Introduction - Studying History at University

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7.1.1.5 Anonymous work
7.1.1.6 Edited or compiled work without an author
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7.1.2.2 Article in a journal paginated by issue
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7.1.4 ELECTRONIC SOURCES
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7.2.1 Books
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7.2.1.2 Two or more authors
7.2.1.3 Author's name in the title
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7.2.1.8 Multivolume work
7.2.1.9 Article in a collection or anthology
7.2.2 Periodicals
7.2.2.1 Article in a journal paginated by volume
7.2.2.2 Article in a journal paginated by issue
7.2.3 Article in a popular magazine
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8. SAMPLE BIBLIOGRAPHY
Introduction - Studying History at University

When you come to university and you have finally decided to register for history as one of the subjects to study during your next four years of education, you will have many reasons for making this choice. You may have favoured history as a subject at school, your general interest may be one about the past, you also might be quite interested in understanding the present, which is impossible without a deep knowledge of the past. Whatever your reasons are, you have made the choice to engage with and in this academic discipline over the next four years. The next question to be answered then, is the one about the History Department’s role in meeting these expectations. The following pages will explain to you the academic offerings in the department and the ways and methods used to study history at university. The rules set out in this booklet are therefore binding, that is obligatory to both, you the student, and the respective lecturers.

Perhaps the most important difference from your experience at school, is that history at University is actively DONE; it is not longer a subject, where you have studied your textbook and memorised facts and knowledge about the past. At university the process of knowledge acquisition is a much more active one, a process in which you will be actively engaging. In fact, after four years at University you will not merely have gathered more detailed knowledge about the past; you will have learnt how to generate such knowledge, and how to investigate historical events and developments. You will study the methods of making/doing history. Finally you will be taught the assemblage of this new knowledge into coherent narratives, that which finally makes history History.

In short, at university, the focus shifts from an approach of merely looking at history as it unfolded over the centuries to one where students actively engage in the researching and representing of history. In other words, you will be taught the craft of history, how to read, dissect, criticise, construct, recount and finally write history. This means that after four years at UNnam you will be a historian yourself.

All of this requires your active participation over the following four years of studying History at University.

Courses offered

The courses offered in the History Department at UNnam have been structured in such a way that you will, consecutively and progressively, acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to make a success of your studies in history. Let us explain these then. The required competencies will be taught specifically AND assessed, either as such or in context.

First year:

**African Civilisation**: this course aims at introducing you to the great history of one of the oldest African empires with an uninterrupted, recorded history of well over three thousand years - Ethiopia. You will get to know the outline of the history of Ethiopia, learn about its deep Christian and Islamic traditions, its archaeology, how it (successfully) resisted colonialism and its modernisation as one of the first African nation-states. During the course you will be required to read widely on your own; some basic study-skills are offered, and you will be gradually getting into the mode of active class-room participation.
Competencies: active class-room participation; critical reading skills; note-taking/paraphrasing; operating the library system and basic electronic information retrieval.

History: Images, Tools and Concepts: this is a course that was devised to introduce you to the methods and the concepts of History and Archaeology and that you need to master. This course is of such importance that you MUST pass it before you are allowed to continue with any other courses in the History Department. Once you have accomplished the two first year courses, there is NO reason why you should not successfully complete your historical studies.

Competencies: a basic understanding of ALL skills needed to DO history as set out in this departmental study-guide: sound basic knowledge of research techniques, writing and referencing as practised in History; familiarity with archives and libraries, other repositories of historical sources, mastery of historical concepts and terminology. In archaeology: basic components of archaeological record, natural and cultural processes that form the archaeological record, methods, terminology, awareness of social and political importance of discipline.

Second year:

The Making of the Atlantic World is a course that aims at introducing you to African, European and American History by looking at the topic of slavery and how this historical phenomenon influenced the historical trajectories and interdependence of the three continents. You will be expected to read widely; this in turn will then flow into the writing of your assignments.

Competencies: to understand the reasons why slavery was widely adopted in the Americas, the nature of slave systems throughout the Americas, the link between slavery and capitalism and the impact of slavery on societies in the Americas. Paraphrasing / note-taking and summing-up an argument are the practical skills that you will need to master in this course.

Early Southern African History explores the human beginnings and the economic, social and political lives of the various pre-colonial peoples of Southern Africa and the rise of pre-colonial states. The course uses Archaeology and Historical Linguistics as the main methods of investigating the pre-colonial history of Southern Africa.

Competencies: By the completion of the course students should be competent in the following areas: critical reading of texts; identifying facts versus opinions; note taking, referencing and writing of a history assignment with an emphasis on library research skills; compilation of a bibliography, getting around plagiarism.

Capitalism, Colonialism and Western Domination: the Foundations of Globalisation introduces you, following up on the slavery topic of the first semester, how the present-day globalising world has developed. You will explore colonialism, capitalism and Western imperialism promoted the growth of Western domination and contributed to the creation of a dependent Third World. A key issue is to address the question whether the movement of ideas, goods, technologies and people from early times onwards comprised a ‘world system’, much the same as, or fundamentally different from the world shaped by European expansion since 1500.

Competencies: an emphasis will be on wide critical reading of historiographic material; understanding of historical processes as they unfolded over the centuries, creating the present globalised world; familiarity with general concepts and theories relating to these processes (dependency theory, modernisation, etc.). Ability to paraphrase and formulate in your own words.
Third year:

Colonial and post-colonial southern Africa; focuses on the period 1806 to 1990, British rule and expansion, Great Trek, Boer Republics, mineral revolution, African resistance, Union, ANC, SACP, PAC, National Party rule.

Competencies: familiarity with the standard literature in southern African historiography. Research and writing of historical essays.

Early Namibian History: offers the pre-colonial history of southwestern Africa with a focus on the 19th century and the events that finally resulted in formal German colonialism. Its archaeological section focuses on rock art, stone tools and the Stone Age.

Competencies: Book reviewing, advanced essay writing, familiarity with different types of primary sources.

20th Century Namibian History: The course aims to provide the student with profound and thorough knowledge of the major historical developments in 20th-century Namibian history. It takes as its point of departure the preceding course, Early Namibian history, and will start off with the last phase of German colonialism after the colony had been pacified. The central theme of the course will be the (i) the consolidation of settler control, (ii) the growth of local resistance and renewed ethnic identity formation after the crushing defeat inflicted by German military forces, (iii) migrant labour, (iv) the growth of incipient nationalism and (v) the liberation struggle until independence in 1990.

Competencies: book-review writing, advanced referencing skills, advanced writing/researching skills; working the archives. A knowledge of the standard literature on 20th century Namibian history will be expected.

Fourth year:

Historiography: systematic study of the evolution of historical writing and the growing links that history as a discipline developed with other disciplines, e.g. anthropology.

Competencies: higher level argumentation and abstraction, analysis and conceptual thinking.

Public History: The objective of this course is to identify and critically unravel the meaning of history as it is presented to the public. The course addresses the following questions: how do public institutions such as museums present history to the visitor? What methods are used to achieve this end? Can objectivity be attained in public presentations of history? There will be debates on what is remembered, what constitutes a common memory and how public memory is created and maintained? The course also offers readings of autobiographies of Namibians. It examines the history of museums in general and Namibian museums in particular and addresses the relevance of the concept of a museum in an independent Namibia.

Competencies: sound knowledge and command of primary archival evidence from archives; use of non-text sources of information; ability to review literature.

Research Thesis:

Competencies: it is expected that students master the accumulated skills taught in the previous three years. It is also assumed that students know the core literature relating to Namibian history.
1. ASSIGNMENTS IN HISTORY

The reading and writing projects assigned to you in a history course will give you opportunities not only to learn more about historical issues, events, and people but also to act as a historian by contributing your own ideas to the field. This section begins with a discussion of critical reading; reading is, after all, the assignment you will encounter most frequently in your history courses. This is followed by a review of the most common types of short writing assignments you might encounter—ranging from summaries, book reviews, and annotated bibliographies to short papers and historiographic essays— with suggestions for some general ways of approaching these assignments. The section ends with a discussion of essay exams.

1. READING CRITICALLY

History courses typically require a great deal of reading from a wide variety of sources. If your lecturer has assigned a textbook, you will probably be expected to read a chapter or two each week. You may also be asked to read a variety of secondary sources, including articles from scholarly journals or books about a particular aspect of your topic. Lecturers may also assign primary sources, ranging inter alia, from legal documents to newspaper accounts. Furthermore, if you are writing a research paper, you will need to find, read, and analyze a variety of sources pertaining to your topic that are not part of the reading assigned to the whole class.

Since reading is such an important assignment, it is essential to give serious consideration to how you read. Reading for a history course is not like reading a novel; it is not enough to skim each page once and get the gist of the story. In fact, as you do your reading assignments, you must accomplish several tasks: you need not only to understand the content of what you are reading but also to analyze its significance, evaluate its usefulness, and synthesize all of your reading into one coherent picture of the topic you are studying. Careful and critical reading is crucial both for active and intelligent participation in class discussion and for writing effective papers.

The best way to become a careful and critical reader is to become an active reader, constantly asking questions of the texts you are reading. Following are some questions you should ask of the sources you read.

1.1. What can this source tell me?

What does the title tell you about what the source covers? What purpose does the author layout in the introduction? If the source is a book, what topics are presented in the table of contents?

