

Chapter Three

Searching and Reading the Literature

Reading a Journal Article

Title

Author and Institutional Affiliation

Abstract

Introduction

Literature Review

Methods

Sample

Measurement

Procedures

Findings or Results

Discussion

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

Where Do I Go From Here?

How Do Journal Articles Get Published?

Research Monographs

Edited Volumes

Other Types of Publications

Study Questions

For Further Reading

Once you've constructed a research question to answer (and maybe even identified a dependent variable), you need to examine the prior research literature on your topic. It's always surprising that people think that they're the first to be interested in a particular topic. We get phone calls and e-mails from people who want to conduct a study of some family-related phenomenon—say, first-time mothers returning to work or cohabiting couples with children—who assume that nobody has ever studied the topic before. The fact of the matter is that in any given year, several thousand studies relating to families and children are published in professional journals. So, regardless of whether you're planning a study of your own or you simply want to know what's already been done, you need to begin by searching the literature.

Although some of this research is published as research monographs (what most of us think of as books), most research on families and children is published as articles in professional journals. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *Journal of Family Issues*, *Child Development*, *Developmental Psychology*, *Journal of Family Psychology*, and *Family Relations* are some of the best known journals specializing in research on families and children.

To find out what research has been published on a given topic, you'll need to search these and other journals. Because scholars who do research on families may have backgrounds in a variety of academic fields, the articles you seek might be published in sociological journals, psychological journals, or other sources. Fortunately, there are several excellent indexing systems available to take much of the work out of this task. Sociological Abstracts indexes virtually all the sociological journals, whereas PsycINFO indexes publications in psychology. A third indexing system is Web of Science, which scans journals across many different sciences. Web of Science's predecessor, the Social Science Citation Index, was the first database, or indexing system, to report how frequently a given article is cited by other research thus giving a crude measure of the *impact* of a particular article on the discipline. Another recent addition is Google Scholar, a search engine available online that indexes scholarly publications.

Although the exact details of using these indexing systems vary, the general procedures are similar. Your local reference librarian can show you the specifics of how to access these services in your library. Many libraries also make these services available to their patrons over the Internet.

There are also indexing systems specifically for literature on family research. The Family Studies Database is the electronic version of Inventory of Marriage and Family Literature and FAMILY (Australian Family & Society Abstracts). It indexes more than 1,000 journals, books, chapters, newsletters, government documents, and dissertations and covers the

educational, medical, psychological, and sociological aspects of family literature.

Whichever index system you select, begin by choosing some keywords that are appropriate for the research that you're seeking. For example, if you wanted to study the relationship of child abuse to school performance, the keywords might include *child abuse*, *academic outcomes*, and *school*. You probably will want to review any articles listed under child abuse and either academic outcomes or school. Once these keywords are entered, the program will display a list of journal articles that studied these issues. If this step generates hundreds of references, you probably need to narrow your focus by adding additional keywords as limitations on the search. If you get only a few references, however, the search keywords probably are inappropriate, and you need to change them.

The next step is to read the articles' abstracts. An **abstract** is a brief summary of what a study was about, how the research was conducted, and what the findings were. As you read these abstracts (which are typically displayed along with the reference items by the indexing program), you will find that only some of the articles are really relevant to your work. You will probably then want to find the actual journal containing the articles and scan the articles to see if they are indeed relevant. Many journals are now available online, making your search both easier and more difficult. Instant access to the article in an electronic format allows you to save a copy of the article and then move almost immediately to the next article on your list. However, do not be tempted to read only articles that are available online, as you may have access only through your library to the print copy of a journal. A key article about your topic may just have been published in one of those journals. Another possible pitfall is information overload. Because electronic storage is so cheap, you may be tempted to download any article that looks like it could be related to your research topic. Don't. Focus in on articles whose abstracts leave no doubt in your mind of how they are connected to your topic. You can always expand your reading list later. Sometimes, journals publish a **review article**, which summarizes the research literature on a particular topic. Such articles will save you a lot of work, because much of the pertinent literature will already be cited and summarized for you.

Reading a Journal Article

Once you're satisfied that you have the most important articles about your topic, sit down and read them in detail. Articles in professional journals may be unlike anything you've read before. They are concisely

written—journal articles are rarely longer than 25 pages—and they tend to use many abbreviations, technical terms, and jargon. Fortunately, they also tend to follow a rather strict style with a number of clearly defined sections. The following discussion of the various sections of a typical journal article will help you to read the articles you’ve located and write your own research article.

