

Anforderungen an Hausarbeiten

✓ Umfang/Format

- Deckblatt mit Titel, Name, Matrikelnummer
- Abstract (max. 200 Worte)
- Inhaltsverzeichnis und Literaturverzeichnis
- Systematische Zitierweise
- Erklärung zur Prüfungsleistung / Plagiats-Erklärung (Link zur pdf-Datei siehe unten)
- Schriftart: Arial 11; Seitenabstand: mind. 2,5 cm; Zeilenabstand: 1,5 oder LaTeX Dokumentenklasse „article“
- Abbildungen und Tabellen: laufend durchnummerieren, informative Überschriften, Quellenangaben für sämtliche Inhalte angeben
- Weitere Anforderungen (z.B. Seitenanzahl) werden im Seminar festgelegt

✓ Abgabe der Hausarbeit

Bitte halten Sie den Abgabetermin ein. Es sind zwei Versionen Ihrer Hausarbeit einzureichen:

- eine elektronische Version als pdf-Datei per E-Mail an Ruhe@soz.uni-frankfurt.de, bei statistischen Arbeiten auch Replikationscode und –daten mit abgeben.
- eine ausgedruckte Version (A4, einseitig bedruckt, oben links getackert, Hüllen/Mappen nicht nötig) können Sie zu den Öffnungszeiten des Sekretariats für Studierende persönlich abgeben (Raum 3.G 160, Mi u. Do 12:30-13:30 Uhr) oder in den weißen Briefkasten schräg gegenüber dem Sekretariat einwerfen.

✓ Aufbau

Vergleicht man den Aufbau einiger (insbesondere quantitativer) Artikel in einschlägigen Journals, wird schnell deutlich, dass empirische Arbeiten in der Politikwissenschaft häufig einer ähnlichen Grundstruktur folgen. Für Ihre Hausarbeit können Sie sich an der nachfolgenden Gliederung orientieren:

- Einleitung
Hinführung zum Thema, Relevanz der Arbeit und Einordnung in die aktuelle wissenschaftliche Debatte, Vorstellung der Forschungsfrage und Methode, kurze Erläuterung der Gliederung
- Forschungsstand und Theorie

Aktuelle Forschungsergebnisse und -debatten darlegen, Theoretische Ansätze erläutern, die Erklärung für den zu untersuchenden Zusammenhang bieten, aus dieser theoretischen Argumentation eigene Hypothesen herleiten und aufstellen

- Daten und Methode
Vorstellung der verwendeten Daten und Variablen (ggf. Darlegung der Erhebungsmethode), Erläuterung der zur Datenanalyse verwendeten Methode
- Analyse
Darstellung der Ergebnisse der Datenanalyse
- Diskussion
Bedeutung der Ergebnisse in Bezug auf Theorie, Forschungsstand und Hypothesen diskutieren
- Fazit
Beantwortung der Forschungsfrage, Grenzen der Arbeit, Ausblick (zukünftige Forschung)

✓ Wissenschaftliches Schreiben

Ziel einer Hausarbeit ist es der Leserin/dem Leser eine eigene These zu präsentieren und diese anhand der Literatur und empirischen Analyse zu begründen und zu belegen. Die Hausarbeit ist damit keine bloße Aneinanderreihung von Fakten zu einem bestimmten Themenfeld, sondern benötigt ein „Argument“, das sich als roter Faden durch die gesamte Arbeit zieht. Einen guten Überblick gibt dazu dieses Handout des *Writing Center der University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill*:

Argument

What this handout is about

This handout will define what an argument is and explain why you need one in most of your academic essays.

Arguments are everywhere

You may be surprised to hear that the word “argument” does not have to be written anywhere in your assignment for it to be an important part of your task. In fact, making an argument—expressing a point of view on a subject and supporting it with evidence—is often the aim of academic writing. Your instructors may assume that you know this and thus may not explain the importance of arguments in class.

Most material you learn in college is or has been debated by someone, somewhere, at some time. Even when the material you read or hear is presented as a simple fact, it may actually be one person’s interpretation of a set of information. Instructors may call on you to examine that interpretation and defend it, refute it, or offer some new view of your own. In writing assignments,

you will almost always need to do more than just summarize information that you have gathered or regurgitate facts that have been discussed in class. You will need to develop a point of view on or interpretation of that material and provide evidence for your position.