1.2 Is the source primary or secondary?

Both primary and secondary sources can provide valuable information; however, they provide different kinds of information. If you are studying nineteenth-century Namibian history, for example, primary sources such as the diaries or letters of missionaries and traders can provide firsthand information about the thoughts, feelings, and daily lives of the people who lived then. Primary sources would be less useful, however, in helping you to understand the larger historical developments of this era. To get a better understanding of this time, you might turn to secondary sources in which historians offer a broader perspective on major events and developments.

1.3 When was the source published?

As a general rule, more recently published sources usually contain the latest in historical research, while older sources may lack the benefits of new theories, information and changing perspectives. You should not assume, however, that newer interpretations are always better; some older works have contributed significantly to the field and may offer interpretations that are still influential. (As you become more experienced in historical}
research, you will be able to determine which older sources are still useful) Moreover, older sources might offer a historical perspective on interpretations of an issue that prevailed at a particular time and consequently, allows us to track the changes that have taken place over time.

1.4 Can I trust this internet source?

Of course, this is an important question to ask of any source, as Internet sources present special problems. The most significant difficulty that students encounter when trying to evaluate an Internet source is that, while articles in scholarly journals and books from academic presses are carefully reviewed by other scholars in the field, anyone with the right software can post information on the Internet. Students should therefore be especially careful to determine the reliability of their Internet sources: Is the author affiliated with a college or university? Is the article's Web site affiliated with an academic institution, press, or journal? If you are unsure of your source, it is best to consult your lecturer or a reference librarian.

1.5 Does the author provide sufficient and logical support for his or her thesis?

Any book or article makes an argument in support of a thesis. Once you have identified the thesis, you should evaluate the evidence the author uses to support it. You may not be in a position to judge the accuracy of the evidence, although you will build expertise as you continue to read about the subject. You can, however, evaluate the way in which the author uses the evidence he or she presents. You might ask yourself whether the evidence logically supports the author's point. You should also consider how the author deals with counter-evidence. For example, the book by C. Leys & J. Saul, The double-edged sword: SWAPO's liberation struggle has as its thesis that though SWAPO fought for, and achieved independence for Namibia, there is a darker side that reflects the movement's intolerance of opposition. This raises questions over its high ideals and commitment to democracy and justice. Assess the authors' arguments and consider evidence that ran counter to their thesis.

You should also ask whether the same facts could be interpreted in another way to support a different thesis. For example, G. Stanley Hall, a prominent American psychologist of the early twentieth century, amassed evidence that demonstrated a correlation between a woman's educational level and the number of children she had: women who attended colleges and universities had fewer children than their less-educated sisters. From these facts, he concluded that higher education caused sterility in women. A modern historian looking at the same evidence might conclude that education allowed women to become economically independent, freed them from the necessity of forming early marriages, and allowed them to pursue careers other than raising children.

1.6 What is the author's viewpoint and background?

Authors write from particular points of view that are determined by many factors, including their personalities, interests, and experiences. Introductions and prefaces can help you determine how an author has approached the subject and alert you to background that might have influenced his or her positions or interpretations. For example, the autobiography of former president S. Nujoma, tells the story of Namibia's struggle for independence from his point of view. His beliefs, experiences and personality strongly affects the way the book was written.

1.7 How does the source compare with others I have consulted?

Does the source add to your knowledge of the subject? How is it different from other sources you have read? Does the author contradict or disagree with others who have written on the subject? If so, which arguments or interpretations do you find most convincing?
2. WRITING HISTORY PAPERS

Aside from research papers, which will be discussed in a separate section, the most common writing assignments you will encounter are summaries, book reviews, annotated bibliographies, short essays, and historiographic essays. Each requires a slightly different approach. Summaries and book reviews are the two most important tools that you need to master for the crafting of a history assignment.

a. Summaries

Your lecturer might ask you to summarize a document, an article, or a section of a book. Because summarizing requires you to condense what you have read and put the author’s ideas into your own words, it helps ensure that you have understood and digested the material. A summary (sometimes called a précis) should describe the author’s main point, or thesis, and key evidence used to support it. A summary, then, essentially reports the content of the text; it should not include your critical analysis of the text.

b. Book reviews

A book review is not the same thing as a book report, which simply summarizes the content of a book. When writing a book review, you not only report on the content of the book but also assess its strengths and weaknesses. Students sometimes feel unqualified to write a book review; after all, the author of the book is a professional historian. However, even if you cannot write from the same level of experience and knowledge as the author, you can write an effective review if you understand what the assignment requires.

In writing a review you do not just relate whether or not you liked the book; you also tell your readers why you liked or disliked it. It is not enough to say, "This book is interesting"; you need to explain why it is interesting. Similarly, it is not enough to report that you disliked a book; you must explain your reaction. Did you find the book unconvincing because the author did not supply enough evidence to support his or her assertions? Or did you disagree with the book’s underlying assumptions?

To understand your own reaction to the book, you need to read it carefully and critically.

As a critical reader, you are not passive; you should ask questions of the book and note reactions as you read. Your book review then discusses those questions and reactions.

Summarize the book and relate the author’s main point or thesis.

- Describe the author’s viewpoint and purpose for writing; note any aspects of the author’s background that are important for understanding the book.
- Note the most important evidence the author presents to support his or her thesis.
- Evaluate the author’s use of evidence, and describe how he or she deals with counterevidence.
- Is the book’s argument convincing?
- Compare this book with other books or articles you have read on the same subject.
- Conclude with a final evaluation of the book. You might discuss who would find this book useful and why.
NOTE: *Critical* does not mean negative. If a book is well written and presents an original thesis supported by convincing evidence, say so. A good book review does not have to be negative; it does have to be fair and analytical.

HINT: Information about a book’s central thesis can usually be obtained by reading the information on the dust jacket at the back, or reading reviews in journals, where you will find more about the book’s strengths and weaknesses. In some books the introduction provides information about other books that deal with the same or related topics.

2.1 **ANALYSE THE ASSIGNMENT CAREFULLY.**

What will you need to know in order to write this paper? Make sure you identify and understand all the parts of the assignment. You should also be careful to write about the topic that has actually been assigned. Avoid issues and aspects that are not covered by the assignment.

2.2 **CONSTRUCT AN ARGUMENT IN SUPPORT OF A THESIS.**

A short essay, like any paper in history, should have a thesis that is supported by evidence presented in the body of the essay. Your thesis reflects what you have concluded about the issue after careful reflection on the assignment and any reading that you have done for it. What is essential is that the students be able to support their theses with evidence taken from the texts. It is not enough simply to make an assertion and expect readers to agree.

2.3 **RESPOND TO COUNTEREVIDENCE.**

Acknowledging counterevidence - information that does not support your argument - will not weaken your paper. On the contrary, if you address counterevidence effectively, you strengthen your argument by showing why it is legitimate despite information that seems to contradict it. In either case, your argument must be based on evidence and counterevidence contained in the relevant texts, not merely on your own "gut feelings." When reading texts, do not simply and only look for evidence that supports your own beliefs and outlook. Also look for evidence which does not support your argument and might even disagree with it.

2.4 **REVISING AND EDITING YOUR PAPER**

One of the biggest mistakes that students make with any writing assignment is to leave themselves too little time to revise and edit their work. Although some students take a rather perverse pride in their ability to write a passable paper the night before it is due, the resulting work is never of the highest caliber and usually bears the hallmarks of careless writing: sloppy mistakes in reasoning, awkward constructions, poor word choice, and lack of clear organization, not to mention spelling and grammar mistakes. To write an effective history paper, you must allow yourself time to revise your paper.

When you revise, you need to read your paper critically, as if it were someone else’s work. You should read for logic and clarity. You should make sure that your evidence is sufficient and that it supports your thesis. You should also look for wordiness and awkward sentence structure, for repetition and cliche. You must be willing to rearrange the order of material. Do additional research to support weak points in your argument, and even change your entire thesis, if necessary. Obviously, you need to allow plenty of time for this part of the writing process, which may involve several drafts of the paper.
NOTE: Running the spell checker and grammar checker on your computer is not the same as revising your paper. Moreover, running the spell checker will not pick up incorrectly used homophones (for example, their, there, and they're). Nor should you rely on your grammar checker to catch every mistake. Always edit and proof read the final copy of your paper carefully; your instructor will not look kindly on a paper that is full of typographical, grammar, and spelling errors.
3. TAKING ESSAY EXAMS

The essays you write for an exam will necessarily be shorter than the papers you write for your course, but they should follow the same basic format. In other words, an exam essay should begin with a thesis, stated clearly in the first paragraph, followed by several paragraphs in which you provide evidence supporting your thesis, and end with a conclusion. The difficulty, of course, is that you will be writing this essay under pressure, in a limited period of time, and without the opportunity to check the accuracy of your data. Here are some suggestions for preparing to write a successful essay on a history exam.

3.1 PREPARING FOR THE EXAMINATION

The best preparation for an exam does not begin the day, or even the week, before the exam but takes place throughout the semester. Careful reading of the texts and periodic review of your notes on a weekly basis will ensure that you have a firm grasp of the material come exam time. Throughout the semester, you should do the following.

