SAMPLES OF WINNING FELLOWSHIP PROPOSALS

PREDISSERTATION FELLOWSHIP PROPOSALS

The fellowships in the predissertation category are intended for students at or near the beginning of their graduate study. Most have the stipulation that first-year graduate students are eligible to apply as long as they have not completed more than twenty semester hours, with some allowing thirty semester hours of study following the baccalaureate degree at the time of application. (NSF in fact allows second-year graduate students to apply.) The essays by Ralph Waverly are for the NSF Graduate Research Fellowship Program. They include a Proposed Plan of Research and an essay on Previous Research Experience. Note that the essay on personal experiences and potential contribution was formerly two separate essays. For an example of a Proposed Plan of Research in developmental biology see the essay by Simon Graff.

The next two examples or pre-dissertation research proposals were written by first-year graduate students applying for the Jacob K. Javits Fellowship Program. The instructions they were given were the following: “Describe your proposed plan of study and/or research for the period covered by this fellowship. Explain how your intellectual interests and proposed studies will enable you to achieve your professional objectives. Please limit your statement to this page (front and back if necessary). Please type your proposal.”
Proposed Plan of Research – Ralph Waverly

In the last several years I have developed two main areas of focus: I am interested in the history of scientific diagrams (including maps) as a combination of the history of visualization and theories of representation, as well as in the more physical spaces of science, including natural history museums, hospitals, and laboratories. Since the last years of my undergraduate degree at Rice, I have been interested in the intersections of science and architecture. I completed my BA in two major fields – architecture and civil engineering – and thus have a firm background in both the humanities and the natural sciences. Outside of school, I gained experience in both architecture and experimental physics. At no time did I try to separate my practical training in either field from my more scholarly interests in their overlap, and I have continued this inter-disciplinary interest by constructing a dual PhD program at Harvard, enrolling in both the History of Science and History of Architecture & Urban Planning programs. (I will fulfill the course and general examination requirements of both departments, and write one dissertation. My committee will include professors from both fields.)

One topic that particularly interests me is the development of American laboratories in the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Laboratories have existed in several contexts – from the work of individual inventors and corporate R&D to academic departments and governmental agencies – and their design has shown several changing influences, including industrial factories, high modernism, traditional campus planning, and even New Urbanism. I am interested in who or what has been responsible for the changing idea of what a laboratory should be: To what extent has laboratory design been aligned with the changing needs of science? How have laboratories influenced what it means to do scientific work and the persona of the scientist? How has their design been determined by changes in institutional and financial support? Have architects’ ideas had a demonstrable impact on how scientists view their own work? These questions have no straightforward answers, and one of the goals of my work would be to investigate the overlaps and dialogues that challenge the assumptions of any purely scientific or architectural history.

I have already looked at a specific case in some depth: the design of the new laboratories for the National Bureau of Standards in the mid-1960s. Here neither the Bureau’s decision to move to a new laboratory complex nor the specific design of the new buildings can be seen as the product of any one set of decisions. Changing management practices, huge increases in funds and personnel, national policies of industrial dispersion, and the specifically architectural ideas of the laboratory designers all combined in the eventual campus in suburban Maryland. The history of the NBS labs does not lend itself to any kind of internalist history (either scientific or architectural), and I thus became interested in the idea of a larger postwar military-industrial-corporate-academic complex – where “complex” is understood as both an institutional association and a physical place. Not only were the physical sciences expanding and becoming more connected with military funding sources like the Atomic Energy Commission or the Office of Naval Research, but the same architectural firms were designing similar laboratories for corporations, universities, and governmental agencies – I am particularly interested in the work of large firms like Voorhees Walker Foley & Smith or Skidmore Owings & Merrill.

My larger project would continue these kinds of questions, but expand them to include other important moments. In the late nineteenth century, the relationship between the first corporate labs and the development of national systems of standards seems especially important, as does the marriage between the German idea of the research university and the specifically American tradition of campus planning. In the twentieth century, I want to investigate the appropriateness of an idea like the military-industrial-corporate-academic complex, and explore the connections between funding, scientific pedagogy, specific architectural firms, and the various sites of scientific work. I am also interested in how

1 Note how this candidate is prepared to give considerable detail on one principal project, where he has already done some research, but also keeps the door open to a larger project and additional research questions of interest to him.
the fragmentation of science in the 1970s and 1980s is related to an architectural disenchantment with large-scale modernist planning.

Other scholars have approached the question of the laboratory, and my own project would build on this existing work. There is a rich literature in the history of science on experimental practice and the rise of laboratory authority from the seventeenth to the twentieth century. There have also been several studies of the laboratory design of famous architects like Robert Venturi, Eero Saarinen, or Louis Kahn, by both historians of science and of architecture. Detailed histories of specific laboratories, such as the Lawrence Berkeley Lab or the German Physikalisch-Technische Reichsanstalt, will also be important as models of institutional history. Yet almost all of this work has been situated either within either the history of science or the history of architecture, and has thus been divided in both focus and method. Since my goal is to bridge between architectural and scientific histories, my dissertation would involve a great deal of new archival research.

I would mainly use two types of archives: those of individual laboratories or institutions (both governmental and academic), and those of architectural firms who have worked on laboratory design. I will look for planning documents, correspondence between scientists and architects, and architectural drawings showing the evolution of design ideas. Announcements and reviews in the journals of both the scientific and architectural community will also be important. In analyzing these sources, I would use both techniques of textual analysis and the formal analysis used by historians of architecture and urban planning; an important part of my training has been learning to read drawings and photographs for the ideas and arguments they contain. My view of the laboratory as a joint project of both scientists and architects will impact my methodology – both texts and drawings will be important. This dual focus will be vital to understanding the military-industrial-corporate-academic complex as something more than simply a first-order effect of increased military funding: engaging different kinds of archives and types of sources will enable me to understand laboratory history as a larger cultural development with roots in several traditions, and I will be able to trace the consequences of its design into wider social contexts.
Personal, Professional, or Educational Experiences as Preparation for Advanced Scientific Study: Broader Impacts on Society, Such as Encouraging Diversity, Reaching a Broader Audience, etc.
(formerly 2 separate questions, now combined as single essay)

Ralph Waverly

The most important influence on my decision to pursue scholarly work has been my professors. Several professors at Rice helped me refine my interests and focus my life goals, and since coming to Harvard the faculty have provided me with renewed motivation and a model for innovative scholarship. Both as an undergraduate double-majoring in architecture and civil engineering, and now as a graduate student dually enrolled in History of Science and History of Architecture & Urban Planning programs, my education has allowed me to take cross- and inter-disciplinary interests seriously and to look for non-trivial intersections between different intellectual traditions. And just as my own interests have been shaped by influences from several fields, I have learned how to view these fields (namely physics, engineering, and architecture) as internally diverse and mutually interacting, both in their everyday practices and in their use of metaphor.

At Rice, two professors were especially influential. Sanford Kwinter – whose work deals with architects’ use of scientific concepts, especially complexity theory and theoretical biology – introduced me to a wide range of scientific thought and the philosophy of science, and taught me how to interrogate design as a form of intellectual production. Conversely, Nana Last – who does similar boundary-crossing work between architecture, art, and philosophy (such as Wittgenstein’s design of his own house) – was greatly influential in showing me how architectural thought could lead to a serious study of things like scientific representation. It was in her class on the idea of measurement within architecture that I first became interested both in scientific diagrams and in the National Bureau of Standards. Between governmental science, architects’ ideas, and construction practice lay institutional and cultural contexts: I began to see ideas as embedded in multiple locations and specific institutions. Professors Kwinter and Last acted as two intellectual poles: the one provoking my interest in metaphor and the history of ideas, the other challenging me to situate those interests in design practices, institutions, and social contexts.

These cross-disciplinary interests were also stimulated in my professional experiences. Whether working as an intern for an innovative design firm in Los Angeles (Eric Owen Moss Architects) or as an architect for the well-known firm of Venturi, Scott Brown, and Associates (whose principals have all published influential books), I have been able to pursue my interest in how design fits within larger intellectual and social contexts. For example, working on designs for a laboratory complex at the University of Michigan, I encountered the interplay between the internal tradition of design and the need to satisfy specific programmatic requirements. Likewise, in my work at Caltech and MIT for the Laser Interferometer Gravity-Wave Observatory, I worked on both the physical and numeric sides of experiment, and saw how cosmology, control-system design, error analysis, and mechanical engineering all fit together as part of physics. In both disciplines, I also became interested in day-to-day material conditions: the intellectual work of physics or design was always in dialogue with the need to fabricate parts with a milling machine or make intelligible drawings for use on a construction site.

Since coming to Harvard, I have been influenced by a different pair of professors: my advisors Peter Galison and Antoine Picon. Professor Galison’s interests in the social and cultural embeddedness of physics, including its architecture, have been complemented by Professor Picon’s work on the social milieu of architects and engineers. Even though one looks from the point of view of science, and the other from the point of view of architecture and engineering, both have influenced my interest in institutions and the relationship between a given cultural context and the changing personae of scientists, architects, and engineers. Both have emphasized the importance of rigorous archival work, and led me to ground my inter-disciplinary interests in a common historical methodology.
My work will benefit society by showing how science and architecture have influenced each other; it will engage broad cultural themes that are relevant to a wide audience. My two main areas of interest – the history of laboratories, and the history of scientific diagrams, maps, and visualization – are an important part of the day-to-day practices of both science and design, and by presenting these topics as relevant to both disciplines I will show how each has influenced a larger history. For instance, several of the questions that interest me in the history of laboratories will reach beyond the immediate topic of my work: How did science come to require its own specially designed space? How has the physical location of scientists been related to their place in society? What role has laboratory design played in the relationship between science and war? Although the fields of the history of science and the history of architecture & urban planning have tried to address these kinds of themes, they have often been blind to the particular strengths of the other’s historiography. A full understanding of “laboratory life” and its broader connections can only come with a deep understanding of both of the disciplines that lay claim to its development.

Beyond the specific example of laboratories, science and architecture have also played important roles in a broader social history of the last two hundred years. In the case of science, the transformation of natural philosophy into professionalized physics in the nineteenth century went hand-in-hand with the development of industry, international standardization, and the technologization of daily life. In architecture, the late eighteenth-century coupling of design, industry, and social reform began a tradition of seeing the design of the built environment as an intervention in society itself, both in urban planning and in individual buildings. By the end of World War II, nearly every important scientific or cultural space had become part of a larger discussion on the goals and structure of society as a whole. Yet the individual stories of science or design have obscured the ways in which they have interacted. One of the benefits of my inter-disciplinary point of view is that it can engage topics that have been peripheral to either science or architecture, yet are important as larger cultural forms – such as the relationship between statistical mapping and governmental planning, or the social nature of scientific work and its relationship to the image of the scientist (or architect) as a lone genius.

This kind of work is thus by its very nature non-hermetic: it will introduce scientific and technical understanding into new contexts and to new readers. Within academia, it will be relevant not only to professional historians of science or architecture, but also to historians in other fields, such as geography or American history. It will also engage a wider audience of practicing scientists and architects who want to understand how the historical development of their own profession has been related to other traditions; in the case of laboratories, it may also help collaboration between scientists and architects in the design of new lab buildings. Finally, general readers have shown an abiding interest in both science and architecture, and my work will provide an accessible account of both fields’ influence in society. My research will deepen the public understanding of science, thus helping to interest people of diverse cultural backgrounds in pursuing careers in scientific disciplines.

My larger project is also by nature a marriage of research and education: I hope to pursue a career in academia, and I will develop my research within a pedagogical context and have it become an important part of my own teaching. This work would be equally appropriate in a department of History, History of Science, or History of Architecture – my specific project could act as a complement to the core teaching competency I will receive in these fields. My work will also engage the relationship of research and education as a historical question: both laboratories and scientific diagrams were important within the nineteenth-century research university, and both remain indispensable to modern scientific pedagogy.
Previous Research Experience – Ralph Waverly

In my undergraduate education, I received a firm grounding in both the liberal arts and the natural sciences, and was exposed to a variety of research methods. As a double-major in architecture and civil engineering, I was trained in both humanistic and technical modes of argumentation: I wrote several papers in history, art history, music history, and anthropology using close textual readings (in topics from the history of early modern cartography to radical French architectural movements of the 1960s), but also did technical research – such as an environmental audit of Habitat for Humanity and a literature review on the material properties of anodized aluminum. In these projects I learned to engage a body of literature and situate my own argument within it; I learned how to use different kinds of sources and how different disciplines make claims to proof.

Outside of school, I worked in both architecture and experimental physics, and gained a broad exposure to the practical, workaday research problems of these fields. This work was always collaborative, and involved changing roles and multiple competencies: I helped design a biological laboratory complex for the University of Michigan (with Venturi, Scott Brown, and Associates), and worked on thermal and seismic noise problems for the gravity-wave observatory at Caltech and MIT. (References to this work are below.) In many respects these professional research experiences informed the types of problems I have pursued in my individual scholarly work – I learned the importance of the processes (physical, intellectual, and institutional) behind published papers, and became interested in the way that different discourses can intersect even within a supposedly pure disciplinary problem.

My largest research project as an undergraduate at Rice was an analysis of the relationship between sound-reproduction technology and art music. (Publication information below.) It was both a history of musical technologies – in the use of such devices as the theremin, dynamophone, and magnetic tape by musicians like Pierre Schaffer and Karlheinz Stockhausen – and an exploration of musicians’ attitudes toward this “electronic music” and its implications for the repeatability and perfectibility of aural experience. By looking at the theoretical underpinnings of musicians’ use of technology and their relationship to theories of language and scientific studies of aurality (specifically, the Swedish school of Biomusicology), I argued that the continued marginalization of electronic music within mainline art music should be seen as a conflict between a semiotic understanding of sound and a more essentialist-materialist one. These two ontologies – the repeatable, signifying objects sonores of early tape music and the unrepeatable, immanent biomusicological impression implied in most “live” music – have developed in parallel for the last eighty years with little reconciliation, despite art music’s increasing use of technology for non-artistic ends. For this project, I used a variety of sources, from patents and musicians’ essays to historical philosophy and close listenings of electronic music.

I have continued this kind of multimodal work at Harvard, while becoming more firmly grounded in archival and historical methodology. During the past year I have taken methodological seminars in both History of Science and History of Architecture, and Harvard’s extensive library system has allowed me to become skilled at in-depth primary-source research, both in scientific and design archives. As indicated in my proposed research essay, I have been developing two main areas of interest: the development of technoscientific representation (such as maps, diagrams, and engineering drawings), and the history of laboratory design.

For the first, I have written a paper on the development of noise maps – maps which represent a sound environment (for example, around airports) as a single, mappable metric. Here I argued that various methods of representing noise are deeply embedded within specific regulatory and institutional contexts. Thus the lack of mapping in the city noise survey of New York in the 1930s is not evidence of a lack of representational sophistication, but becomes a logical part of middle-class activists’ drive to enact local anti-noise ordinances – a noise map showing aggregate, time-averaged data would be irrelevant for
controlling individual noise offences. In contrast, the extensive use of mapping in the 1960s and 1970s by the FAA makes sense as part of that agency’s mandate to regulate at the scale of the country’s entire air transport system and with regard to the needs of industry. I have also traced the development of measurement techniques and metrics, and shown how the seemingly transparent choice of units is also deeply tied to modes of representation and regulation. Thus despite the scientific debate over sound metrology from the 1930s to the 1970s, units were not standardized until the involvement of large governmental agencies using bureaucratic (rather than scientific) decision-making. I have been interested in how self-evident end results – maps, or dB(A) units – are tied up in larger institutional processes, and how regulatory decisions can have wide-ranging effects in urban planning, acoustic engineering, and sound metrology. I have submitted a version of this paper to a conference on architecture and science.

The second project has developed as a close look at the laboratory design of the US National Bureau of Standards from the 1940s to the late 1960s. (I present the larger scope of this project in my Proposed Research essay). And here again I have looked at how parallel narratives can intersect, relating the changes in NBS management structure in the mid-1960s to the agency’s move from a site of individual buildings in Washington DC to an integrated campus in suburban Maryland. This move, besides fitting in with a national initiative to disperse key industries and agencies away from potential nuclear targets, also represented a shift towards the architectural design ideas of corporate research labs. The architectural firm used by NBS was responsible for many university research facilities and key corporate labs (such as Bell Labs and GE), and this firm developed a single design approach for all these projects, emphasizing the flexibility and expansibility of modular planning. These design ideas went hand in hand with the Bureau’s new multi-tiered “matrix management” structure: both emphasized rapidity of change and the breaking down of disciplinary boundaries. This project still seems quite fertile, and I am making arrangements to visit both the NBS and National archives in Maryland.

