledge, 1994.
- Burbidge, P.G. *Prelims and End-Pages*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1969.
- Campbell, William G. *Form and Style in Thesis Writing*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975.
- Chandra, Arvinda and T.P. Saxena. *Style Manual for Writing Theses, Dissertations and Papers in Social Sciences*. New Delhi: Metropolitan Book Co., 1979.
- The Chicago Manual of Style*. 14th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993.
- Fowler, H.F. *Fowler's Modern English Usage*. 2nd ed., Revised by Ernest Gowers. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1965 (hardback); 1983 (paperback, with corrections).
- Gibaldi, Joseph. *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. 5th ed. New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1999.
- Joseph, A. Antony. *Methodology for Research. Guide for Writing Dissertations, Theses, and Scientific Papers*. Bangalore: Theological Publications of India, 1986.
- Merriam Webster's Dictionary of English Usage*. Rev. ed. Springfield, Massachusetts: Merriam-Webster Incorporated, 1993.

Shah, Vimal P. *Reporting Research*. Ahmedabad: Rachava Prakasan, 1977.

Shertzer, Margaret. *The Elements of Grammar*. New York: Collier Books, 1986.

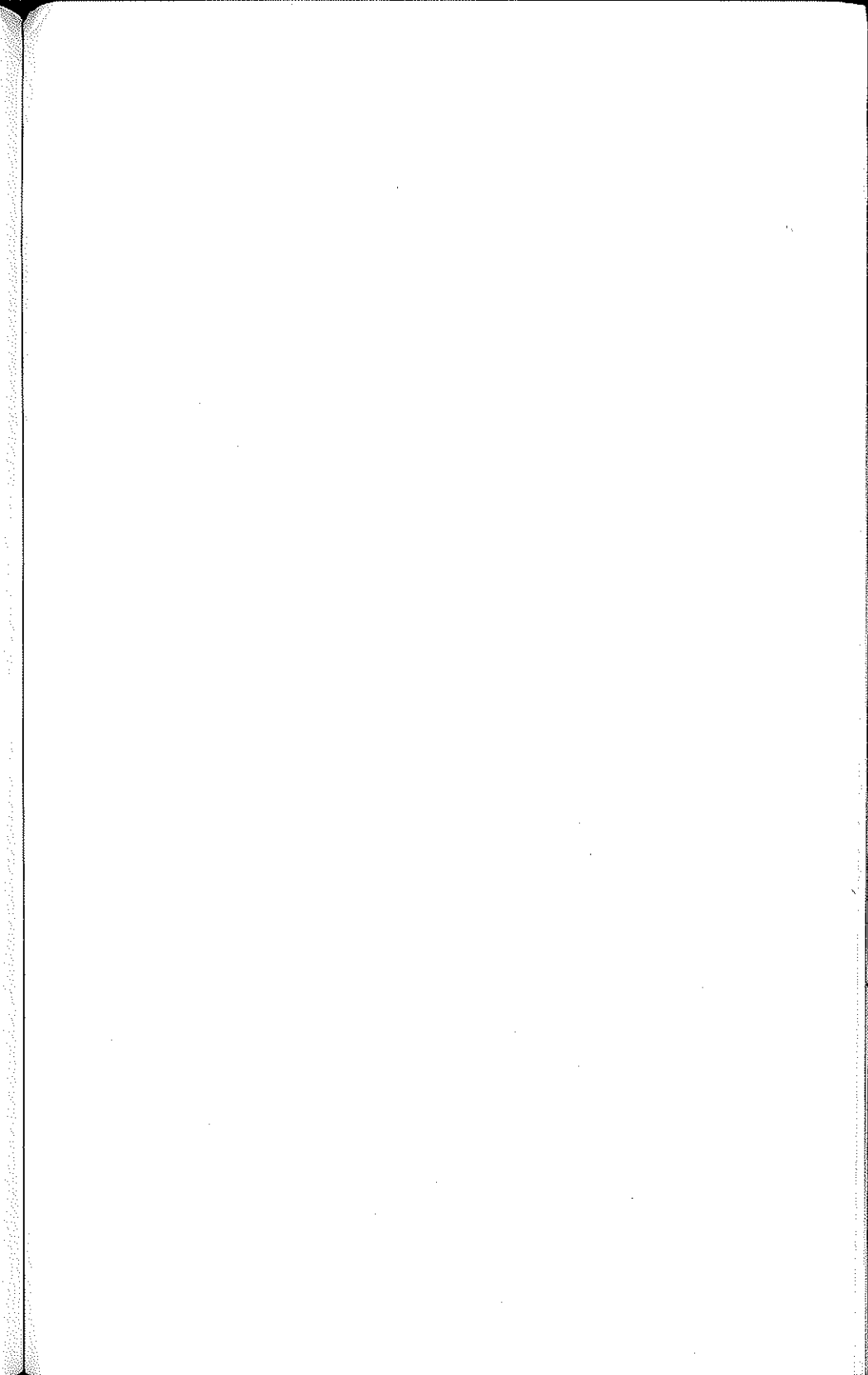
Strunk, William, Jr. and E.B. White. *The Elements of Style*. 4th ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 2000.

Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses and Dissertations*. 6th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996.

Walker, Janice R. and Todd Taylor. *The Columbia Guide to Online Style*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1998.

Williams, Joseph M. *Style: Toward Clarity and Grace*. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1990; 1995 (paperback edition).

The above is a selected bibliography. Some of the sources listed above under "Primarily for Research" also have chapter-length discussions on preparing the research report. Additional help on both research and on writing the research report can be found in other sources, many of which are listed in the often extensive bibliographies in the above works, and in other materials appearing since publication of the above sources in both print and online format.



APPENDIX I: TABLE OF TRANSLITERATION

	A	B	G	H	Kas	Mal	Mar	Or	P	Sk	Ta	Te
a	ا	آ	अ	आ	ک	کاو	अ	अ	प	अ	अ	अ
ā	آ	آ	आ	आ	ک	کاو	आ	आ	प	आ	आ	आ
i	ی	ی	इ	ई	ک	کاو	इ	इ	प	इ	इ	इ
ī	ی	ی	ई	ई	ک	کاو	ई	ई	प	ई	ई	ई
u	و	و	उ	ऊ	و	کاو	उ	उ	प	उ	उ	उ
ū	و	و	ऊ	ऊ	و	کاو	ऊ	ऊ	प	ऊ	ऊ	ऊ
e	ی	ی	ए	ए	ی	کاو	ए	ए	प	ए	ए	ए
ē	ی	ی	ऐ	ऐ	ی	کاو	ऐ	ऐ	प	ऐ	ऐ	ऐ
o	و	و	ओ	ओ	و	کاو	ओ	ओ	प	ओ	ओ	ओ
ō	و	و	औ	औ	و	کاو	औ	औ	प	औ	औ	औ
au	و	و	औ	औ	و	کاو	औ	औ	प	औ	औ	औ
ka	ک	ک	क	क	ک	کاو	क	क	प	क	क	क
kha	خ	خ	ख	ख	خ	کاو	ख	ख	प	ख	ख	ख
ga	گ	گ	ग	ग	گ	کاو	ग	ग	प	ग	ग	ग
gha	غ	غ	घ	घ	غ	کاو	घ	घ	प	घ	घ	घ
na	ن	ن	न	न	ن	کاو	न	न	प	न	न	न

*Source: *The Indian National Bibliography, Annual Volume 1991*, V. Acharya, General Editor (Calcutta: Central Reference Library, 1994), xiii-xvi. According to the Preface, in view of users' need, "a rationalized revised transliteration table for Urdu has been adapted. This new table replaces the old one which was in used [*sic*] for the INB since 1958."