- Attend class regularly and take good notes. It is not necessary, of course, to write down everything your lecturer says. When taking notes, you should listen for the instructor’s main points and note the evidence that he or she gives to support those points. (You will discover that lectures usually follow the same format as a good essay.) Follow the same suggestions for a discussion class; your classmates will often make important points about the material you are studying.

- Review your notes regularly, preferably after each class. If you review your notes while the class is fresh in your mind, it will be easier for you to notice places where the notes are unclear. Mark these places and clarify confusing points as soon as possible, either by researching the issue yourself or by asking your professor.

- Refer to your syllabus throughout the semester. Many lecturers provide detailed syllabi that state the themes for each section of the course. Use this as a guide for your own studying and thinking about the course material.

- Take careful notes on the material you are reading for the course. Keep in mind that simply copying long sections from your texts is not very useful in ensuring that you have understood the material. It will be much more useful for you to take notes in the form of summaries.

- If one is not assigned for the course, consider keeping an academic journal. In your journal, record important points about the material you are reading, any questions you want to answer or issues you would like to raise, important ideas suggested by class discussions, and so on. You can use the journal to track your growing knowledge of the material you are studying.

3.2 THE WEEK BEFORE THE EXAMINATION

- Review your notes, syllabi, and texts. Identify the most important themes and issues of the course and assemble the evidence that elucidates those themes.

- Imagine that you are the lecturer faced with the task of setting the exam for this course. What questions would you ask? Framing your own exam questions and answering them can be a useful way of organizing your thoughts.
3.3 TAKING THE EXAMINATIONS

BEFORE YOU WRITE. Do not begin to write right away. This is probably the biggest mistake that students make in essay exams.

Before you write, do the following:

- Read the exam carefully. Make sure you understand what each question is really asking. You will not gain points by scribbling down everything you know about the question or the issue at stake.

- If you are offered a choice, make sure you answer the question you can answer best. This may not always be the one you are drawn to first. Be sure that you can cite several pieces of evidence in support of your thesis.

- Take the time to organise your thoughts. Jot down a quick outline for your essay, stating the thesis and listing the evidence you will provide to support that thesis.

3.4 WRITING THE ESSAY. Once you are ready to write, your essay should follow the same format as any other history essay.

- Begin by stating your thesis. Do not waste time restating the question-your teacher knows what he or she asked.

- Cite the evidence that supports your thesis. If you are aware of any counterevidence, make sure you discuss it.

- Be sure you stick to the point. Do not go off on interesting tangents that are irrelevant to the question. Referring frequently to your outline will help you keep on track.

- Tie your essay together by stating your conclusions.
4. WRITING AN ASSIGNMENT/A RESEARCH PAPER

A research paper, like a short essay, usually takes the form of an argument with a thesis supported by evidence. It is different from a short essay, however, in several ways. A research paper is more substantial, usually at least fifteen pages and often much longer. More important, a research paper, as its name implies, requires that you supplement required readings for the course with information from the library and other sources.

Students often find such assignments intimidating, especially when faced with the task of defining an own area of investigation. However, when you choose your own research topic, you are engaged in the practice of history at a much more sophisticated level. You are, in fact, doing the same work that a professional historian does: answering the questions you yourself have posed about a subject that you find compelling or problematic. Following is some advice to consider before you begin a research project.

4.1 THINKING ABOUT YOUR TOPIC

An assignment/a research paper represents a significant investment of time and effort. Before you begin, therefore, you should think very carefully not only about your interests but also about the feasibility of your proposed topic.

4.1.1 CHOOSE A TOPIC THAT INTERESTS YOU. Start with the texts assigned for your class and find a general area that appeals to you. To begin with, your subject can be relatively broad, for example, “the Oorlam migration”; you will not know what problems, issues, and questions exist within the larger framework of the broad topic until you familiarize yourself with the general subject.

In deciding on a topic, you should also think about what sources are available to you. For example, you might decide that it would be interesting to examine the views of migrant labourers during the colonial period, but if you cannot obtain enough sources of information on this subject, or if they are available only in a language you cannot read, this will not be a workable topic.

4.1.2 START YOUR RESEARCH EARLY. The day you receive the assignment is not too soon to begin your research. Anticipate problems in gathering your sources: other people may have borrowed the books you need, or you may have to travel to other libraries to use their collections. If you are interested in a topic for which your own library has only limited sources, you might be able to borrow books from other colleges and universities on interlibrary loan. But to ensure that you get your books in time, you will need to make your request early.

NOTE: If you know little about the topic you plan to research, it may be advisable to do some preliminary reading first. An encyclopedia is often a good place to start. You may also look at secondary literature, which may contain information about your topic in one of its chapters. Look in the table of contents or the index for information/references to or about your topic.

4.2 TAKING EFFECTIVE RESEARCH NOTES

Your final paper will be only as good as the notes you take. There is no right or wrong way to take notes for a research paper. Many people favor 4" x 6" or 5" x 8" index cards, which can be arranged and rearranged easily. Others prefer to use notebooks or legal pads. If you have a laptop computer, you may wish to type your notes directly into an electronic file. This can be especially useful if you use a word processing program with a
global search function so that you can use the search command to find key words quickly wherever they appear in your notes. But whatever method you use, there are several things you can do to make your note taking more effective.

4.2.1 ALWAYS RECORD COMPLETE BIBLIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR ANY SOURCE YOU CONSULT. Nothing is more frustrating than to return all your books to the library, only to discover that you are missing authors’ names, dates of publication, or other information you will need for your bibliography. Collect the bibliographic information in a uniform mode. See sections 7 and 8 of this guide for more precise instructions on how to do this.

4.2.2 TAKE MOST OF YOUR NOTES IN THE FORM OF SUMMARIES. If you take notes word for word from your source, you are simply acting as a human photocopier. Your goal should be to digest the information presented in your sources and make it your own. It is therefore much more useful to read carefully and thoughtfully, close the book and summarize in your own words the section you have read. Then compare your summary with the original, noting any important points that you missed or anything that you misunderstood. This type of note taking not only will ensure that you really understand the material but also will help you avoid plagiarism.

NOTE: Even if you are summarizing, you must note the source of your information and cite the source in your paper. Students sometimes assume, erroneously, that they need to document only direct quotations. In fact, "borrowing" ideas from other writers without documenting them is a form of plagiarism every bit as serious as stealing other writers' words. Any time that you use information derived from another person's work, adopt someone else's interpretation, or build on another writer's ideas, you must acknowledge your source. (See further down in this text for a fuller discussion of avoiding plagiarism.)

4.2.3 AVOID THE MISCONCEPTION THAT "TO PHOTOCOPY IS TO KNOW."

Photocopying material on your topic is no substitute for reading and understanding it. Photocopying doesn't save time; in fact, it's often a time waster. Eventually, you will have to read and interpret the photocopied material. And when you do, you may notice that you have copied irrelevant material and missed important information.

4.2.4 COPY QUOTATIONS ACCURATELY.

If you do decide to quote directly from a source, make sure you copy the words and punctuation of your source exactly; do not try to improve the wording of the original or correct the spelling or grammar. You may, however, alert your readers to an error in spelling or grammar by recording the error as it appears in the source and then noting the mistake by adding the Latin word *sic* in brackets, as follows: "Do not correct misspelled *sic* words."

4.3 GETTING READY TO WRITE

A great deal of the work you do in writing a research paper happens *before* you begin to write your first draft. Following are some important steps that precede the drafting stage.
4.3.1 USE BOTH PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES.

In a research paper, you will need to consult primary sources, letters, diaries, original documents, oral sources and so on) from the period you are studying. You will also want to consult secondary sources to become familiar with the ways in which other historians have interpreted this material. Do not confine your research to books; important recent research is often found in articles in scholarly journals. Your instructor will be able to direct you to additional sources. Librarians are also extremely helpful in tracking down both printed and Internet materials.

4.3.2 USE BOTH PRINT AND INTERNET SOURCES.

The Internet has had a profound impact on the ways in which students do research; through the Internet, students in even the smallest colleges in the most isolated settings can have access to a wide variety of historical materials. However, it is important to remember that many primary and secondary sources are not yet available on the Internet. Students who rely solely on electronic media will inevitably miss many fundamental and indispensable sources. It is vital, therefore, that you consult both electronic and print sources in your research.

4.3.3 GENERATE A WORKING BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The first step in finding a topic for your research paper is to generate a working bibliography. You should begin your search in the library. If your lecturer has suggested sources, make sure you consult them at the outset of your research. Invaluable and often overlooked resources are reference librarians, who can direct you to important journals, bibliographies, and other research tools. Reference librarians can also teach you how to conduct an online search by using key words to find recent books and journal articles in your library's collection. If your library has a card catalog, be sure to check it as well; many college libraries are still in the process of computerizing their holdings, and you may overlook important sources if you rely solely on the computer. You may also be able to use your library's computer to search the holdings of nearby affiliated libraries; and, of course, you can conduct an Internet search as well.

Once you have found some preliminary sources, you can use their notes and bibliographies as a guide for gathering additional material.

NOTE: Do not make generating a bibliography an end in itself - you still need to read the books and articles you have found. Your final bibliography should include only the materials you have read and found useful in writing your paper.