Beyond these two larger projects, I have done research on a wide range of topics. For example, I have written seminar papers on the role of popular science books within scientific communities, the history of American urban development and professional planning in the nineteenth century, and the relationship between green architecture, the Green Party, and their common roots in the Alternative Technology movement of the 1960s and 1970s. And while my interests have been largely focused on topics in the United States, my reading knowledge of both French and German has allowed me to engage a larger circle of secondary sources – for example, there is a rich historiography in French on the development of statistical mapping. This is typical of my research experience: I have become adept at engaging various literatures and different kinds of sources, and using them to make well-grounded historical arguments.

Published Original Work:

Acknowledged Contributions to Others’ Work:
Progressive Architecture Citation for Eric Moss’s “The Spa” in Architecture 89 (April 2000): 132-133.
Two areas of investigation are currently of great interest to developmental biologists. The first being vertebrate early embryonic specification and patterning of the kidney and the second being the ability of various stem cells to obtain broad developmental potentials. Combining these two areas of interest, one would be able to ask two important questions: What types of stem cells have the potential to give rise to kidney and are there any stem cells that occur normally in the fully developed or adult kidney? The importance of pursing these questions is to gain an understanding of the basic biology of kidney formation, from the first inductive events to the end point of tissue development. The questions are also important for exploring the potential use of stem cells (whether derived from kidney or induced to form kidney from other types of stem cells), for example, to repair damaged kidney tissue, either through transplantation or activation of endogenous cells to provide self-repair (Gage). In the long-term, an understanding of both these topics will have positive medical applications with respect to treating damaged kidneys or kidney disorders and will have advanced the current understanding of kidney development and stem cell differentiation.

As an organ develops, its varied cell and tissue types are formed from tightly regulated spatial and temporal induction events. These differentiated cell types are generated from one or more common precursors or stem cells. Stem cells maintain the ability to self-renew and contribute to all the differentiated cell types within the given tissue or organ, while committed progenitors are restricted to generate only a subset of cell types within a tissue (Panchision, et al). Beyond this, many recent studies have demonstrated that the potential of several precursor cells is greater than the cell types that they normally generate. Interestingly, these cells can be re-specified by their local environments to give rise to cells that are not part of their normal lineage (Panchision, et al, Gage, and Clarke, et al). Many researchers have documented the broad differentiation potential of neural stem cells. When frequency of chimerism in various tissues in chick and mouse embryos containing neural stem cell progeny was analyzed, these tissue types included the somites, heart, muscle, and both mesonephric mesenchyme and epithelium (Clarke, et al).

The specific aims of this proposal are to identify stem cells in the chick embryo that can give rise to kidney tissue, and to characterize the mechanism by which this differentiation to kidney occurs, using both kidney and non-kidney derived stem cells. The initial analysis of what types of stem cells can give rise to kidney will be with neural stem cells because there is existing evidence that neural stem cells can differentiate into both mesonephric mesenchyme and epithelium, a tissue that clearly becomes kidney in normal development (Clarke, et al). Previously in this lab, I investigated whether rat neural stem cells (responder tissue) could give rise to heart when cultured with the endoderm (inducer tissue) of a stage 5 chick embryo, using rat-specific primers to heart genes and reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) to detect expression of chick heart tissue derived from rat neural stem cells. Being already familiar with this technique, I could use RT-PCR to assay for induction of kidney genes in the chick embryo. The major difference in this assay is that the responder tissue will be quail neural stem cells, isolated and propagated as neurospheres, thus requiring the generation of quail specific kidney gene primers. The use of the quail-chick chimera is especially interesting and promising because within the lab there exists a quail specific antibody and use of this antibody would not only distinguish quail cells from chick cells, but also identify all progenitor cells that differentiated from the transplanted quail neurospheres. This would allow the lineage of the quail neural stem cells to be traced as the embryo continues to develop. Using immunohistochemistry, one would also be able to simultaneously identify cells that are expressing the quail antigen, and cells that are expressing an antigen to a kidney gene, such as Pax-2. In addition to RT-PCR and immunohistochemistry, one could also utilize in situ hybridization and look for expression of kidney markers, such as OSR-1 (the earliest known kidney marker), lim-1 and Pax-8 (Carroll and Vize). Future experimentation may also explore the differentiation potential into kidney of other stem cells, such as kidney side population (SP) cells. It has been demonstrated that SP
cells exist in many tissue types, such as heart and hematopoietic cells, and are identified within that tissue type by the exclusion of Hoechst’s dye, while the other cells within the tissue retain Hoechst’s dye (Jackson, et al).

The isolation of kidney derived stem cells constitutes a new and important endeavor because there are no known stem cells that reside in this organ. As demonstrated for other types of stem cells, this involves identifying a candidate population of cells, isolating those cells, and lastly confirming that the stem cells are actually from kidney. The detection of stem cells in vivo involves the incorporation of the nucleotide analog, tritiated thymidine or bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU). This technique labels only dividing cells by incorporation of the nucleotide analog into replicating DNA. Stem cells are usually the slowest replicating cells, thus retaining the label for a longer period than any other cell type within the tissue. Designation of potential stem cells is therefore based on this characteristic (Taylor, et al). Once the region in the kidney that contains candidate stem cells is identified, the tissue will be isolated and disaggregated. The dissociated cells will then be exposed to high concentrations of mitogens, such as fibroblast growth factor (FGF) and epidermal growth factor (EGF) to keep the cells in an undifferentiated state (Gage) and culture conditions will be developed to maintain this undifferentiated state for each stem cell type. After a period of proliferation, the stem cells will then be allowed to differentiate by withdrawal of the mitogens. First we will assay if removal of mitogens alone is sufficient for the stem cells to differentiate into kidney. If this does not result in differentiation, we will then perform intraembryonic implants of stem cells into chick embryos. Analysis of cellular fate will be done by staining with antibodies directed against antigens specific to various kidney cell subtypes. Further characterization would also involve demonstrating that the identified stem cell has retained its ability to differentiate into all cell types found within the kidney, again using antibodies against various kidney cell subtypes. Another interesting experiment would be to sort the pluripotent stem cells from the restricted cells, exploring the use of a cell surface marker. If this cell surface marker is expressed in the stem cells but not in the more restricted progenitor cells, then Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting (FACS) could be utilized.

Once these stem cells have been identified, isolated and characterized, they will be used to discover what tissues and molecules are required for kidney differentiation, utilizing intraembryonic implants and explant co-culturing of both kidney and non-kidney derived stem cells within the chick embryo. A knowledge of these key events will also advance understanding of normal cell renewal within the kidney and the repair of damaged kidney tissue.

References

Predissertation Research Proposal of James Shepherd

My primary career goal is to teach and conduct research at a major university. My general research interests lie in integrating theoretical concepts with practical considerations in studying political institutions. My graduate program will emphasize American government and political theory. My focus field will be bureaucracies. Within this framework, there are three specific research topics of interest to me.

First, I am examining the political philosophies underlying the constitutional system of separate powers. As an undergraduate, my political science/philosophy double major led me to study the writings of the Federalists, Locke, Hobbes and others on this topic. In graduate studies at Harvard, I am pursuing a more comprehensive consideration of American constitutional theory and have just completed Michael Sandel’s graduate course “Law and Political Theory.” This spring I will enroll in “Social and Political Philosophy,” taught by John Rawls, and “Revolutionary Constitutionalism,” taught by Harvey Mansfield and Ralph Lerner. I will also serve as Professor Sandel’s Research Assistant as he completes work on a new book, Liberal Democracy in America.

Second, I am researching the current practices of the branches of government and how they reflect the concept of separate powers. Specifically, I am considering the role of bureaucrats and bureaucracies in the power struggle between the executive and legislative branches. I recently completed Paul Peterson’s graduate course “The Presidential-Congressional Nexus” which dealt with this subject.

Third, I am interested in studying ways bureaucracies can be more efficient in administering programs. Experiences from my tenure as administrator of a new government program will contribute to study in this area. This spring, as a continuation of my work in Paul Peterson’s course, I will conduct primary-source research on the performance of the Bureau of the Budget during World War II. Many believe the Bureau performed as an efficient agency of government at that point in history. Due to the nature of the time, scant research has been done on this topic. In my research I will examine factors that may have contributed to the effectiveness of the agency. If my research should uncover aspects of the Bureau that performed poorly, it would surprise a good many professionals in the field. Either way, the project will produce a clearer understanding of factors that influence bureaucratic performance.

I also plan to continue my involvement in research related to deafness. In 2010, I authored a paper entitled “Telecommunication Access: An Issue That Should Not Fall On Deaf Ears.” The paper contributed to the drafting and passage of a bill to provide telephone access for Minnesotans with hearing impairments. I was then hired by the state as administrator of the new program. In 2011, a colleague and I presented a paper to the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association Convention on our experiences ushering the proposal through the legislative and implementation processes. Portions of the paper will appear in the March edition of the journal Hearing Instruments. Recently, I was hired by Gray & Associates as a Research Associate for an impact study related to the program. Through these experiences and additional courses in quantitative methods, political theory and American government, I hope to polish my research skills for use in further projects and teaching.

Note how the organization of this essay illustrates the strategy of choosing three potential areas for exploration in graduate school, using a series of major research experiences from the past and showing how they led to choices for the future. Note as well that since the applicant has already completed a semester of graduate study, he also includes some of these recent research experiences. In this fashion he manages to sound focused even though he has not really decided on a specific area for future research. The essay also illustrates the effectiveness of starting with the most important experiences and then proceeding backwards — a principal that works effectively in preparing a curriculum vitae. Above all, note how each sentence and paragraph about past experiences helps to advance the single theme — the candidate’s future goals and how they took shape.
Predissertation Research Proposal of Nelson Widner

A Jacob Javits Fellowship would enable me to prepare myself for a career in university teaching and scholarship as a professor of French and comparative literature. French is my main national literature, and my comparative concentration is the novel in France, Russia and America. With a Javits Fellowship, I would further explore the notion of a “Jewish literature” in Europe as I continue my graduate program. I am interested in the kinds of claims that might be made for a community of writers who write in non-Jewish languages (i.e., not Yiddish or Hebrew) and are fully integrated into the culture of their own country, but who also consciously address Jewish themes in their work. Although in this country reams have been written about the so-called School of Jewish-American writers, almost nothing has been done on the notion of a community of Jewish writers in Europe. This topic has been inspired in large part by the in-depth work I have done this past term and summer on Albert Cohen, a French author of Greek-Jewish descent. Cohen’s alchemy of the French literary canon and Jewish communal traditions has led me to pose several broad questions: How have Jewish writers responded to dual and often conflicting cultural and contextual loyalties? How, in an age of increasing social atomization and declining religious observance, have secular Jewish authors become important sources for communal Jewish identity, both within a particular country and across national and linguistic boundaries? What is the relationship between Jewish and national literature? (Gide wrote of a “Jewish literature” in France “that is not French literature, that has its own virtues, its own meanings and its own tendencies.”) What are the formal and philosophical effects of the Holocaust on writers like Cohen, seen in the light of recent theoretical claims by Hartman, Lyotard, Derrida, Levinas, Jabes and Fackenheim?

With the aid of a Javits Fellowship, I would continue to consider these issues as I take courses and prepare for my general examinations. In French, having worked this first year in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, I would shift next year to the sixteenth and twentieth centuries. Two courses that are ideally suited to me are on the realist and experimental modes in the twentieth-century French novel, led by Susan Suleiman, who has helped me to define my program and research plans and will be my advisor next year. In her courses, I might coordinate my classwork with my research interests by writing a term paper on Patrick Modiano, Helene Cixous or Andre Schwarz-Bart. I would also take a course on Rabelais and Montaigne to become more familiar with that period and the Renaissance origins of the novel.

In the Russian novel I will have built a solid foundation in my first year with courses on Tolstoy, Dostoevsky and Pushkin. In the next two years I would take additional courses in Russian and Soviet prose with Jurij Striedter and Donald Fanger, either of whom I might eventually ask to advise me in later research. In these courses, I could begin to explore the questions I posed about Jewish literature in the works of Babel, Olesha, Mandelstam and Grossman. Finally, I would take a seminar on literary theory, especially as it applies to prose, as a supplement to this year’s seminar on theory and the lyric. If my schedule permits, I might take another seminar on American prose to complement Sacvan Berkovitch’s course this spring on Emerson and Melville.

A Javits Fellowship would enable me to spend a summer completing the translation on one of Albert Cohen’s books (begun in an independent study with Barbara Johnson), which I believe I could then publish. Most important, the fellowship would help me accomplish my professional goals by allowing me to devote myself full-time to my studies and to the first stages of my scholarship.

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Note how this candidate focuses primarily on a single culminating research experience from his past and how well this works, since he hopes to continue working on many of the same issues. Note as well that since he has completed a semester of graduate study he also includes more recent research experience from that semester.
A Jacob Javits Fellowship will enable me to pursue my goal of becoming a university professor and scholar of English literature. I plan to focus my studies and teaching on women’s literature, particularly on texts which remain widely unexplored by literary critics. Having an extensive background in Renaissance women’s writing from my undergraduate studies, in graduate school I plan to enlarge my focus to encompass the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as well.

My interest in women’s writing stems from a paper I wrote while on a semester of independent study at the Newberry Library in Chicago. Using the library’s vast special collections, I researched the role of women Puritan preachers during the English civil war, many of whom were avid pamphleteers. I was able to follow up questions raised in this paper when I received a research grant to study seventeenth-century political pamphlets at the Bodleian Library, Oxford. Although my thesis for this paper was primarily oriented towards male authors, during the course of my research I was struck by the number of female-authored pamphlets I discovered that were uncatalogued and randomly stored in cardboard boxes. From these and other experiences, I began to realize that a large part of future studies of women’s writings must entail “academic archaeology,” uncovering neglected women’s literature, much of which has disappeared from view because the often devotional or domestic subject matter were not of interest to nineteenth- and twentieth-century librarians and collectors.

In my first semester at Harvard, I have been avidly pursuing means of uncovering and exploring little-known women’s texts. A seminar with my advisor Barbara Lewalski on the social context of Jacobean literature has directed me towards such texts and taught me the methodologies necessary to approach them in a critical manner; through my seminar paper on Jacobean mother’s manuals, advice books mothers wrote for their children, I was able to put such methods into practice. A Javits Fellowship will enable me to spend my summer transcribing the diary of Lady Mildmay, a valuable example of seventeenth-century women’s writing which currently exists only in the original manuscript.

In addition to the actual discovery of women’s texts, another challenge currently facing women’s literary studies is the formulation of an agenda of questions scholars can use to approach these non-canonical works. As women were frequently excluded from the political and social sphere in which men were writing, their concerns, audience, themes, and even genres differ significantly from those found in men’s literature; thus many of the tools we use to explore men’s writing, questions and theories that have been constantly evolving over the past century of literary criticism simply do not work for much of women’s writing. Rather than focus on the ways in which a patriarchal system marginalized women, the traditional approach of those posed by such pioneering scholars as Ezell, Rose, and Dubrow, which will help us to approach and comprehend women’s writing on its own terms. In order to give myself the necessary background in this field, as I prepare for my general exams over the next three semesters I plan to center my course work around classes which will give me a more solid background in feminist literary theory and women’s literature of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. In my dissertation research, I will be concentrating on the function of religion as a source of authorization and validation for women’s literary activities. A Javits Fellowship would greatly facilitate my studies by enabling me to devote myself full-time to these academic pursuits.

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4This essay, like the preceding one, focuses on a single research experience from the past — once again, because she knows that she would like to continue working on women's literature in the future.
DISsertation Fellowship Proposals

The examples presented here represent a variety of fields and types of research projects. Some fellowship competitions ask for relatively brief proposals, setting a page limit of around two to four pages double-spaced. Others ask for more elaborate proposals, and set a limit of up to ten pages double-spaced. Most of the samples here are the shorter type proposal, while the final two samples (of George Timback and Alex Boax) are the longer and more elaborate type.