Sindhi

ا = a	ب = b	پ = b'	پ = p	پ = bh	ت = t	ث = th	ث = t
ث = s	ث = th	ک = kh	گ = g	گ = g'	گ = a	گ = gh	ف = f
ڦ = ph	ر = r	ز = z	ڙ = zh	ڍ = d	ڍ = dh	ڏ = dh	ڏ = d'
ڊ = d	ڊ = dh	س = s	س = sh	و = v	ل = l	م = m	ڪ = k
ق = q	ڻ = n	ڻ = n	ڻ = h	ڻ = j	ڻ = j'	ڻ = h	ڻ = c
ڻ = ch	ڻ = kh	ڻ = h	ڻ = jh	ڻ = s	ڻ = z	ڻ = 'o	ڻ = gh
ڻ = t	ڻ = z	ڻ = h	ڻ = 'o				

ا = a	ا = i	ا = u	ا = a
ي = e	ي = i	ار = o	ا = a

Urdu

ا =	ب = b	پ = p	ت = t	ث = t	ث = s	ج = j
چ = c	ح = h	خ = kh	د = d	ڌ = d	ڌ = z	ر = r
ڙ = r	ز = z	ڙ = zh	س = s	ش = sh	ص = s	ض = z
ط = t	ظ = z	ع = 'o	غ = gh	ف = f	ق = q	ک = k
گ = g	ل = l	م = m	ن = n	ڻ = n	و = w	ه = h
و = a	و = h	و = 'o	و = y	و =		
ا = a	ا = a	ا = i	ا = i			
ا = u	ا = u, o	ا = ai, e	ا = au			

APPENDIX II: GUIDE FOR PROOF READERS**

PROOF CORRECTIONS SYMBOLS

/	Substitute letter indicated	§ #	Delete and leave space
—	Substitute word indicated	eq #	Make spacing equal
^	Insert new matter indicated	□ ^	Indent one em.
○ ^	Insert full stop	□□ ^	Indent two ems.
, ^	Insert Comma	⌋	Move lines to the right
⊙ ^	Insert Colon	⌋	Move lines to the left
- ^	Insert Hyphen	<u>em</u>	Insert em rule
§	Delete, character indicated	<u>2 em</u>	Insert two em rule
§	Delete and close up	∞	Combine the paragraphs
○	Remove space and close up	[take over	Take letter or word from end of one line to the beginning of next
⊙	Invert type	]take back	Take letter or word from beginning of a line to the end of preceding line
X	Replace broken letter	~~~~~	Change to bold face
---stet	Leave as printed	↓	Lower lines
⌋	Transpose the order of letters or words	↑	Raise lines
→	The abbreviation or figure to be spelt out in full		Correct vertical alignment
= Caps	Change to capital letter	=	Straighten lines
= S.caps	Change to small capital letter	¶	Begin a new paragraph
= l.c.	Change to lower-case letter	‘ ’	Substitute apostrophe
- Ital	Change to italic words underlined	“ ”	Insert apostrophe
w.f.	Wrong fount	“ ”	Insert quotation marks
# ^	Insert space	∞	Insert inferior figure
# >	Increase space between lines or paragraphs	∞	Substitute inferior figure

**Source: Adapted from *Handbook for Indian Writers* 1975, edited by H.K. Paul (New Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal, 1975), 301-303.

SPECIMEN OF A GALLEY-PROOF WITH
READER'S MARKS

In these times of when publishers are besieged
 with manuscripts a good physical presentation of your
 ideas in a manuscript will ~~make~~ wonders in favour
 impressing the publisher. If the manuscript is got up
 in an appropriate manner and complete in all respects
 one can hope for its quick evaluation by the publisher.
 It is with this aim in mind that this paper has been
 written. The important points which an author should
 know about the preparation and submission of manuscripts
 have been briefly discussed below. Outline Let
 us start with the author who has a topic to work on.
 Before the actual work is started, a basic design of the
 topic ~~depending~~ upon the theme and purpose of the
 publication is prepared. At this stage all the existing
 published information on the subject is gathered.
 The required materials besides books and articles
 in periodicals should be traced from reference books,
 bibliographies, Special library catalogues and documenta-
 tion lists. Also it is worthwhile to contact specialists
 in the field who could give some ~~useful~~ advice. From
 each relevant source the required information along
 with the bibliographical details is recorded on a 3x5
 card. After the available sources have been completely
 sifted through, the cards so compiled are arranged
 according to the predetermined order of the design.
 When the information on a card is to be utilised as a
 reference in more than one section, required number
 of copies should be made from the card and filed in
 the appropriate sections. These cards are also used
 for the compilation of Bibliography and notes, at a
 later stage.

The Schedule
 As soon as the outline of the work is ready, an
 arbitrary time schedule should be prepared, and the
 author should have some idea in advance about the
 approximate date of completion of the work.

Basic Revision
 When the preliminary text is ready, it should be
 given a thorough revision. At this stage little correction
 work should be left for the publishing concern. Since
 writing English in India is based on British stds., only
 British spellings should be used. Punctuation, abbreviations, rendering of mathemati-
 cal material, notes, bibliography etc., should be care-
 fully recorded and consistency maintained.

ouo/ a/ 5/
 do/ ably/
 #/ e/
 sta/ ss/ [take over
 q -) Lal
 q
 = l.c.
 o/ l.c. =
 x =
 [x =
 [= 9
 a# / x
 im/ = x
 [=
 [=
 1 = Caps
 [take back
 < 5/ # 1#
 = u.f. 6
 7 e/

SPECIMEN OF CORRECTED GALLEY-PROOF

In these times of ours when publishers are besieged with manuscripts a good physical presentation of your ideas in a manuscript will do wonders in favourably impressing the publisher. If the manuscript is got up in an appropriate manner and complete in all respects one can hope for its quick evaluation by the publisher. It is with this aim in mind that this paper has been written. The important points which an author should know about the preparation and submission of manuscripts have been briefly discussed below.

Outline

Let us start with the author who has a topic to work on. Before the actual work is started, a basic design of the topic depending upon the theme and purpose of the publication is prepared. At this stage all the existing published information on the subject is gathered.