A bibliography is a listing of books on a particular topic, usually arranged alphabetically by authors' last names. In addition to providing bibliographic information, an annotated bibliography briefly summarizes each book or article and assesses its value for the topic under discussion. Such bibliographies are a useful tool whenever you are required to pull together from your readings large amounts of information; bibliographies of this kind help you to organise and administer the collected large amounts of information and fact. In writing your entries for an annotated bibliography, keep in mind the same questions you would ask while writing a book review. Remember that entries in an annotated bibliography should be relatively short; you will not be able to write a full analysis of a book or article. Following is an example of an annotated bibliography entry:


This book explores the relationship between Japan and the United States in the mid-nineteenth century, focusing on the dramatic differences between the two
cultures and the uneasiness, confusion, and misunderstandings that arose from those differences. In a short introductory history, Duus discusses Japanese isolationism; the military and economic factors that led the United States to forcefully open relations with Japan; and the ways in which the Japanese observed and interpreted Americans and their culture. The main body of the text comprises a series of documents, including political pamphlets, autobiographies, eyewitness accounts, broadsheets, and prints. The inclusion of both Japanese and American views of Japan invites a comparison of mutual misunderstandings.

4.3.4 NARROW YOUR SUBJECT DOWN TO A WORKABLE TOPIC.

Once you have begun to gather materials related to your area of interest, you will need to narrow your subject down to a workable topic. After all, you will not be able to write effectively on a broad topic like "The impact of the migrant labour system on the Namibian economy during the colonial period" within the length of a typical research paper of about 15 pages. Such a topic is too broad and requires compiling statistical information, which is too specialized for an undergraduate research paper. A topic like "The origins and development of the migrant labour system" may be a more realistic one to choose, though even this topic would need a lot of research possibly too extensive to be covered within the required number of pages.

Narrowing your topic to one that is feasible always begins with reading; however, simply reading everything you can find about migrant labour will not help you find a suitable research topic. Your reading must be active, not passive. In other words, you must be actively engaged in a dialogue with the texts you are reading, constantly asking questions that direct your reading.

A history paper usually begins with a question, and you can begin to narrow your broad subject by rephrasing your topic as a series of questions. What is it that you want to know about "migrant labour"? Are you interested in the origins of the system, the effect migrant labour had on family life, working conditions experienced by migrant workers or how workers were affected by labour laws? List those questions and try to answer them as you read. As you begin to answer some of your initial questions, you will gain a deeper knowledge of your subject, and more detailed questions will arise. If you read actively in this way, you will discover which questions have been thoroughly discussed and which are less well studied. You will find the areas in which historians have reached consensus and questions that are still the subject of debate. To put it differently, wide reading will make you aware of issues about which a lot of information is available, as well as others about which little is known or may be lacking altogether. It is here that you may feel you can say something both interesting and original.

Finally, write as you read. Most scholars would agree that reading and writing are interactive processes. Writing will help you clarify your thoughts about what you are reading and provide direction for your research. You will also become aware of the need for more information on topics as you write about them.

4.3.5 MAKE AN OUTLINE.

The preliminary writing that you do for your research paper - listing questions, taking notes, jotting down ideas, and so on - is intended to stimulate and clarify your thinking and thereby help you narrow your initial broad interests into a workable paper topic. The end result is the generation of a working thesis: a single sentence in which you state what you have concluded about your topic. Once you know what argument you wish to make and have stated it in a working thesis, it is useful to sketch out the body of your paper in the form of an outline.

Some students have been trained to write formal outlines with roman numerals and various subheadings. If
this method works for you, by all means use it. However, many students find formal outlines too constraining: one student said she can write such an outline only after her paper is written, which of course defeats the purpose.

The most important function of an outline is to provide a guide that notes the points you wish to cover and the order in which you plan to cover them. A good outline will help you present the evidence that supports your thesis as a convincing argument.

You might begin an informal outline by writing down the main points you want to discuss. These will form the topic sentences of paragraphs. Underneath each main point, list the evidence that supports it. Outlining your paper in this way will make readily apparent any points for which you lack sufficient evidence. It will also help ensure that your evidence is organized in a logical and orderly manner and that each idea is connected to those that precede and follow it.

NOTE: Remember that an outline is a tool; it is not divinely ordained nor fixed in stone. As you continue to think and write about your subject, you may discover new material or change your mind about the significance of certain material. You may even change your thesis (which is why your thesis at this stage is a working thesis rather than a final one). When this happens, you must be willing to revise your outline too.

4.4 REVISING YOUR RESEARCH PAPER

A research paper is a complex project. You need to analyze your sources, synthesize information, organize your thoughts, and present them in a coherent and persuasive manner. As with a short essay, you must construct an argument with a thesis and supporting evidence, but in the case of a research paper, you will need to analyze and synthesize much more material. You will probably have more counterevidence to address as well. It is unrealistic to expect that one or two drafts will be sufficient to do justice to the project. Give yourself time to revise your writing. More information pertaining to this will be offered in the next section.
5. CONVENTIONS OF WRITING IN HISTORY

Each academic discipline has its own practices, or conventions, that people writing in the discipline follow. Following these conventions will make it easier for you to participate in an academic "conversation" in history.

History students are most often asked to write two types of papers: assignments and research papers. Although these are different in some respects, they require similar approaches. The material from which assignments and research papers are constructed, are called sources in History. We distinguish between primary and secondary sources; all of this has been elaborated upon in section 4.3.1

ASSIGNMENTS AND RESEARCH PAPERS

History papers usually include a narrative that recounts "what happened." Narrative is a basic element of history writing, and it is crucial that your account of past events is accurate. Nevertheless, a series of factual statements about the past, however precise they may be, does not constitute a history paper. You will not have written a history paper if you report that something (for example, the coming of German colonialism, the death of king Mandume, the rise of Islam) happened. Rather, a history paper explores how and why something happened and explains its significance. In essence, when you write a paper in history, you are expected to interpret sources and, using those interpretations, to come to a conclusion about the meaning and significance of your subject. You express this conclusion in the main point, or thesis, of your paper. To support your thesis, you offer evidence and respond to counterevidence, information that seems to contradict or weaken your thesis.

Remember that professional historians, working from the same sources, often form very different opinions about them. Thus it is unlikely that there is one "correct" interpretation of any topic that you will write about. You do, however, need to convince readers that your interpretation is a valid one. You will be able to do this only if you have provided concrete evidence that supports your thesis and have responded honestly to opposing positions.

HISTORIOGRAPHIC ESSAYS

A historiographic essay is one in which you, acting as a historian, study the work of other historians. When you write a historiographic essay, you identify, compare, and evaluate the viewpoints of two or more historians writing on the same subject. Such an essay can take several forms. You might be asked, for example, to study the work of historians who lived during or near the time in which a particular event happened - for example, to explore the ways in which contemporary Chinese historians wrote about the Boxer Rebellion. A different kind of historiographic essay might require that you look at the ways in which historians have treated the same topic over time. In Namibian history, for example, some historians have criticised the colonial economic system as one of capitalist exploitation (i.e. that it was not socialist), while others criticised it for being racist. A historiographic essay focuses attention not on a historical event itself, but rather on how historians have interpreted that event.

A historiographic essay combines some of the features of a book review with those of a short essay. You should begin by reading critically the texts containing historians' interpretations, keeping in mind the questions you would need to answer if you were going to write book reviews about them. You should not, however, treat the historiographic essay as two or three book reviews glued together. Rather, you should synthesize your material and construct an argument in support of a thesis. Following is a thesis from a student's essay on historians' interpretation of the colonial period of African history:
Historians have held dramatically different views about the importance of European colonial rule in Africa: Marxist historians, along with others who focus on economic issues, have tended to see the colonial period as an important turning point while cultural historians have maintained that the impact of the West on the ancient cultural traditions of Africa was superficial.

**Important warnings**

a. **Respect your subject.**

The people who lived in the past were not necessarily more ignorant or cruel (or, conversely, more innocent or moral) than we are. It is condescending, for example, to suggest that any intelligent or insightful person was "ahead of his or her time" (suggesting, of course, that he or she thought the same way we do).

b. **Do not generalize.**

Remember that groups are formed of individuals. Do not assume that everyone who lived in the past believed the same things or behaved the same way. Avoid broad generalizations, such as "the Middle Ages was an age of faith." At best such statements are cliches. More often than not they are also wrong.

c. **Avoid anachronism.**

An anachronistic statement is one in which an idea, event, person, or thing is represented in a way that is not consistent with its proper historical time. "Ancient peoples lacked the advantages of parliamentary democracy". This sentence includes an anachronism, as parliamentary democracy was only developed during the last two centuries and could, for this reason, not have been practiced by peoples living thousands of years ago. Also, it is anachronistic to judge ancient society by modern standards. In short, you should not import the values, beliefs, and practices of the present into the past. Try to understand the people and events of the past in their own contexts.

d. **Be aware of your own biases.**

We naturally choose to write about subjects that interest us. Historians should not however, let their own concerns and biases direct the way they interpret the past. A student of 19th century Namibian history, for example, might be dismayed by the legal, social, and economic limitations placed on women in that period. Reproaching African men for being "selfish and chauvinistic" during the 19th century, might forcefully express such a student's sense of indignation about what appears to modern eyes as unjust, but is not a useful approach for the historian, who tries to understand the viewpoints of people in the past in the social context of the period under study.

