HISTORY ESSAY GUIDE

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

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INTRODUCTION

This guide is designed to answer the basic questions you might have about writing a history research paper. It is not designed to be comprehensive. If you have questions that are not addressed in this manual, consult the books listed in the bibliography. Please remember that your professor may have specific requirements that could diverge from what is outlined below. Therefore, always make certain that you fully understand the requirements of any assignment. Regardless of what we say here, always follow your Professor's instructions.

I. RESEARCH

a) The stages of research and writing

Writing a good research paper is often the most important component of a course, and it is vital that you set aside enough time to do it properly. Of all the stages outlined below, research is by far the most time-consuming, so you should budget your time accordingly.

In theory, you need to proceed in order through each of the following stages: defining a topic, building a bibliography, reading and taking notes, writing an outline, writing, revising. In reality, these stages are not so distinct. For instance, as you begin to read on your topic, you may find that you have to redefine or refine it. As you read, you will also find that your preliminary bibliography is inadequate, and you will have to rework it. You may write an outline at any stage of your research, but you will find that it will change as you read more. The outline could even change in the process of writing.

b) How to define a topic

Defining your paper topic is arguably the most important, and often the most difficult, task in writing a paper. An ill-defined topic will never produce a good paper. Even if the topic has been taken from a list distributed by your professor, you will still need to refine it, unless you are specifically instructed otherwise.

There are two basic rules to follow when defining a topic:

1- You need to formulate a question that you will answer in the course of your paper. You should avoid questions that call only for a series of descriptions. Describing what happened is important, but always keep in mind that the goal of historical research is to explain **why** things happened the way they did.

2- Your topic needs to be narrow enough so as to be feasible. The more focused the topic and the question, the easier it will be for you to focus your research and construct your argument. If your topic is too broad, you will find that you will not have the time or space to make but the vaguest of generalities.

Example: If your decide to write a paper on "The causes of World War I," you will inevitably drown in generalizations. There are hundreds of books on various aspects of the issue, and the best you can hope to do in 10-20 pages is to describe a series of "causes." You will have written an encyclopedia article, but not a research paper.

How then can you proceed to define a topic?

1- You should first chose a subject or a question that interests you.
2- Orientation reading: You will then need to learn something about the subject, usually by finding out what is generally known about it in textbooks, historical encyclopedias or other general works. This will allow you to familiarize yourself with the basic facts and events (who, what, when, etc.). Your reading will also raise questions that are not answered in these general works. Always write these down, for it is among these questions that you will usually find a good topic.

3- Once you have limited your topic, or question, you will need to build a preliminary bibliography. Try to identify the key writings on the subject. Review articles are extremely useful for this, as are the introductions to the most recently published books and articles on the subject. (see Building a bibliography, below).

c) Building a bibliography

Do not underestimate the time it will take to build a good bibliography. The point is not to pick the first items that you find, but to pick the best and most relevant items on your topic. The bibliography is the foundation of your paper. You cannot write a good paper on the basis of a bad bibliography. Spending time on your bibliography will also save you time in the long run, as you will be able to choose the most relevant material. Part of the work of building a good bibliography is, therefore, choosing the best books and articles from the mass of material on the library shelves.

FINDING BOOKS:
1) The Morisset library has "Pathfinders" available in the reference room for most areas of history. These list specialized encyclopedias, atlases, published bibliographies, and other useful reference items.

2) *Specialized encyclopedias*: There exist a number of very good, specialized historical encyclopedias. These are extremely useful for background reading, and articles are often followed by a short bibliography.

Example: *Modern Encyclopedia of Russian and Soviet History*

3) The *on-line catalogue* (for books): Most students use the on-line catalogue (Orbis) at one-tenth of its potential. The only thing that the computer can do is match the words that you give it with those that have been entered into the data-base. The computer cannot tell you whether the books that contain your keywords are in fact relevant, and it cannot find a relevant book that does not contain the keywords that you chose. You should, therefore, try each of the following methods when searching the computer.

   * Searching by title keyword: The computer will search the titles of books in the library for the word(s) that you have entered. If you try only the most obvious keywords, you will probably not find much. The advantage of this method is that it is easy and rapid. The disadvantage is that you will only find only <u>some</u> of the most important books on your topic (while it will find much that is not relevant). Remember that computers are stupid: they can only find what you ask for. Therefore, try as many different keywords as you can think of. Be imaginative. Be precise.