In the present chapter, the discussion on writing dissertation fellowship proposals presents three possible paradigms for producing a polished and tightly-knit argument on how a dissertation will contribute to the field:

**Paradigm A:** It brings to light new material that hitherto has been overlooked by scholars.

**Paradigm B:** It studies well-known material that has been examined many times before, but calls for a reassessment by looking at it in a new way.

**Paradigm C:** It does some combination of the two — i.e., it exposes some new material, which in turn calls for some reassessment of what already has been done.

The examples on the following pages illustrate the use of the three paradigms.
Arlene Wang. *This statement illustrates Paradigm C. It uncovers new material, which causes a shift in how we might think about this topic.*

**The Establishment of the Museum Institution in Nineteenth-Century Japan**

While the establishment of the museum institution in Meiji Japan (1868-1912) has largely been understood as part of the mass implementation of Western culture and concepts, the idea of the museum as an instrument for the re-evaluation and re-presentation of Japan’s own traditional arts has yet to be explored. My study, which will focus on the network of three Imperial Museums, installed in the cities of Tokyo, Nara, and Kyoto, respectively, centers on the premise that the museum of late nineteenth-century Japan forged its own direction in the adaptation of the Western museum typology; it distinguished itself from its foreign model as well as the nation’s extant artistic practices, and acted as an essential force behind the creation of a newly defined national aesthetic that was being mobilized for Japan’s self representation in the international arena. By examining the original documents, set of objects, and architectural designs that led to the physical and conceptual generation of the Imperial Museums, I hope to provoke a rethinking of the Japanese government’s pioneering effort at defining a uniquely “Japanese” art.

In considering the first museums of Japan, scholarship has either overlooked or underemphasized the fact that the Imperial Museums were the product of the collaborative efforts of both foreign experts (e.g., Ernest Fenollosa, Josiah Conder) and Japanese academics (Okakura Kakuzô, Katayama Tôkuma). This international panel of specialists was responsible for shaping the new, modern perception of Japanese aesthetics, and their diverse visions melded to form the origins of our current discipline of Japanese art history. Because this legacy of written history, preservation initiative, and classification methodology still prevails today, it is significant to reexamine the unique circumstances and particular predilections that directed and propelled the initial creation of “Japanese art” as we know it today.

My preliminary study on this topic, which consists of two research papers and a three-month fellowship in Japan, indicates that in the establishment of Japan’s first museums and the expression of its national aesthetic, some unexpected approaches were taken. First, unlike their European inspirations such as the Hermitage of Catherine II, the Imperial Museums were not constructed to house an existing collection of objects. Rather, the government held extensive, nationwide inventories of public and private holdings of culturally important objects, specifically for assembling them into a museum collection. Second, the set of objects eventually chosen for the Imperial Museums exhibited a strong bias toward ancient and Buddhist artifacts, rather than presenting a comprehensive historical and typological survey of the arts of Japan. Artworks such as those by artists belonging to the *ukiyo-e* and *buijinga* traditions that dominated the artistic landscape of the preceding Tokugawa period (1600-1868) were overlooked by the Imperial Museums, for both political and aesthetic reasons. Third, the exhibition environment and mode of display for the chosen objects made no reference to their original historical or religious contexts. This exhibition strategy signaled the creation of new meaning, especially for the Buddhist pieces whose removal to a secular environment from their original liturgical context was unprecedented.

Another crucial component of the Imperial Museums that has not been studied is their architecture. “Japanese art” was being defined by the choice of a particular set of objects as well as a particular architectural style for accommodating them. A primary design concern for the architects of the Imperial Museums, Josiah Conder and Katayama Tôkuma, was the creation of an architecture that visually symbolized both Japan’s cultural lineage and its modern aspirations. Museum architecture, a major component in the visual and ideological construction of the new national aesthetic, exhibited a creative adaptation and interchange of the existing Western and Japanese conventions. An example of
this cultural hybridity was the design of a prominent frontal entryway *a la* Western Neo-Classicist protocol, and the virtual nonuse of it due to the Japanese custom of reserving main entrance spaces for exclusive imperial usage.

My work on the establishment of the Imperial Museums, the first study to consider the roles of both art and architecture in the defining process of a national aesthetic in Japan’s modernity, will contribute a fresh perspective to the growing discourse on the re-definition and institutionalization of the arts during the Meiji period. To date, no Japanese or Western scholar has attempted to examine the museum as a total environment, a constructed ensemble of art objects and architectural space. Only by acknowledging the art and architecture of the museum as parts of an organic whole will one be able to understand the museological project as originally envisioned by its Meiji period creators.

The primary sources of investigation for this research will be the documents currently in the archives of the Tokyo National Museum, the Nara National Museum, the Kyoto National Museum, and the Imperial Household Ministry that contain the mission statements for the Imperial Museums. Another source of information will be the literature and exhibition catalogs published by the museums during their opening years. An examination of the language employed to describe and contextualize the artworks in the museum holdings will bring the contemporary perspective into clearer view. Papers and transcripts of lectures given by the chief directors of the Imperial Museums Kuki Ryûichî, Okakura Kakuzô, and Yarnadaka Nobutsura, and the architects Josiah Conder and Katayama Tôkuma will also be investigated.

For the architectural designs of the museums, access to the working and finished drawings of all three museum buildings will prove to be crucial. To date, no extensive documentation or study on these three buildings have been published, despite the voluminous number of extant drawings. (For the design of the Imperial Museum of Kyoto alone, 630 drawings by the architect Katayama still remain.) Architectural drawings and photographs will be especially vital for the Imperial Museum of Tokyo, whose original structure has been lost since the great Kantô earthquake of the 1920’s.

For expert guidance on the architecture of the Imperial Museums, I wish to consult Professors Suzuki Hiroyuki and Fujimori Terunobu, both of the University of Tokyo, who specialize in modern architecture of Japan in an international context. Having been in contact with them since the summer of 2008, I have benefited greatly from studying their published works as well as speaking to them in person. As for expert guidance on the history of modern Japanese art, I hope to solicit the advice of Professor Sato Doshin of Tokyo National University of Fine Art and Music whose book *'Nihon bijutsu' tanjô: Kindai Nihon no 'kotoba' to senryaku* (The Birth of Japanese Art: Words and Strategies of Modern Japan) has greatly influenced this proposed study.

This project, an on-going research effort of two years, was developed in consultation with my advisors, Professors Cherie Wendelken and Neil Levine of Harvard’s Department of History of Art and Architecture. It has evolved from a twenty-five page seminar paper (“Kyoto Imperial Museum: Visual Politics in Nineteenth-Century Japan”, May 2008), to a fifty-page departmental qualifying paper (“Establishing the Imperial Museum of Kyoto: Containing the Past within the Present”, April 2009); in addition, the Mellon I Fellowship and Reischauer Institute Summer Research Grant (summer 2009) allowed me to conduct a three-month investigation in Japan, through which I have been able to discuss my proposed project in detail with Professor Suzuki Hiroyuki of the University of Tokyo, and the curators Nakamura Yasushi and Hirano Yuki of the Kyoto National Museum.

This project, to be implemented in a twelve-month period starting July 2010, is indispensable not only to my doctoral dissertation research but also my future career in academia. This investigation of the origins of the disciplines of art history and architecture both challenges and justifies the work that I and
my colleagues pursue. It will therefore be immeasurably consequential for my professional growth. Given the extensive preparatory work I have done at Harvard University and the relevant data and expertise in the United States that I have exhausted, the logical next step is to continue this study in Japan where I will be able to consult the much needed material and human resources. Having already conducted a short research trip to Japan and established contact with some of the experts in the related fields as well as with the museums of my study, I am confident that I will be successful in carrying out this project to fruition.
**Abigail Lieser.** This statement illustrates Paradigm A. It is dealing with material that remains largely unknown for the period in question. Note that in this case the concise description of the project is postponed until paragraph two, which is counter to the suggestion made elsewhere that this should be done at the beginning. In our view, this particular opening helps to arouse the reader’s interest, which justifies the slight delay in getting to the important facts about the project. It could be considered an exception that proves the rule.

**Popular Religion and Politics in Andalusia, Spain, 1812-1872**

In the seventeenth century, at a monastery near Segovia, Spain, the local populace finally gathered to take drastic measures against the locusts that had besieged its fields for two years. Appearing before a makeshift courtroom, three saints, represented by villagers and acting as prosecuting attorneys, indicted the grasshoppers for their vicious “crimes.” St. Augustine and St. Thomas Aquinas served as impressive witnesses for the prosecution. The judge, the Blessed Virgin Mary, consulted with her advisors (St. Jerome and St. Francis) before handing down the guilty verdict: the locusts must leave town immediately, or face excommunication. Such was one way in which Spanish peasants attempted to influence their universe through self-designed rituals.

I am applying for a Fulbright to Spain in order to conduct research for my doctoral dissertation on Andalusian popular religion in the 1800s, a century of belief and practice virtually untouched by scholars. Although a good deal of research has been done on the institutional history of the Spanish Catholic Church in the nineteenth century, the history of popular belief in that period remains largely unexamined. This lack is only emphasized by the excellent analyses that exist for the early-modern era and the twentieth century. As these works have demonstrated, the study of popular religion can offer important insights into how “average” people conceived of, and attempted to influence, the world around them. By focusing on the nineteenth century, an era in which traditional beliefs collided with new ideas introduced by the Enlightenment, industrialization, and other forces of modernization, my study will help explain how the rural population of Andalusia made sense of the rapid changes occurring around it. Some manifestations of unorthodox belief, like the 1860 processions designed to solicit from God the rains needed to end a devastating drought, had their roots in centuries-old traditions. Others however, like the enlightened prophecies issued by a Sevillan nun in 1814, were shaped significantly by the tensions and ideas of the age. Indeed, preliminary archival research I conducted this past summer has convinced me that nineteenth-century popular religion effectively articulated collective concerns, both old and new.

But popular religion does more than merely express cultural and social anxieties. It is my contention that just as local devotions may have been used to solve natural problems like drought, so too may they have served as a means of political influence and resistance. In Spain, the nineteenth century was punctuated by dramatic clashes between Church and State, and frequent political upheaval. Manifestations of popular belief, like the apocalyptic prophecies that accompanied Napoleon’s invasion, may be interpreted as forms of resistance—often the only ones safely available to subordinate social groups. Because its peasants and artisans were radicalized earlier, and more thoroughly, than in other parts of Spain, Andalusia makes an ideal region from which to study the relationship between popular religion and politics. In fact, some historians have suggested that the explanation for anarchism’s early emergence and unusual coherence in Andalusia may lie with the popular religiosity of the region’s rural population. Until now, however, no one has undertaken the research necessary to prove or disprove this contention.
An effective study of popular religion requires an interdisciplinary approach. I bring to my research an understanding of anthropological methodology and political science resistance theories. In fact, my studies have prepared me well for such an undertaking. Coursework completed at the University of Cordoba with Professor Soledad Miranda, who has agreed to supervise my work while I am in Spain, introduced me to the problems that characterize modern Spanish history. My master’s thesis, completed in May 2012, examined the apparition of the Virgin Mary at Lourdes in 1858. In it, I attempted to understand how, in a century normally characterized as one of steady de-Christianization, the event could inspire such fervent expressions of belief. I also explored the political implications of a religious manifestation that initially worried the Catholic hierarchy and outraged the French government.

Having already conducted preliminary research in Spain, I am convinced that this project can be completed in one year. I have identified the files in the National Archives with which I will be working, and examined catalogues of municipal holdings in Cordoba and Seville. Diocesan archives in these locations, with their records of pastoral visits and religious disturbances, prove especially rich.

It is my contention that popular belief can lend important insights into both the mentalities and the actions of rural populations. The events described at the beginning of this proposal, for example, raise significant questions about how believers conceived of their relationship to the world around them, how they dealt with catastrophe, and how they articulated their political and social anxieties. By asking these questions of an era marked by upheaval and witness to the forces of industrialization, de-Christianization, and modernization, my study will not only fill in the historical picture of modern Spain, but also contribute to our understanding of rural identity in a rapidly changing world.
This statement illustrates Paradigm A. It is dealing with material that remains largely unknown.

**Textbook Enlightenment: Barbarian Knowledge and the Late Republic of Letters, 1811-1877**

The adoption of Western assumptions and methods by nineteenth-century Japan – in politics, in economics, in physics, in chemistry – was a world historical phenomenon. In the space of mere decades during the late nineteenth century, intellectuals, statesmen, engineers, and scientists transformed a relatively closed country into a constitutionally governed imperial power seeking equal status with America and European nations. Japan’s success was once considered positive proof of modernization’s universality. Even today, in an age that has discarded the modernization paradigm, the episode is still considered a defining example of cultural and intellectual adaptation.

My dissertation calls for a reassessment of this process from the perspective of the transnational history of the book. In particular, I seek to examine nineteenth century Japan’s study of the West through the specific lens of how everyday European school textbooks mediated the global circulation of ideas. Intellectual historians writing on this period have so far focused almost exclusively on the reception and translation in Japan of major European thinkers – Rousseau, Tocqueville, Darwin, Mill. A simple bibliographical survey, however, shows that such ‘great’ names were statistically far more the exception than the rule. Instead, the overwhelming number of works shuttling between Japan and the West for much of the nineteenth century were European textbooks: forgotten titles written by forgotten authors intended for use in the classrooms of new elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, and, occasionally, universities. I therefore argue, on the basis of this empirical observation, that we cannot fully understand the process by which Japanese intellectuals engaged with the West in the nineteenth century without understanding how this seemingly trivial, quotidian, and innocuous object – the school textbook – functioned as a medium of knowledge transmission. Moreover, I contend that such an understanding, in shedding light on a critical episode of world history, can also offer crucial new insights into how Western concepts of politics, science, and philosophy came to infiltrate and hold sway on the non-Western world.

Accomplishing this project means, in concrete terms, tracing the following four-step cycle of textbook-mediated exchange between Europe and Japan: 1) the production of European textbooks; 2) their procurement by Japanese scholars; 3) their reading, censorship, and translation by Japanese scholars; 4) the dissemination of Japanese-language translations to a Japanese public. The first of these stages builds upon my previous visits to publishers’ archives in London, and Caen, France. My research suggests that the mass production and consumption of school textbooks in nineteenth-century Europe marked a fundamental change in how and why Western knowledge communicated itself. Unlike the erudite treatises of the old Republic of Letters, these new school textbooks were the children of domestic revolution and overseas empire. The former created an increasing demand for institutionalized national education, encompassing at its far ends a call for texts accessible both to the sons of farmers as well as those of former aristocracy. Direct colonial administration, meanwhile, created a monopoly market for certain educational publishers – Heinemann in South Africa, Colin and Hachette in Algeria – that helped financially sustain the industry. School textbooks were therefore both an ideology as well as a technology. They represented 1) new definitions of the knowledge necessary for modern national citizenship; 2) new modes of presenting said knowledge in an universal, ‘easy-to- understand’ form; 3) new networks of transnational publishing in an age of high imperialism.

Yet to stop my investigation here would be to deny the agency of Japanese intellectuals as they adapted, transformed, and appropriated these textbooks. Textbooks may have been a European ideological technology, but local actors in Japan reformulated them in accordance with local meanings. It is in order to answer these questions and provide a sense of agency to the Japanese that I require substantial research time in Japan. I am confident that sources in Japanese archives will be of vital
importance to answer the questions of why intellectuals in Japan selected some textbooks but either censored or ignored others; how those same intellectuals read the textbooks they did select; and, finally, what effect translations of these textbooks had on the wider acceptance of Western ideas.

While there is no single comprehensive archive of foreign textbooks imported into nineteenth-century Japan, my previous fieldwork has indicated a representative resource: the former library of the Institute for Barbarian Books. Originally dubbed the Office for Translating Barbarian Books upon its creation by the Tokugawa shogunate in 1811, the Institute functioned partly in the fashion of an area studies center, and partly in the fashion of a censorship bureau, deciding what Western books would be imported, which portions would be translated, and to whom this information would be circulated. Later on, the Institute took on pedagogical functions, training students in Dutch, French, English, and German. As this pedagogical role grew, the Institute established an in-house printing press to produce its own textbooks.