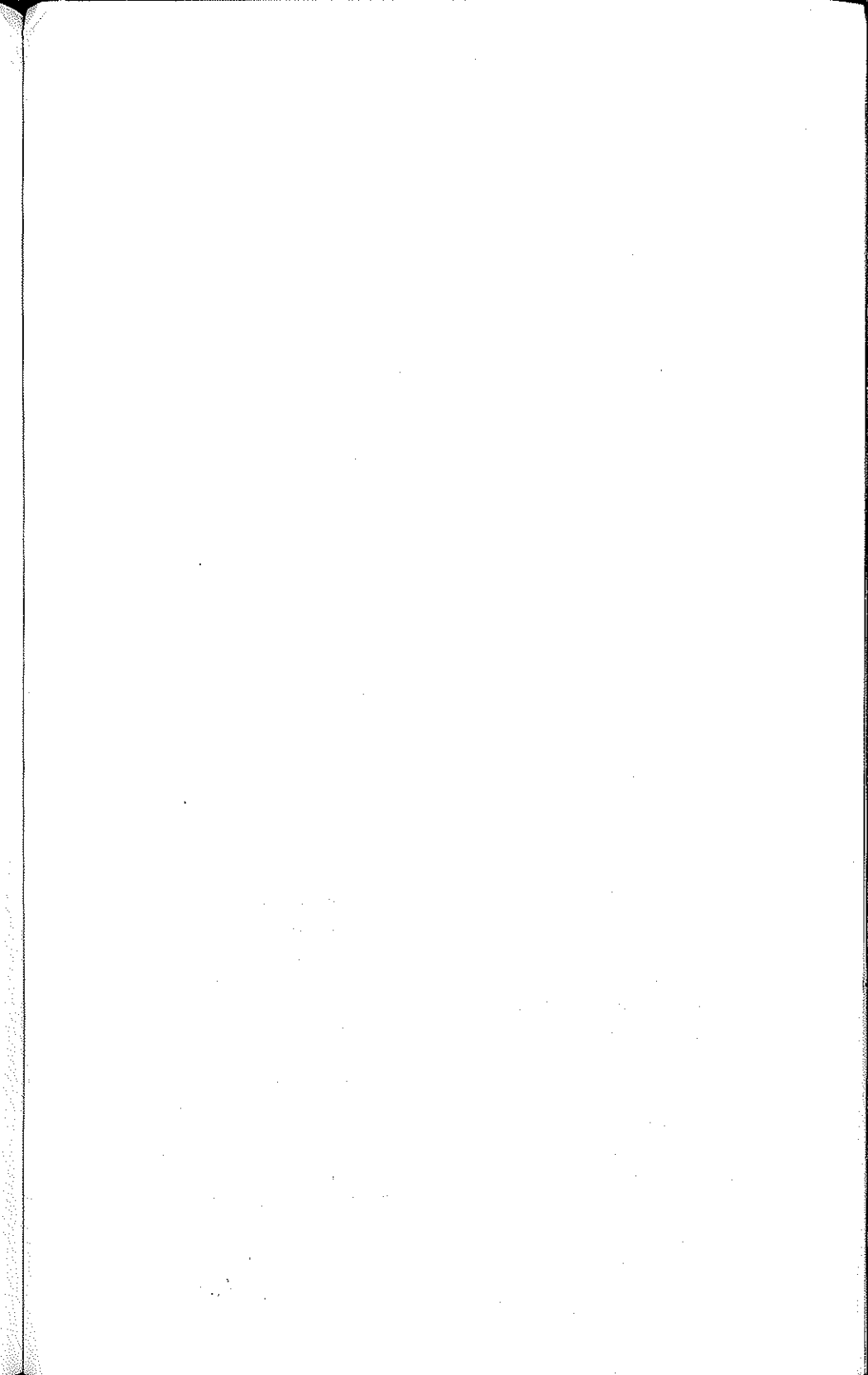
The required materials besides books and articles in periodicals should be traced from reference books, bibliographies-special library catalogues and documentation lists. Also, It is worthwhile to contact specialists in the field who could give some useful advice. From each relevant source the required information along with the bibliographical details is recorded on a 3" x 5" card. After the available sources have been completely sifted through, the cards so compiled are arranged according to the predetermined order of the design. When the information on a card is to be utilised as a reference in more than one section, required number of copies should be made from the card and filed in the appropriate sections. These cards are also used for the compilation of a bibliography and notes, at a later stage.¹

Time Schedule

As soon as the outline of the work is ready, an arbitrary time schedule should be prepared, and the author should have some idea in advance about the approximate date of completion of the work.

Basic Revision

When the preliminary text is ready. It should be given a thorough revision. At this stage little correction work should be left for the publishing concern. Since writing English in India is based on British standards, only British spellings should be used. Punctuation, abbreviations, rendering of mathematical material, notes, bibliography etc., should be carefully recorded and consistency maintained.



Index

(Whole numbers indicate page number; decimal numbers indicate page number plus item number beginning on that page)

- a, the (indefinite and definite articles),
 - 265-267 abbreviations
 - for biblical references, 215-220
 - capitalization, 212
 - in classical sources, 197-198
 - in figures and tables, 238
 - in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies - *see examples under* footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies
 - for general references, 211-215
 - page, 176.2
 - in patristic sources, 197-198
 - of periodical titles, 215
 - preparing list of, 256
 - italicization/underlining, 211-212
- academic degrees, 187
- accuracy
 - evaluation of 'texts', 91-92
 - in online search, 55
 - quotations, 75-76, 223.3
 - research report, 263-264
- acknowledgements
 - for illustrative materials and tables, 242-250
 - page numbering, 274
 - in preliminaries for help received, 253
 - in table of contents, 253-254, 261
- alignment (in tables), 248
- alphabetizing
 - anonymous works, 164.6, 177, 184-185, 195
 - authors' names, 177, 184-185
 - in bibliographies
 - author-date system, 184-186
 - author-title system, 161-162, 176-181
 - glossaries, 257
 - list of abbreviations, 256
 - works by same author, 177, 185-186
- anon., 212
- anonymous author, 164.6, 177, 195
- analysis and evaluation of materials,
 - 87-104
 - critical method, 87-89
 - procedures/'tools', 89-104
 - and creative thinking, 102-104
 - See also* interrogation of a 'text'
- appendixes
 - content, 262-263
 - page numbers, 274-275
 - placement, 251, 262-263
 - in table of contents, 254, 287
- arabic numerals
 - biblical references, 217
 - book numbers, 197-198
 - captions, 239, 246
 - chapter numbers, 197-198, 254-255
 - date of the month, 274
 - edition, 165.11, 196
 - figure numbers, 239
 - footnotes/endnotes, 175-176
 - list of illustrations, 255-256

- list of tables, 256
- page numbers, 274-275
- parts of a work, 258-259
- street addresses, 274
- table numbers, 246-247
- time of day, 274
- volume number
 - multivolume works, 166.14-168.18, 182
 - periodicals, 168.20, 188-189
- argument, defined, 113, 126
 - See also* structure of argument
- art., arts., 212
- article, definite and indefinite, 265-267
- articles in dictionaries and encyclopaedias, 169.23-170.25, 206.4
- articles in newspapers, 171.26-27, 206.3
- articles in periodicals, 168.20, 169.21, 204.1, 205.2
- asterisk (for note references), 250
- authentication, 90-92
- 'author', defined, 106
- author as publisher, 163.5
- authorship (determining), 90-91
- author-date system, 159-160, 181-189
 - bibliography/reference list, 184-186
 - use of footnotes/endnotes, 184
 - for reference citation, *see* textnotes
- author's name
 - alphabetizing, 177, 184-185
 - anonymous works, 164.6, 177, 195
 - article in periodical, 168.20
 - author-date system, 159-160, 181-189
 - author-title system, 159-181, 187-189
 - in bibliographies/reference lists - *see* bibliography
 - book reviews, 169.22
 - collected works, 168.18
 - editor also named, 166.15, 167.16
 - editor or compiler as, 164.7-9
 - first full reference, 161-162, 189-195
 - incomplete, 204
 - of government report, 173.33
 - manuscript collection, 173.31
 - no author, editor or compiler given, 164.6, 195
 - one author, 162.1
 - order of, 161-162, 184-186
 - organization as, 163.5
 - part of a larger work, 166.13
 - repeated references, 189-195, 277-278
 - reports, 168.19
 - in theses and dissertations, 172.30, 282-283
 - textnotes, 181-184
 - three or more authors, 163.3-4
 - translated works, 165.10
 - two authors, 163.2
 - See also* bibliography; electronic sources; footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries; personal names; textnotes
- author-title system, 159-181, 187-189
 - bibliography, 176-181
 - footnotes/endnotes, 160-176
 - See also* footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies and *examples under that heading*
- backing, 125, 129, 132-135
- Bachrach, Arthur J., 18n.
- Barth, Karl, 88
- bias, 99-100
- Bible
 - references, 215-220
 - versions, 218-219