Example: If your general topic area is Women in Medieval Russia, and you search for the keywords "women russia" you will only find two useful books. You will not find one of the best and most recent on the topic, because it is titled *Sex and Society in the World of the Orthodox Slavs, 900-1700.*

* Searching by subject: One good way of finding books on your topic that do not have titles that lend themselves to keyword searches is to search by subject. Subjects are established by the U.S. Library of Congress for the purpose of cataloging books. You, therefore, have to know how the Library of Congress would catalog your topic before searching by subject. You also have to enter the words in the same order as the LOC. The easiest way of doing this is to find one or two books on your topic (using title keywords). You will see the suject headings listed towards the bottom of your screen. If you click on these, you can find other books within the same category.

Do not try to use logic, as library logic is not the same as historical logic. For example, one heading which lists books on women in medieval Russia is under "Women-Soviet Union-History." Never mind that the Soviet Union was founded in 1917, and that there is no such thing as a medieval Soviet Union!

* Searching by subject keyword: This is similar to the above method, except that it will search all the subject headings where your keywords appear, no matter what order you put them in. You need to go to "advanced search," set your search to "subject," and then type in your keywords.

However, none of the above methods will help you find the book *Sex and Society in the World of the Orthodox Slavs,* as it comes under the heading "Sex customs–Europe, Eastern–History." In other words, NEVER RELY EXCLUSIVELY ON THE ON-LINE CATALOGUE. It is a great place to start, but insufficient by itself.

4) *A recent book (or article) on your topic*: This is probably the most efficient way to find material. Once you have found a very recent book and/or article on your topic, search its footnotes and bibliography.

5) *Shelf search*: Find the call numbers for a few books on your topic, then search the shelves in that area.

FINDING ARTICLES: Articles are an under-utilized resource that present great advantages.

1) *Published bibliographies*: You can find some of these in the *Pathfinders*, or by searching by subject keyword in Orbis. The subject keywords "history–[your country of study]–bibliography" usually turns up a relatively complete list of the library's holdings.

    Advantages: comprehensive, well-organized, lots of articles, often annotated
    Disadvantages: They are rarely up-to-date. Make sure to check the date of publication.

2) *Journals*: Find out what the most important journals are in your area of interest. You can do this either by asking your professor, or checking the *Pathfinders*. Then search the last few years of those journals.

3) *Electronic data-bases for articles*: The Morisset library has several bibliographic data-bases of journal articles. You can access all of them through the library home page. Go to Orbis, click "databases." This will take you to an alphabetical listing of all databases to which the library subscribes. These are listed below in order of utility for history:

    Historical Abstracts covers European history from 1450.
        Advantages: The coverage of historical journals is quite complete; provides abstracts; includes journals in both French and English (and other languages).
        Disadvantages: It does not include book reviews. It can take you 5-10 minutes to learn to use well: since it includes journals from many countries, if you do not limit your search by language, you might end up with 234 hits in languages you do not read.

    America: History and Life is like *Historical Abstracts*, except that it covers North America. It does include book reviews.

    J-STOR covers major English language journals in several fields.
        Advantages: You can find relevant articles published in non-history fields (anthropology, political science, sociology, etc.) All articles are available on-line.
        Disadvantages: It does not include articles published in the last five years. The number of History journals indexed is much, much smaller than in *Historical Abstracts* and *America: History and Life*.

    International Medieval Bibliography
        Advantages: very international; covers the period before 1450 that is poorly covered in other databases (or not at all).
        Disadvantages: it is not user friendly

Choosing the material you are actually going to use:

While there is no fool-proof way of choosing the best books and articles before reading them, there are some criteria that you can apply in making your choice.

- *publisher*: University presses function with a system of peer review that (usually) guarantees that minimum standards of reliability and scholarship are respected.

- *date*: You should pay attention to the date of publication. Historical research is cumulative, and an older book cannot reflect later findings, so it is important to have some recent items in your bibliography. However, newer is not always better, and you should not neglect the older classics.

- *frequency of citation*: A good way of identifying the "classics" is by paying attention to the authors who are always discussed in introductions. If in the course of doing your research, you find that one or two authors are always cited and discussed, you can safely conclude that their work is important.

- *book reviews*: Most scholarly books are reviewed in academic journals. You can find the references to book reviews either in *America: History and Life* (Canadian or US history), or in *Book Review Index* (all fields). For the moment, *Historical Abstracts* does not index book reviews.

- *table of contents, introductions*: Before you launch into a careful reading of a book, skim the table of contents and the introduction to make a preliminary evaluation of the quality and the utility of the work.

d) Taking notes

Some writing textbooks are quite specific concerning note taking: you should use note cards, jot down only one idea per card, etc. They seem to imply that if you do not follow this method, you can only produce drivel. The truth of the matter is that there are probably as many note-taking techniques as researchers.