Materials pertaining to the Institute for Barbarian Books are spread across three sites: the Historiographical Institute at the University of Tokyo, the National Diet Library, and the Aoi Bunko collection at the Shizuoka Prefectural Library. The Historiographical Institute houses administrative documents relevant to the Institute for Barbarian Books. Through these documents, I will principally be seeking to understand procurement practices. Did scholars ever contract directly with foreign publishers? Were titles chosen explicitly by scholars, or was this left up to the discretion of middlemen? To what extent was pricing decisive?

Aoi Bunko in Shizuoka and the NDL in Tokyo together house the former library of the Institute for Barbarian Books. I have already conducted a bibliographical survey of the French, English, and German holdings in Shizuoka. These total 506 unique titles, slightly less than two-thirds of them being clearly identifiable as school textbooks. I have not yet completed surveying the NDL holdings, nor have I completed my catalogue of Dutch-language titles in Shizuoka. A long-term stay in Japan will be indispensable for this, and especially for the next step of my project after my bibliography is complete. This next step is to make sense of the various forms of ‘marginalia’ in these books. Here, I use the term ‘marginalia’ broadly in three distinct senses of reader response: 1) linguistic traces; 2) highlighting and underlining; 3) glued-in “Post-Its.” These traces of interaction between reader and text will allow me to draw conclusions about how Japanese understood new textbook forms.

In addition to Japanese and Chinese, I read German, French, and Dutch. I have also been trained in material bibliography under Ann Blair. David Howell and Shigehisa Kuriyama have trained me in early modern Japanese paleography. A Fulbright Grant, however, would provide me with the opportunity to work with Matsukata Fuyuko of the University of Tokyo. Professor Matsukata is a specialist in information circulation between early modern Japan and Europe. Her advice on how to read and interpret the traces left by Japanese scholars would prove indispensable for my project, and I hope to participate actively in her research seminars.

Giving my existing experience and preliminary research, my course of study should present no completion difficulties within the allotted time frame. Furthermore, as I have already lived in Tokyo, I possess numerous area contacts, both professional and personal, who can be of aid should unforeseen exigencies arise. My projected timeline thus places me back at Harvard in the Fall of 2014 to write my dissertation. This dissertation will open up new directions for intellectual dialogue between Japan and Europe, contributing to our understanding of how ideas circulate globally.
This statement illustrates Paradigm C. It uncovers new material, which provides a new perspective on what is already known. Note how the applicant handles the need to use words that would be unfamiliar to many readers; she first puts the most helpful English equivalent and then the actual word in parentheses.

**Between Law and Society: The Muhtasib of Mamluk Egypt**

In Bahri Mamluk Egypt (1250-1382), no individual represented the face of the law in society more so than the market regulator (*muhtasib*). Armed with a legal manual explaining the laws that he was to enforce—ranging from ensuring that merchants’ scales worked properly to preventing bakers from kneading dough with their feet—the *muhtasib* would travel the marketplace and enforce these laws directly and immediately wherever he saw a violation. Functioning under the Islamic legal principle of *hisba*—commanding the good and forbidding the evil—the *muhtasib* was more visible in society than the judge (*qadi*), who had to wait until a complaint was brought to him before he could take any action.

Standing at the intersection of law and society, the institution of the *muhtasib* offers the scholar of Islamic law the ideal lens through which to study how the Islamic legal system interacted with social, political and economic realities. This is one of the most fundamental issues in the study of Islamic law and society, yet it has been virtually ignored by scholars. Islamic law provides a wide spectrum of rules that govern Muslims in many facets of life and, as such, it is a powerful force for the regulation of society. Scholars, however, have tended to focus on isolated parts of Islamic law—such as Islamic legal theory as formulated by the jurists—and have failed to address the larger and more significant questions: How did the Islamic legal system function as a whole? What were the mechanisms by which the text was applied to the social, political and economic context?

Using the institution of the *muhtasib* as a case study, in my dissertation I will address this crucial but neglected issue of the application of the legal text to the social context. The Mamluk-era *muhtasib* is an ideal subject for this methodology not only because the institution embodies both law and society but also because a wide range of source material is available, such as chronicles, travelers’ accounts, and documentary evidence. One essential but under-studied source are the manuals written for *muhtasibs* to guide them in their work. These manuals were often written by former *muhtasibs* themselves. Based on the two published Mamluk-era *hisba* manuals, written by ibn al-Ukhuwwa (d. 1329) and ibn Bassam (d. 1300s), I have chosen three areas of the law that the *muhtasib* dealt with to focus my study on: (i) commercial exchanges involving usury (*riba’*); (ii) price fixing of commodities and hoarding of foodstuffs in the market; and (iii) use of public space in the market and its environs, such as the degree to which a merchant’s stall may encroach upon the public space of the market. In order to study the mechanisms by which the *muhtasib* applied the text to the social, political and economic context, I will analyze how these three aspects of marketplace life and practice are treated across a spectrum of sources, ranging from theoretical writings of the jurists to evidence of the *muhtasib’s* day to day practice.

Tracing the same three legal questions across a range of sources will provide insight into how the system dealt with local conditions and social realities and how the *muhtasib* used discretion in his decision-making. Some of the questions I will be asking are: Why was such an official needed to go out and actively regulate the marketplace? Did the social context require such active supervision by the *muhtasib*, and how was the society in turn shaped by it? To what extent was the decision-making of the *muhtasib* influenced by the policies of the Mamluk ruling elite? By local social and economic conditions?

In the first step of my work I will ascertain the manner in which the manuals written for the *muhtasib* instructed him to act with regard to the three areas of the law listed above. After
understanding the instructions these manuals gave the muhtasib, I will focus on the theoretical end of the spectrum and compare the treatment of these topics in the prevailing fiqh works of the Mamluk era. I will examine how this fiqh was “translated” from the language of the jurists into the administrative terms of the manuals, which were more conducive to the daily operations of the muhtasib. This is especially important since all muhtasibs were not necessarily scholars capable of independent legal reasoning (mujtahids) and needed more practical guidance. This focus will reveal much about the operations of the legal system and the process by which law was reformulated when it passed from the realm of legal theory to the manuals. My research will then use sources such as chronicles, travelers’ accounts, and documentary evidence to focus on the day-to-day level of the muhtasib’s activities and examine how the muhtasib applied the law to the merchant or other participant in the marketplace. I intend to assess the forces that influenced his role as a regulator in general as well as the factors that he took into account when making specific decisions.

Source materials relevant to my research are located in the U.S. and Cairo, Egypt. Materials available in the U.S. consist of the published Mamluk-era hisba manuals, chronicles, and texts of Islamic legal theory, travelers’ accounts and other narrative sources. I am currently making use of these sources. Conducting research in Egyptian archives is, then, the next step in my research and is essential to my project. Thus, I would use the Kennedy, Knox, Sheldon & Lurcy Fellowship to spend one academic year in Cairo. I intend to consult manuscripts in the Egyptian National Library (Dar al-Kuttub) that are related to hisba and the muhtasib as well as materials in the Egyptian National Archives (Dar al-Watha’iq).

The history of Islamic law and society is a fascinating yet neglected field that eagerly awaits scholarly attention. My dissertation will be a major step in the beginnings of the development of this field and I look forward to a scholarly career that advances our understanding of Islamic law and its application in societies both past and present.
Luigi Paulo Gamboni. This statement is a special version of Paradigm C. It is part of a large and ongoing team effort, where there is a substantial amount of agreement on basic research issues. The proposal nevertheless manages within this context to identify a specific area that needs doing. The proposal is also noteworthy for the way it explains technical matters to a non-technical reader, and yet does justice to the subject for a specialist in the field. By writing in a more accessible language, the applicant enhances the possibility of winning in a more general fellowship competition, as well as one reserved for scientists.

**Finding Dark Matter Particles**

I would like to spend a year at CERN, the European Organization for Nuclear Research in Geneva, Switzerland, where the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) – the world’s largest particle accelerator – has just turned on. The goal of the LHC project is to study fundamental particles, the building blocks which make up our universe, using the most advanced technology available. I am interested in searching for Dark Matter particles. These particles – making up more than three quarters of our universe – have been predicted by theories and indirectly detected by astrophysics experiments, but they have never successfully been produced in a lab. Finding Dark Matter particles will not be easy, and it will not happen quickly; their existence can only be demonstrated after at least a year of good data taking and stable conditions.

At CERN, I will study and analyze the raw data within seconds of a collision, placing myself in the front lines of the search for new phenomena. In particular, I will be responsible for guaranteeing the necessary feedback to detect data or hardware problems in their earliest phases: an important role in a new experiment. Due to continuously changing conditions and a tendency of complex instruments to become unstable, the first few years of an experiment are the most exciting and active ones. Being at CERN will offer me a rare opportunity to contribute to a great scientific endeavor and to develop my skills as an experimental physicist.

The LHC is a 27-kilometer long underground ring built to accelerate protons – the electrically charged component of atomic nuclei – in opposite directions. The velocity of these protons is so high that when they are made to collide, they are forced to reveal their internal structure and produce showers of new particles. Since the 1950s, research centers in the United States and Europe have built increasingly powerful particle colliders allowing scientists to deepen our knowledge of nature by smashing together subatomic particles and studying their behavior. These projects take many years to plan and many more to build; I was fortunate to be present at the startup of the LHC a few weeks ago. The initial round of protons was only the beginning, however: Tuesday, the 8th of December, together with hundreds of other physicists, I observed the highest energy collisions the world has ever seen.

The effort to reach this goal has been tremendous, and there are no concrete plans to surpass it. The US, together with Russia, India, Japan and many other non-European countries, is now a collaborator in the CERN experiments. China’s involvement, a topic of debate, is imminent according to the Director General. CERN is now a global research center. The LHC, the largest of its accelerators (ten thousand scientists), and ATLAS, the largest of the LHC detectors (two thousand scientists, 135 institutions, 35 countries) are completely international.

Within CERN, I will be working on the ATLAS (A Toroidal LHC Apparatus) detector, which will record and analyze the collisions produced by the LHC. ATLAS is a camera looking for rare events. Every second the LHC will collide particles in the center of ATLAS 40 million times, but ATLAS will only choose the 200 most interesting collisions per second to be recorded. Each picture is taken with many lenses, many different technologies, allowing us to see different species of particles. The largest of these lenses is the Muon Spectrometer, detecting and following the movements of a type of unstable particle known as the muon, which is particularly important in the specific subset of Dark Matter theories
I am studying. My role in ATLAS will be to monitor the data produced by the Muon Spectrometer, and determine whether this part of the experiment is performing up to the very high standards that are required to discover new particles.

I have already been at CERN for a semester, and thanks to my advisor – Prof. Franklin – I will be here for the rest of the academic year. The Harvard group has been involved in the design and construction of the ATLAS Muon Spectrometer for many years, leading to a natural role in monitoring the data produced by it. As soon as I arrived at CERN I started learning about the many tools and methods available for data monitoring, and I have subsequently acquired “expert” status with respect to the Muon Spectrometer. As an expert, I am responsible for maintaining the instruments available to the muon community, and using them to identify problems. In addition, I play an active role in the daily determination of the quality of the data, deciding whether the detector is working well enough for its data to be used in physics searches. Aside from learning and upgrading the data monitoring tools, I have spent a large amount of time accumulating the necessary knowledge (of both hardware and software) to be able to troubleshoot the problems that these tools bring to the surface almost every day. As the ATLAS detector has started to take data, it has been extremely satisfying to see the monitoring tools come alive and to follow up the issues they point to. These problems range from quirks in the bytestream (the 0’s and 1’s making up the data), to periodic bursts of electronic noise, to unexpected behaviors correlated with the first circulating beams.

The skills I have learned in the past few months, which I will continue to improve, have another advantage: they are directly transferable to the search for Dark Matter particles. I will be able to start this search as soon as the detector becomes stable and enough data is collected. Then, my experience with computer clusters, databases, data selection and processing, and my familiarity with the detector, will allow me to get past many initial barriers and to concentrate fully on interpreting the data itself. As with most aspects of particle physics, this kind of search will require collaborating with many other scientists. It will only be possible to do this effectively at CERN, because even the most modern forms of communication are not a substitute for a live discussion, and because the best way to obtain a detailed answer from a busy physicist is still to walk into their office and ask them face to face.

The LHC project was conceived in 1984, and a few weeks ago it has finally started. It will take at least 15 years before the next generation of particle accelerators has been planned and built. If I remain at CERN in the next academic year, I will have the rare opportunity to take part in the running and commissioning of a young detector, and I will exercise a crucial role as data monitoring expert for the Muon Spectrometer. I will also have the chance to participate in the first hardware upgrades planned for early 2011 – gaining access to the ATLAS cavern that is kept closed while there are collisions. Finally, I will be able to collaborate with the large international community of CERN physicists in the search for Dark Matter particles, and be among the scientists to participate in proving their existence directly.
Lincoln Stuart. This statement illustrates Paradigm A. It deals with a subject that has never been examined. Note the strong case the applicant makes for the contribution this study will make. Note as well how clearly he defines the period covered in his study

The Capuchins and the Art of History

My dissertation investigates the artistic imagery of the Capuchin Order of reformed Franciscans from their origins in 1525 to the advent of Baroque art around 1600. I will focus on Italy because the Capuchins were an Italian foundation and created most of their early art and thought in the complex cultural milieu of the late Italian Renaissance and Counter Reformation.

The significance of the Capuchins for the development of religious art in mid-to-late 16th-century Italy has never been examined. But my study of their artistic contributions—as creators, patrons, and even art historical scholars and theorists—will do more than provide merely another example of how a monastic order attempted to turn art to its purposes. Rather, it will recover the neglected but persuasive evidence that the Capuchins instigated one of the earliest conscious “medieval revivals”, clearly seen in Capuchin architecture and devotional painting, and asserted in Capuchin writings. After establishing this as the Order’s aesthetic, I will approach more subtle uses of the medieval legacy by investigating the controversial but crucial area of late 16th-century “reform art”, and the impact of Capuchin taste and vision on the stylistic reforms of painting by artists like Caravaggio, the Carracci, and Federico Barocci—all important contributors to the genesis of Baroque style. These two complementary aspects of my dissertation—study of the Capuchin “medieval revival”, and of its connections to the reforms of painting in Italy during the later 16th century—will ultimately offer a new approach to the culture of the late Renaissance and its complex views on the status and purpose of art, the nature of history, and the viability of a recovery of the past.

The Capuchin Order provides a fascinating opportunity for this sort of study because early Capuchin historians have left us explicit and copious definitions of the order’s artistic beliefs and practices. The solution the Capuchins proposed to the corruption and fragmentation of the church of their day was a return to an ideal 13th-century world—the world of Saint Francis. Since all direct links to this privileged past had been lost to the confusion of centuries, Capuchins were placed in a situation ironically similar to that of Renaissance humanists and antiquarians, who had labored to recover the lost Roman past. Realizing this, the friars adapted Renaissance historical methods to reconstruct a medieval “antiquity”. And like antiquarians, Capuchin researchers focused much attention on the study of visual remains.

Based on analysis of early Franciscan churches—including actual archaeological investigation of some ruined 13th-century shrines—the Capuchins created a “medieval revival” by building churches they believed Francis would recognize. Further, they appropriated nascent art history to examine medieval paintings and mosaics, and used their findings both to revive the Order’s original habit with its distinctive pointed hood—the central visual symbol of the reformers’ polemic for a return to Franciscan origins—and to create gold-ground devotional “portraits” of Francis that imitated the style of 13th-century images. Archaism was even incorporated into Capuchin altarpieces, and some artists used archaizing styles for Capuchins while their works for other patrons followed “current” styles. Altarpieces, however, present a special case. In creating archaizing churches and devotional images, the Capuchins were able to work through their own members. But large altarpieces were often gifts from wealthy supporters, and commissions were usually given to prominent, sophisticated artists who would not simply revert to a superficially archaic style. The Capuchins responded creatively to this dilemma by favoring—and furthering—the work of a group of artists including Barocci, the Carracci, and others, whose art was not overtly archaic but involved a sympathetic rethinking of the artistic past for the reformation of the artistic present.
Federico Barocci is especially interesting in this regard, for he was a Capuchin lay brother. His religious art is often seen only in the general terms of the “Counter Reformation,” or related to his admirers among San Filippo Neri’s heavily-studied Oratorians. But Barocci’s spiritual world was formed by the little-studied Capuchins. His Madonna del Popolo, painted in response to a request for a Misericordia image, is a famous example of his brilliance at rethinking medieval imagery in modern style. And his Stigmatization of Saint Francis for the high altar of his Capuchin friends in Urbino is similar. The painting is suffused with a reappraisal of the Stigmatization tradition—but any overt archaism stems largely from the depiction of Francis’ habit with pointed hood, and of Urbino’s “13th-century revival” friary. Barocci used the power of Renaissance naturalism to convey the forceful presence of the old habit and the medievalizing church—significant symbols of Capuchin revival in any image, even one in a modern style. Capuchins themselves, as they moved around Renaissance cities in, their distinctive robes, were living “medieval pictures” in the modern environment. And such eruptions of the past into the present could effectively encapsulate the Capuchin message whether they appeared on a street or in an altarpiece.