**5.1 THE INTRODUCTION AND THESIS OF YOUR ASSIGNMENT/PAPER/RESEARCH**

The introductory paragraph of your paper is in many ways the most important one and, therefore, the most difficult to write. In your introduction, you must (1) let your readers know what your paper is about (2) put the topic of your paper into context, and (3) state your thesis - the position you are going to take on the topic. You must also attract your readers' attention and interest. The opening paragraph, then, has to frame the rest of the paper, and it has to make readers want to continue reading.

There is no magic formula for writing an effective first paragraph. You should, however, keep these conventions in mind.
5.1.1 **DO NOT OPEN WITH A "GLOBAL" STATEMENT.**

Unsure of how to start, many students begin their papers with phrases like "Throughout history" or "From the beginning of time" or "People have always wondered about..." You should avoid broad generalizations like these. First, you cannot prove that they are true: how do you know what people have always thought or done? Second, these statements are so broad that they are virtually meaningless; they offer no specific points or details to interest readers. Finally, such statements are so general that they give readers no clue about the subject of your paper. In general, it is much more effective to begin with material that is specific to your topic.

5.1.2 **INCLUDE YOUR THESIS IN THE FIRST PARAGRAPH.**

If your opening sentence has been effective, it will make your readers want to know the main point of your paper, which you will state in the thesis. The introduction to a journal article or book may be long, even several paragraphs, and the author’s thesis may appear anywhere within it. Until you become very skilled in writing about history, however, it is best to keep your introduction short and to state your thesis in the first paragraph. Your thesis must be more than a description of your topic or a statement of fact; it should inform readers of your interpretation of the materials you have read and the conclusions you have reached.

5.1.3 **PLAN TO REWRITE YOUR OPENING PARAGRAPH.**

If you are having trouble beginning your paper, write a rough, temporary opening paragraph and return to it when you finish your first draft of the entire paper. The act of writing your draft will help you clarify your ideas, your topic, and your argument. It may also help solidify your thesis and your opening.

5.2 **THE BODY**

In your introduction, you present your subject and state your thesis. In subsequent paragraphs, you provide evidence for your thesis and answer any objections that could be made to it. The following advice will help you to write well-organized paragraphs and make your argument clear and convincing.

5.2.1 **BEGIN EACH PARAGRAPH WITH A TOPIC SENTENCE.**

Each paragraph should have one driving idea, which is usually asserted in the first sentence, or topic sentence. If you have made an outline, your topic sentences will be drawn from the list you made of the main points you wish to cover in your paper.

5.2.2 **MAKE CLEAR CONNECTIONS BETWEEN IDEAS.**

Each body paragraph provides evidence for your thesis in the form of examples, statistics, and so on. To be convincing, however, your evidence must be presented in a clear and well-organized way. Transitional words and phrases tell your readers how the individual statements in your paragraph are connected. To choose transitions that are appropriate, you will need to consider how your ideas are related to each other.

Following is a list of transitional words or phrases that you might use to indicate particular kinds of relationships.

5.2.2.1 **TO COMPARE:**

also, similarly, likewise
5.2.2.2 **TO CONTRAST:**

on the other hand, although, nevertheless, despite, on the contrary, still, yet regardless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, whereas, however, in spite of

5.2.2.3 **TO ADD OR INTENSIFY:**

also, in addition, moreover, furthermore, too, besides, and

5.2.2.4 **TO SHOW SEQUENCE:**

first (and any other numerical adjectives), last next, finally, subsequently, later, ultimately

5.2.2.5 **TO INDICATE AN EXAMPLE:**

for example, for instance, specifically

5.2.2.5 **TO INDICATE CAUSE-AND-EFFECT RELATIONSHIPS:**

consequently, as a result because, accordingly, thus, since, therefore, so

5.2.2.7 **DO NOT WANDER OFF THE SUBJECT.**

If you include a lot of irrelevant information, you will lose momentum and your readers will lose the thread of your argument. Be ruthless: eliminate all extraneous material from the final draft of your paper, however interesting it may be.

5.2.3 **ANTICIPATE AND RESPOND TO COUNTEREVIDENCE AND COUNTERARGUMENTS.**

Historical issues are seldom clear-cut, and historians often disagree with one another. Effective papers acknowledge disagreement and differing viewpoints. If you discover information that does not support your thesis, do not suppress it. It is important to acknowledge all of your data. You should try to explain to your readers why your interpretation is valid, despite the existence of counterevidence, but do not imply that your interpretation is stronger than it is by eliminating data or falsifying your information.

Remember, too, that it is important to treat opposing viewpoints with respect. It is perfectly legitimate to disagree with the interpretations of other historians. In disagreeing, however, you should never resort to name-calling, nor should you oversimplify or otherwise distort opposing points of view. It is important to understand opposing arguments and respond to them fairly.

5.3 **THE CONCLUSION**

Your paper should not come to an abrupt halt. Yet you do not need to conclude by summarizing everything that you have said in the body of the text. It is usually best to end your paper with a paragraph that states the most important conclusions you have reached about your subject and the reasons you think those conclusions are significant. You should avoid introducing new ideas or information in the conclusion. If an idea or fact is important to your argument you should introduce and discuss it earlier; if it is not you should leave it out altogether.

5.4 **CONSIDERING WORD CHOICE AND GRAMMAR**

Following are some major points to keep in mind while writing in history.
5.4.1 AVOID CONVERSATIONAL LANGUAGE, SLANG, AND JARGON.

Because history papers are usually formal, you should use formal language rather than conversational language and slang. For example, although it is perfectly acceptable in conversational English to say that someone "was a major player" in an event this expression is too informal for a history paper. In addition, slang often sounds anachronistic: historians do not usually describe an aggressive individual as being "in your face"; people are "killed:" not "bumped off." Words with double meanings should be used only in their conventional sense: use cool and hot to refer to temperature and radical to describe something extreme or on the political left. Awesome should generally be reserved for awe-inspiring things. You should also avoid jargon, or specialized language, which can often obscure your meaning.

5.4.2 MAKE YOUR LANGUAGE AS CLEAR AND SIMPLE AS POSSIBLE.

In an effort to sound sophisticated, students sometimes use a thesaurus to find a "more impressive" word. The danger of this approach is that the new word might not mean quite what you intended. In general you should use the simplest word that makes your meaning clear. Do not use a four-syllable word when a single syllable will do. Do not use five words (such as due to the influence of) where you can use one (because).

5.4.3 AVOID BIASED LANGUAGE.

Always take care to avoid words that are gender-biased or that have negative connotations for particular racial, ethnic, or religious groups. Obviously, you should never use expressions that are clearly pejorative. In addition, however, you should be aware that many words that were once acceptable are now deemed inappropriate. For example, the use of masculine words or pronouns to refer to both men and women, once a common practice, is now termed "sexist" by many. Use humankind or people rather than mankind, and do not use a masculine pronoun to refer to people of both genders. It is also important to realize that you cannot always rely on the books you are reading to alert you to biased language.

NOTE: You cannot of course, correct the language of your sources; if you are quoting directly, you must use the exact wording of your source, including any racist or sexist language. If you are paraphrasing or summarizing, you might want to use nonbiased language instead of biased language when it doesn’t distort the sense of the source. Otherwise, put biased terms in quotation marks to indicate to your readers that the words are your source’s, not yours.

5.4.4 TENSE

The events that historians write about took place in the past; therefore, historians conventionally use the past tense. Students are sometimes tempted to use the historical present tense for dramatic effect or to make the scene they are describing come alive, as in this example from a student paper:

The battle rages all around him, but the squire is brave and acquits himself well. He defends his lord fearlessly and kills two of the enemy. As the fighting ends, he kneels before his lord on the battlefield, the bodies of the dead and dying all around him. His lord draws his sword and taps it against the squire’s shoulders. The squire has proven his worth, and this is his reward; he is now a knight.

This use of the present may be a very effective device if you are writing fiction, but it is awkward in a history paper. First, readers might become confused about whether the events under discussion happened in the past or in the present, especially if the paper includes modern assessments of the issue. Second, use of the present makes it very easy for the writer to fall prey to anachronism. Perhaps more important, writing in the present sounds artificial; in normal conversation, we talk about events that happened in the past in the past
The present tense is used, however, when discussing the contents of documents, artefacts, or works of art because these still exist in the present. Note, for example, the appropriate use of past and present tenses in the following description:

_Columbus sailed across an "ocean sea" far greater than he initially imagined. The admiral's Journal tells us what Columbus thought he would find: a shorter expanse of water, peppered with hundreds of hospitable islands._

The events of the past are referred to in the past tense (sailed, imagined, thought), and the contents of the Journal are referred to in the present (tells).

5.4.5 VOICE

In general, historians prefer the active rather than the passive voice. In the active voice, the subject of the sentence is also the actor:

I do agree that colonialism was tantamount to genocide.

In the passive voice, the subject of the sentence is not the actor but is acted upon:

By some it is held that colonialism may have resulted in genocide.

The point here is that you should try at all times to be as direct and straightforward as possible, and not to hide behind vague assertions.