- biblical studies, 33
- bibliography
 - author-date system, 159-160, 181-189
 - author's name, 184-185
 - indentation, 184-186, 270-271
 - order of an entry, 184-186
 - organization of bibliography, 182, 184-186
 - author-title system, 159-181, 187-189
 - author's name, 161-162
 - indentation, 161-162, 270-271
 - order of an entry, 161-162
 - organization of bibliography, 176-181
 - basic rule, 159, 176.3
 - numbering of entries, 178
 - page numbering, 274-275
 - in a proposal, 44
 - sample entries - *See* 'B' examples
- under*
 - footnotes,
 - endnotes and
 - bibliographical entries, 162-175
- block quotations, 227-228, 233-234, 270-271
- book reviews (citation), 169.22
- book reviews/reports (preparation), 295-303
- books, citation of
 - author-date system, 159-160, 181-184
 - author-title system, 159-181
 - edition, 165.11, 170.24, 196
 - encyclopaedias and dictionaries, 169.23-170.25
 - first full reference, 161-162, 189-195
 - multivolume works, 166.14-168.18
 - online book, 209.8
 - page reference, 176
 - reports and documents, 168.19, 173.33
 - as secondary source of quotation, 171.28
 - series, 165.12
 - short title, 191-195
 - subsequent references, 189-195, 277-278
- brackets
 - with author's name, 195, 204, 276-277
 - with date of publication, 195, 276-277
 - to denote writer's capitalization, 225-226
 - with information added to material within parentheses, 196, 276-277
 - with supplementary information inserted in quotations, 276-277
 - with *sic*, 76, 214, 224, 276
 - compared with parentheses, 275-276
- broadside pages (for large figures and tables), 238
- ca.*, 212
- capitalization, 264-265
 - captions for figures and tables, 239-240, 246-247
- common abbreviations, 189-195, 211-215
- names/titles of religious/sacred persons/things/places, 264-265
- prestigious titles, 187
- proper nouns, 264
- in quotations, 224-226
- titles
 - preliminaries, 252-257
 - parts and chapters, 254, 258-259, 261
 - subheadings, 254, 260-261
 - reference material, 254, 262-263

captions, 239-240, 246-247

See also illustrative materials; tables

card catalogue - *see* sources

Cataloging-in-Publication Data, 54

CD-ROM, 68, 204.1

cf., 212

chap., chaps., 212

chapter numbers and titles, 259

in table of contents, 253-255,
285-287

charts - *see* illustrative materials

Chatterji, Saral K., 27n.

Church History Association of India, 9n.

chronological order, 185

circumstantial evidence, 93-94

citation

author-date system, 159-160,
181-186

author-title system, 159-181

books - *see* books, citation of

classical works and patristic sources,
197-198

dictionary and encyclopaedia

articles, 169.23-170.25, 206.4

interviews, 175.35

minutes/proceedings of a meeting,
174.34

newspaper articles, 171.26-27,
206.3

periodical articles, 168.20, 169.21,
188-189, 204.1, 205.2

personal correspondence, 175.36

reports and documents, 168.19,
173.33, 207.6

reviews, 169.22

series, 165.12

unpublished materials, 172.30-173.32

See also bibliography; footnotes,

endnotes and bibliographical
entries

claims (structure of argument),
125-139, 153

classical sources, 197-198

coauthors, 163.2

col., cols., 212

collected works, 168.18

collecting and organizing materials,
46-86

classification of sources, 42, 48-50

finding sources, 47-48, 50-69, 78-85

card/online catalogues, 51-57,
67-69

reference books and related
materials, 58-67

field research, 78-85

organizing notes, 77-78

role of an outline, 70-72

taking notes, 72-77, 85-86

See also field research; qualitative
and quantitative approaches

colon

in glossary, 257, 291

introducing quotations, statements
and enumerations, 225

periodical page references, 168.20,
188-189

place and publisher, 160-162, 195

scripture references, 217-218

source notes (for tables), 250

in textnotes, 182

volume and page, 182

column headings (of tables), 247-248

comma

in bibliographies, 162, 184-185

in footnotes/endnotes, 161-162,
188, 189-195; *see also* 'N' *examples*

- under* footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries, 162-175
- query within a longer sentence, 277
- with scripture sources, 217-218
- in textnotes, 182
- common nouns, 264-265
- comp., comps., 213
- compiler, 164.9
- component part of a larger work, 166.13
- computers
 - locus of responsibility, 220
 - software, 175.1, 271
 - See also* electronic retrieval systems
- concluding section (of research report), 261-262
- consistency in style, 159, 176, 229.6, 238, 265, 270-271
- context, importance of, 34-36, 88
- contextualization, 34-36
- correspondence, 175.36
- corroboration, 101-102
- credentials of a writer, 95-97
- credit lines - *see* acknowledgements
- critical method, 3-4, 87-89
- critical thinking, 139-147, 155-157
 - defined, 139, 143
- Dalit Theology, 88
- Dalits, 26-27, 32-33
- Das, Arvind N., 24n.
- dash, 217, 268-270
- data columns, 247-249
- data sources, 42, 46-69, 78-85, 92-95;
 - See also* sources
- date (determining), 91
- date as part of title, 165.11
- date of publication
 - author-date system, 181-182, 184-185
 - author-title system, 160-162
 - brackets with, 196
 - periodicals, 168.20, 188-189
 - multivolume works, 168.18
 - not given/uncertain, 195-196
 - reprints, 196-197
 - in textnotes, 181-182
- date of the month, 274
- date of a series, 165.12
- decimals (in tables), 248
- definite and indefinite articles (the, a), 265-267
- dependent variable, 248n.
- diacritical marks, 279
- diagrams - *see* illustrative materials
- dictionaries, articles in, 170.25, 206.4
- direct evidence, 93-95
- disciplinary approach, 6-7, 23-24, 36
 - criticism of, 7-8, 24-27
 - See also* interdisciplinary studies
- dissertation
 - citation of, 172.30
 - defined, 37n.
 - proposal, 37-45
- division of words, 269
- documentation, 158-159, 221, 267
- domain name, 200-201
- Downs, F.S., xvi
- drawings - *see* illustrative materials
- ed., eds., 213
- 2nd ed., 3rd ed., 213
- edited works, 161, 164.7-8, 166.13-167.16