Note taking is not an end in itself, but a means towards an end. One takes notes to help remember information, to facilitate the recollection process, and to know precisely where the information came from. Not all people recall information in the same way, therefore different people may take notes in different ways. What works for one person may not work for another.

- What are the characteristics of a good note-taking system?

1- It should allow researchers to quickly find any piece of information they want.

2- It should allow researchers to know <u>exactly</u> where the information comes from (source).

3- It should allow researchers to know whether the notes are in their own words, or are verbatim transcriptions of the sources (to prevent inadvertent plagiarism).

Any system that meets the three above criteria is a good one. Any system that does not is an ineffective one. So, devise a system that works for you, BUT TAKE NOTES.

- Why should we waste time taking notes when we can simply photocopy the stuff and highlight it?

1- It is expensive.
2- One remembers more from taking notes than from reading and underlining/highlighting (this has been scientifically proven). One usually writes better papers when one remembers the salient points of one's readings. The more one remembers, the better the paper is likely to be.
3- If you write from notes, you can organize the material, have it in front of you in the appropriate order, and flip your notes as you write. You will be less likely to omit important information (because you have forgotten where you read it, or even that you have read it).

Problems and tips:

- I always seem to have too many/not enough/irrelevant notes.

Join the club! We all end up with too many notes on this, not enough on that, and some useless stuff. Some of us write first drafts for no other reason than to identify gaps in the research.

- But it really seems out of hand!

If your notes are really and repeatedly going all over the place, except where they should be going, you may be starting your research with an insufficiently clear idea of your goal. Try doing more preparatory work.

If the problem is that you have too much tangential material, it may be that you are easily sidetracked by everything interesting that you find. Pause frequently to refocus your thoughts.

- Sometimes, when I do my research, I stop believing in my original idea, and I get new ones I like better.

This is actually a good sign. If you had an answer all sewed up when you started your research, what would be the point of doing it in the first place? If your working hypothesis does not satisfy you anymore, change it (this may mean you need a new outline).

- When I do my research, I get those great ideas, but by the time I start writing, I have forgotten them.

You should ALWAYS write down your flashes of inspiration immediately as they occur. Incorporate the idea into your notes, but circle the idea, highlight it, draw a light bulb on it, whatever is needed to alert you later that this was A Great Idea of yours.

Remember: Good ideas usually come into our heads at the least expected moment, and you can bet you will NOT remember it by the time you are ready to write your paper!

- I have always been told to take notes in my own words, but I can never finds words as good as the ones of the source.

This likely means you lack vocabulary to express abstract thoughts, or specialized knowledge. This can also be a problem when taking notes in a language other than your mother tongue. You will have to adopt a two pronged strategy here.

In the short run (your paper is due soon), lift words and phrases from your source, but signal this in your notes: change colour, underline, use bold type (on the computer). When you write your paper, try to write it without looking at your notes. When you need one of the terms or phrases from the sources, try to find an alternative in the dictionary or a thesaurus. Always check the definition of the alternative though. Most words have more than one meaning, and the alternative you have selected could have a meaning you do not want to convey.

In the long run, you need to increase your vocabulary. This requires additional work, but it is worth it. Once you are done taking notes on a topic, go through your notes, and make a list of all unfamiliar words and phrases pertinent to the topic. Enter words and expressions in a computer file; enter the sentence in which they were used. Enter a sentence of your own using this word/phrase. You can alphabetize your file, or organize it thematically. Re-read it frequently. Every now and then, write a few paragraphs using as many of those words and expressions as possible. (This is a very effective method of building up one's vocabulary).

III. WRITING

a) Outline

At some point before you begin to write, you will need to organize the information that you have collected. A poorly organized paper will usually leave your reader confused and wondering what point you were trying to make. Preparing an outline before you begin to write allows you to prepare an argument that answers the question of your paper. It will provide the skeletal structure of your paper, and facilitate the actual writing process.

As a first step, you should categorize the information you have collected into general themes or issues that you want to address. You will then need to refine your categorization, distinguishing between main arguments, secondary arguments, and supporting evidence. The result should make clear why each of your sections exists, and how it is related to your main question.

It is often a good idea to prepare a preliminary outline early in the research process. In this case, your headings can be in the form of questions These are the questions that came to you as you brainstormed during your preliminary reading, and they are the questions that you will need to answer in order to answer your big question. Such an outline can provide you with a road map for your research. Remember, however, that a preliminary outline should not become a straight jacket. It is inevitable that it will change as you learn more about your topic.