Consider an example. For nearly 2000 years, educated people in many Western cultures believed that bloodletting—deliberately causing a sick person to lose blood—was the most effective treatment for a variety of illnesses. The claim that bloodletting is beneficial to human health was not widely questioned until the 1800s, and some physicians continued to recommend bloodletting as late as the 1920s. Medical practices have now changed because some people began to doubt the effectiveness of bloodletting; these people argued against it and provided convincing evidence. Human knowledge grows out of such differences of opinion, and scholars like your instructors spend their lives engaged in debate over what claims may be counted as accurate in their fields. In their courses, they want you to engage in similar kinds of critical thinking and debate.

Argumentation is not just what your instructors do. We all use argumentation on a daily basis, and you probably already have some skill at crafting an argument. The more you improve your skills in this area, the better you will be at thinking critically, reasoning, making choices, and weighing evidence.

Making a claim

What is an argument? In academic writing, an argument is usually a main idea, often called a “claim” or “thesis statement,” backed up with evidence that supports the idea. In the majority of college papers, you will need to make some sort of claim and use evidence to support it, and your ability to do this well will separate your papers from those of students who see assignments as mere accumulations of fact and detail. In other words, gone are the happy days of being given a “topic” about which you can write anything. It is time to stake out a position and prove why it is a good position for a thinking person to hold. See our [handout on thesis statements](#).

Claims can be as simple as “Protons are positively charged and electrons are negatively charged,” with evidence such as, “In this experiment, protons and electrons acted in such and such a way.” Claims can also be as complex as “The end of the South African system of apartheid was inevitable,” using reasoning and evidence such as, “Every successful revolution in the modern era has come about after the government in power has given and then removed small concessions to the uprising group.” In either case, the rest of your paper will detail the reasoning and evidence that have led you to believe that your position is best.

When beginning to write a paper, ask yourself, “What is my point?” For example, the point of this handout is to help you become a better writer, and we are arguing that an important step in the process of writing effective arguments is understanding the concept of argumentation. If your papers do not have a main point, they cannot be arguing for anything. Asking yourself what your point is can help you avoid a mere “information dump.” Consider this: your instructors probably know a lot more than you do about your subject matter. Why, then, would you want to provide them with material they already know? **Instructors are usually looking for two things:**

1. Proof that you understand the material
2. A demonstration of your ability to use or apply the material in ways that go beyond what you have read or heard.

This second part can be done in many ways: you can critique the material, apply it to something else, or even just explain it in a different way. In order to succeed at this second step, though, you must have a particular point to argue.

Arguments in academic writing are usually complex and take time to develop. Your argument will need to be more than a simple or obvious statement such as “Frank Lloyd Wright was a great architect.” Such a statement might capture your initial impressions of Wright as you have studied him in class; however, you need to look deeper and express specifically what caused that “greatness.” Your instructor will probably expect something more complicated, such as “Frank Lloyd Wright’s architecture combines elements of European modernism, Asian aesthetic form, and locally found materials to create a unique new style,” or “There are many strong similarities between Wright’s building designs and those of his mother, which suggests that he may have borrowed some of her ideas.” To develop your argument, you would then define your terms and prove your claim with evidence from Wright’s drawings and buildings and those of the other architects you mentioned.

Evidence

Do not stop with having a point. You have to back up your point with evidence. The strength of your evidence, and your use of it, can make or break your argument. See our [handout on evidence](#). You already have the natural inclination for this type of thinking, if not in an academic setting. Think about how you talked your parents into letting you borrow the family car. Did you present them with lots of instances of your past trustworthiness? Did you make them feel guilty because your friends’ parents all let them drive? Did you whine until they just wanted you to shut up? Did you look up statistics on teen driving and use them to show how you didn’t fit the dangerous-driver profile? These are all types of argumentation, and they exist in academia in similar forms.

Every field has slightly different requirements for acceptable evidence, so familiarize yourself with some arguments from within that field instead of just applying whatever evidence you like best. Pay attention to your textbooks and your instructor’s lectures. What types of argument and evidence are they using? The type of evidence that sways an English instructor may not work to convince a sociology instructor. Find out what counts as proof that something is true in that field. Is it statistics, a logical development of points, something from the object being discussed (art work, text, culture, or atom), the way something works, or some combination of more than one of these things?