editions

of classical and patristic sources,
197-198

of encyclopaedias, 170.24

named/numbered, 165.11, 170.24

new edition, 196

reprint, 196-197

editor(s), ed., eds., edited, 164.7-8,
166.13-167.16, 168.20, 187

editor as translator, 166.15

e.g., 213

electronic retrieval systems, 51, 67-69

electronic sources, 198-211

documentation

access date, 199

page reference, 199-200, 205.2

publication date, 199

domain name, 200-201

generic reference note, 201-203

protocol, 67, 200

URL, 200-201

*For examples of footnotes, endnotes and
bibliographical entries for electronic
sources, using author-title style, see:*

article in dictionary - author given,
206.4

article in newspaper - author
given, 206.3

article in periodical on a
CD-ROM, 204.1

article in online periodical, 205.2

article/scholarly paper posted at
an organization's website, 207.5

book (online), 209.8

email, 209.9

government document, 208.7

report, 207.6

scholarly paper posted at a website
different from publisher of
printed version, 210.10

ellipsis points

full line of, 231

with full stop, 230-231

number of, 229-231

punctuation with, 229-231

with quotations, 226, 229-231

spacing, 229

email, 209.9

emphasis added, 231.7

encyclopaedia articles, 169.23, 170.24

endnotes - *see* footnotes, endnotes and
bibliographical entries

et al., 213

etc., 213

ethnography, 81-82, 84n.

evaluation of materials - *see* analysis
and evaluation of materials

f., ff., 213

'facts' and error, 88-89

facts of publication

for classical and patristic sources,
197-198

date of publication - *see* date of
publication

first full reference - *see* first full
reference missing

name of author or editor, 195

place of publication, publisher,
year, 195-196

multivolume works, 166.14-168.18

new edition, 196

periodicals, 168.20, 188-189

place of publication, 160-162,
184-185

- government documents, 173.33
- newspapers, 171.26-27
- publisher, 160-162, 168.20, 184-185
- reference books, 169.23-170.25
- reprints, 196-197
- uncertain, 195-196
- fallacies, 109-124
 - false analogy, 119
 - false cause, 115-119
 - false generalizations, 113-115, 151-152
 - non sequitur*, 121-122
 - of ambiguity/vagueness, 122-124, 152
 - of appeal to authority, 119-121
- family names - *see* personal names
- feminist movements, 26
- Fernandas, Walter, 34n.
- field research, 14, 33, 47, 78-85
 - and library research, 33, 66, 78-79
 - ethnography, 81-82, 84n.
 - qualitative and quantitative approaches, 79-83, 83n.
 - and sampling, 83-85
 - theory and practice resources, 83n.
- fig., figs., 213
- figures - *see* illustrative materials
- figure numbers
 - in captions, 239
 - in list of illustrations, 255-256
- first full reference
 - books, 160-162, 189-195
 - newspaper articles, 171.26-27
 - periodical articles, 168.20-21, 188-189
 - See also* books, citation of; electronic sources; footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries; periodicals
- Fleming, Sir Alexander, 17-18
- foldout page, 239
- footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries
 - articles in dictionaries and encyclopaedias, 169.23-170.25, 206.4
 - articles in newspapers, 171.26-27, 206.3
 - articles in periodicals, 168.20-169.21, 188-189, 204.1, 205.2
 - author's name - *see as main heading*
 - with author-date system, 158-161, 181-186, 187-188
 - with author-title system, 158-181, 187-188
- basic rule, 159, 176.3
- biblical sources, 215-220
- in block quotations, 233(b)
- classical sources, 197-198
- electronic sources, 201-211
 - See also as main heading*
- first full reference - *see examples under main heading above; see also* 189-198
- for tables, 250
- indentation, 161-162
- margins, 161-162
- multiple references, 172.29
- named/numbered editions, 165.11, 170.24, 196
- numbering, 162, 175.1, 178
- order of parts, 160-162, 176-178, 181-182, 184-186
- page references - *see as main heading*
- in patristic sources, 197-198
- placement, 160-161
- with run in quotations, 232(a)
- scripture, 215-220

- series, 165.12
- subsequent references, 189-195
- with textnotes, 160, 181-182, 184-186
 - See also* citation; first full reference; page references
- For examples of footnote, endnote and bibliographical entries under the author- title system, see the following (see also electronic sources):*
 - one author, 162.1
 - two authors, 163.2
 - three authors, with subtitle, 163.3
 - more than three authors, 163.4
 - institution, association, group and similar bodies as 'author', 163.5
 - no author given, 164.6
 - editor of a collection, 164.7
 - more than one editor, 164.8
 - compiler or compilers of a collection, 164.9
 - translator of an original work, 165.10
 - edition, 165.11
 - series - book or monograph, 165.12
 - component part by one author in a collection edited by others, 166.13
 - one of several volumes under one title by the same authors or editors, 166.14
 - one of several volumes under one general title and edited by the same person(s), with each volume under a separate title and by a different author or authors, 166.15
 - one of several volumes by the same person under a general title, with each volume under a separate title and having its own translator and/or editor, 167.16
 - selected works, 168.17
 - collected works, in several volumes, published over a period of years, 168.18
 - report, 168.19, 207.6
 - article in a periodical - author given, 168.20, 204.1, 205.2
 - article in a periodical - author not given, 169.21
 - book review, 169.22
 - signed article in an encyclopaedia - editor's name given, 169.23
 - unsigned article in an encyclopaedia, 170.24
 - signed article in a dictionary - editor's name given, 170.25, 206.4
 - article in a newspaper - author given, 171.26, 206.3
 - article in a newspaper - no author given, 171.27
 - a work cited or quoted by another author, 171.28
 - multiple references in a single footnote or endnote, 172.29
 - online book, 209.8
 - unpublished thesis or dissertation, 172.30
 - manuscript collection, 173.31
 - unpublished manuscript in an archival collection, 173.32
 - government documents and records, 173.33, 208.7

- minutes/proceedings of a meeting, 174.34
- interview, 175.35
- email, 209.9
- personal correspondence, 175.36
- foreign words, 211-212, 267
- forms of address (social and professional titles), 187
- formulation of the problem, 4-5, 15-21, 38-39
 - relation to research undertaking, 16-17
- fractions, 274
- front matter - *see* preliminaries
- full stop, 161-162, 267-268
 - with abbreviations, 212-215, 267
 - bibliographies or reference lists, 162, 184-185, 267-268
 - in captions, 239-240, 246-247
 - with chapter numbers, 255, 259
 - classical and patristic references, 197-198
 - with ellipses, 230-231
 - in glossary, 257
 - legends, 238, 241
 - in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries, 161-162, 184-185, 267-268
 - in list of illustrations/tables, 255-256, 267-268
 - with part numbers, 258-259
 - with quotation marks, 233
 - with scripture references, 216
 - subheadings, 267-268
 - in table of contents, 253-255
- Gk, 219
- glossary, 257, 291
- government documents, 173.33, 208.7
- graphs - *see* illustrative materials
- grounds (structure of argument), 125, 127-139, 153-154
- Guha, Ranajit, 10n.
- Guide for proof readers, 314
- Heb, 219
- hermeneutic of suspicion, 89
- history, social, 9
- human finiteness and error, 89
- hyphen, 268-270
- ibid.*, 189-195, 213
- id.*, 190, 212
- i.e.*, 213
- illustrative materials
 - acknowledgement of, 242
 - broadside style, 238
 - captions, 239-240
 - charts, 236, 239, 241, 255
 - definition, 236
 - drawings, 236, 239, 241
 - figure captions, 239-240
 - figure matter, 241
 - figure number, 236, 239
 - foldout page, 239
 - graphs, 236, 239, 241, 255
 - identifying parts, 242
 - legend, 238, 241
 - list of illustrations, 255-256
 - large figures, 238-239
 - maps, 236, 239, 241
 - margins, 237
 - on facing pages, 238
 - page numbers, 237
 - photographs, 236, 239, 241, 255