But if the Capuchins appreciated Barocci’s skill in conveying the reality and power of their medievalizing symbols, they also valued his ability to represent all aspects of the sacred event vividly. They referred to the altarpiece as “bellissima”, and had it copied for another church. The positive links between Barocci’s style and the friars’ ideal of religious art have never been studied, yet they provide a way into the heart of the “reform art” of the late 16th century. Part of Barocci’s success lay in his skill in representing the rich visual and visionary world of early Franciscan texts so valued by the Capuchins—a world too vivid and alive for a fully archaic style to convey to a society of viewers accustomed to naturalistic images. Strict archaism in painting was best for presenting “icons” of sacred power, such as the 13th-century-style “portraits” of Francis. For altarpieces, a sensitive mix of archaism’s spiritual power and modernity’s representational skill proved most effective for the dual Capuchin goals of returning to origins, and encouraging the faithful to follow. This mix of old and new in painting became part of larger Counter Reformation culture, and provided an underlying brief for the religious art of many important painters of the period. The final goal of my dissertation is to illuminate this reformulation of religious art, inspired in part by the Capuchins’ bold experiment in “neo-medievalism”.

To realize my project I require another year of intensive research in Italy. During a seven month trip in 2011, I defined the topic after a wider investigation of Franciscan reform and art throughout the Renaissance, and initiated visual and archival work. My preliminary investigations convinced me that there were many more untapped riches, both in visual and archival form, that must be analyzed to do justice to the fascinating legacy of early Capuchin art and thought. So little scholarship exists in this field that much of the work can only be done in Italy: but the buildings, paintings, and unpublished texts I have found thus far have amply confirmed the interest of the topic, and I am confident of success if I can simply have the time in Italy to complete the systematic Investigations that must undergird my assertions.

During this year at Harvard I am focusing on aspects of the dissertation that may be approached from this side of the Atlantic, and have immersed myself in the diverse and often polemical secondary literature on late Renaissance painting and the genesis of the baroque. Further, I am offering a seminar for undergraduates called “The religious image in 16th-century Italy: evolution and transformation” that will engage many issues upon which I must reflect in the course of formulating my theses. Finally, I am mapping out a detailed strategy for specific archival and visual research upon my return to Italy.

My fieldwork will center on Umbria and the Marches, the original Capuchin “heartland”. Northern Italy will also provide a focus, for it witnessed the creation of important and idiosyncratic Capuchin architecture and superb Capuchin altarpieces, by the Carracci, Bassano, and others. In addition to my investigation of Barocci in Urbino, I intend to focus on Annibale Carracci’s work for the Capuchins of Parma as one of the “test cases” for my conclusions. Finally, the area around Rome is of crucial importance for my project, as it was the birthplace of the Capuchins and the setting of many of their most significant artistic endeavors.
importance for three reasons. First, its countryside contains several surviving early Capuchin churches with altarpieces by important “reform” artists. Second, Rome itself was a center of experiments in artistic historicism both in Capuchin circles and in the patronage of some learned ecclesiastics, such as the Cardinal Baronius who attempted to restore his titular church of Santi Achilleo e Nereo to its early medieval state, or Pope Gregory XIII, who demanded that artists reproduce decaying mosaics at Santa Saba with stylistic faithfulness. Gregory also endowed the Capuchin church at Frascati and commissioned a major “reform” artist, Girolamo Muziano, to decorate it. The church and its paintings survive, and provide me another example on which to focus my study. Finally, Rome is the best base for my Italian research, for its resources are better adapted to my topic than those of any other city. The riches of church history libraries such as the Vatican, the Angelica, and the Vallicelliana are incomparable. Rome is also home to the General Archive and the Historical Institute of the Capuchin Order, where I may discuss ideas with Capuchin scholars. And the Biblioteca Hertziana provides superb resources whenever I require references from secondary art historical literature. With Rome as a base for research and travel, I would be perfectly placed to probe the multi-faceted, crucial phenomenon of the 16th-century reevaluations of the Christian artistic heritage, and the reforms that created the pictorial and architectural realm seen, used, and partly inspired by intense friars in tattered robes, seeking to revive the art, as well as the spirit, of another age.
Charles Winslow. This statement illustrates Paradigm A. It is dealing with material that remains largely unknown — the larger provincial unit, rather than the much studied city, in pre-modern Islam in the Middle East.

**A Social History of the Province of Khuzistan: From the Time of the Islamic Conquests to the Early 11th Century**

Despite the efforts of generations of scholars, the demographic atlas of the pre-modern Islamic Middle East, its “geographie humaine”, remains largely unknown. That this is the case should hardly come as a surprise: confining himself to the narrow borders of the Nile to the Oxus region, the historian must somehow come to grips with an astonishing diversity of languages, religious traditions and ethnic groups, as well as with widely divergent social patterns of nomadic and sedentary populations. No wonder then that historians have long explored the interior of the “Islamic city”; not only does its alleged paradigmatic quarter system function to separate each community into discrete — and therefore more understandable — entities, but here the historian knows what he should be looking for: analogs to salient characteristics of Western urbanism such as “self-governing communes” and trade associations. Yet as the crooked and narrow streets of the city were charted, the larger provincial units, and in particular, the surrounding hinterlands which fed the cities, have largely been ignored. The thesis I propose to write will represent a modest correction. I intend to undertake a diachronic study of the social, political and economic life of the province of Khuzistan from the Islamic conquest to the Saljuq period.

Khuzistan has hardly been studied at all. Outside of a few largely geographic studies and highly schematic political outlines, virtually nothing has been written on the province. This represents a regrettable gap in our understanding of lower Iraq for several reasons. First, Khuzistan is an area of tremendous ethnic and cultural variation. I have referred to the province as Khuzistan, i.e., the “land of the Khuz”, who were considered the indigenous tribal inhabitants of the area. But the province is also commonly called Arabistan, “land of the Arabs”, since it is now primarily Arabic speaking; though an Arab presence predates the conquest, most of the Arabs came in its wake. Moreover, Khuzistan lies in present-day Iran, and in fact has been under Iranian cultural influence since at least the time of the Achaemenids. Finally, a highly cultured Nestorian Christian community has inhabited parts of the region since long before the Islamic conquests, teaching and studying in a medical academy and living in monasteries. Each of these different groups of course spoke its own language.

Yet not only was Khuzistan culturally interesting, it was also very wealthy. Al-Ahwaz, its capital, lies on an impassable section of the Karun river and thus functioned as an entrepot for goods heading for Basra as well as cities in Khurasan and Luristan. Supplementing this active trade was a rich agricultural economy. The many rivers of the province, often connected by irrigation canals, made for flourishing crops. The most important of these was sugar; it is in fact reported that all of the sugar consumed in Khurasan came from Khuzistan. Fruits were also grown. That these elements came together to produce a powerful economic unit is clear from the extant Abbasid budgets, as well as from explicit statements in the sources that describe the importance of the province.

Finally, Khuzistan was an exciting place intellectually. I have already alluded to the medical center at Jundaysapur. The story of the contribution of the Bakhtishu family of the Jundaysapur to the translation movement in Baghdad and thus to the full-scale introduction of Aristotelian thought into Islam need not be repeated here. Yet Khuzistan was more than just a channel through which knowledge flowed, for it also acted as an incubator for one of the most influential of the early religious/political opposition movements, the Mu’tazila. And the social milieu of the Mu’tazila remains a mystery.

Clearly, then, Khuzistan merits serious investigation. Two questions should now be posed. What will be my line of inquiry? Is such a study feasible?
In my thesis I will attempt to clarify what we may term here, strictly for the purposes of explanation, two interconnected sets of relationships, i.e., the geographic and the social/political/economic. My task will be to try to sort out the various ways in which the cities related to their surrounding hinterlands and to each other, and the ways in which the province related to neighboring provinces and to the central government. May we speak of Khuzistan as one economic unit? In what ways was their economic power translated into political power? Answering this question will of course require an understanding of the social groups of Khuzistan. How did the Khuz (their notables?), the dihgans, the Arabs, the Nestorians and finally, the slaves from East Africa who worked on the sugar plantations, relate to each other socially and economically? What were the consequences of the conquests, the Mu’tazili presence and the Zanj rebellion of the mid-ninth century? Finally, and perhaps most importantly, what conclusions may we reach regarding the Islamization of this culturally, linguistically and ethnically diverse area?

That my task is a difficult one is self-evident. The sources rarely package and present information conveniently. Rather, they contain scattered bits of data, sometimes systematically (as is the case of the geographers), but more often not. Furthermore, having been written in the major cities, our texts reflect not only a general urban bias, but also one of the central government; thus they seldom provide dependable information on the economic relations between the cities and the hinterland. It is furthermore regrettable that there is no local history of Khuzistan or of its capital, al-Ahwaz. Yet these problems are surmountable. What the Islamic tradition lacks in documentary sources it compensates for in geographies, chronicles and prosopographical works. The last of these three genres is especially informative regarding the social ties of the educated urban elite, and historians have only begun to exploit it fully. Yet the other sources are valuable as well, and in this connection one should note a recent work that has shown that the absence of a city history of Kufa did not preclude a highly detailed study of its political and social institutions. Finally, Khuzistan is not only quite small in comparison with nearby Khurasan and Fars, but unlike many provinces, has only one major city. The province, despite some geographical variation, thus represents a manageable historical unit.

The project is both ambitious and realistic. I have chosen to study a small, yet dense and diverse province, over a comparatively long period of time. It is my hope that this approach will not only elucidate more fully the key political and environmental changes, but also the more subtle and gradual evolution in social, political and economic life. In other words, it is my hope that through this thesis at least one small corner of the Islamic world will be repopulated.
Kenneth Benitor. This statement illustrates Paradigm B. Focusing on a work of Dante that is already well known, it calls for a reassessment of the work — viewing it as an aesthetic work in its own right, rather than merely as an interpretative tool for reading Dante’s other recognized masterpieces.

Dante and the grammar of humility: Anxiety in the ‘De vulgari eloquentia’

“I am amazed that commentators of the ‘De vulgari eloquentia’ have treated this product of medieval culture as a mere doctrinal work stuffed with boring Scholastic elements, while neglecting its artistic, humorous and autoironic qualities . . .”

a. Leo Spitzer, 1953

I propose a rereading of Dante’s “De vulgari eloquentia” (“On Eloquence in the Vernacular,” henceforth Dve) that offers an aesthetic appreciation of the treatise in its own right, not merely as an interpretative tool for our reading of the Comedy. My reading aspires to remind dantisti that the Dve, too, is the product of an extraordinary and singular poetic imagination. The poet’s quest to seek out and define an “illustrious vernacular,” an Italian national poetic idiom, makes for a fascinating and, at times, troubled narrative. My reading will give close consideration to the narrative voice, the ways in which it establishes and undermines its objectives, its telling digressions, and the rich and sometimes bizarre metaphors it produces.

Critical debates over Dante’s attitude towards language have tended to focus upon apparent contradictions in his texts, contradictions regarding the origin and nature of human language before the Confusion of Tongues. It is my contention that such textual incongruities betray a basic tension in the poet’s thinking. In its most generic articulation, this is a tension between unity and diversity. On the one hand, Dante laments human linguistic fragmentation as the sorry legacy of Babel, God’s punishment of human presumption; in his attempt to reconstruct an “illustrious vernacular,” he emulates a linguistic ideal that recaptures the language of Adam, by which signified and signifier are once again bound together in unambiguous union for the entire human family. The Dante of the Dve (written ca. 1304, some fifteen years before the Paradiso) appears, at least on the surface, to espouse such a prescriptive attitude.

And yet, there is another Dante who not only accepts linguistic differences as the necessary condition of history, but seems to embrace this diversity as a vehicle for God’s love on earth. This latter Dante revels in the myriad dialects of the Italian peninsula and of human society at large; he is excited by the dynamism of a linguistic cosmos in which he is an eager participant. This more descriptive Dante comes to the fore in Paradiso XXVI, where Adam reveals that all human language has always been, and will always be, subject to continual change.

Critics’ attempts to resolve the contradictions in Dante’s linguistic attitudes have generally neglected the subtlety and richness of this dialectic in their search for the “definitive” Dante. They have largely dismissed the longing for unity apparent in the Dve as representative of an immature stage in the poet-linguist’s thinking; Thomas Greene, for instance, feels the poet takes comfort in the Dve by excepting Latin and Hebrew from the law of variability.

Yet the Dve is anything but a comfortable text. It is a text brimming with doubts and anxieties that will find only partial resolve with the mournful lessons of Adam in the eighth sphere. What my rereading of the treatise aspires to add to the critical terrain is a fuller appreciation of these tensions, as a way of bringing to light personal and poetic dimensions of the text heretofore overlooked by the critical literature.

A first section will consider the treatise’s placement within the medieval grammatical tradition while focusing on the poet’s use of the word itself, “grammatica”. I will demonstrate the ambiguous semantic
potential of the word as Dante conceived of it and reveal this ambiguity as a primary source of narrative anxiety. A second section will demonstrate the intimate connection between the political and linguistic assertions of the treatise and suggest that the poet was engaged in a kind of self-allegoresis in terms of the Babel event. A third section will consider Dante’s metaphorical use of gender in the Dve as a reflection of personal psychological anxiety (here Freud and Lacan may be of help). I will give considerable attention to the poet’s unprecedented elaboration of the mother tongue metaphor, particularly his implicit equation of the vernacular to mother’s milk.

A final section will reconsider the dominant metaphorical imagery of the Dve — a hunt through the leafy (linguistic) forest — from the perspective of Paradiso XXVI, 64-66, Dante’s reformulation of St. John’s discourse on Charity (John 15,1). My reading of Paradiso XXVI asserts that Dante’s use of St. John’s branch and leaf images provides a Scriptural justification for his acceptance of linguistic variability. I will demonstrate that this same imagery is present in the earlier treatise and thus be in a position to suggest that the very conceptual framework of the Dve works against the poet’s intentional propositions; the dominant imagery is constantly undermining the grammarian’s prescriptive agenda; metaphor is at odds with doctrine, poetry with intellectual pragmatism.

By insisting that a “minor” treatise deserves our aesthetic attention every bit as much as the Comedy, I see my project as participating in other recent critical attempts to challenge such notions as “major” and “minor” as they figure in the canon of “Great Works” (cp. Harrison, The Body of Beatrice). I feel my reading of the Dve can provide us with a greater understanding of medieval linguistic sensibilities, as well as make us more sensitive readers, not only of the Dve, but of Dante’s universe in general. I will hope to have portrayed the Dve as the textual battleground upon which the (Christian) poet carries out a highly personalized struggle with his own over-intellectualized self.

My dissertation will represent the outcome of a long-time personal enthusiasm for Dante, who has remained a primary academic focus since I first encountered the Comedy as a senior in high school, and a major step towards what I now envision as a lifetime career as a dantista. I am already familiar with much of the critical literature relevant to my topic and have written a formal prospectus that takes much more detailed account of the criticism, as well as my own critical arguments. I have already written much of the first and fourth sections (these four sections will eventually be divided into smaller chapters).