In addition, use of the passive voice in the expressions "it can be argued that" or "it has been argued that" is equivocal. The first expression suggests that the writer is unwilling to take responsibility for his or her arguments. If your evidence leads you to a certain conclusion, state it clearly; using passive expressions like "it can be argued that" suggests that you are not really sure that your evidence is convincing. Similarly, the expression "it has been argued that" confuses readers: Who has made this argument? How many people and in what context? Readers must have this information to evaluate your argument. Moreover, use of this expression can result in plagiarism. If someone or several persons have argued a particular point, you should identify them, in your text itself and in a citation.

This is not to say, however, that you should never use the passive voice. Here, for example, is a description of the Holocaust (verbs in the passive voice have been italicized):

_Hitler engaged in the systematic and ruthless murder of the Jewish people. In 1933, Jews were forbidden to hold public office; by 1935, they were deprived of citizenship. In all, over six million Jews were killed as part of Hitler's "final solution."_

In this passage, the writer wants to draw readers' attention to the recipients of the action - the six million Jews killed in the Holocaust. The persons acted upon are more important than the actor. The passive voice, which focuses attention on the victims, is therefore appropriate here. The passive voice, then, can be effective; but it
should be used only occasionally and for a specific reason.

5.4.6 USE OF THE PRONOUNS I, ME, AND YOU

Until recently, most professional historians used the pronouns I, me, and you sparingly, if at all. This convention has been changing, however, and these pronouns are beginning to appear more regularly in history books and journal articles. Although many instructors still prefer that students avoid personal pronouns whenever possible, an increasing number of supervisors find their use not only acceptable but actually preferable to more laboured constructions like "this evidence leads one to conclude that." Since the conventions governing the use of personal pronouns are in flux, it is best to consult your instructor about his or her preferences.
6. QUOTING AND DOCUMENTING SOURCES

Any history paper you write will be the result of your careful reading and analysis of primary and secondary sources. This section offers general guidance in incorporating source material into your writing through paraphrase and quotation. It also explains the conventions historians use to cite and document sources and will help you avoid the very serious offence of plagiarism.

6.1 USING QUOTATIONS

Quotations are an important part of writing in history. Quotations from primary sources provide evidence and support for your thesis. Quotations from secondary sources tell your readers that you are well informed about the current state of research on the issue about which you are writing. However, some students go to extremes, producing papers that are little more than a series of quotations loosely strung together. No matter how interesting and accurate the quotations, such a paper is no substitute for your own analysis and discussion of sources. In general, you should minimize your use of quotations, and you should choose the quotations you do use with great care.

The following guidelines will help you to decide when to quote and how to use quotations effectively.

6.1.1 DO NOT QUOTE IF YOU CAN PARAPHRASE.

Summarizing or paraphrasing in your own words is usually preferable to direct quotation; it demonstrates that you have digested the information from the source and made it your own. In particular, you should not quote directly if the quotation would provide only factual information. Look at this passage from Bede's *Ecclesiastical History*, followed by a paraphrase.

6.1.1.1 ORIGINAL PASSAGE

When our holy father Augustine, the beloved of God, died, his body was laid to rest at the entrance to the church of the holy Apostles Peter and Paul, since the church was not yet completed or consecrated. But as soon as it was dedicated, his body was brought inside and buried in the north porch with great honour. 1

6.1.1.2 PARAPHRASE

According to Bede, St. Augustine's burial had to be delayed because the church of Sts. Peter and Paul was still under construction at the time of his death.

Because the original passage is merely factual and not especially striking, the paraphrase would be preferable in a student paper.

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6.1.2 **ONLY QUOTE IF THE WORDS OF THE ORIGINAL ARE ESPECIALLY MEMORABLE.**

You might want to quote directly when your source says something in a particularly striking way. Read the following passage from the "Letter to the Grand Duchess Christina," in which Galileo argues that scriptural passages that describe physical phenomena need not be interpreted literally since the Bible is not a scientific text:

Now if the Holy Spirit has purposely neglected to teach us propositions of this sort [i.e., physical propositions] as irrelevant to the highest goal (that is, our salvation), how can anyone affirm that it is obligatory to take sides on them, and that one belief is required by faith, while the other side is erroneous? Can an opinion be heretical and yet have no concern with the salvation of souls? [...] I would say here something that was heard from an ecclesiastic of the most eminent degree: "That the intention of the Holy Ghost is to teach us how one goes to heaven, not how heaven goes."  

The quotation from the "eminent ecclesiastic" is memorable because of the play on words, which could not be duplicated in a summary or paraphrase. Galileo, then, chose an effective quotation.

You might also wish to quote when the original words are important to readers’ understanding of the author’s intentions or feelings. Look at the following passage from Plato’s *Apology*. The speaker is Socrates; he is addressing the jurors who have just condemned him to death.

> This much I ask from you: when my sons grow up, avenge yourselves by causing them the same kind of grief that I caused you. [...] Reproach them as I reproach you, that they do not care for the right things and think they are worthy when they are not worthy of anything. If you do this, I shall have been justly treated by you, and my sons also.

In this passage, the tone is as important as the content. It would be impossible to capture in a summary or paraphrase the irony of the original.

### 6.2 CONVENTIONS FOR USING QUOTATIONS AND FOR CITING

When you quote, you must follow the conventions for using quotation marks and integrating quotations in the text of your paper. Following are some important points to keep in mind. Quoting means the acknowledged use of someone else’s words, thoughts and ideas. Citing is when you indicate – in the footnote or in the endnote – where you found someone else’s words, thoughts and ideas; in other words the citation contains all the information on the source that you have used. Examples for this you have seen on this and the preceding page in sections 6.1.1.1 and 6.1.2.

6.2.1 **INDICATE WHERE YOUR QUOTATION BEGINS AND ENDS.**

If you quote a source, you should quote the source’s words *exactly*, and you should enclose the material from your source in quotation marks. If your quotation is more than four typed lines, you should set the quotation off by inditing it; this is called a *block quotation*. Typically, long quotations are preceded by an introductory sentence followed by a colon. You should use block quotations very sparingly, if at all. Frequent use of long quotations suggests that you have not really understood the material well enough to paraphrase. Moreover, a

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long quotation can be distracting, causing readers to lose the thread of your argument. You should therefore use a lengthy quotation only if you have a compelling reason to do so.

6.2.2 KEEP QUOTATIONS BRIEF

To keep quoted material to a minimum, you should condense quoted passages by using the ellipsis mark [..], which indicates that you have left out some of the original material. The preceding quotation from Plato’s Apology is an example of this method.

6.2.3 FRAME YOUR QUOTATION

Quotations from sources cannot simply be dropped into your paper; even if a quotation is appropriate to a point you are making, you cannot assume that its significance is immediately obvious to your readers. You should always make it clear to your readers how the quotation you have chosen supports your argument. This example is from a student paper on Judge Benjamin Lindsey, the founder of the first juvenile court in the United States:

Like most progressives, Lindsey was interested in social reform. "I found no 'problem of the children' that was not also the problem of their parents."4

It is not clear how the quotation from Lindsey illustrates the writer’s statement that Lindsey was interested in social reform. Are readers meant to assume that Lindsey wanted to remove children from the homes of unfit parents? Provide government support for indigent parents? Encourage state-funded family counselling?

In the revised version, the student frames the quotation in a way that makes its significance clear:

Noting that youthful offenders were often the product of criminal environments, Lindsey argued that even the most vigorous attempts to curb juvenile delinquency would fail until more sweeping social reforms eliminated the economic and social factors that led their parents to engage in illegal activities. Addressing the need to rehabilitate and re-educate adult criminals, he wrote: "I found no 'problem of the children' that was not also the problem of their parents." Thus, for Lindsey, the reform of the juvenile justice system was intrinsically linked to the reform of adult criminal courts.

In this revision, the significance of the quotation as it pertains to the writer’s argument is clear. The writer’s analysis before and after the quotation puts Lindsey’s words in context.

6.3 AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is a very serious academic offence. The penalties for plagiarism are always severe, ranging from an automatic FAIL in the course to temporary suspension or even permanent expulsion from the university. In some circumstances, plagiarism may even be a crime.

Although some individuals deliberately copy lengthy passages or even purchase whole papers, most student plagiarism stems not from dishonest intent but from lack of understanding about what exactly constitutes plagiarism. Most unintentional plagiarism can be traced to three sources: uncertainty about how to para-

phrase; confusion about when and how to cite sources; and carelessness in taking notes and downloading
Internet materials.

6.3.1 PARAPHRASING TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

Most students know that copying a passage word for word from a source is plagiarism. However, many are
unsure about how to paraphrase. Consider, for example, this passage from a textbook and the student
"paraphrase" that follows:

6.3.1.1 ORIGINAL PASSAGE

In the early twentieth century, most Latin American nations were characterized by two
classes separated by a great gulf. At the top were a small group of European-descended
white people, the *patrones* landlords or patrons, who, along with foreign investors,
owned the ranches, mines and plantations of each nation. Like the established families
of most societies elsewhere in the world, the patrones monopolized the wealth, social
prestige, education, and cultural attainments of their nations. Many of them aspired to
the ideal of nobility, with high standards of personal morality and a parental concern for
those who worked for them. Some patrones lived up to these ideals, but most
consciously or unconsciously, exploited their workers.\(^5\)

6.3.1.2 UNSUCCESSFUL "PARAPHRASE"

In the early part of this century most Latin American countries were typified by two classes
separated by a large chasm. At the top were a small group of white people, descended
from Europeans, called patrones. Along with foreign investors, the *patrones owned* the
plantations, ranches, and mines of their countries. Like aristocrats all over the world, the
patrones controlled the wealth, social status, education, and cultural achievements of their
countries. Many of them had high standards of morality and were concerned for their
workers, but most, consciously or unconsciously, abused their workers.