An example of a preliminary working outline:

Topic: Why did some women in Germany support the Nazi party?

Introduction:
- basic information: what, where, when (i.e.: To what extent did women support the Nazi party?)
- importance of the topic: (i.e.: contribution to the rise of Hitler to power?)
- main question to be answered

I. How did the economic situation in Weimar Germany affect women?
   a. Movement towards economic rationalization
   b. Inflation

    c. Unemployment
        - campaign against "double-earner" households
        - cuts to social services and call to women to "take up the slack"

II. How did the Nazi Party address the difficulties faced by women?
    a. What was the Party program towards women?
        - emphasis on family and motherhood
        - natality policy
    b. Were there efforts to specifically organize women?
        - housewives' organizations
        - League of German Girls
        - others?...
    c. Did these organizations respond to the needs of women?
        - Which women were attracted into these groups, and why?

III. Women's support for Party?
    a. involvement in local organizations?
    b. results of 1932 and 1933 elections?
    c. other evidence?

Conclusion: answer to your question

Obviously, as you proceed with your research, you will come up with more questions that you can work into your outline, and some of your original questions might change. You might discover that your original topic was too broad, and that you can write an entire paper just on the housewives' associations, or just on middle-class women. Likewise, the organization of your outline will change as you learn more. You might decide, for instance, to first discuss the 1932 and 1933 election results. What is important in the end is that your main arguments proceed logically, that each section is clearly related to your main question, and that you have provided sufficient convincing supporting evidence for your argument.

b) To quote or not to quote

A quotation consists of the exact words found in a source. All quotations must be cited (footnoted); anything else is plagiarism. Quotations should NEVER carry your argument, but merely illustrate or support it. As a general rule, you should try to quote sparingly (no more than one or two quotes per page). You should also quote briefly, avoiding quotations longer than four lines unless absolutely necessary.

- When are quotations of primary sources justifiable?

      1- You have a primary source which provides a fact, an idea, a concept etc. directly supporting your argument.

      2- Your source is using a terminology that is now obsolete, but conveys particularly well the atmosphere/way of thinking of the time.

      3- The source is unclear or ambiguous; you are obliged to put your own interpretation on it, and want to make the reader aware of this fact.

- When are quotations of secondary sources justifiable? The occasions for this are rare:

      1- The historian quoted is using a phrase, an expression or formulating a problem in a way that is unique and that you find particularly apt.

      2- The passage quoted is critical to your argumentation- for instance because you intend to refute it, and are challenging the author's interpretation.

Problems and tips:

- What can I use to introduce a quotation or paraphrase besides "he says," "he thinks" or "he writes"? Try using some of the following verbs:

Agree	Analyze	Argue	Assert
Believe	Claim	Comment	Conclude
Consider	Contend	Deny	Describe
Explain	Find	Imply	Maintain
Note	Observe	Point out	Refute
Report	Speculate	State	Suggest

- The quotation does not fit grammatically into my sentence, or uses words which are not clear without the rest of the text from which it is taken.

Although a quotation must use the original wording, it is permissible to <u>slightly</u> modify it to make it fit. CHANGES MUST be put between square brackets [ ].

If the original is misspelled, you must keep the misspelling. If you are afraid that the readers will think you misquoted, however, you may insert [sic] after the mistake.

d) Footnoting

Citing consists of indicating in footnotes or endnotes the sources of the information provided in the body of the text. Proper citations are a fundamental rule of academic writing, as they allow readers to verify the accuracy and veracity of the information provided. Citing styles vary from discipline to discipline, but the obligation to cite does not.

What should one cite?
- all direct quotations
- any summary of another person's words or ideas
- use of someone else's data

You should not footnote general textbooks, encyclopedias (except specialized ones) and other <u>very</u> general and readily available reference material. You also do not need to provide citations for general knowledge (what everybody can be expected to know).

Both footnotes and endnotes are acceptable. When in doubt, check with your professor. For details on footnote format, see footnotes/endnotes section.

e) Revising and Editing

Revising consists in going over the text, checking and improving the content. Editing consists in looking for errors in grammar, syntax, word usage, spelling and punctuation. Keep the two separate.

Revising for argument and logic:

A- Is your paper going anywhere? Use the following checklist:

    1- The question I am trying to answer is:

    _____

    _____

    2- My answer to this question is :

    _____

    _____

    3- My proofs (steps of the argument) are:

    *_____

    *_____

    *_____

    4- My sources and evidence are:

    *_____

    *_____

    *_____

B- The details:

        1- Does each section contribute something to answering the main question?