Be consistent with your evidence. Unlike negotiating for the use of your parents’ car, a college paper is not the place for an all-out blitz of every type of argument. You can often use more than one type of evidence within a paper, but make sure that within each section you are providing the reader with evidence appropriate to each claim. So, if you start a paragraph or section with a statement like “Putting the student seating area closer to the basketball court will raise player performance,” do not follow with your evidence on how much more money the university could raise by letting more students go to games for free. Information about how fan support raises player morale, which then results in better play, would be a better follow-up. Your next section could offer clear reasons why undergraduates have as much or more right to attend an undergraduate event as wealthy alumni—but this information would not go in the same section as the fan support stuff. You cannot convince a confused person, so keep things tidy and ordered.

Counterargument

One way to strengthen your argument and show that you have a deep understanding of the issue you are discussing is to anticipate and address counterarguments or objections. By considering what someone who disagrees with your position might have to say about your argument, you show that

you have thought things through, and you dispose of some of the reasons your audience might have for not accepting your argument. Recall our discussion of student seating in the Dean Dome. To make the most effective argument possible, you should consider not only what students would say about seating but also what alumni who have paid a lot to get good seats might say.

You can generate counterarguments by asking yourself how someone who disagrees with you might respond to each of the points you've made or your position as a whole. **If you can't immediately imagine another position, here are some strategies to try:**

- Do some research. It may seem to you that no one could possibly disagree with the position you are arguing, but someone probably has. For example, some people argue that the American Civil War never ended. If you are making an argument concerning, for example, the outcomes of the Civil War, you might wish to see what some of these people have to say.
- Talk with a friend or with your teacher. Another person may be able to imagine counterarguments that haven't occurred to you.
- Consider your conclusion or claim and the premises of your argument and imagine someone who denies each of them. For example, if you argued, "Cats make the best pets. This is because they are clean and independent," you might imagine someone saying, "Cats do not make the best pets. They are dirty and needy."

Once you have thought up some counterarguments, consider how you will respond to them—will you concede that your opponent has a point but explain why your audience should nonetheless accept your argument? Will you reject the counterargument and explain why it is mistaken? Either way, you will want to leave your reader with a sense that your argument is stronger than opposing arguments.

When you are summarizing opposing arguments, be charitable. Present each argument fairly and objectively, rather than trying to make it look foolish. You want to show that you have considered the many sides of the issue. If you simply attack or caricature your opponent (also referred to as presenting a "straw man"), you suggest that your argument is only capable of defeating an extremely weak adversary, which may undermine your argument rather than enhance it.

It is usually better to consider one or two serious counterarguments in some depth, rather than to give a long but superficial list of many different counterarguments and replies.

Be sure that your reply is consistent with your original argument. If considering a counterargument changes your position, you will need to go back and revise your original argument accordingly.

Audience

Audience is a very important consideration in argument. Take a look at our [handout on audience](#). A lifetime of dealing with your family members has helped you figure out which arguments work best to persuade each of them. Maybe whining works with one parent, but the other will only accept cold, hard statistics. Your kid brother may listen only to the sound of money in his palm. It's usually wise to think of your audience in an academic setting as someone who is perfectly smart but who doesn't necessarily agree with you. You are not just expressing your opinion in an argument ("It's true because I said so"), and in most cases your audience will know something about the subject at hand—so you will need sturdy proof. At the same time, do not think of your audience as capable of reading your mind. You have to come out and state both your claim and your evidence clearly. Do

not assume that because the instructor knows the material, he or she understands what part of it you are using, what you think about it, and why you have taken the position you've chosen.

Critical reading

Critical reading is a big part of understanding argument. Although some of the material you read will be very persuasive, do not fall under the spell of the printed word as authority. Very few of your instructors think of the texts they assign as the last word on the subject. Remember that the author of every text has an agenda, something that he or she wants you to believe. This is OK—everything is written from someone's perspective—but it's a good thing to be aware of. For more information on objectivity and bias and on reading sources carefully, read our handouts on [evaluating print sources](#) and [reading to write](#).

Take notes either in the margins of your source (if you are using a photocopy or your own book) or on a separate sheet as you read. Put away that highlighter! Simply highlighting a text is good for memorizing the main ideas in that text—it does not encourage critical reading. Part of your goal as a reader should be to put the author's ideas in your own words. Then you can stop thinking of these ideas as facts and start thinking of them as arguments.