Title

Of course, each article has a title, and the content of the title is highly informative. It will probably identify the dependent and independent variables and perhaps the nature of who was studied. For example, a title such as “Effects of Age at Marriage on Marital Satisfaction Among Asian American Women” immediately tells you that the independent variable is age at marriage, the dependent variable is marital satisfaction, and Asian American women were studied.

Author and Institutional Affiliation

Immediately below the title will be any author names and their institutional affiliations. You’ll notice that individuals affiliated with universities write most of the research articles.

Abstract

As we mentioned earlier, an abstract is a brief summary of the research study. It should include the research questions and/or primary hypotheses, the nature of the sample, a brief mention of the research procedures and analyses, a brief statement of the findings, and a sentence about the implications of the study—all in 150 to 200 words. Always read the abstract first—if the article isn’t relevant to your interests, then you can save yourself a lot of time.

Introduction

The introduction section (which typically will not have a heading indicating as such) introduces the problem and justifies its importance. This section should answer the question, “Why should anyone care about this problem?” On one hand, the importance of the paper might be justified in practical or policy terms. For example, in their 2007 paper, “Parental Deployment and Youth in Military Families: Exploring Uncertainty and

Ambiguous Loss,” Heubner, Mancini, Wilcox, Grass, and Grass (2007) note that given the increasing number of children whose parents are deployed, it is important to understand whether and how parental deployment influences adolescent mental health. In other words, they argue that the topic is important and worth studying because of its practical significance.

On the other hand, an author may argue that a paper is important because of its theoretical or conceptual significance. In “Effects of Union Type on Division of Household Labor: Do Cohabiting Men Really Perform More Housework?” Davis, Greenstein, and Marks (2007) explicitly sought to use several different theoretical traditions to explain differences between cohabiting and married individuals in the division of household labor. Although there may be indirect policy or practical implications of the research, the paper was aimed primarily at an application of theories.

Generally speaking, a research article might be published for any of several reasons. First, it’s possible that a particular problem has never been studied. Assuming that the problem is one of interest to those studying families, the article will fill a gap in the research literature.

Second, it’s possible that, although the particular problem has been studied, the author finds shortcomings or problems in the existing literature. For example, the author might offer methodological improvements over previous research—perhaps with a better sample or more precise measurement.

Previous research might have methodological flaws that the author claims a new study can correct; sometimes incorrect statistical procedures or biased instruments can produce faulty or misleading conclusions. Also, previous research might contain conceptual flaws; perhaps the author feels that a different theoretical approach is necessary or that a previous author incorrectly applied some body of theory. An article might **replicate** previous research in a different population with more recent data, better controls, or better measures of key variables.

Regardless of how the authors choose to justify the importance of the paper, their goal is to convince the reader that the topic is worth studying. The introduction should convince the reader that the problem under study is important and should indicate where the authors are going in the article, how they’re going to get there, and why the research is being done.

Literature Review

Again, there may not be a *literature review* heading, but at some point, the authors discuss previous studies relevant to the current research. There is a simple rule for which items should be discussed in the literature review: Discuss all that is relevant and nothing that isn’t. The authors will want to include the major studies that have looked at the same independent and

dependent variables as their study. It's unnecessary to cite every study ever conducted on the topic—only the important ones. The authors' goal in the literature review is not only to show what's already been done on the topic but, more important, also to show what hasn't been done and why their study must be done. This is especially key if the study is exploratory. The literature review will situate the research question in the appropriate body of research. The researchers will then situate themselves within those previous findings and should show how and why their exploration is useful and needed.

If the authors have hypotheses to present, they will usually present them immediately following the literature review. The hypotheses should be stated as explicitly as possible. Often, hypotheses are stated first in conceptual or abstract terms then in concrete or operational terms. The hypotheses should tell exactly which outcomes will confirm (be consistent with) the hypotheses and which outcomes will disconfirm (be inconsistent with) the hypotheses.

Methods

There will probably be a section labeled methods or methodology (the term should usually be *methods*, because methodology is the study of method, and what the author is presenting here is a description of a method, not the study of methods). The purpose of this section is twofold: first, to describe exactly who was studied (the sample) and how they were studied (the procedures); and second, to describe what was studied (the measurements or instruments). Ideally, this section should provide enough information for the reader to judge whether the sample and procedures were appropriate for the problem and the outcomes.