Although Professor Dante Della Terza is my formal thesis advisor, much of my thinking on Dante has been influenced by Professor John Freccero of Stanford University, where I was an Exchange Scholar in 2006-2007. Professor Freccero has also written a letter in support of my application. My extraordinary teaching load at Harvard during the fall semester has put me in a financial position to work full-time on the dissertation until July or August 2009; I hope to produce at least three solid chapters in that time. Were I to receive an additional year of support from the Whiting, I am confident that I could then bring the project to completion.
Ned Hall. This project statement illustrates Paradigm C. It will provide new data that will cause some shift in our thinking. More specifically, the candidate proposes to collect corroborative archaeological data, which will help to settle a current division among scholars as to the relative success or failure of Rome’s experiment in empire building.

Roman and Native Interaction in the Roman Alpine Provinces

My present research concerns the nature of culture contact between empires and indigenous peoples conquered by them, especially those groups who were geographically isolated from the powerful cultural influences of imperial towns and highways. It uses as a central case the interaction between the Roman Empire and the ancient peoples of its alpine provinces and is designed as an interdisciplinary study of ancient literary sources, ethnohistoric accounts, and contemporary frontier studies, bolstered in large part by the archaeological record.

Scholarship is generally divided between those who would view Rome as successful in maintaining its empire, a process which was helped along by a fair degree of native acquiescence, and those who see in the literature a history of revolts which constantly threatened the fabric of the empire. In the absence of corroborative archaeological data one might quite reasonably adopt either point of view. The principal question asked by this research concerns the relative success or failure of Rome’s experiment in empire building and maintenance.

The implementation of such an interdisciplinary project is unusual in its emphasis on both classical and anthropological methodology, but it is in keeping with a new body of classical inquiry which attempts to derive from the Latin literature a semblance of objective truth concerning imperial policy, Roman racial attitudes, and the tribal response to conquest. These scholars rightly call for the testing of their hypotheses, yet the archaeological work remains to be done. Consequently, the value of my research is that it draws upon a wide array of classical and historical scholarly resources and ties them to the archaeological record in order to develop a more complete picture of what happened in history.

This research has thus far been developed under the supervision of my advisor, Professor Peter S. Wells, Director of the University of Minnesota Center for Ancient Studies and formerly Assistant Professor of European Prehistory at the Peabody Museum. It has also been monitored by Professor C.C. Lamberg-Karlovsky, Director of the Peabody Museum, and David Gordon Mitten, Loeb Professor of Classical Archaeology at Harvard’s Fogg Art Museum, both members of my dissertation committee.

In bringing corroborative archaeological data to bear on the various hypotheses of the success or failure of Roman empire building and maintenance, the study relies heavily upon information gathered from ancient burials and settlements. Burials usually constitute sealed cultural contexts representative of a single moment in time. Material objects signifying social status, group affiliation, or those utilized as protective talismans were placed by the living alongside the deceased in keeping with local customs and beliefs and provide an intimate glimpse into the perceptions and self-image of indigenous populations.

Still, burial data may often represent the ‘best’ a given culture had to offer its deceased and, used alone, are potentially misleading indicators in cultural historical reconstructions. In order to broaden my base of inquiry, and also to control the validity of information derived from native burial contexts, I have drawn upon archaeological materials excavated in a number of high mountain habitation sites. More representative of daily life, these data offer an insight into the nature of domestic ceramic production and use, house construction technology, stock raising practices, and commercial exchange mechanisms. Combined with information derived from grave goods they proved a clear comparative base against which to view processes of culture change over time.

For the past year I have lived in Northern Italy as a Fulbright Fellow and a Harvard Sinclair-Kennedy
Scholar. In my examination of alpine archaeological materials, the quantity of objects of Roman origin appears to diminish slightly as the distance from imperial centers and roadways increases. Yet from the outset of the Roman occupation in the Central Alps, one finds overall an increasing number of Roman goods in native burials and settlements, even those quite far removed from direct Roman control.

In native burials, imported Roman materials become increasingly common over time, but I view this phenomenon as more closely tied to status acquisition and fashion demands than to a situation of profound culture change. Mountain burials, when viewed comparatively with those excavated in the more ‘romanized’ lowland centers, are actually quite poor and lack the glass and high quality ceramic luxury goods found regularly in Roman urban contexts. What we see instead is a mixture of occasional pieces of fine Roman tableware, local imitations of Roman vase forms, and some ceramic pieces of alpine Iron Age tradition. Roman bronze *fibulae* are a regular import item, but their placement in burials indicates a continuity of pre-Roman costume traditions. There is also an occasional nativistic treatment of Roman materials.

Such archaeological evidence could nonetheless lead one to accept the relative success of the Roman Empire in ‘converting’ its native alpine populations. Yet a closer look at the data suggests instead a surprisingly strong continuity of indigenous lifeways. In the high mountain settlements, ceramic styles often mirror those in use in late prehistoric times, and ‘Roman’ vase forms are generally poor local imitations of Mediterranean styles. Animal husbandry, as viewed in the faunal record, followed a pattern established as early as the Bronze Age, regulated by the harsh conditions imposed by the alpine environment. Local house construction techniques, especially when compared with the Roman models then employed in the administrative centers of the principal river valleys, also point to a continuity of prehistoric lifeways. Ultimately, we do see an increase over time in the presence of Roman import goods in indigenous settlements, but quantitatively these are vastly inferior to materials of local tradition and manufacture.

In regard to the various scholarly hypotheses for explaining the presumed patterns of Roman-native culture contact, the alpine archaeological information points clearly to a situation in which the lifeways of peripheral populations were often maintained throughout the imperial period, largely in the absence of either extreme conflict or total assimilation. A further proof of this continuity is seen in the renaissance of traditional mountain craftwork and cultural practices in the early Middle Ages after the withdrawal of Roman administration from the region.

For the next five months in Italy I will continue my inquiries into the archaeological record of the Central Alps. I also intend to enlarge the ethnohistoric aspect of the overall research as it has so far been extremely useful in offering new insight into the archaeological material. Upon my return to the United States in the Spring of 2009, I envision a limited period of research into anthropological and ethnohistoric examples of analogous culture contact situations from other world contexts. This will be followed by an intensive period of writing in which I will compile the data gathered here in Italy as well as background materials (core-periphery studies, Latin literature, and the historical assessment of Roman policy) I have already collected. I will complete the project by June 2010.

From 2000 until 2002 I lived on a farm in the Italian Dolomite Alps and commuted to lectures on Roman archaeology at the University of Padua. During that time I became keenly aware of the tremendous retention of traditional culture in the mountains versus the more progressive cultural reality of the Venetian Plain. What, I wondered, would have been the reaction of ancient mountain peoples to the commercial presence and subsequent conquest by the Romans? Since beginning this research in 1986 I have been impressed by the potential for applying a multidisciplinary approach to the study of imperial-native interaction in other parts of the world. Completion and publication of my PhD thesis will not only frame the general debate on the concept of Romanization but will also stimulate archaeologists and historians to reconsider accepted views of culture contact.
The Whiting Fellowship will enable me to publish my dissertation at a time when imperial-native studies are becoming a much-debated topic in the academic world.
James Scott. This project statement also illustrates Paradigm C. The project is in the Natural Sciences, and like most in this area, it proposes to provide new data — in this case new computations — which call for adjustment of existing theory. This statement also illustrates a scientific proposal aimed at a fellowship committee consisting of generalists rather than specialists. Note how the opening explains the project in accessible language suitable for such a committee.

Condensed Matter Theory

One of the major obstacles confronting condensed matter theorists is the difficulty involved in describing the enormous number of particles present in solids. Frequently, theorists formulate sophisticated models, then carefully adjust unknown parameters until the theory best agrees with the experimental data. However, due to the recent increases in computational power, it has become possible to make first principles ab-initio calculations, calculations which do not use any experimental results as input and which contain no adjustable parameters. We can then make a direct comparison between theory and experiment, and for many quantities the agreement is excellent (~1.0%). Moreover, using these techniques it is often possible to gain information about physical properties which are difficult or even impossible to measure directly.

In this spirit, my major research interest is directed towards making realistic calculations, in the context of the local density approximation, of the structural and electronic properties of materials. For the past year, I have been working with Dr. David Vanderbilt here at Harvard University. The major thrust of my work has been the study of semiconductor surfaces. I am in the midst of a minimal energy calculation of the Germanium (III) surface. This calculation will predict the atomic positions and the macroscopic surface stress of the relaxed slab geometry. I will soon extend this study to include various adatom decorations of the surface, geometries in which ‘extra’ atoms sit on the surface. Because slab geometries involve large unit cells, these calculations are very complex; they are typically 64,000 times more time-consuming than the equivalent bulk calculations. Fortunately, I have had the opportunity to use the Cyber 205, a supercomputer located at the John von Neumann Supercomputer Center in Princeton, N. J.

I have also developed a continuum elastic theory of surface energies. This theory may provide insight into strain-mediated interactions between adatoms on surfaces and between surfaces in slab geometries. I also intend to calculate the microscopic stress tensor for semiconductor surfaces. This quantity, which has never been measured or calculated, would provide considerable insight into the reconstruction of these surfaces.

Even though physics is my primary interest, I also enjoy doing computational work. I have found that the process of writing programs which implement physical theories exposes one to details of those theories which otherwise might be overlooked. Conversely, I also believe that a thorough understanding of physics allows one to devise clever means to perform computations which otherwise might be considered intractable.
George Timback. This project statement is an example of the longer more elaborate proposal. Note the effective division of the longer proposal into sub-sections, which help to produce a clearly organized presentation. The project statement illustrates Paradigm C. It is dealing with a subject that has received some attention, but is providing a new perspective. References are provided in a Selected Bibliography which he candidate submits as an attachment at the end, which is common when longer proposals are required. Note as well that references are cited within the body of the text, rather than in foot-notes; this is also common in proposals.

Minamata: Power, Policy, and Citizenship in Postwar Japan

PURPOSE

I propose to study power, policy, and citizenship in postwar Japan by examining the responses to the tragic mercury poisoning of the city of Minamata. The period from the 1950s through the 1980s encompassed the outbreak of the epidemic of “Minamata Disease,” conflict over its causes, media advocacy, demands for restitution by victims and their supporters, the rising activism of citizens’ groups, responses by the private sector and the government, major legal decisions, and finally the fading of the issue from national consciousness. In the context of Japanese history, Minamata is more than the site of one of the world’s worst cases of industrial pollution. It is also the locus of the development of new forms of civic action, of contending and evolving relationships among society, corporations, and the state, and most important, of an ongoing redefinition of citizenship in postwar Japan.

SUBJECT AND STRATEGY

Minamata is a factory town surrounded by fishing villages in Kyushu, the southernmost of Japan’s four main islands. The Chisso company began producing acetaldehyde using a mercury catalyst there is 1932. The city, and Chisso’s production, grew rapidly in the early 1950s, and fish, seabirds, trees near the shore, and even cats were already dying. By 1956 there was an epidemic of a “strange disease,” mainly among fishing families in outlying villages. What was soon called “Minamata Disease” caused symptoms ranging from sensory loss to paralysis and death in adults. Congenital poisoning caused 38% of the children born from 1953 to 1960 to be mentally handicapped and many others to be physically deformed. Over 1,200 people have died so far. The cause—conversion of inorganic mercury in factory waste into organic mercury—was suggested by 1958 and proved by 1962, but Chisso continued to discharge mercury until 1971. In part because “solatium agreements” committed the company to making payments to victims beginning in late 1959, no victims filed suit against Chisso until 1969. They won in 1973, though there are still cases in the courts concerning compensation and other issues.

Minamata generally appears in the Japanese literature as a study in victimization: a struggle by citizens’ groups fighting for social justice against the Chisso company and the government, whose concerns were power, profits, growth, and the enforced social peace that made these possible. Relatively little has been published in English, although W. Eugene Smith’s powerful photographs of the victims’ twisted bodies brought the tragedy to world attention in the 1970s. There are sections on Minamata in books by specialists in pollution and public health (None Huddle and Michael Reich), political science (Margaret McKean), and law (Frank Upham); a translation of a novel by a victim (Ishimure Michiko); and a few articles, most of them published two decades ago.

As a historian, I believe that Minamata ought to be told as a complex but coherent story. Its political, economic, social, and scientific aspects need to be brought together and placed in their historical context. It is certainly a story of victimization, but it is also a case study of the many forces that shaped postwar Japan and the contemporary world. The civic response in Minamata reveals how the Japanese defined citizenship, after having been imperial subjects for most of a century and subject to feudal lords for hundreds of years before that. The flexible, evolving, and generally effective
response by corporations and by the national and local governments helps to disprove the myth of a monolithic state or an all-powerful “Japan, Inc.” Many social scientific works on Japan, such as Chalmers Johnson’s MITI and the Japanese Miracle, are studies of “successes” that focus on the top levels of government and business. Minamata requires attention to complex responses that sometimes succeeded and often failed, but which linked the highest levels of bureaucracy with the smallest local communities. A historical study of Minamata should broaden our understanding of Japan in the past four decades, and at the same time further the study of postwar Japan as history. No longer need the nearly half century of postwar history be confined to the domain of sociologists and political scientists. Historians elsewhere have long studied such subjects as the US civil rights movement, the Cultural Revolution in China, and the cold war. It is high time that Japan’s postwar past become a similar object of historical inquiry, and that postwar developments be connected to their prewar antecedents.

A comprehensive study of Minamata requires the examination of a broad cross-section: the victims, the company, the media, support groups, the local and national governments, the ruling and opposition parties, and the courts. The responses of each of these groups were a blend of old and new, as indeed was postwar Japan itself. The government sought to regain control of methods of dispute resolution, as it had in the case of the prewar labor movement that Sheldon Garon has analyzed, although with Minamata the situation was more complex. There were links to pre-Meiji Japan as well, for it was perhaps as difficult for citizens to decide to sue the company that was the economic mainstay of their city as it had been for Tokugawa peasants to rebel against their lord. In the postwar period, however, it was possible to gain nationwide and even worldwide publicity and support that would have been unimaginable earlier. These and other changes in historical context will inform my attempt to sort out the old and the new and to analyze Minamata as something more than a tragic case of industrial pollution.

I will approach the issue of Minamata from several perspectives. The first looks at the forms of civic action that evolved as the Japanese experimented with new freedoms and gradually became conscious of the costs of rapid industrial growth. I will examine, for example, the Mutual Aid Association formed by victims’ families in 1958, and the Minamata Disease Study Group, founded in 1969 by lawyers, professors, doctors, and members of the media. This group wrote a report that became the basis of the suit filed in 1969. I will look also at the “one-share movement,” in which victims and supporters bought one share each in Chisso. This enabled them to attend and disrupt the 1970 shareholders’ meeting, which was broadcast on national television.

Second, I will examine the responses by business and government. The goals of the conservative coalition were to stay in power, restore social peace, and regain control of dispute resolution, but the government and corporations were by no means monolithic and unchanging. They reacted flexibly, as had many of their predecessors earlier in the modern period. The ruling Liberal Democratic Party responded to the threat with a rapid policy turnabout culminating in the legislation passed by the “Pollution Diet” of 1970 and the establishment of the Environment Agency in 1971. Questions about the central government’s relation to local institutions must be addressed as well, since the changing relationship between national and local politics is one of the main stories of the postwar period. In this case, I will be dealing with prefectural as well as local initiatives. The national government funded a medical research group at Kumamoto University, but cut off its funds soon after its preliminary report blamed the disease on effluent from the factory. (The research was subsequently funded for three years by the US National Institute of Health.) Another example of interactive response is the split of Chisso’s Minamata union into two, one supporting and one opposing management. Several members of the anti-management union joined the Minamata Disease Study Group and supplied it with confidential inside information from Chisso, which was later used by the victims in their suit. Minamata, like postwar Japan, was by no means a Manichean drama in which the forces of an interlocking elite battled a coalition of victims and activists. Instead it was a series of interactive responses by three collective actors: citizen, corporation, and state.
Third, and most important, I will seek to understand Minamata as an effort to define and create new forms of citizenship in postwar Japan. Citizenship is a political question, but one that is often resolved in Japan in a social rather than parliamentary context, as the experience of Minamata confirms. The victims of the pollution were mainly poor fishing families living on the outskirts of a town whose single smokestack industry had brought them all a boom in the 1950s, and their relationship to the factory remained ambivalent. The options available to them in the late 1960s were to accept government mediation, to join the “trial group” and sue Chisso, or to join the “direct negotiation” group advocating confrontational tactics. I will analyze the conflict between modes of civic action and how it was resolved in favor of the trial group. The victims’ plight attracted reporters, lawyers, and environmentalists from all over Japan, and linked them to other antipollution movements in Niigata, Toyama, and Yokkaichi. Minamata in fact lent its name to the Niigata case, where the victims suffered from “Niigata Minamata disease.” The citizens’ groups supporting the victims developed patterns of social citizenship which were later reflected not only in the environmental movement but also in anti-nuclear activism and the consumer movement, and indeed in a changed relationship of ordinary Japanese to their socially defined polity.