- photoreduction, 238
- placement, 237
- title - *see* figure captions *above*
- inclusive numbers, 168.20, 269
- indentation, 270-271
 - block quotations, 210, 271
 - captions in list of illustrations/tables, 255-256
 - footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries, 161-162
 - first line of paragraph, 270-271
 - subheadings, 254, 260
 - in table of contents, 253-255
- independent variable, 248n.
- Indian Church History Review*, 9n.
- infra*, 213
- interdisciplinary studies, 8-10, 36;
 - See also* disciplinary approach
- Internet, 67-69, 200
 - domain name, 67, 200-201
 - protocol, 67, 200
 - search engine, 67
 - World Wide Web, 69
- interrogation of a 'text', 105-157
 - 'text' defined, 105-106
 - initial questions, 106-109, 150-151
 - logical reasoning perspective, 109-139
 - search for fallacies, 110-124, 151-152
 - structure of argument, 125-139, 153-155
 - critical thinking perspective, 139-145, 155-156
 - perspectives compared, 147-157
 - See also* fallacies; structure of argument; critical thinking
- interview, 81, 105, 175.35
- introductory chapter, 258
- ISBN, 56
- issue numbers, 168.20, 188-189
- italics
 - of abbreviations, 212
 - added for emphasis, xvi, 231.8
 - foreign words, xvi, 267
 - in original quotation, 231.8
 - titles of books and periodicals, xvi, 160-162, 168.20, 184-186
 - underlining for, xvi-xvii, 160-162, 212, 231.8, 267
- Jathanna, O.V., xvi
- journals - *see* periodicals
- key (to illustrations) - *see* legends
- knowledge
 - as growing body of 'fact', 2-3, 21-24
 - as human construct, 3, 22-28, 144
 - as power, 27
- l (*for* line), 11, 213
- legends, 238, 241
- letters (correspondence), 175.36
- Liberation Theology, 88
- library research, 33, 47, 78-79, 83-84
- limited scope, 5-10
- lines in table, 249-250
- lines, omission of in quotations, 231
- list of abbreviations
 - standard abbreviations, 211-215
 - margins, 272-273
 - placement, 252
 - specimen, 290
 - in table of contents, 254, 284-286

- when to use/content, 211-212, 255-256, 290
- list of illustrations
 - content, 255-256, 288
 - margins, 272-273
 - placement, 252
 - specimen, 288
 - in table of contents, 254, 284-286
- list of tables
 - content, 256, 289
 - margins, 272-273
 - placement, 252
 - specimen, 289
 - in table of contents, 254
- loc. cit.*, 190-191, 212
- logical reasoning, 109-139, 151-155
 - critique of, 139-144
 - See also* fallacies; structure of argument
- logical reasoning, coherence, progressive development, 271
- long sentences and paragraphs, 271
- locus of responsibility, 220
 - See also* accuracy
- magazines - *see* periodicals
- main body (of research report) - *see* text
- manuscript collections, 173.31
- maps - *see* illustrative materials
- margins
 - general rules, 272-273
 - illustrative materials, 237
 - footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries, 162
 - tables, 237
 - title page, 252-253, 282-283
- Mathur, Kuldeep, 24n.
- method of research, 41-45
- methodology, 41n.
- Mies, Marie, 26n.
- minutes of meeting, 174.34
- missing facts of publication
 - author's name incomplete, 204
 - no author/editor, 164.6, 195
 - no place/publisher/year of publication, 195-196
- models, research, 21-36
- MS, MSS, 213
- multiauthor works, 163.3-4
- multiple references in one note, 172.29
- multivolume works, 166.14-168.18
- N.B., 213
- n.d., 195-196, 214
- n., nn., 214
- n.p., 195, 214
- narrative discourse, 145-146
- negative findings, 262
- new editions, 165.11, 196
- newspapers, 171.26-27
- Nirmal, Arvind P., 27n.
- no., nos., 214
- no author/editor/compiler given, 164.6
- Northrop, F.S.C., 16-17
- nouns (capitalization), 264-265
- numerical or spelled out, 273-274
- numbering
 - bibliographical entries, 162, 178
 - footnotes/endnotes, 162, 175-176
 - in list of illustrations/tables, 255-256
 - in table of contents, 254-255

numbers

- alignment (in tables), 248
- beginning a sentence, 273
- dates, 274
- decimals (in tables), 248
- edition, 165.11, 174.24
- enumerations, 275
- fractions, 269-270, 274
- numbers in the text, 273-274
- page numbers, 274-275
- part numbers, 259
- percent, 248-249, 273
- series (works), 165.12
- series of numbers, 274
- spelled out or numeral, 273-274
- street addresses, 274
- superscript, 176, 232.8
- time of day, 274
- volume and issue number, 168.20, 188-189
 - *See also* chapter numbers and titles; figure numbers; inclusive numbers; footnote, endnotes and bibliographical entries - numbering; parts number; table numbers

Oddie, G.A., 9n.

omissions in quotations, 226, 229.6

Oommen, George, xvi

online catalogue - *see* sources - card/
online catalogue

online book, 209.8

op. cit., 189-195, 214

oral history, 78, 81-82, 85n.

oral tradition, 31, 47, 78, 81-82, 85n.

outline, 43-44, 70-72

p., pp., 176.2, 214

page abbreviations (p., pp.), 176.2, 182, 192, 214

page numbering, 274-275

broadside pages, 238

with chapter headings, 274-275

with illustrative materials/tables, 237

introduction, 258

placement, 274-275

preliminaries, 274

in table of contents, 255

text and reference materials, 274-275

title page, 274

page references (citation)

articles in periodicals and reference works, 168.20, 169.23-170.25, 199-200, 205.2