When you read, ask yourself questions like “What is the author trying to prove?” and “What is the author assuming I will agree with?” Do you agree with the author? Does the author adequately defend her argument? What kind of proof does she use? Is there something she leaves out that you would put in? Does putting it in hurt her argument? As you get used to reading critically, you will start to see the sometimes hidden agendas of other writers, and you can use this skill to improve your own ability to craft effective arguments.

Works consulted

We consulted these works while writing this handout. This is not a comprehensive list of resources on the handout's topic, and we encourage you to do your own research to find the latest publications on this topic. Please do not use this list as a model for the format of your own reference list, as it may not match the citation style you are using. For guidance on formatting citations, please see the [UNC Libraries citation tutorial](#). We revise these tips periodically and welcome feedback.

Anson, Chris M., and Robert A. Schwegler. *The Longman Handbook for Writers and Readers*. 6th ed. New York: Longman, 2010.

Booth, Wayne C., Gregory G. Colomb, Joseph M. Williams, Joseph Bizup, and William T. FitzGerald. *The Craft of Research*. 4th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2016.

Ede, Lisa. *Work in Progress*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1989.

Gage, John T. *The Shape of Reason: Argumentative Writing in College*. 4th ed. New York: Longman, 2005.

Lunsford, Andrea, and John Ruskiewicz. *Everything's an Argument*. 7th ed. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2016.

Rosen, Leonard J., and Laurence Behrens. *The Allyn & Bacon Handbook*. 5th ed. New York: Longman, 2003.

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<https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/argument/>

Da dieses Handout interdisziplinär ist, hier einige zusätzliche Anmerkungen:

- Argument ist hier nicht im Sinne von moralischer Rechtfertigung oder dem Vorbringen einzelner Gründe gemeint, sondern es geht darum im Verlauf der gesamten Arbeit eine eigene Position oder Idee zu vertreten und sie zu erläutern und zu belegen
- Making a claim: Der Theorieteil bietet Platz um basierend auf der Literatur ausführlich zu erläutern wie und warum man zu einer bestimmten These gelangt ist und diese zu empirisch untersuchbaren (falsifizierbaren) Hypothesen zuzuspitzen.
- Evidence: Im empirischen Teil wird versucht Belege anhand der Daten zu erbringen. Wissenschaftliches Arbeiten unterscheidet sich von der Argumentation im Alltag (family car Beispiel) dadurch, dass nicht beliebige Beispiele aus dem Freundeskreis oder aus den Nachrichten als Beleg herangezogen werden, sondern systematisch mit Hilfe einer bestimmten Methode vorgegangen wird.
- Counterargument: Nicht nur das Argument in Gänze, auch einzelne Teile können kritisiert werden (z.B. Anzweifeln empirischer Belege aufgrund von Schwächen im Forschungsdesign); bietet die Möglichkeit Grenzen der eigenen Arbeit, methodische Probleme u.ä. zu reflektieren und zu begründen warum dennoch an der gewählten Vorgehensweise festgehalten wurde.

✓ Tipps zur Literatur- und Datenrecherche

- Stichwortsuche: Literatur kann systematisch recherchiert werden, indem man Bibliothekskataloge, Datenbanken und Zeitschriften nach geeigneten Stichwörtern durchsucht, zum Beispiel:
 - Suchportal der [Universitätsbibliothek Frankfurt](https://www.ub.uni-frankfurt.de/) für Bücher, Aufsätze, Artikel
 - Bücher und Volltexte, die in der UB Frankfurt nicht vorhanden sind können im [HeBis-Portal](https://www.hebis.de/) des Bibliotheksverbands Hessen recherchiert und per Fernleihe bestellt werden (kostenpflichtig, Fernleihekonto benötigt)
 - [Web of Science](https://www.webofscience.com/) (interdisziplinäre Datenbank für nach Qualität und Einfluss ausgewählte wissenschaftliche Journale)
 - [Google Scholar](https://scholar.google.com/), Suchmaschine von Google für wissenschaftliche Publikationen