In this example, the writer’s attempt at paraphrase results in plagiarism, *despite the fact* that the second text
is not an exact copy of the original. The writer has used a thesaurus to find synonyms for several words -
*characterized* has become *typified*, *gulf* has been replaced by *chasm*, and *achievements* has been substituted
for *attainments*. In addition, several words or phrases in the original have been left out in the second version,
and the word order has occasionally been rearranged. Nevertheless, these changes are merely editorial; the
new paragraph is not significantly different from the original in either form or substance.

NOTE: This paragraph would be considered plagiarism *even if* the writer acknowledged the source of the
material; it is simply too close to the original to be considered the work of the student.

In a genuine paraphrase, the writer has thought about what the source says and digested it; once the writer
understands the content of the source, he or she can restate it in an entirely original way that reflects his or
her own wording and style. Consider, for example, this paraphrase:

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6.3.1.3 PARAPHRASE

The society of Latin America at the beginning of this century was sharply divided into two groups: the vast majority of the population, made up of the workers, and a wealthy minority, the *patrones*, who were descended from white Europeans. Although the *patrones* represented a very small segment of the population, they controlled the lion's share of their countries' wealth and enjoyed most of the social and educational advantages. Like their counterparts in Europe, many *patrones* adopted an attitude of paternalistic benevolence toward those who worked for them. Even if their concern was genuine, however, the *patrones* clearly reaped the rewards of their workers' labour.

This paraphrase is more successful; the writer has assimilated the content of the source and expressed it in his own words.

**NOTE:** You will save time if you paraphrase as you take notes. However, if you attempt to paraphrase with the original source open in front of you, you are courting disaster. To write a genuine paraphrase, you should close the book and rewrite in your own words what you have read.

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6.3.2 CITING SOURCES TO AVOID PLAGIARISM

When you derive facts and ideas from other writers' work, you must cite the sources of your information. Most writers are aware that they must cite the sources of direct quotations, but you must also provide citations for all information derived from another source, even if you have summarized or paraphrased the information. You must also cite your sources when you use other writers' interpretations of a historical event or text. Citing sources enables your readers to distinguish between your ideas and those of others.

The only exception is that you do not need to provide citations for information that is common knowledge. For example, you might have learned from a particular book that the German-Herero-Nama-War spanned the years 1904-07, but you do not have to cite the book when you include this fact in your paper. You could have obtained the time span of this War from any number of sources because it is common knowledge. The more you read about your subject, the easier it will be for you to distinguish common knowledge from information for which you need to provide a citation. When in doubt, it is better to be safe and cite the source.

**NOTA BENE**

As with any other source, information derived from the Internet must be properly paraphrased and cited. A particular danger arises, however, from the ease with which Internet material can be downloaded into your working text. Whenever you download material from the Internet, be sure to create a separate document file for that material. Otherwise, Internet material may inadvertently become mixed up with your own writing.

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6.3.3 DOCUMENTING SOURCES

For all of the sources in your paper, you must provide complete bibliographic information. This enables readers to look up your sources to evaluate your interpretation of them or to read more extensively from them.

6.3.3.1 FOOTNOTES OR ENDNOTES

Historians usually use footnotes or endnotes to document their sources. With this method, you place a raised number, called a *superscript* at the end of the last word of a quotation, paraphrase, or summary. This number corresponds to a numbered note that provides bibliographic information about your source. Notes may be
placed at the bottom of the page (footnotes) or at the end of the paper (endnotes). In either case, notes should be numbered consecutively from the beginning to the end of the paper.

The following example shows a source cited in the text of a paper and documented in a footnote or endnote.

TEXT

Spurlock notes that when mesmerism came to America in 1836, "it was a method of curing sickness—a scientific triumph over magic".3

NOTE


You should ask your instructor if he or she has a preference for footnotes or endnotes. If the choice is left up to you, weigh the advantages and disadvantages of each form. Footnotes allow your readers to refer easily and quickly to the sources cited on a given page, but they can be distracting. Further, historians often use explanatory or discursive notes, which contain more than simple bibliographic information. If your paper has a large number of such footnotes in addition to bibliographic footnotes, the pages might look overwhelmed with notes. If you use endnotes, you do not need to worry about the length of your notes. However, endnotes are less accessible, requiring readers to turn to the end of the paper to refer to each note.

6.3.3.2 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Papers with footnotes or endnotes also have a bibliography, a list of all the sources cited in the paper, arranged alphabetically by authors' last names (or by title where there is no author). In a paper with endnotes, the bibliography always follows the last endnote page.

6.3.3.3 THE AUTHOR-DATE METHOD

An alternative form of documentation that is becoming increasingly common in professional journals in the social sciences is the author-date system. The author’s last name and the publication date of a cited source are included in parentheses in the text itself; complete bibliographic information appears in a reference list at the end of the text. This form of documentation is almost never used in history. In the first place, this system does not allow the writer to use explanatory or discursive notes. In addition, the author-date system is generally not practical for documenting many of the primary sources historians use.

6.3.3.3 DOCUMENTING ONLINE SOURCES

The Internet is an increasingly important tool for historical research. Since it is a relatively new tool however, the conventions for documenting online sources are not yet firmly established. Nevertheless, it is essential that you provide your reader with enough information to locate and examine the material you have obtained from the Internet. It is not allowed, under NO circumstance, to cut and paste any information from any electronic source whatsoever, i.e. websites, the Internet, emails.
7. DOCUMENTATION MODELS: NOTES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC ENTRIES

Following are models of notes and bibliographic entries for the types of sources commonly used in history. The models follow The Chicago Manual of Style, 14th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993). Your lecturer will probably tell you which style guide to use. Whatever style you use, it is important to be consistent: if your first footnote or endnote follows the Chicago Manual form, all of your notes and your bibliography must follow the Chicago Manual.

NOTE: Notes and bibliographies follow different forms. Models for notes are given first; bibliographic entries for the same sources are offered in section 8. Make sure you adhere to punctuation and syntax rules for sentences. I.e. treat a footnote as a sentence: start with a capital letter, end with a full-stop, divide the different bits of information by commas and subdivide larger sections with semicolons. Take also note of the fact that a footnote can be used for commentary that you might find important but which would unnecessarily interrupt the flow of your text. The following is an example of such a footnote; in it its author has deposited all that which he considered necessary but too cumbersome for the flow of the main text. See also the footnotes on page 27 of this booklet.

1 Heinrich Herrmann Vedder, *Das alte Südwestafrika. Geschichte Südwestafrikas bis zum Tode Mahareros*, 1890 Berlin, Warneck, 1934, also translated to English and Afrikaans soon thereafter, remains the single most important and influential historical account of 19th century Namibia in this fashion. Its main drawback is that it does not give any of its sources. This exculpating and apologetic historiographical trend, in German at that, still continues and is actively backed by the editorial and publishing pursuits of the former South West Africa Scientific Society, now Namibia Scientific Society. Being highly deficient in methodology, hard evidence and theoretical grounding, none of this literature was produced by professional historians. Over the years it has led to the creation of quite some historical legends and myths. Discarding these, moreover, working through this material to arrive at some empirically grounded core makes Namibian history particularly challenging and difficult. For an illustrative demonstration of such dilletante-like work, see for instance Hans E. Lenssen, *Chronik von Deutsch-Südwestafrika. Eine kurzgefasste Aufzählung geschichtlicher Ereignisse aus der Deutschen Kolonialzeit von 1883-1915*, Windhoek, Namibia Wissenschaftliche Gesellschaft, 6 editions between 1953 and 1999. For an initial critique see Brigitte Lau, "'Thank God the Germans Came': Vedder and Namibian Historiography", in: *Africa Seminar: Collected Papers*, Centre for African Studies, University of Cape Town, 1981. Cf. also Jill Kinahan, "Heinrich Vedder’s sources for his account of the exploration of the Namib coast", in: *Cimbebasia*, 11/1989: 33-39.

7.1 MODELS FOR FOOTNOTES OR ENDOOTES

7.1.1 Books

A typical note for a book includes the following information:

- The author’s full name (or the editor’s full name, if no author is listed), followed by a comma
- The full title of the book, underlined or italicized
- Publication information: the city of publication, followed by a colon; the name of the publisher, followed by a comma; and the date of publication - all enclosed in parentheses and followed by a comma. (Note: Well-known cities do not need to be followed by state names, and "Inc," "Co.," and other such abbreviations may be dropped from publishers' names.)
- The page or pages cited, followed by a period

Individual entries should be single-spaced; double-space between notes.
7.1.1.1 BASIC FORM FOR A BOOK

7.1.1.2 SHORTENED FORMS IN SUBSEQUENT REFERENCES
The first time you cite a work, you must provide complete bibliographic information. In subsequent references, however, you can use a shortened form. There are two acceptable methods to shorten a reference. You can cite the author's last name followed by a comma and the page or pages cited.

Wheeler, 50.

If you cite more than one work by the same author in your paper or if a subsequent reference appears long after the first reference, you must include a shortened form of the title in your subsequent reference. To shorten the title, use the key word or words from the title of the book or article.