Sample

Nearly all methods sections will begin with a discussion of the sample. This should tell the reader exactly who was studied, how many were studied (the sample size), when the data were gathered, how respondents were selected, and so forth. If another researcher or organization originally collected the data (for example, the U.S. Census Bureau), then there should be a citation to the original source documentation for the data.

Measurement

This subsection should identify all the key variables in the study and explain how they were operationalized or measured. If sample surveys were

used, this section should provide the exact wording of key items or questions that are used in the study. If standardized scales or indices were used, then this subsection should cite the original sources and briefly report any known problems with validity or reliability of the measures. Any recoded items (categories combined for analytic purposes) should be clarified.

For qualitative studies, this section can be problematic. Many qualitative studies are exploratory in nature; it's not always clear what the key variables are or how they should be measured. Rather, this information may emerge from the data collection process. Qualitative studies, therefore, rarely have this subsection.

Procedures

This subsection should explain in detail exactly how the data were gathered. There are two main purposes of this subsection: first, to describe exactly what techniques were used to collect the data; and second, to provide enough detail to allow an interested researcher to replicate the study.

Findings or Results

Sometimes, this section will be labeled *analyses*. The actual results of the study should be reported here without interpretation (interpretation of the results follows in the *discussion* section). The beginning of this section should consider general issues such as response rates and estimates of reliability and validity. Any statistical techniques used should be described here and their use justified. The authors must convince the reader that their techniques were appropriate and the best available for the particular types of data and research questions. If the techniques were unusual or are not commonly used, the authors may take a few paragraphs to explain them.

In most quantitative studies, the first results reported will be descriptive statistics about the respondents. Typically, the analyses will include a table of statistics about the variables in the analyses. This table is important because it tells the reader much about the characteristics of the respondents in the study: Age, gender, race, education, marital status, and other relevant variables are typically reported. Other tables will probably report results relating to the hypotheses or goals of the study. Additional information about tables follows.

Qualitative studies typically organize their results around the themes that emerged from the data analysis. Rather than tables, data are summarized with key quotes or observations used to punctuate important points.

Discussion

The *discussion* section in a quantitative study usually begins with a restatement of the research problem followed by a listing of the major hypotheses. Next, the evidence supporting the hypotheses will be presented and interpreted. Any weaknesses or problems with the design of the study or the quality of the data should be mentioned and explained. For example, the data might be relatively old, or the sample might be unusual or biased in some way. Perhaps it was not possible to control for some important explanatory variable. These issues need to be made clear to the reader, and the authors will generally try to show why these concerns don't interfere with their ability to draw reasonable inferences from the study.

Any alternative interpretations of the findings—that is, different ways of interpreting the results—should be discussed. All findings should be related back to previous theory or research with the emphasis on how the research accomplished the goals set out in the beginning of the introduction. If the conclusions of the article are not presented in a separate section, then they are normally at the end of the discussion section.

Qualitative studies follow a similar structure, though they focus on the broader conceptual contributions of the paper rather than on an evaluation of specific hypotheses. The main purpose of the discussion section in those studies is articulating the theoretical contribution of the paper to the research literature.

Conclusions

The *conclusion* is the wrap-up of the article where the authors tell us what they have contributed to the literature. They may also link the research findings to specific social-policy issues or to further developments in theory. They will often propose directions for further research that are suggested by the current study's findings. Sometimes, the conclusions are the last few paragraphs of the discussion section without a separate heading.

References

The documents cited in the article are listed in alphabetical order by the last name of the first author of each document. Only documents that are specifically cited in the paper should appear in this reference list. Reference items are formatted according to the style of the journal in which the article appears. Journals published by the American Psychological Association (APA)—*Developmental Psychology* and *Journal of Family Psychology*, for example, use the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American*

Psychological Association (American Psychological Association, 2009). Journals published by the American Sociological Association (ASA) (such as *American Sociological Review*) use a style that is similar to that of the APA and is described in the *American Sociological Association Style Guide* (American Sociological Association, 2010). Journals published or sponsored by the National Council on Family Relations (*Journal of Marriage and Family*, *Journal of Family Issues*, and *Family Relations*, for example) generally use the APA style.

Tables

A good table supplements (but does not duplicate) the textual material in the body of the article. Generally, it's better to use as few tables as possible to convey the information found in the research. The tables should be organized around the primary hypotheses of the study. The titles of the tables should be clear and unambiguous; ideally, the table titles will identify the primary dependent variable and, if practical, the independent variables as well. Tables are numbered so that the author can refer to Table 3, for example, without having to mention the entire title.