in bibliographies, 162, 168.20

in book review/report, 301

f., ff., 213

in footnotes/endnotes, 160-161, 168.20, 189-195

inclusive numbers, 168.20, 269

multivolume works, 167.16,

numbering, 175.1

p., pp., 176.2, 214

in textnotes, 181-184

See also page numbers

para., paras., 214

paraphrase, 222, 234.9

paragraphs

in block quotations, 271

indentation of first line, 270-271

omission of in quotations, 229.6

parentheses

with base numbers (in tables), 248-249

- bibliographies, 161-162
- versus brackets, 275-277
- with dates of periodicals, 168.20, 188-189
- with enumerations, 275
- in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies, 160-162, 187-189, 275-276
- with supplemental information, 173.33, 275
- for reference numbers in text, 176, 232.8(a)
- with scripture reference, 218
- in table captions (to denote omitted zeros or other information), 249
- with textnotes, 181-183, 275
- participatory-action research, 27-36
- participant observation, 80
- parts (sections of research report)
 - page number, 274
 - part-title pages, 258-259
 - in table of contents, 253-254, 284-285
- passim*, 214
- patristic sources, 197-198
- Paul, Richard W., 143n., 145n.
- percentages in tables, 245, 248-249
- Pereira, Winin, 150n.
- period - *see* full stop
- periodicals
 - abbreviation of titles, 215
 - first full reference, 168.20
 - in bibliography, 168.20, 179-180
 - subsequent references, 189-195
 - date of publication, 168.20, 188-189
 - volume and issue numbers, 188-189
 - See also* articles in periodicals; newspapers
 - personal correspondence, 175.36
 - personal names
 - alphabetizing for bibliography, 177, 184-185
 - religious/personal/professional titles, 187
 - See also* author's name
 - perspective, 7-10, 23-36, 41
 - Dalits and Tribals, 26-27, 32-33
 - defined, 34
 - feminist movements, 26, 32-33
 - participatory research, 27-36
 - traditional research, 23-36
 - photocopies/photoreduction, 238
 - photographs - *see* illustrative materials
 - place of publication
 - in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies, 160-162, 184-185
 - for government documents, 173.33
 - not given, 195
 - plagiarism, 159, 159n., 221
 - plan of research, 10-11, 37-45
 - See also* outline
 - poetry, ellipses with, 231
 - Prabhakar, Samson, xvi
 - preface, 251, 253
 - page numbering, 274
 - in table of contents, 254, 284-286
 - preliminaries
 - acknowledgements, 251, 253, 284-286
 - glossary, 252, 257, 291
 - list of abbreviations, 252, 256, 290
 - list of illustrations, 252, 255-256, 288
 - list of tables, 252, 256, 289
 - order of parts, 251-252
 - page numbering, 274-275
 - preface, 251, 253, 284-286
 - table of contents, 253-255, 284-286
 - title page, 251-252, 282-283

- primary data, 42, 48-49, 92-93
- proceedings, 174.34
- professional titles, 187
- proof reader's guide, 314
- proper nouns, 264-265
- proposal, research, 37-45
 - See also* research
- prose, quotation of, 226.4
- protocol, 67, 200
- pt., pts., 214
- publication
 - date - *see* date of publication
 - place - *see* place of publication
- publisher's name
 - missing, 195
 - reprint editions, 196-197
 - which to use, 161
 - See also* facts of publication
- punctuation - *see type of punctuation*
(*e.g.*, brackets) or *place for punctuation*
(*e.g.*, footnote)
- qualifiers, 125, 129-130, 132, 135
- qualitative and quantitative approaches, 79-83n.
- question mark
 - query within longer sentence, 277
 - quotation marks with, 233
 - for uncertainty, 195-196
- questionnaires, 80
- quotations
 - adding emphasis, 231
 - accuracy, 75-76, 91-92, 223.3, 263-264
 - block, 227(b), 233(b), 271
 - brackets with, 225-226, 231.7
 - in book reviews/reports, 301
 - capitalization, 224-226
 - citing sources, 232.8
 - ellipsis points, 226, 229.6
 - how much to quote, 223.2
 - indentation, 270-271
 - in foreign languages, 267
 - insertions, 226
 - italics in original, 231.7
 - italics/underlining added, 231.7
 - mistakes in original, 76, 224
 - and paraphrases, 222, 234.9
 - and observations, 76-77
 - omissions in, 225(b), 229.6
 - permissible changes, 224-226
 - poetry, 231
 - within quotation, 228.5
 - and reference numbers, 175.1, 232.8
 - with run-in format, 226.4, 232(a)
 - with set-off format, 227(b), 233(b)
 - and secondary sources, 171.28
 - and *sic*, 76, 224
 - and summarizing, 75
 - translated materials, 224
 - when to quote, 121.1
- quotations vs. translations, transliterations and summary of material from others, 279-281
- quotation marks
 - and block quotations, 227(b), 233(b)
 - conversation and dialogue, 229
 - double quotation marks, 228.5
 - placement, 226.4, 228.5, 232.8
 - punctuation with, 224, 229-234
 - single quotation marks, 228.5
 - quotation within quotation, 228.5
 - with run-in format, 226.4, 232(a)
 - with set-off format, 227(b), 233(b)
 - with titles of works
 - articles in books, 166.13, 167.16, 169.23-170.25

- articles in periodicals and newspapers, 168.20-169.21, 171.26-27
- theses and dissertations, 172.30
- unpublished works, 172.30, 173.32
- rebuttal, 125, 130.6, 132-135
- reference list, 184-186
 - See also* bibliography
- reference material
 - appendixes, 252, 262-263, 287
 - bibliography/reference list, 252, 262-263, 287
 - See also* bibliography, reference list
- reliability of materials, 97-100
- religious names and titles, 187, 264-265
- representativeness of data, 83-85
- repetition, 277-278
- reports, 168.19, 173.33, 207.6
- reprints, 91, 196-197
- research
 - academic and social relevance, 13-14
 - competence of researcher, 14
 - defined, 1-12
 - and existing knowledge, 2-3, 10, 21, 28, 31
 - and increasing knowledge, 2-3, 28
 - communicable investigation, 11-12
 - critical approach, 2-4
 - field, 14, 33, 47, 78-85
 - library research, 33, 47, 78-79, 84
 - limited scope, 5.5
 - models of, 21-36
 - participatory-action, 27-28, 31-33, 34n., 36
 - traditional, 23-27
 - two models compared, 28-36
 - personal interests and value
 - judgement of researcher, 13
 - plan of, 10.6
 - problem centred, 4.4
 - proposal, 37-45
 - title, 38
 - research problem, 38-40
 - definition, 40
 - limitations, 40
 - and previous research, 40
 - method of research, 41-45
 - selecting subject area, 12-21
 - systematic process, 10.6
 - verifiable results, 12.8
 - See also* formulation of the problem; statement of the problem
- responsibility, locus of, 220, 223.3, 263-264
- rev., 214
- reviews (of books), 169.22, 295-303
- right to life, 148
- roman numerals
 - chapter numbers, 259
 - page numbers (preliminaries), 274
 - part numbers, 258-259
- rows (in tables), 248
- run in format, 226.4, 232(a)
- runover lines
 - captions of lists and tables, 240
 - subheadings in table of contents, 254
- s.v.*, 214
- sacred names, places and titles, 264-265
- sample, 83-85
- Scott, David, xvi
- Scheitzer (Albert), 88
- search engine, 67