        2- Do the different sections follow in a logical order?

C. THE ULTIMATE TEST:

First, MAKE SURE you have saved your paper on the computer (i.e.: made a backup copy)! Then, delete everything except:
- your main introduction
- the introduction and conclusion of each section
- the first sentence (topic sentence) and the last sentence (transition) of each paragraph
- your main conclusion

Read the resulting text. Does it make sense? Does it make the point you think your whole paper is making? If yes, chances are you have produced a tightly argued paper. If no, go over the sections that do not fit, or do not seem to contribute to the overall argument, and try to improve them.

D. Main flaws in argumentation:

1. Hasty generalizations are based on too little evidence. Here is an example found in a local paper's letters to the editor: "Indians do not respect law and order and resort to violence to settle their problems." Some Natives, like some Whites, do not respect law and order. That is not sufficient evidence to claim that none does.

Hasty generalization usually leads to begging the question: The writer for example tries to explain why Indians do not respect law and order, or what society should do to prevent Indian violence. As Native violence has not been proven to be a genuine problem, you can see how the rest of his argument will be flawed.

2. Oversimplification occurs when the relationship between cause and effect is too simple. There is usually an element of truth behind oversimplification.
Example: "Prohibition can eliminate drunkenness." (It will stop some people from drinking, but not most people).
"Industrialization separated the home from the work place." (This occurred in some occupations, but not in all).

3. *Post Hoc* fallacy: This one assumes that because event B happened after event A, B must have been caused by A.

For instance, parties in power are often blamed for recessions. Yet, it would be quite wrong to attribute the stock market crash of 1929 to the election of Herbert Hoover as U.S. president in 1928.

4. *Non Sequitur* reasoning: This refers to tying two unrelated ideas together.
The following examples are drawn from student papers:
"Ireland was overcrowded, therefore Irish Protestant migrants chose to come to the Canadas instead of the United States." (The Irish migrated because of overcrowding at home, but overcrowding does not explain their choice of destination.)
"By providing some of their subsistence, rural industrial workers obtained more flexible schedules than their urban working class counterparts." (The foreman did not give different schedules to workers who had a plot of land in the country).

Revising for grammar, spelling and style

When editing, one reviews one's text for errors in word usage, grammar, syntax (sentence construction), punctuation and spelling. By far, the worst errors in students' papers are errors in word usage (a word or phrase is used which does not mean what the student think it does) and syntax (lots of run-on sentences).

Grammar check software:
Forget about them. If you want to have fun, take a paragraph from your favourite author, and put it through a grammar check, and see what it does to it. Grammar still has to be learned the hard way.

Spell checkers:
You should always run a spell-check. Spell checkers, however, are far from perfect. They will not catch errors in capitalization. They also do not catch misspelled words looking like other words (for instance, their and there). They are on the other hand rather good at catching typos. So, use the spell check in your word processor, and afterwards, re-read the text yourself. It is also usually easier to find misspelling in a hard copy than on screen.

What to watch for:
Grade school errors: Nothing detracts more thoroughly from your credibility as confusions between "its" and "it's," "there"/"their."

Filler words that do not mean anything:
    basically, essentially, factor

Familiar language: Do not use familiar language in formal papers. For example:
    -wise (money-wise, sales-wise, weather-wise); rephrase sentence completely to
eliminate.
    - ticked off, steaming mad, bummed out, etc.

Metaphors: A <u>metaphor</u> is a " comparison of one thing to another made through the use of a
word or words that do not apply literally." For instance, "My love is a red, red rose" is a
metaphor. Avoid worn out (and familiar) metaphors, like

miss the boat	bottom line
hot potatoes	acid test
pave the way	dead as a doornail

Contractions: You may NOT use contractions in a formal paper (he's, it's, they've, etc...)
"It's" is also often misused: it is the contraction of IT IS, and NOT a possessive (the dog and its
master entered the room, not the dog and it's master...)

Pronoun misuse: It is common to find pronouns in student papers that do not refer to any clearly
identifiable noun. Thus, you cannot say "Russia wanted to sign a peace treaty with Germany.
She...." (Who does "she" refer to? Russia? Germany?)
Avoid using "you" for "people in general." For instance, instead of "When <u>you</u> drive downtown
at 8:00, <u>you</u> run into heavy traffic," write:
    "People who drive downtown at 8:00 run into heavy traffic."
    Or "Drivers going downtown at 8:00 run into heavy traffic."