Figures

Most journals prefer that authors keep the number of figures to a minimum (*tables*, by the way, consist only of numbers and text; *figures* contain graphics and are less precise than tables). Like tables, figures are numbered consecutively.

Where Do I Go From Here?

At this point, you've probably got an electronic file of articles (or maybe just the abstracts from an indexing system) that seems relevant to your topic. You will want to begin by skimming all the articles. At this stage, it may help to ignore the *methods* and *results* sections, and focus on the *introduction* and *discussion* sections. As you read the articles, you can begin to cull the stack a bit by deciding which articles are relevant to your topic and which are not. Move the articles that you've decided aren't directly relevant to your current project to another electronic folder in case you reconsider them later.

Now consider the articles that you've decided are relevant to your project. Read them again but this time without omitting any sections. Note any

patterns or inconsistencies in the theories, methods, findings, and conclusions of the studies. Does a single theory seem to guide all these studies, or do they work within differing theoretical traditions? Do these studies tend to use the same or different methods of data collection? Are their findings in agreement, or do they conflict? How do the authors interpret these findings?

At the same time, be alert to gaps in the literature. What types of issues or variables are seldom or never addressed by the research? What populations haven't been studied? Are the studies relatively recent, or are they old? Might some body of theory be relevant that hasn't been applied to this particular problem? Often, the last few paragraphs of the discussion or conclusion section can tip you off to problems or possibilities in the literature. Authors will frequently discuss possible limitations in their own work or suggestions for future research.

You should also examine the reference lists at the end of each article. Notice which items tend to be cited by the articles you've collected; if those often-cited items aren't already in your file of articles, they should be. Such often-cited or seminal papers are important for several reasons. First, if many of the current studies in your topic cite a particular paper, it must be important to the development of research in your area. Second, authors often assume that their readers are familiar with the classic or seminal works in their area; if you haven't read these papers, you may not be getting the full sense of what's going into the research. Third, these works may suggest possibilities or directions for research that, for whatever reason, no one ever pursued.

Web of Science index has some unusual capabilities that provide an effective way to build up a bibliography. After identifying the classic or seminal works in a particular area, you can use Web of Science's "Cited Reference Search" to identify all the items in the database that cited those works. This technique often can identify articles that are relevant to your topic that might not have been uncovered through other methods. Google Scholar also has this capability, although the extent to which it can be seen as an alternative to Web of Science is unclear.

How Do Journal Articles Get Published?

We sometimes hear about the publish-or-perish syndrome for academic researchers, but most people don't realize how difficult it is to publish an article in a major journal. The process varies somewhat across journals, but most follow a basic pattern.

First, the author or authors (most research articles have multiple authors) submit the manuscript to the journal. The journal editor then sends copies of the manuscript to two or three reviewers, usually individuals chosen for their expertise in the field. The reviewers read the manuscript and send the editor two sets of comments: one set to be sent to the author and a second for the editor's eyes only. The reviewers can critique any aspect of the paper: review of the literature, hypotheses, methods, analytic techniques, and conclusions—even the writing style.

The reviewers are especially concerned with two issues. First, is the research important enough to merit taking up valuable pages in the journal? Because of page limitations, most journals reject more than 50% of submissions, and major journals often approach 90% rejection rates.

Second, was the research conducted in such a way that the conclusions drawn by the authors are valid? Publication of an article by a major journal implies approval of the research design by the reviewers and the journal's editorial staff, so most journal editors are concerned about the quality of the research design and analytic techniques.

Once the editor has the reviewers' comments in hand, one of three decisions must be conveyed to the author. First, the editor can decide to publish the manuscript in its current form (or perhaps with minor editorial revisions). This is extremely rare, because most reviewers raise at least one or two major concerns that have to be dealt with in a revision. The second possible decision by the editor is to ask the author to revise and resubmit the manuscript for further review, taking into account the criticisms and suggestions of the reviewers. The revised manuscript will be reviewed again, usually by the original reviewers. The third decision the editor can make, of course, is to reject the manuscript outright. The rejection might be based on the topic's irrelevance or on fundamental flaws in the conceptualization, research design, or analytic techniques that cannot be fixed with a revision.