- [DNB-Katalog](#), in der Deutschen Nationalbibliothek lassen sich alle auf Deutsch erschienenen Werke finden
- ISFK-Studierende haben auch Zugriff auf die von der [ULB Darmstadt](#) bereitgestellten Volltexte
- [Nexis Uni](#) für die Recherche von Zeitungsartikeln und Agenturmeldungen (Zugriff über die Unibibliothek)
- [Bibliothekskatalog der HSK](#) (Literatur der HSK-Bibliothek ab 2013 sowie Bestände anderer Forschungsinstitute, die Teil der World Affairs Online Datenbank sind)
- Schneeballmethode: Die Seminarliteratur bietet einen Ausgangspunkt zur Schneeballrecherche – ausgehend vom Literaturverzeichnis thematisch passender Publikationen lassen sich weitere Veröffentlichungen finden, deren Literaturverweise dann ebenfalls wieder zur Recherche verwendet werden können. Eine Recherche nach der Schneeballmethode ist außerdem gut über das [Web of Science](#) (interdisziplinäre Datenbank mit nach Qualität und Einfluss ausgewählten Publikationen) möglich, da für die Treffer einer Stichwortsuche von einem Treffer zitierte und diesen Treffer zitierende Publikationen angezeigt werden können. Manche Suchportale geben basierend auf einem ausgewählten Treffer auch Empfehlungen für weitere Publikationen (z.B. DNB-Katalog o. ScienceDirect vom Elsevier Verlag).
- Es empfiehlt sich von Anfang an eine Literaturverwaltungssoftware zu verwenden, so behalten Sie besser den Überblick über Ihre Rechercheergebnisse und erleichtern sich später die Arbeit bei der Erstellung des Literaturverzeichnisses. Weitere Hinweise hierzu finden Sie auf den Seiten der [UB Frankfurt](#).
- Verschiedene Institute und Organisationen stellen Daten für die wissenschaftliche Forschung zur freien Verfügung, u.a.:
 - Zu Entwicklung, Demographie, Wirtschaft weltweit: [Weltbank](#), [UN](#), [OECD](#)
 - Zu Krieg, Konflikten: [UCDP](#), [Correlates of War](#), [INSCR](#)
 - Zu Demokratie: [INSCR](#), [V-Dem](#), [Freedom House](#)
 - Metadatensatz zu länderbasierten Statistiken: [Quality of Government](#)
 - Sozialwissenschaftliche Umfragedaten für Deutschland und Europa: [GESIS](#)
- Für Hausarbeiten können Sie auch Replikationsdatensätze veröffentlichter Artikel verwenden, eine Sammlung von Replikationsdatensätzen zahlreicher Zeitschriften findet sich z.B. im [Harvard Dataverse](#).