Problems and tips:

- Why can't I use "I"?
    Because "I" expresses a personal opinion, and opinions are not "arguments." Arguments are
    logical reasoning buttressed by verifiable evidence. The only time "I " is used in history is in
    some limited type of methodological discussion undergraduates do not normally get into. And
    do not disguise it behind the expression: "This author thinks...," either.

- In an other (non-history) class, I have been told I was hiding behind other people because I did not give my personal opinion.

Some disciplines expect students to respond personally to their material. This is the case in the study of literature. A literature essay is a personal reading, an individual's understanding of a primary source, the literary text. Whereas in literature, anyone can normally access the primary source, few can access primary sources in history: the document is usually unique, and the body of sources used for a given study can be scattered through several repositories, sometimes in several countries! The first task of the historian is to extract the information from those sources and establish the facts as well as he can. Because all historians ferret, gather, organize and convey factual information for their benefit, as well as for others, they must remain detached from their subject, lest their emotional involvement affect their research and their results. One cannot get personal when one deals with a documentation that is not readily accessible to the reader, because to a certain extent, one is the reader's agent, and should not impose personal views or opinions on them. A history paper is not an op-ed page. And although it is true that one can never be completely objective, that does not justify turning history into a purely subjective exercise.

- My profs keep telling me not to use the passive voice. What is this anyway?
Compare the following sentences:

    Germany invaded France for the third time in a century.
    France was invaded again for the third time in a century.

    The first sentence is in the active voice: it tells us who did the action. The second one is in the passive voice; it tells us only who suffered the results of the action. Since the historian's goal is to discover precisely who did what, you should avoid using the passive voice. Use the passive voice ONLY when the person who performs the action is irrelevant, unimportant, or unknown.

III. PRESENTATION

a. Title page: You should have a title-page, where you include the title, your name, the date, the professor's name, and the course code. The title should be informative, and indicate your topic, period of study, and if possible your approach.

b. Pagination: Number your pages, without including the title page.

c. Text format
- Your paper should be typed, double-spaced, with one-inch margins.
- Use a standard size type (10 or 12 point).
- Do not put an extra space between paragraphs, although you can do so between major sections of your paper.

d. Quotations: Short quotations (2 lines or less) are inserted into the text using quotation marks. Longer quotations are left-indented (they can be right-indented as well), and single spaced. No quotation marks are used.

e. Footnotes and endnotes format
You are likely to encounter three citation styles in your studies:
1. The CM (Chicago Manual of Style): This the style used by historians. A bibliographical note containing full source information is contained in a footnote or endnote referred to at each place a source is used in a paper. A "reference list" or "bibliography" is usually also included at the end of the paper. Historians use this system because parenthetical citation systems like the MLA and the APA (see 2 and 3 below) are very awkward to use with archival sources.
2. The MLA (Modern Language Association): In MLA style, a source name and page reference is entered at each place a source is used in a paper. A "Work Cited" section at the end of the paper gives full bibliographical information about the sources.
3. The APA (American Psychological Association): In the APA style, the author and year of publication is entered at each place a source is used in a paper. A "Reference List" section at the end of the paper gives full bibliographical information about the sources.

UNLESS OTHERWISE INSTRUCTED, USE THE CHICAGO MANUAL OF STYLE/TURABIAN STYLE IN HISTORY PAPERS. ALSO INCLUDE A BIBLIOGRAPHY.

To indicate a footnote, place a number (raised one space) at the end of the relevant sentence. Number such references consecutively, so that the numbers in the footnotes (or endnotes) correspond to the reference numbers in the body of the essay. In the first footnote of a particular work, give complete information following the examples listed below. For a second reference to a work already cited, use only the author's last name and a short title.

Examples of format for footnote:

Monograph by a single author
[1]Donald F. Davis, *Conspicuous Production: Automobiles and Elites in Detroit, 1899-1933* (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1988), p.193.

Periodical article
[2]Jacques Barbier, "Recent Trends in the Study of Spanish American Colonial Finance," *Latin American Research Review* 23, no.1 (1988), p.61.

Article by two authors
[3]David Eltis and Laurence Jennings, "Trade between Western Africa and the Atlantic World in the Pre-Colonial Era," *American Historical Review* 93, no.4 (1988), p.939.

Newspaper article
[4]Brian Villa, "Crimes and Rumours of Crimes," *The Globe and Mail*, 18 October 1997, p.D10.

Article in edited volume
[5]Beatrice Craig, "Agriculture in a Pioneer Region: The Upper St. John River Valley in the First Half of the 19th Century," In *farm, Factory and Fortune. New Studies in the Economic History of the Maritime Provinces*, ed. Kris Inwood (Fredericton, N.B.: Acadiensis Press, 1994), p.23.