7.1.1.3 ABBREVIATIONS IN SUBSEQUENT REFERENCES
_"Ibid."_ The abbreviation "ibid." (from the Latin *ibidem*, meaning "in the same place") is sometimes used to refer to the work cited in the previous note. When it is used, "ibid." stands in place of both the author's name and the title of the work. If you are referring to the same page, use "ibid." alone. If you are referring to different page numbers, use "ibid." followed by a comma and the new page numbers.

_Ibid._, 79-84.

NOTE: Never use "ibid." if the previous note refers to more than one work.

_"Idem."_ If you are citing several works by the same author within the same note, you can use the word "idem" (Latin for "the same!") in place of the author's name after the first reference.


7.1.1.4 TWO OR MORE AUTHORS
If a book has two or more authors, list the authors in your note in the same order in which their names appear on the title page.


NOTE: For books with more than three authors, you may use the Latin term "et al." ("and others") after the first author instead of listing all the authors (for example, 'Jane Doe et al.").

7.1.1.5 ANONYMOUS WORK
If the author of a work is unknown and if there is no editor or compiler, begin your note with the title.


7.1.1.6 EDITED OR COMPILED WORK WITHOUT AN AUTHOR
Cite a book by its editor (abbreviated "ed.") or compiler (abbreviated "comp.") if no author appears on the title page (as in a collection or anthology).


7.1.1.7 EDITED WORK WITH AN AUTHOR
If an author's name is provided in addition to an editor's, give the editor's name after the title.


7.1.1.8 MULTIVOLUME WORK
If you cite a whole work that is published in multiple volumes, include the total number of volumes after the title.


You can cite a single volume in a multivolume work in one of two ways. You can give the name of the volume first or you can give the series name first.


or


If an individual volume of a multivolume work does not have its own title, include the volume number and the page numbers after the publication information.

*Cambridge History of American Foreign Relations* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993), 1
7.1.1.9 ARTICLE IN A COLLECTION OR ANTHOLOGY

If you cite an article in a collection or anthology, include both the author and the title of the article, followed by the title, editor, and publication information for the book in which it appears. Also give the page or pages on which the information you are citing appears.


7.1.2 PERIODICALS

A typical note for an article in a journal includes the following information:

- The author's full name, followed by a comma
- The title of the article, in quotation marks and followed by a comma
- The name of the journal in which the article appears, underlined or italicized
- The volume number (in Arabic numerals, even if the journal uses Roman numerals).
- The date, in parentheses, followed by a colon. The page or pages cited, followed by a period

7.1.2.1 ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY VOLUME

Most scholarly journals are paginated consecutively throughout the volume. When citing an article from such a journal, it is not mandatory that you give the issue number, although this information may be useful, especially for recent, unbound journals.


7.1.2.2 ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY ISSUE

If a journal paginates each issue separately, you must provide the issue number. The following model is one of several acceptable forms for citing the issue of a journal. In this example, the volume number is 30, the issue number is 2, the year of publication is 1996, and the page reference is 47.


NOTE: If you wish to include the month of publication, put it before the year: (March 1986). If you include the month, you do not need the issue number.
7.1.3 NEWSPAPER ARTICLE
When referring to an article in a daily newspaper, always cite the date, month, and year. Include the author’s name, if it is given, and the title of the article. Each issue of a newspaper may go through several editions, and in each edition articles may be rearranged or even eliminated entirely. For this reason, you should cite the name of the edition in which the article appeared (for example, first edition, late edition). Page numbers are usually omitted. If you are citing a large newspaper that is published in sections, include the name, letter, or number of the section.


7.1.4 ELECTRONIC SOURCES
7.1.4.1 WEB SITE
To cite a document that is available on the World Wide Web, the following information should be included: the author’s name, if known; the title of the document, in quotation marks; the title of the complete work, if applicable, in italics or underlined; the date of the publication or last revision (if not known, use "n.d."); the URL, in angle brackets; and the date of access, in parentheses.


7.1.4.2 E-MAIL MESSAGE
Include the author’s name; the author’s e-mail address; the subject line from the posting; the date of publication; the type of communication; and the date of access.

Lisa O’Donnell, <lodon@mnfn.k12.mn.us> "Re: Grave Sites," 10 November 1997, personal e-mail (11 November 1997).

7.1.4.3 LISTSERV OR NEWSGROUP MESSAGE
Include the author’s name; the author’s e-mail address; the subject line from the posting; the date of publication; the name of the listserv or newsgroup; and the date of access.

John Halberstam, <jhalberstam@tma.edu> "Lakota Diaspora after 1862," 11 December 1997, <H-ETHNIC@h-netmsu.edu> 112 December 1997.
7.2 MODELS FOR BIBLIOGRAPHY ENTRIES

Your bibliography provides a list of the books, articles, and other sources you used in preparing your paper. It must include all the works you cited in your notes; it may also include other works that you consulted but did not cite. However, avoid the temptation to pad your bibliography; list only materials you did in fact use.

You should list works in your bibliography alphabetically by authors' last names. If your bibliography is long, you may wish to divide it into sections. You might, for example, create separate headings such as "Primary Sources" and "Books and Articles." If you have used manuscripts or other unpublished sources, you might list these separately as well.

7.2.1 BOOKS

A typical bibliography entry for a book contains the following information:

- The author's full name, last name first, followed by a period.
- The full title of the book, underlined or italicized, followed by a period.
- The city of publication, followed by a colon
- The name of the publisher, followed by a comma
- The date of publication, followed by a period

Typically, the first line of a bibliography entry is typed flush left, and subsequent lines are indented. Individual entries should be single-spaced; double-space between entries.

7.2.1.1 BASIC FORM FOR A BOOK


7.2.1.2 TWO OR MORE AUTHORS

An entry for a book with two or more authors should begin with the name of the first author listed on the title page, last name first. The names of the other authors are given in normal order.


NOTE: For books with more than three authors, you may use the first author's name followed by the Latin term "et al." ("and others") in place of the other authors' names (for example, "Doe. Jane. et al.").
7.2.1.3 **AUTHOR'S NAME IN THE TITLE**

Begin the bibliography entry with the author's name, even if it appears in the title.


7.2.1.4 **ANONYMOUS WORK**

If the author of a work is unknown, list the work in the bibliography by its title. If the title begins with an article (A, An, or The), alphabetize the book according to the first letter of the next word.


7.2.1.5 **EDITED OR COMPILED WORK WITHOUT AN AUTHOR**

List a book by the last name of the editor, translator, or compiler if no author appears on the title page (as in a collection or anthology).


7.2.1.6 **EDITED WORK WITH AN AUTHOR**

For a book with an author as well as an editor, the editor's name follows the title.


7.2.1.7 **TRANSLATED WORK**

A translator's name, like an editor's, is placed after the title when an author's name is given. If a source has an editor and a translator, both should be listed.


7.2.1.8 **MULTIVOLUME WORK**

For a multivolume work, include the number of volumes in the bibliography entry.

If you have used a single volume of a multivolume set cite only that volume. You can do this in one of two ways: giving the name of the volume first or the name of the series first.


or


If an individual volume in a multivolume work does not have its own title, specify the volume by number.


If the volume or collection of volumes has an author, the entry should begin with the author's name (last name first), followed by a period.

7.2.1.9  **ARTICLE IN A COLLECTION OR ANTHOLOGY**

List an article in a collection or anthology by the author of the article. You may include the pages on which the article begins and ends.


7.2.2  **PERIODICALS**

A typical bibliography entry for an article in a journal includes the following information:

- The author's full name, last name first, followed by a period
- The title of the article, in quotation marks and followed by a period
- The name of the journal, underlined or italicized
- The volume number, in arabic numerals
- The date, in parentheses, followed by a colon
- The pages on which the article begins and ends, followed by a period

7.2.2.1 **ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY VOLUME**

Most scholarly journals are paginated consecutively throughout the volume. When citing an article from such a journal, it is not mandatory that you give the issue number.

7.2.2.2 **ARTICLE IN A JOURNAL PAGINATED BY ISSUE**

If a journal paginates each issue separately, you must provide the issue number.


NOTE: If you wish to include the month of publication, put it before the year: (March 1986). If you include the month, you do not need the issue number.

7.2.3 **ARTICLE IN A POPULAR MAGAZINE**

It is not necessary to give the volume number or issue number for an article in a popular magazine. If you include page numbers, they are preceded by a comma, not by a colon.


7.2.4 **NEWSPAPER ARTICLE**

If you consulted various articles from a particular newspaper, you don't have to list the articles separately in the bibliography. Instead, provide just the name of the paper and the range of dates of the issues you consulted.


7.2.5 **ELECTRONIC SOURCES**

7.2.5.1 **WEB SITE**


7.2.5.2 **E-MAIL MESSAGE**

O'Donnell, Lisa. <lodon@mnn1k12.mn.us> "Re: Grave Sites." 10 November 1997. Personal e-mail (11 November 1997).

7.2.5.3 **LISTSERV OR NEWSGROUP MESSAGE**

Halberstam, John. <jhalberstam@tma.edu> "Lakota Diaspora after 1862." 11 December 1997. <H-ETHNIC@h-net.msu.edu> (12 December 1997).
Bibliography

Primary Sources


Books and Articles