The time lag from submission to the editor's decision varies greatly across journals, but usually it is 12 to 20 weeks. If the author receives a revise-and-resubmit decision, the review process will take another 12 to 20 weeks (plus the time spent revising the manuscript). You can see that even under ideal circumstances, 6 to 12 months can pass between the time of the original submission of a manuscript and the editor's final acceptance of that manuscript for publication. Add about a 6-month lag between acceptance and actual appearance in print, and you have at least a year's span, if not much longer, between submission and actual publication.

This reviewing process, or **peer review**, is one of the great strengths of scientific disciplines. Most journals do blind reviews, meaning that all identifying information is removed from copy of the manuscripts that

the reviewers read. The goal is to publish the best conducted and most important research, regardless of who has written it.

Does this rigorous reviewing process ensure that every article published in a major journal is of uniformly high quality? Unfortunately, no. The reality is that journal editors and reviewers make mistakes. Fortunately, the public nature of the scientific enterprise permits members of the scientific community to publish critiques of the articles (known as *comments*) that point out what they believe are flaws in the original article. Two interesting examples of this self-correcting process of science in the study of families are demonstrated in Trussell and Rao's (1989) criticism of White's (1987) conclusion that premarital cohabitation increases subsequent marital stability and Peterson's (1996) critique of Weitzman's (1985) findings about the economic consequences of divorce for women.

Research Monographs

Some research on families and children is published in the form of books (usually called *research monographs*). Much greater in length, monographs allow more extensive presentations of theory and research findings than do journal articles. The structure of research monographs will vary widely, but all of the sections and material described above should be present. Some information, like specific measurement or sampling details, may be located in an appendix.

Research monographs also go through a review process. The reviewing of monographs is not blind because the reviewers—being experts in the field—usually are aware of who is doing research on what topics; so even if identifying material is removed from the draft of the monograph, the reviewer probably can identify the author or authors. Because of this, and because contracts for monographs are typically offered before the draft is completed, research monographs may not be as critically reviewed as an article appearing in a major journal.

Another difference between journal articles and research monographs is the time lag until publication. Several years typically elapse between the beginning of work on a research monograph and its appearance in print. For example, Tichenor's (2005) study of women who outearn their husbands began in 1991. As a result, if you're looking for the most current research on a particular topic, you will probably want to begin by searching the indices (such as Sociological Abstracts and PsycINFO) to produce a list of recent journal articles then move on to the research monographs on that topic.

Edited Volumes

A special type of scholarly book, the *edited volume*, is a journal-research monograph hybrid. These collections are typically books organized around a theme and include original (usually) article-length papers. The papers are reviewed by the editor of the book (typically the scholar who came up with the idea for the edited volume in the first place). The edited volume as a whole seeks to move science forward broadly on a particular topic: Each paper or chapter is focused on one narrow question related to that topic. Treas and Drobnič's (2010) *Dividing the Domestic: Men, Women, and Household Work in Cross-National Perspective*, an edited volume making the case for what can be learned through cross-national studies of housework, is a good example of this type of book.

Other Types of Publications

Although primarily published as journal articles or research monographs, research on children and families also appears in other forms as well. Each year, the professional organizations of scholars that study families and children (for example, the National Council on Family Relations, the ASA, and the APA) hold national conferences at which hundreds of conference papers are presented. Many of these eventually appear in professional journals, but some do not. Because most of these papers do not go through an elaborate peer-review process, their status in the scientific world is somewhat less than that of published articles. Moreover, these papers haven't appeared in print, making them somewhat difficult to obtain. The major indices, such as Sociological Abstracts and PsycINFO, will have entries for most of these papers, along with instructions on how to obtain copies.

Doctoral dissertations and master's theses are another source of research on families. Sociological Abstracts and PsycINFO index dissertations completed at U.S. universities; Dissertation Abstracts International also provides listings and abstracts of dissertations and information on obtaining copies of the dissertations themselves.

Government agencies, such as the Department of Health and Human Services, the National Institutes of Health, and the U.S. Census Bureau, as well as private foundations and organizations such as the Children's Defense Fund, the David and Lucille Packard Foundation, and others publish agency reports of research funded by their organizations. The reports themselves are not usually peer reviewed, but papers based on their data

sometimes appear in journal articles or research monographs. Internet searches are apt to turn up such reports.