Document from the internet
[7]Melvin E. Page, [pagem@etsuarts.east-tenn-st.edu]. "A Brief Citation Guide For Internet Sources In History and The Humanities," in H-AFRICA,[h-africa@msu.edu], 30 October 1995.

[8]Peter Limb, "Relationships between Labour & African Nationalist/Liberation Movements in Southern Africa," [http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/archives/limb-l.html], May 1992.

Second reference to a work already cited
[8]Davis, "North American Urban Mass Transit," p.x.

Consecutive reference to the same work
[9]*Ibid.*, p.23.

Examples of format for bibliography:

In most cases, a bibliography is presented in alphabetical order by authors' last name.

Monograph by a single author
Davis, Donald F. *Conspicuous Production: Automobiles and Elites in Detroit, 1899-1933*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1988.

Periodical article by two authors
Eltis, David and Laurence Jennings. "Trade between Western Africa and the Atlantic World in the pre-Colonial Era," *American Historical Review* 93, no.4 (1988), pp.936-959.

Edited volume
Keshen, Jeffrey, ed. *Age of Contention: Readings in Canadian Social History, 1900-1945*. Toronto: Harcourt Brace, Canada, 1996.

Periodical article with volume and issue numbers
Barbier, Jacques. "Recent Trends in the Study of Spanish American Colonial Finance," *Latin American Research Review* 23, no.1 (1988), pp.35-62.

Periodical article with issue numbers rather than volumes
Grabowski, Jan. "French Justice and Indians in Montreal, 1670-1760," *Ethnohistory*, no.3 (1995), pp.405-429.

Newspaper article
Villa, Brian. "Crimes and Rumours of Crimes," *The Globe and Mail*, 18 October 1997, p.D10.

Article in edited volume
Craig, Beatrice. "Agriculture in a Pioneer Region: The Upper St. John River Valley in the First Half of the 19th Century." In *farm, Factory and Fortune. New Studies in the Economic History of the Maritime Provinces*, ed. Kris Inwood, pp.17-36. Fredericton, N.B.: Acadiensis Press, 1994.

Work in a language other than English (follow rules of capitalization for that language)
Gaudin, Corinne. "Les zemskie nachal'niki au village: Culture paysanne et coutumes administratives en Russie, 1889-1914," *Cahiers du monde russe* 36, no.3 (1995), pp.249-272.

Document from the internet
Page, Melvin E. [pagem@etsuarts.east-tenn-st.edu]. "A Brief Citation Guide For Internet Sources In History and The Humanities." in H-AFRICA.[h-africa@msu.edu]. 30 October 1995.

Limb, Peter. "Relationships between Labour & African Nationalist/ Liberation Movements in Southern Africa." [http://neal.ctstateu.edu/history/world_history/archives/limb-l.html]. May 1992.

IV. SPECIAL PROBLEMS AND QUESTIONS

a. Some differences between a history paper, and papers in other disciplines

Some disciplines (sociology, anthropology, education, management) write almost entirely in the passive voice. If you are taking courses in those disciplines, make sure you are not mixing your styles. (For passive voice, see page 17.)

Some disciplines (English, French) require that you react personally to the material. In history, you should avoid replacing evidence with opinion. (See page 17 on the use of "I").

Make certain that you are using the citation system for history. (See page 18 on footnote and bibliography format).

Problems and tips:
- I have been told to avoid "sexist language." What does that mean? And why should I be PC anyway?

The issue is not to be or not be PC, but to be accurate. Let us take two examples. The first is a misadventure which happened to a professor of the department who wrote a textbook in French (A language where the masculine and the feminine are more obvious than in English). The editor decided the language was too "masculine" and turned "inventors" into " inventors and inventresses" (in the nineteenth century?), the Knights of Labour into "Chevaliers et Chevalières du travail," and the Farmer's Alliances into "Alliances de fermiers et de fermières." Well, the problem is that the Knights of Labour, who were present in Quebec, never made their name gender inclusive, and the Farmers' Alliances did not accept female members! One editor rewrote history.

On the other hand, a pair of American historians wrote a book about farming in the northeast before the Civil War, in which they stated that by the 1830s "farmers had given up weaving and switched to butter making instead." Farmers? Sorry, farmers did no such things-

their wives did. Those two historians' statement is as historically inaccurate as the translation of "Farmers' Alliances."