- sec., secs., 214
- secondary sources/data, 42, 49-50, 92-95
- selected works, 168.17
- self-interest, 97-98
- set off format, 227(b), 233(b)
- series (citation), 165.12
- Sethi, Harsh, 24n.
- shortened titles, 191-195
- sic*, 76, 214, 224, 276
- social history, 9
- software, 175.1, 271
- sources
 - citing sources, 232.8, 234.9
 - classification
 - primary/secondary, 42, 92-95
 - direct/circumstantial, 93-95
 - finding sources, 42, 47-65, 78-85, 92-95
 - archival materials, 64
 - bibliographies, 61-66
 - books in print listings, 61
 - book review indexes, 59-60
 - card/online catalogue, 51-57, 67-69
 - author/title/subject, 51-55
 - call/serial number, 56
 - specialized indexes, 56
 - theses/dissertations, 56-57
 - electronic sources, 198-211
 - See under main heading for details*
 - encyclopædias, 62-63
 - knowledgeable persons, 66-67
 - multiauthor works indexes, 60
 - periodical indexes, 58-59
 - reference books, 58-65
 - specialized dictionaries, 63
 - statistical data, 66
 - recording sources, 69-78, 85-86
 - See also* acknowledgements
 - spelled-out numbers for chapters and parts, 259
 - spelling, xvii, 223.3, 263-264, 269-270
 - Spivak, Gayatri Chakravorty, 10n.
 - statement of the problem, 4.4, 15-21, 38-39
 - definition, 15-16, 38
 - relation to research undertaking, 16-17
 - street address, 274
 - structure of argument, 125-139
 - claims, 125, 126.1, 126-139, 152-153
 - backing, 125, 129.4, 132-135
 - grounds, 125, 127.2, 127-139, 153
 - qualifiers, 125, 129.5, 132, 135
 - rebuttal, 125, 130.6, 132-135
 - warrants, 125, 128.3, 129-138, 152-154
 - case of medical treatment, 131-133
 - case of People's War Group detainees, 133-138
 - stub, 247
 - See also* tables
 - Subaltern Studies, 10n.
 - subdivisions and subheadings
 - bibliography, 175-181, 184-186
 - capitalization, 254, 261
 - specimen, 292-294
 - table of contents, 252, 253-255, 284-286
 - tables, 248
 - text, 252, 260-261, 292-294
 - subject and verb agreement, 278-279
 - subsequent references
 - in footnotes/endnotes, 189-195
 - shortened title, 191-195

- summary vs. translation, transliteration
and quotation of material from
others, 75, 279-281
- superscript numbers, 175.1, 232.8
- supra*, 214
- s.v.*, 214
- syllabication, 269
- syllogism, 110-112
- symbols in figures and tables
in figure legends, 238, 241
in tables, 238, 250
- table captions, 246-247
in list of tables - *see* list of tables
- table of contents, 252, 253-255,
284-286
full stop leaders, 255, 267-268
- table of transliteration, 310
- tables, 236-239, 242-250
abbreviations and symbols, 238, 250
acknowledgements, 250
alignment, 248
base numbers, 248-249
blank cells, 249
broadside style, 238
captions, 246-247
categories/classes, 243, 247
column headings, 247-248
data columns, 247-248
decimal numbers, 248
definition, purpose, 236, 242-243
on facing pages, 238
foldout page, 239
independent and dependent
variables, 248n.
large tables, 238-239
lines in, 249-250
list of - *see* list of tables
margins, 237
numbering - *see* caption *under this heading*
omissions
of data, 249
of zeros in large numbers, 249
page numbers, 237
percentages in, 245-246, 248-249
photoreduction, 238
placement, 237
rows, 248
source notes, 250
subheadings, 248
spacing of rows and columns, 248
stub, 247
table footnote, 250
titles - *see* captions *above*
totals, 247-249
variables, 243, 245-248n.
See also list of tables
- text (main body of research report),
252, 257-261
introduction, 258
main body, 258-261
parts and part-titles, 258-259
chapters and chapter titles, 259
subdivisions and subheadings,
260-261
concluding section, 261-262
margins, 272-279
organization, 252, 257
page numbers, 274-275
'text' defined, 105-106
- textnotes, 160, 181-184, 232.8
author-date system, 159-160,
181-184
author's name, 181-184
page reference, 181-184

- placement, 160, 181-184
- punctuation, 181-184
- with run in references, 181-184, 232.8(a)
- with set off references, 181-184, 233(b)
- volume number, 182
- textual accuracy (of research report), 75-76, 91-92, 223.3, 263-264
- 'textual' errors (in research materials), 75-76, 91-92
- Thapar, Romila, 10n.
- thesis
 - citation of, 172.30
 - defined, 37n.
- Third World, 35-36
- time (of day), 274
- title page, 251, 252-253, 274, 282-283
- titles (with names of persons), 187
- titles of works
 - in footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies/reference lists, 160-162, 184-186
 - date as part of, 165.11
 - first full reference - *see* footnotes, endnotes and bibliographical entries
 - italics/underlining, 161-162
 - multiple volume works, 166.14-168.18
 - of parts, chapters, section, 254
 - quotation marks with, 172.30, 173.32
 - shortened titles, 191-195
 - unpublished material, 172.30, 173.32
 - See also* chapter titles
- Toulmin, Stephen, 125n.
- traditional research paradigm, 21-36
- translation vs. transliteration, quotation and summary of material from others, 279-281
- translator, trans., translated, 165.10, 166.15-167.16, 187-188
- transliteration table, 310
- transliteration vs. translation, quotation and summary of material from others, 279-281
- Tribals, 26-27, 32-33
- typewriter
 - hyphen for dashes, 268
 - underlining, 161, 267
- underlining, xvi-xvii, 161-162, 212, 231.7, 267
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 148
- unpublished manuscripts, 172.30-173.32
- unpublished material
 - archival materials, 173.31-32
 - dissertations/theses, 172.30
 - government documents, 173.33
 - interviews, 175.35
 - letters, 175.36
 - minutes/proceedings, 174.34
- URL, 200-201
- v., vv., 215
- Viegas, Philip, 34n.
- Vijayakumar, James, xvi
- viz.*, 215
- vol., vols., 215
- volume number
 - multivolume works, 166.14-168.18, 182
 - periodicals, 168.20, 188-189
- vs., 215
- Vs., Vss., 220

Walters, Kerry S., 140n.

warrants, 125, 128.3, 128-138,
153-155

women's studies, 26

Warren, Karan J., 142n.

word division, 269

word processing programmes, 175.1,
271

World Wide Web , 69

See also electronic sources, internet

A Manual for Researchers and Writers

This Manual is designed to provide help in the conduct of research and in reporting on the results of research. In this Second Edition an attempt has been made to update the First Edition, and to incorporate a new section on the use of the Internet and other electronic resources.

Much of the material in this Manual has evolved from the experience of the author, who taught research methods and guided research students over nearly three decades, in both library and field research. While originally designed primarily to help students pursuing master's and doctoral degrees, academics and activists should also find sections of this Manual helpful in their work.

The first five chapters are directed primarily to researchers and the conduct of research. The next four chapters deal with the preparation of written research reports - such as theses and dissertations, and are relevant to the preparation of other kinds of written research reports. The last chapter deals with book reviews/reports, which often serve as the entry point for many students into developing and demonstrating skills in critical observation, investigation and writing.

A selected bibliography of other guides for researchers and writers, table of transliteration for major languages of India, guide for proof readers, and an extensive index add to the value of this Manual as a practical tool for researchers and writers.

Dr. Hunter P. Mabry taught at the United Theological College, Bangalore, for over 25 years. He now lives in Waynesboro, Virginia, USA.

Board of Theological Education-Senate of Serampore College
Post Box 4635, No. 2, 2nd Cross, Nandidurga Road,
29/B, Jayamahall Extension, Bangalore - 560 046, India