Organizations also publish “white papers” that are specifically designed to inform public discourse and public policy. These papers range from literature reviews to original data analysis. The key difference is that the goal is not for a version of these papers to be placed in a scientific venue in order to contribute to the construction of scientific knowledge. Instead, the goal is to disseminate specific information to the public as quickly as possible. The Council on Contemporary Families is one organization that relies extensively on white papers to highlight new scientific findings or to speak to a particular issue rapidly. Unpublished manuscripts are the most difficult documents to locate and obtain. These are usually works in progress that researchers have circulated before submission for publication or presentation at a conference. Because they have not been reviewed, one must be cautious in how much credence to lend to their findings. As a general rule, you should try to avoid citing unpublished materials unless it is essential.

The Internet has facilitated the rapid expansion of knowledge about many things, including families. Hundreds of organizations interested in families have created sites on the World Wide Web. All the major professional organizations for family researchers, teachers, and practitioners have websites. The National Council of Family Relations has a site at www.ncfr.org. The American Sociological Association is at www.asanet.org; its Family Section is located at www.asanet.org/sections/family.cfm, and its section on Sociology of Children is at www.asanet.org/sections/children.cfm. The American Psychological Association’s (APA’s) website is www.apa.org; and its Children, Youth, and Families office site is <http://www.apa.org/pi/families/index.aspx>. The National Association of Social Workers can be found at www.naswdc.org, the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy is at www.aamft.org, and the American Association for Family and Consumer Sciences is located at www.aafcs.org. The National Association for the Education of Young Children can be found at www.naeyc.org, and the Council on Contemporary Families maintains a website at www.contemporaryfamilies.org.

Many federal government agencies are involved with families and children. A particularly useful site is the Cooperative Extension Service’s National Network for Childcare at www.nncc.org. Among its useful offerings are links to hundreds of organizations interested in children and families. Some of the federal agencies that fund research and programs on families and related topics include the National Science Foundation’s Directorate for Social, Behavioral, and Economic Sciences (www.nsf.gov/sbe); the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development

(www.nichd.nih.gov); the National Institute on Aging (www.nih.gov/nia); and the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service (www.csrees.usda.gov).

Many foundations support research and programs involving families, such as the Annie E. Casey Foundation (www.aecf.org), which sponsors the online KIDS COUNT database (www.aecf.org/kidscount/kc2000); the Ford Foundation (www.fordfound.org); the Russell Sage Foundation (www.russellsage.org); the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation (www.rwjf.org); the Children, Families and Communities program of the David and Lucille Packard Foundation (www.packfound.org/html/children_families_and_commun.html); and the Program on Human and Community Development of the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation (www.macfound.org/programs/hcd/overview.htm), to name just a few. A comprehensive list of charitable foundations can be found at The Foundation Center (fdncenter.org).

Many advocacy groups have websites. A small sampling of these includes Children Now (www.childrennow.org), the Children's Defense Fund (www.childrensdefense.org), ZERO TO THREE (www.zerotothree.org), Focus on the Family (family.org), the National Center for Fathering (www.fathers.com), the Family Research Council (www.frc.org), and the Institute for American Values (www.Americanvalues.org).

As most Internet users are aware, web content is subjected to negligible quality control. Anyone can create a website and post whatever they please without regard to the information's accuracy. Often, individuals or organizations will create websites to support their own agendas, and separating factual (or even meaningful) information from rhetoric and downright deception can be difficult. Further, individuals and organizations may blog about research, complicating web users' ability to discern the distinction between research findings and someone's opinion or interpretations of the findings. Because many sites are relatively short lived, citing a website address can sometimes create problems in a manuscript. By the time the manuscript appears in print, the website may have changed addresses or disappeared completely. For further information about using the Internet in your research, you may wish to consult Fielding, Lee, and Blank (2008).

Study Questions

1. Choose a research topic (for example, child abuse, marital satisfaction, or elder care). Learn how to use Sociological Abstracts, Web of Science, or PsycINFO and conduct a search on your topic. List five articles that you find that are relevant to your topic.

2. Choose a well-known family researcher and use the index system of your choice to find articles published by that person over the last 10 years.
3. Find an article in a major family research journal, such as *Journal of Marriage and Family* or *Journal of Family Issues*. Compare the structure of the article to that in this chapter. What sections are missing? Are there any key pieces of information absent from the article?
4. Pick any one of the journal articles listed below in the For Further Reading section and report how many times it was cited in the literature last year.

For Further Reading

- American Psychological Association. (2009). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
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