When you write, always ask yourself who did the action: men or women. If it is done by men, use the masculine; by women, use the feminine, and by both, make sure this is clear. For instance, if you are discussing factory workers, you will likely use the expressions "male and female workers" when referring to the entire population for the first time, "female workers" when discussing the women, and "male workers" when discussing the males, and possibly even "children workers." Once you have established that the group in question is male or female or both, you can revert to the shorter, generic "workers," as long as there is no ambiguity.

Neither "man" nor "mankind" is used as a generic anymore. Use "humans" "human beings," "people," "humanity." Replace "to man" by "to staff," and "manpower" by "labour force."

b. Using the Internet in history

For most topics, the Internet is still of limited use in historical research. Most often, you will spend considerable time searching for material, and will find only the most general information that you could have found much more quickly in a historical encyclopedia or textbook in the library. And Wikipedia is no more acceptable at the university level than would be the encyclopedia Britannica: you can skim them to get some general background before you start your research, but that is all. An additional trap is that there is little control over the quality or reliability of the information that you find on the internet. While books are reviewed by academics before they are published, any lunatic with an ax to grind can set up a web page where misquoted sources or rumour are presented as "fact."

This does not mean that the Internet is useless, but only that it <u>has to be used with caution</u>. Some very useful and reliable sites on the Net present primary documents that have not been published, or that our library does not haveAs a general rule, stick to university or library sites as these generally have a stake in presenting accurate information.

For more on using the Web for research, see:

"Internet for Historians," Institute of Historical Research, University of London at

http://www.vts.intute.ac.uk/he/tutorial/history/index.htm

For more information on citing from the Internet, see Melvin Page, "A Brief Citation Guide For Internet Sources In History and The Humanities," http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/cite.html

c. Plagiarism

It is essential that you acknowledge the sources for the information and ideas that you use in your papers. All quotations, information, and any idea that is not yours needs to be indicated in a footnote. Even a discussion from a book which you summarize has to be footnoted. The use of outside sources does not in any way detract from the quality of your own work. Your contribution and originality lies in the way you put the information you have collected together, and in the strength of your argument. <u>We all learn from others and use their ideas, but this use must be acknowledged</u>.[1]

The use of another person's ideas or wording without proper attribution is <u>plagiarism</u>, and all such cases will be referred to the Faculty of Arts disciplinary committee. For more information, see the Faculty of Arts calendar.

In order to avoid inadvertent plagiarism, always distinguish in your notes when you are copying or paraphrasing your source (use quotation marks, use different color ink, etc.). Below is an example of proper and improper use of an academic article:

<u>Original:</u>
Bad winters remained a serious cause of distress in London up until the middle of the 1890s. There were harsh winters in 1879, 1880, 1881, 1886, 1887, 1891, and lastly in 1895 when once again the Thames was immobilized by floating blocks of ice. The distress in that year was sufficient to merit a Parliamentary commission of inquiry into the causes of the distress. This concluded that severe winters did not merely result in the unemployment of riverside and building workers, but also extended distress into all trades which depended upon the work of wives and daughters to sustain the unemployed husband through the slack season. Wives engaged in sweated homework tended only to work when their husbands were unemployed. The effect of bad weather was to push many more wives than usual into the

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[1]William Campbell *et. al.* eds., *Form and Style. Theses, Reports, Term Papers* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1990), pp.65-6.

labour market, and the result of this heightened competition was to spread the effects of the distress into groups of workers not directly affected by climatic conditions.[2]

Plagiarism:

In the 1880s and 1890s, London experienced a series of harsh winters which caused serious distress in the city. Floating blocks of ice blocked the Thames, increasing unemployment among riverside and building workers. More wives than usual were pushed into the labor market, increasing the competition for work and spreading distress among workers not directly affected by the bad weather.[3] (borrowed words merely shuffled around)

Proper use:

The economic structure of London was such that until the 1890s, bad winters had repercussions for the working classes of the entire city. When the Thames was closed to river traffic by ice, not only were the dock workers out of work, but their wives were obligated to enter the labor market in order to supplement the household income. The sudden glut of presumably cheap labor caused problems for many of the city's workers.[4]

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[2]Gareth Stedman Jones, *Outcast London. A Study in the Relationship between Classes in Victorian Society*, (London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1971), p.48.

[3]*Ibid.*

[4]*Ibid.*

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Robertson, Hugh. *The Research Essay. A Guide to Essays and Papers.* 3rd. ed. Toronto: McGraw Hill Ryerson, 1995.

Tosh, John. *The Pursuit of History. Aims Methods and New Directions in the Study of Modern History.* 2nd. ed. London: Longman, 1991.

Turabian, Kate. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. 6th. ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996.