**LITERATURE**

Although Minamata has not been studied in the way I propose, there is a huge volume of sources already assembled, and in many cases carefully organized. This should make it possible to complete my research in Japan in one year, spending about half the time in the Tokyo area and half in Minamata and Kumamoto (the prefectural capital). In Tokyo, Kumamoto, and Minamata there are court and government records, newsletters, photographs and films, tapes and transcripts of interviews, and records of citizens’ groups, unions, and fishing cooperatives. The historian Irokawa Daikichi, who has written on Minamata, has agreed to sponsor my studies. He recommends that I work with him at Tokyo Keizai University, and with the Minamata study group at Kumamoto University, which includes Harada Masazumi of the medical school and Maruyama Sadami of the faculty of humanities. I will also make use of the materials at the Minatabyo Rekishi Koshokan in Minamata.

**PREPARATION AND PLANS TO SHARE FINDINGS**

I plan to take my comprehensive Ph.D. examinations in May 2013 and spend a year doing research in Japan beginning in August 2013. In preparation, I have compiled an extensive bibliography and consulted US scholars who have studied Minamata, among them Michael Reich of Harvard’s School of Public Health, Frank Upham of Boston College Law School, and Margaret McKeen of Duke University. I met with Ui Jun, author of many works on Minamata and industrial pollution, during his visit to Cambridge this fall, and he will be a valuable source of advice and ideas.

My conclusions will be shared with both the American and Japanese scholarly communities. The research will result in a Harvard Ph.D. dissertation, which I plan to complete in 2015. It will be copyrighted, abstracted in Dissertation Abstracts, and available through University Microfilms. I will present copies of the dissertation to the institutions and scholars with whom I work in Japan. I will also develop one or two papers from my research and present them at scholarly conferences, and plan to write a book based on the dissertation.

I see Minamata as a lens through which to view larger questions of democracy and civic action, relationships between citizens, corporations, and the state, and the meaning of social citizenship. Japan’s experience is not unique. My study also offers possibilities for comparison with the experience of other countries in redefining democracy and citizenship in the second half of the twentieth century. I hope that a study of Minamata may help to reattach postwar Japan to earlier Japanese history and also to relate the Japanese experience to developments elsewhere in the world.
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY


Alex Boax. This is another example of the longer more elaborate proposal. It too makes effective use of sub-divisions to give shape to the longer statement. The project illustrates Paradigm C. It introduces some new material and concepts, which in turn cause a reassessment of the topic. Note the use of footnotes, in contrast to the preceding longer statement, which incorporates the references into the body of the text.

Beyond “Agrarian Reform”: Agriculture and Business
in Rural Veracruz, Mexico, 1940-1958

Purpose
The purpose of my proposed research is to explore the transformation of Mexican rural social relations from 1940 to 1958 by examining the increasingly dominant social role of business in agriculture. I will focus on the Gulf state of Veracruz, known for a wide range of soils, climates, food crops, and social relations of production, as well as for the strength of its peasant leagues since the 1920s. My preliminary work indicates that the study of business interests and networks is the most effective way of understanding the nature and pace of change in rural social relations in modern Mexico. In this context “business” may be broadly defined as the profit-oriented activities of individuals or companies with an interest in rural production — e.g., machinery, fertilizers, pesticides, seed, credit and marketing. My work on the state of Veracruz, the first properly historical study of Mexican agriculture after 1940, will test the explanatory possibilities of this novel perspective, and will contribute new sources and fresh approaches to the fields of modern agrarian history and rural development.

Subject and Strategy
Students of rural Mexico have traditionally distinguished between “agrarian” and “agricultural” questions, and have kept them separate. “Agrarian” histories chronicle the social and political struggles waged by rural communities over land and water rights, reflected in rebellions, revolutions, and legislation going back at least to the Spanish conquest and culminating in the Mexican Revolution and in the Agrarian Reform of the 1930’s. The work of historians thus far has been predominantly “agrarian,” concentrating almost exclusively on issues of land tenure and government policy. “Agricultural” studies, often influenced by contemporary theories of “development,” have focused on technology, productivity, economic geography, and State-led “modernization,” but seldom from an historical perspective. Both approaches share an overriding concern with institutional or structural change and tend to privileged the role of the State in bringing it about. As a result, the internal dynamics of rural social relations have been neglected and the importance of private interests has been played down. Essentially, we do not know how and why changes have taken place. My aim is to construct an alternative account of rural transformation by emphasizing social relations, in particular those involving agricultural production. The conceptual premise behind this project is that research into the history of agricultural business activities is the most effective way of identifying the various social forces that determine the direction of modern rural change.

Mexican rural history since 1940, which my proposed research seeks to outline for the first time, is particularly suited for this conceptual innovation. Mexican agriculture underwent momentous changes after 1940: large and small irrigation projects; new crops; altered patterns of cultivation; modern technology in tools, machinery, fertilizer, pesticides, and seed; new market structures and credit mechanisms — these all spread unevenly through the countryside. An account that hopes to make sense of these developments and their effect on rural social relations much reach beyond the confines of traditional “agrarian” history. It must take note of the historic growth of opportunities for business in areas broadly related to agriculture. By 1940, there existed for the first time a potential for profit in each component of the cycle of agricultural production.

There are many crucial questions to be addressed from this perspective: Who represented the machinery companies in Veracruz and at the local level? What was the background of these people? How were decisions about improvements in irrigation and communications made? Who got the building
contracts? What was the effect of these projects? How was the production and distribution of fertilizer organized? How did land use change? What groups were interested in new crops and why? How were those changes implemented? What was impact of all these initiatives on rural communities and ejidos? How was the making and implementation of agrarian policies affected by private interests? Many more could be formulated. The central point is that information can be obtained, and it is an essential component of any persuasive explanation of the process of rural change. Without it, one cannot hope to make sense of the development of agriculture in Mexico after 1940. This broad insight guides my proposed research on the history of agriculture in Veracruz.

This is not to say that legislation and government policy are unimportant; rather, the point is that it is misleading to assume that rural transformations can be explained as a function of state action or inaction. In this respect, I expect that my research will provide a novel perspective from which to re-evaluate the significance of agrarian legislation and policies.

As has been mentioned, I will concentrate my research on the state of Veracruz, on the Caribbean coast of Mexico. There are many reasons why it is well suited for this project. The total volume and value of the agricultural production of Veracruz during the period in question are among the highest of any Mexican state. Important cattle-ranching regions are also a part of Veracruz. Moreover, the variety of soils and crops cultivated is impressive and unmatched by any other state. Mexican soils are classified according to altitude as tierra fria, tierra templada, and tierra caliente, and all are found in Veracruz. Besides corn, beans, and chile, Veracruz produces rice, tomatoes, plantains, pineapple, citrus, vanilla, apples, rice, cotton, various vegetables and tropical fruits, and some wheat. Coffee, sugar cane, and tobacco are also very important crops, especially given their link to industrial activities. The systems of land tenure and the social organization of work under which rural production takes place are no less varied: there are villages, plantations, ejidos, haciendas, ranchos, and colonias. In addition, in 1940 30% of the municipalities of Veracruz still had a sizable number of inhabitants (over 25%) who did not speak Spanish, and another 18% also had some. The main ethnic groups in such municipalities were Nahua, Totonaco, Huasteco, Popoluca, and Otomi. Because of this rich diversity, research on Veracruz might shed light on the process of rural change in other regions of Mexico. Finally, the fact that Presidents Alemán (1946-1952) and Ruiz Cortínez (1952-58) were previous governors of Veracruz makes the choice of this state additionally interesting, since they were both ardent promoters of agricultural business.

I have selected the years 1940-1958 because they seem to constitute a distinct period of Mexican rural history. 1940 is a sound point of departure not only because it marks the end of Lázaro Cárdenas’ presidency and of his radical agrarian policies, but also because the Second World War set in motion global forces that would significantly increase the opportunities for business in agriculture. Likewise, 1958 seems an appropriate cutoff point for this project because the Cuban Revolution of January 1959, upset prevalent notions about the implications of rural change and hastened the spread of “development” and technical assistance programs into the Latin American countryside. These new programs and the changed political climate appear to mark the beginning of a new phase in rural history.

Intellectual Background

Scholarship on modern rural Mexico reflects the peculiar intellectual trajectory of agrarian issues in twentieth-century Mexican political ideology. One of the best known armies of the Mexican Revolution (1910-1920) fought for the explicit purpose of defending village lands from encroachment. By 1915

these men, led by Emiliano Zapata, had come to demand far-reaching changes in the laws and provisions that governed the most varied aspects of rural life. In the words of their historian, they were “country people who did not want to move and therefore got into a revolution...Come hell, high water, agitators from the outside, or report of greener pastures elsewhere, they insisted only on staying in the villages and little towns where they had grown up, and where before them their ancestors for hundreds of years had lived and died in the small state of Morelos, in south-central Mexico.”

Fragments of their vision of land tenure and agrarian welfare found their way into the Constitution of 1917. Those who emerged victorious from a decade of armed conflict, not “country people” themselves, gave official status to a rhetoric that enshrined the years of upheaval as primarily, if not essentially, a struggle for agrarian justice for (and often by) villages and peasants. Succeeding national governments made a habit of portraying all rural change as the gradual fulfillment of this revolutionary legacy. Scholarly studies of the Revolution by and large concurred.

For years, the agrarian interpretation of the Mexican Revolution cast a long shadow over the Mexican countryside. Historians studied rural change almost exclusively from the perspective of legislation and government policy, and the reform of land tenure systems was their principal concern. The history of the countryside was essentially regarded as the conflict-ridden process of implementing the promises of the Revolution. This is the “agrarian” approach mentioned above. Since 1968, a series of political and economic crises have shattered the credibility of the “agrarian revolution,” and interpretations of rural change that relied on a revolutionary mandate are no longer acceptable. Historians are now faced anew with the task of identifying the forces that have shaped post-revolutionary rural society. My research project proposes to do just that for the period after 1940. By focusing on the business of agriculture in rural Veracruz, I seek to establish a new conceptual framework for the study of modern rural history.

Theories of “economic development” have also influenced the study of modern agriculture. Although historians of rural Mexico have not yet ventured past the 1930’s, other social scientists have written on Mexican agriculture after 1940. These are the “agricultural” studies mentioned earlier. However, much of this literature on modern rural change has been dominated by the assumption that there is a general concept of “agrarian reform” able to explain seemingly concerned attempts to alter both rural land tenure systems and “traditional” patterns of cultivation and technology. “Agrarian reform” has thus meant a “complex process of directed change” in which a “government,” “state,” or “planner,” prompted by possibly contradictory yet discernible objectives, sets about to implement policies designed to transform selected aspects of rural society. The fact that Mexico underwent a lengthy process of “agrarian Latin America” — and that the first international technical assistance program in agriculture was implemented there, made the country a compelling case study for social scientists interested in the theory and experience of “development.” Thus this second type of scholarship has also tended to focus on State

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6John Womack, Jr., Zapata and the Mexican Revolution, New York, 1968, pp.ix. Also Arturo Warman, ...Y Venimos a Contradecir: Los campesinos de Morelos y el Estado National, México, 1976, Ch.3.

7A notable example from the 1930's is Eyer N. Simpson's The Ejido: Mexico's Way Out, Chapel Hill, 1937.


10Mexico was the birthplace of the “Green Revolution.” In 1941 the Rockefeller Foundation sent a team of scientists to Mexico “to examine the condition of Mexican agriculture at first-hand” in order to “help improve the production and quality of its basic food crops.” The Agricultural Program of the Rockefeller Foundation, the first venture in what has been called "cooperative agricultural development,” began in Mexico in 1943. See E.C. Stakman, Richard Bradfield, & Paul Mangelsdorf, Campaigns Against Hunger, Cambridge, Mass., 1967, pp. vii-viii.
action, in this case aimed at achieving “modernization” or “development.”"11

In this regard, I believe that our understanding of the transformation of rural social relations and of agricultural in Mexico since 1940 will benefit from research that does not take for granted the concepts and analytical premises that form the basis of “development” thought. Post-1940 rural history must instead seek to explain the origin and impact of these new modes of analysis and intervention, themselves a product of the period in question. Historical research must provide a context within which those developments (in every sense) can become more readily understandable. In particular, this requires moving beyond the concept of “agrarian reform” as described above. I believe that my project can contribute to this task. Agricultural business picks up dramatically during the presidencies of Avila Camacho (1940-46) and Alemán (1946-1952), precisely when the notion of having rural development strategies and programs for countries like Mexico is being articulated for the first time.12 This is not likely to be merely coincidental. It is my intention to document and analyze the links between these simultaneous phenomena, opening up the topic for future research.

Methodology

My research strategy has two parts: first, to draw a detailed picture of the actual conditions of agricultural production — land quality, water resources, tools, social organization of work, seed, crop selection, credit, agricultural calendars, etc. — and of land tenure systems in Veracruz as these change during the period in question. The main sources for this would be government and diplomatic documents and statistics, community archives, newspapers, agricultural manuals and other specialized publications, anthropological studies, and field interviews. The second part is to reconstruct the agricultural business networks in the state during those years. Here the sources would be company and private papers, business publications, local newspapers, community records and especially oral history. Once this is completed I should be able to outline the role those business interests playing in determining the trajectory of rural change. This would be illustrated by means of case studies of communities, private farms, and the lines of business selected on the basis of the information I am able to gather.

The sources for this study are located in Mexico and the United States. I am now working with the U.S. materials, which include company papers, documents from the Departments of State and Agriculture, the Rockefeller Foundation archive, technical studies commissioned by international organizations, and a vast secondary literature on agricultural science and technology. The Mexican sources I wish to study are located in Mexico City and in Xalapa, Veracruz. Preliminary research conducted in these cities over the last three summers has given me a very concrete idea of the range of available material. Thus I am confident that the work I would need to do in Mexico can be completed in a twelve-month period.

My plan is to spend four months in Mexico City consulting the archives of the Ministries of Agriculture and Agrarian Reform; presidential and private papers housed in the Archivo General de la Nación (e.g., the Gonzalo Robles archive); contemporary newspapers at the Hemeroteca Nacional; records from national chambers of commerce; the specialized collections of the libraries of the Banco de

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11See, e.g., Cynthia Hewitt de Alcántara, Modernizing Mexican Agricultural” Socioeconomic Implications of Technological Change, 1940-1970, Geneva, 1976. Also Centro de Investigaciones Agrarias, Estructura Agraria y Desarrollo Agrícola en México, México, 1974. The anthropological literature merits separate consideration. It has made valuable contributions to the understanding of rural social relations at the community level. As such, many village studies, ethnographies, and analytical essays on modern rural Mexico are useful references for historical studies such as the one I propose to undertake. In this respect, the works of Arturo Warman and Paul Friedrich are particularly noteworthy.

12It is interesting to note that the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations was officially founded in October of 1945. See, e.g., Gove Hambidge, The Story of FAO. New York, 1955. The United Nations Economics Commission for Latin America (ECLA) was created in 1948.
México and the Escuela Nacional de Agricultura-Chapingo; and possibly the archive of the Confederación Nacional Campesina.

In July 2010, I worked in the Biblioteca de Cuerpo Consultivo Agrario of the Ministry of Agrarian Reform, set up to assist lawyers handling agrarian reform cases. With the assistance of the librarian, Lic. Mercedes Espínola, I was able to consult useful documentation, including a complete collection of the Diario Oficial. Particularly noteworthy was the “Perfil Agrario de Veracruz,” an unpublished statistical study of all agrarian reform activity in Veracruz since 1915. It provides rich and detailed information on every municipality in the state, and should be of great assistance during the first part of my research.