✓ Beispiele für die Formatierung von Grafiken und Tabellen

Table 1: Political Interest and TV News Consumption in Germany

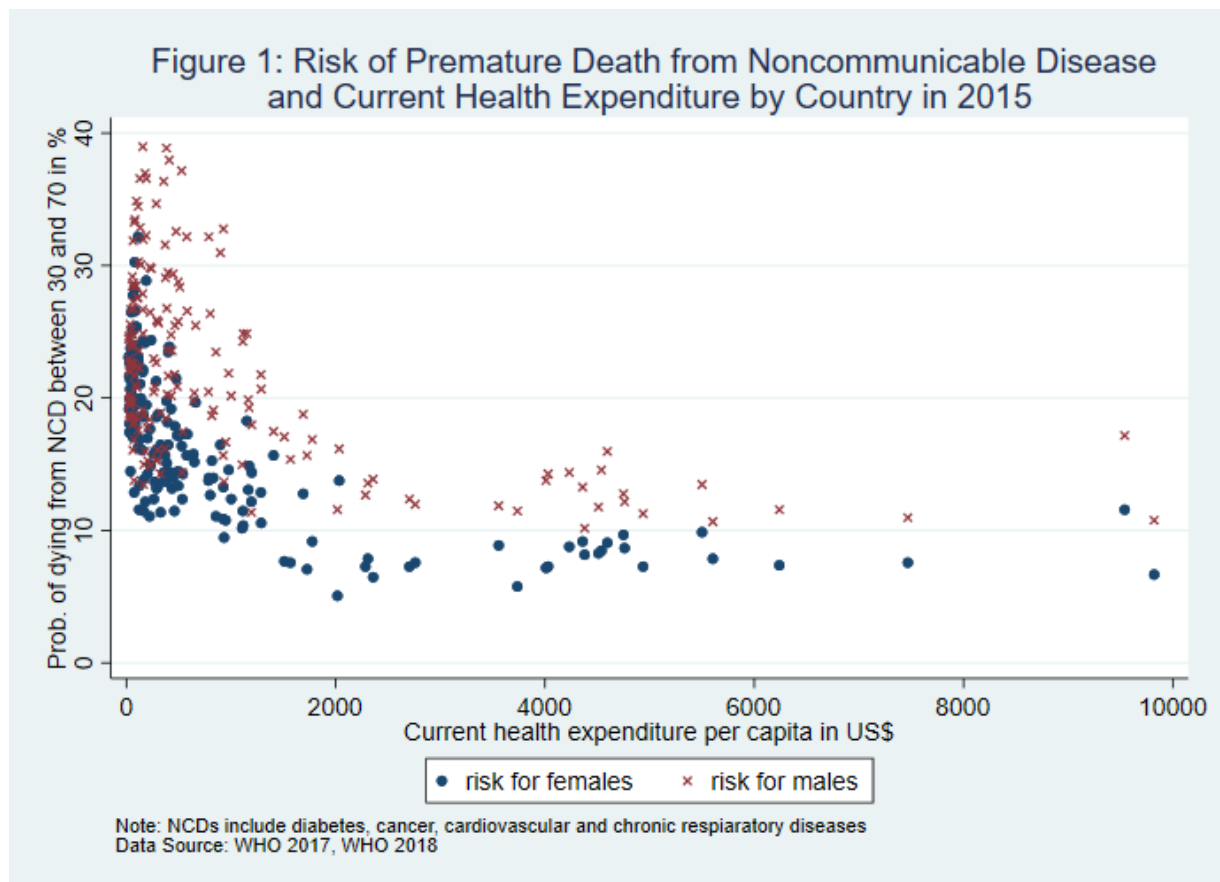
	Model 1 (public channel)	Model 2 (private channel)
Political interest		
very strong	ref. categ.	ref. categ.
strong	0.302 (0.200)	0.289 (0.150)
intermediate	-0.164 (0.188)	0.661*** (0.145)
very little	-0.995*** (0.213)	0.532** (0.175)
not at all	-1.292*** (0.297)	0.707** (0.257)
Sex	0.0829 (0.108)	-0.149 (0.0854)
Age	0.0534*** (0.00339)	-0.00660** (0.00235)
Monthly net income	-0.0000282 (0.0000438)	-0.00000722 (0.0000347)
Abitur	0.276* (0.115)	-1.051*** (0.0952)
Constant	-1.168*** (0.284)	0.211 (0.231)
Observations	2800	2800
Pseudo R^2	0.149	0.053

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Data source: ALLBUS 2018

- Diese Tabelle wurde in STATA mit Hilfe des `esttab` commands aus dem [estout-Package](#) erstellt. Nach der Installation, erleichtert dieses Package die Formatierung von Regressionstabellen und deren Export, z.B. zur Verwendung in Word oder LaTeX. In R kann man für die Erstellung von Tabellen das [stargazer-Package](#) installieren.



✓ Hilfreiche Links

- Plagiats-Erklärung: http://www.fb03.uni-frankfurt.de/52740347/Erklaerung_zur_Pruefungsleistung.pdf
- Liste der von der UB Frankfurt bereitgestellten Datenbanken: http://info.ub.uni-frankfurt.de/alph_liste.html?start=A&end=Z
- Erläuterung zu Thesen und Hypothesen des Lehrstuhls von Prof. Tanja Brühl
http://www.fb03.uni-frankfurt.de/46036826/thesen_hypothesen_annahmen.pdf
- Tipps und Hinweise des FB03 zu BA- und MA-Abschlussarbeiten: http://www.fb03.uni-frankfurt.de/60374428/Abschlussarbeiten_Pr%C3%BCfungsamt_Fachbereich_03
- Schreibzentrum der Goethe-Uni (Schreibberatung und Kurse zum wissenschaftlichen Schreiben): <http://www.starkerstart.uni-frankfurt.de/43422007/Studierende>
- Liste Uni-Softwarelizenzen (u.a Citavi): https://www.rz.uni-frankfurt.de/46385073/Liste_aller_Software_Lizenzprogramme