While in Mexico City, I would be affiliated to the Centro de Estudios Históricos of El Colegio de México as a visiting student researcher. Dra. Alicia Hernández, director of the Centro, and Lic. Mario Ojeda, president of the Colegio, are familiar with my project and have pledged the support of their institution. I look forward to discussing my ideas on a regular basis with the faculty of the Colegio and with other scholars residing in Mexico City. In particular, Dr. Enrique Florescano and Dr. Arturo Warman have expressed their willingness to talk about my work and offer advice along the way.

For the remaining eight months I would be based in Xalapa, Veracruz. My stay in Veracruz would be devoted to archival research and to fieldwork. The holdings of the recently constituted Archivo General del Estado de Veracruz include documents from the Department of Agriculture and the Governor’s Office, as well as legislative records and a complete collection of the state’s oldest newspaper, El Dictamen. During my visit I was able to see considerable documentation for the period after 1940, little of which has been consulted by scholars. I have discussed my project with the director of the archive, Dra. Carmen Bláquez Domínquez, who has pledged to assist me. The Comisión Agraria Mixta in Xalapa keeps records of agrarian reform activity in Veracruz and is open to scholars. I would also consult the archive of the Liga de Comunidades Agrarias del Estado de Veracruz. Olivia Domínguez is currently cataloguing it and will allow me to work with it. In addition, she has offered to help me gain access to some of the local archives of member communities.

I have made arrangements to be a visiting researcher at the Centro de Investigaciones Históricas of the Universidad Veracruzana during my stay in Xalapa. This is very important for the success of my research because the Centro brings together a number of historians of Veracruz. I have had conversations with Richard Corzo, Olivia Domínguez, and Abel Juárez, among others, and their familiarity with sources and local institutions has already proved useful. I expect the Center to offer me office space and photocopying facilities. Sharing my work with these historians would be one of the most rewarding aspects of my trip to Mexico.

Reconstructing agricultural business networks in Veracruz for the period in question will involve conducting research in the local chambers of commerce; locating regional trade publications; searching for private papers, book collections, and business records; and especially travelling around the state in search of oral accounts and testimonies. The aim is to identify people and organizations who were involved in business and to learn about their activities. This part of my work is especially important not only for the conceptual reasons outlined above, but also because it incorporates research strategies that future scholars, further removed from the period in question, will not be able to employ. The range of contacts I have established with local historians at the Centro de Investigaciones Históricas should prove very useful in this respect. Other scholars in Mexico City who are natives of Veracruz have also offered to provide contacts. To this end, I have also approached the Instituto Nacional Indigenista. Through its research director, Dra. Maya Lorenza Pérez Ruiz, I have arranged to share my research ideas with the staff of anthropologists at the INI’s Coordinadora Estatal de Veracruz. I would then be allowed to join them during field trips to the rural communities with which they work, thus getting an opportunity to learn firsthand about those villages and to investigate the role of business interests therein.
Preparation

This project has evolved from a long-standing personal interest in “development” studies and rural history, and had been approved as a dissertation proposal by Harvard’s History Department. It was formulated in consultation with my advisor, Professor John Womack, who specializes in modern Mexican history and is an expert on Veracruz. He has been especially helpful in locating obscure bibliographical materials, and in suggesting research strategies. I have also benefited from the advice and encouragement of the rest of my PhD examiners: Professor John Tutino, who taught me colonial Mexican history; Professor Alfred Chandler, who taught me American business history; and Professor Thomas Bisson, who introduced me to medieval rural history and to the words of Marc Bloch.

Mexican rural history after 1940 remains to be written. My proposed work on business and agriculture in Veracruz between 1940 and 1958 will be a solid and innovative first step in that direction. It will demonstrate the necessity of incorporating business into the study of rural social relations. I am confident that the results will establish an agenda for modern agricultural history that subsequent scholarship would not be able to neglect.

Note: The candidate also included a one-page “Selected Bibliography.”
SAMPLE BIOGRAPHICAL ESSAYS FOR FELLOWSHIP APPLICATIONS

Some applications ask for a c.v. or seek a more extended biographical essay — for example, the Fulbright Institute of International Education application includes a c.v. in essay form that asks for such personal history as family background, intellectual influences, enriching experiences and how they have affected you. **Whether it is a standard c.v. or a biographical essay, it is important to be selective and to present those aspects of your background that emphasize how well qualified and well suited you are for the particular fellowship.** The essay is not the occasion to “tell the story of your life.” A good idea in preparing to write the essay or c.v. is to make a list in hierarchic order of what you think are your most outstanding qualifications and then work them into a personal essay or a c.v. In organizing a regular c.v. the typical procedure is to list things in reverse chronological order, since your most impressive qualifications or experiences are probably your most recent ones. For the same reasons you might even want to organize your biographical essay in that fashion: you need not start from the beginning—it is possible to work backwards.

The three examples presented here — all written for the Cultural Exchange Fulbright application — show how effectively the biographical essay can convey the unique qualities of a candidate. Note how the examples combine the requested personal history with some of the more standard items of a c.v. such as scholarly or other professional achievements.
Biographical Essay of Jason Paulson

Note how the essay combines the personal and the professional, weaving smoothly between the two. This combination is important for the Fulbright personal essay, since the competition seeks applicants with strong interpersonal skills, the maturity to adapt to a new culture, and also strong scholarly preparation for the research project.

Doctoral students in the humanities today are insane. They are insane, on the one hand, in a negative sense: they invest over five years of their life alone in the archives, poring over the detritus of dead generations, with no job guarantees after their degree. But, at the same time, they are also insane in the best way life can offer. Gripped by a passionate intensity that refuses to release them, doctoral students are insane in the way of young love – wondrous, bright-eyed, and always beautiful. It takes this level of insanity to swear fidelity to one’s research and follow it wherever it may lead – across borders and continents, in sickness and in health. It’s what I’ve sworn, on bended knee, to the study of Japanese modernity.

It is seven years now since this intellectual liaison began, while still an undergraduate at Yale. Far from love at first sight, the process of seduction started with a slowly unfolding mystery. What did it mean for Asia to be modern? Could there be a modernity that did not, in some way, imply a European model? These questions first led me to anthropology, in particular the lectures of Bill Kelly (suggestively titled “Culture, Society, Modernity”). By the end of that year, Professor Kelly had graciously invited me into his graduate seminar in the anthropology of Japan. Professor Kelly urged me to replace easy critiques of modernization with the rigorous labor of deep scholarship. He furthermore gave me the unique opportunity of conducting fieldwork in Shikoku for three months.

It was in the process of pretending to be an anthropologist that I discovered my attraction to historical research. At first, this was admittedly a selfish interest. I thought: informants stared back at you, but archives didn’t. What I quickly discovered instead was that history, too, was a harsh judge, humbling me by revealing the extent to which my own thoughts were often immature recapitulations of those past. The richness of nineteenth century materials, in particular, awoke me to the relative simplicity to which contemporary debates had reduced questions of modernity, Japan, and Europe. For an earlier period, concepts of West and East were extremely porous; the dialogic of encounter was dynamic, malleable, and agentive. This consequently became my chosen field. I wrote a prize-winning senior thesis on it; I continued to pursue historical research at the University of Tokyo after graduating from Yale. Over these years, my constant partner – the question of Japanese modernity – grew with me. I became aware that my original idea of modernity as a choice between “Asia” and “Europe” was overly schematic. I even began to question whether “modernity” was a useful historical concept at all. These musings drew me to Harvard, where I study under Shigehisa Kuriyama. For me, Professor Kuriyama’s work was singular in its ability to take the comparative history of Asia and Europe and paint an intimate portrait of a whole other way of being and experiencing. Under his guidance, I came to believe that a history of how things became modern could also be a history that liberates us from the very constraints of modernity itself.

Perhaps, as Carol Gluck contends, modernity is ultimately a condition neither optional nor dispensable – a historical equivalent to the law of gravity binding us to this earth. If so, then the work I aim to produce could be described as a catalog of Japanese bodies poised midair in freefall. For while descending, we can still choose what position our bodies will take. We can curl up into a ball, plunge with arched arms outstretched as a diver, or even pose for imagined cameras. I see in the thought of nineteenth-century Japan this open air of possibilities. I feel in the intellectual rush of the period a terrifying dizziness whose perils also imply a kind of sheer freedom. Hazard and potentiality – a sense of thrill, danger, and hope just beyond the threshold of our horizons: these are the ingredients of the most passionate loves in our life. Are they insane? Maybe. Are they an experience worth having? Unquestionably.
Biographical Essay of Jorge Sanchez

Twenty-seven years ago my mother gave birth to me in Arecibo, a small town on the northern coast of Puerto Rico. My family did not, however, spend much time in Puerto Rico following my birth. Before my first birthday, my father joined the United States Air Force and we moved to South Carolina. Two years later we went to San Antonio, Texas, where we lived for two more years.

Apparently nostalgic for the tropical scene, my father successfully requested a transfer to the Air Force base in Ramey, Puerto Rico. We made Ramey our home for three years, until my father left the Armed Forces, honorably discharged. Already with a troop of his own — five children, a wife, and a mother-in-law — he moved to Guaynabo, Puerto Rico.

In Guaynabo, I experienced physical stability for the first time. I did not leave until nine years later to go to college. One of the most significant aspects of this period was my Jesuit high school education at Colegio San Ignacio de Loyola. The Jesuits, some of whom I still keep in touch with, instilled in me a passion for learning and community service.

I left home in 1979 to attend Harvard University, where I took a degree in economics and philosophy, magna cum laude. I wrote a Senior Honors Thesis under Robert Dorfman and John Rawls contrasting the philosophical underpinnings of Classical and Marxian economics. The thesis argued, more specifically, that the different understanding of what scientific concepts are in these two traditions contributes significantly to their divergence in approach and results.

Right after college I entered Yale Law School, attracted by its philosophical and interdisciplinary bent. At Yale, in addition to taking captivating courses and being a senior editor for the Law Journal, I was able to start teaching. I worked as a teaching fellow in the course “Civil Procedure” at the law school and in “Philosophy of Law” in the philosophy department. I met the law school’s supervised analytic writing (SAW) requirement with a paper under Owen Fiss on German philosopher Jurgen Habermas’ notion of rationalization of law and did clinical work for a New Haven public interest law firm. After law school, I took a one-year position as a judicial clerk for U.S. Court of Appeals Judge Stephen Reinhardt in Los Angeles.

In 1987 I joined the graduate program in philosophy at Harvard University. I pondered considerably my choice. In college and law school, my philosophical interests had centered around the so-called “continental” philosophers: Fichte, Hegel, Feuerbach, Marx, Habermas. During my law school days, I even began learning German in order to pursue this interest further. I opted for a department known for its strength in Anglo-American “analytic” philosophy, however, because I wanted to be well-versed in this rich and rigorous tradition. In fact, my research and writing will involve the two traditions. I want to study the philosophy of Hegel as well as its relevance to contemporary analytic political philosophy.

Given my area of specialty, studying in Germany is indispensable for me. Effective scholarship in Hegel requires mastering the German language. By the end of this year, I will have taken almost four years of German. The next logical step is to spend some time speaking and reading the language on a regular basis. In Germany, moreover, I would have wider access to the primary and secondary sources on Hegel and invaluable exposure to German students and professors dedicated to Hegel. A direct acquaintance with these material and human resources available will help me significantly not only with my doctoral investigation but undoubtedly with my future professional work as well.

As this essay has perhaps already suggested, I am committed to a career in academia. This aspiration has developed over many years. Throughout my life, I have encountered numerous situations and people that have taught me to love cultivating and sharing ideas, as well as investigating their practical applications. As a professor, I will be in a unique position to pass on this love to generations to come.
Biographical Essay of Ruth Kolman

One of the lessons I have learned at Harvard is how thoroughly I am a product of my West Coast upbringing. I grew up near San Francisco, privileged with good public schools, beautiful surroundings and a strong, devoted mother. When I was ten my parents divorced. On holidays I flew with my two brothers and sister, sometimes alone, to Catalina Island where my father, living with his wife and younger children, practiced medicine. Despite the emotional wear and tear, growing up in a divorced family made me independent at an early age and taught me how to adapt to new surroundings.

I first awoke to a world beyond California at fifteen when I spent a year as an exchange student in a small northern German town. All of my studies and travels since have been shaped by the curiosity that first introduction to a foreign culture and different national history sparked. Living in Europe, I was confronted with new, sometimes negative images of the United States. I instinctively defended my country and world view, but was often overwhelmed by my politically engaged German peers. I returned home with a strong desire to sort out the conflicting views of America I had encountered.

To better understand America’s world role, I chose to study political science at the University of California, Berkeley. I spent my junior year at Goettingen, where I began reading twentieth century German literature to understand how the nation dealt with its National Socialist past and the problem of national identity. Curious about how American culture had been used to fill the cultural vacuum of the postwar period, I researched and wrote a paper on U.S. Armed Forces’ German-language newspapers.

Moving to Japan to teach English I was instantly struck by the superficial similarity of the rebuilt urban environment with German cities. When I learned of Japanese customs and talked about cultural differences with students and friends I inevitably referred back to Germany. My personal experiences and studies of modern history have made it impossible to speak of one country without the other. The themes of my current research, specifically the social impact of war and occupation, and the production of memory, history and identity come from questions that arose while living in each country.

My earning a PhD is, in a sense, a result of both frustration and idealism. Growing up in the 1960’s and 1970’s in California left me wanting to change the world. I have been overwhelmed by the task. The possibility of teaching people to think critically, to recognize a multiplicity of histories and to challenge fatalism and passivity, however, has encouraged me to devote myself to academics. As a new graduate student from the West struggling to adjust to Harvard I often thought my communication skills were being wasted in the library stacks. Teaching discussion sections for Core courses on Japan has cleared up such doubts. I set off to research abroad with a new kind of idealism. I strongly believe that my dissertation will not only contribute to much needed scholarship on Asia but will be significant for future U.S.-Japanese relations.
SAMPLE CURRICULUM VITAE FOR FELLOWSHIP APPLICATIONS

ROBERT BRADLEY

Home Address  
E-mail Address  
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EDUCATION

Harvard University, PhD Political Science, expected June 2017

Harvard University, M.A. Political Science, June 2013

Free University of Brussels, 2010
   Institute of European Studies

Middlebury College, B.A. summa cum laude, May 2009
   Political Science/French
   Junior Year at l’Institut d’Etudes Politiques, Paris

GRANTS AND AWARDS

Krupp Foundation Fellowship, 2013-2014
ITT International Fellowship to Belgium, 2009-2010

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Discussant, Panel on the “State and Social Regulation,” Conference Group on Italian Politics,
American Political Science Association convention, Washington D.C., August 30, 20—


TEACHING EXPERIENCE

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Teaching Fellow, Government Department and Core Curriculum 2012-2014

Conducted weekly discussion sections, graded research papers and examinations, and helped
prepare examination questions in the following courses:

“International Conflicts in the Modern World” Spring 2014 (Core Curriculum). An
introductory course on the causes of interstate conflicts. Topics include the 19th century balance
of power, imperialism, the origins of World Wars I and II, the Cold War, nuclear deterrence,
and international economic conflicts.
“U.S. Foreign Policy” Spring 2013 (Government Department). A survey of American foreign policy in the twentieth century towards the Soviet Union, China, Western Europe, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America. Also considered were the Vietnam war, human rights, and the policymaking process.

“Political Development of Western Europe” Fall 2012 (Government Department). A comparative analysis of the economic and political development of Britain, Germany, Italy and France.

RESEARCH AFFILIATIONS

Graduate Student Associate, Center for European Studies, Harvard University, 2014-15
Co-Chair, Study Group on Monetary Policy, 2014-15
Visiting Scholar, Council for the United States and Italy, Rome, 2012-13

ACADEMIC SERVICE

Non-Resident Tutor, Lowell House, Harvard University, 2014-15
Serve as academic advisor to Government concentrators.
Assistant Head Tutor, Government Department, Harvard University, 2012-14
Responsible for advising undergraduate majors in Government and for administering junior tutorial program.

RELATED PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Assistant to Press Attache, U.S. Embassy, Belgium, December 2009
LBJ Congressional Intern to the Honorable Lee H. Hamilton, Summer 2009

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

French, German, Italian, Spanish.