The History Research Project: A Manual for Students

By Rachel Engelke, Mara Lytle, Elaine DeVoss, Cindy Bertozi, Eric Styles, and Mark Williams
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INTRODUCTION

The History Research Project

By now you have studied enough history at Loomis Chaffee to have a good idea what it is that historians do and what history is all about. You know that history is not simply the text you read and the names and dates you memorize. Some of that is important, but history is far more than that. History is similar to a detective’s investigation. It’s the process of solving a puzzle by looking for clues, piecing together the evidence, and drawing conclusions. Instead of asking “whodunit?,” however, a historian is concerned with three big questions: “What happened?, Why did it happen?, and What does it mean?” The short form goes like this: “What, Why and So What?” The most important question is the “So what?” In fact, the quest for meaning is what drives historians to ask about things that happened in the past.

You also know by now that being a historian does not necessarily involve getting a post-graduate degree and publishing scholarly articles and books. Anybody can engage in the process of historical inquiry, for the simple reason that anybody can derive meaning from the past. We rely upon professional historians to deal with the more difficult questions of what happened, why it happened and what it all means, and to show us new ways of looking at the past that are meaningful to new generations. But anyone, with a little training and a collection of sources, can “do” history any time.

Your time has come.

In fact, you have already done history – you have already studied sources and addressed questions of what happened, why and so what. Probably whose questions have been pretty well defined for you – that is, you were assigned a set of sources to study, assigned a question to think about and assigned a form in which to make your presentation. The sources, issues, subject matter and time periods were chosen on the basis of issues and events professional historians have determined to be particularly meaningful to large numbers of people in today’s world – things everybody ought to know and think about. They were also chosen with the idea in mind that that subject matter, or those sources, would provide good practice in the skills of historical thinking.

The American History Research Project takes a new approach to the study of history. This time you will be defining the issues, subject matter and time periods that are worth studying. This time you will be deciding what sources to look at. You will be asking the particulars of what happened and why, and you will be the most important person answering, “So what?”

It’s a personal investigation too. You don’t have to ask about events or people that are important to large numbers of people. You don’t have to derive some meaning that everyone will appreciate. This time you are in the driver’s seat–you will be deciding what events and questions are important to study, and deciding it on the basis of whether those events or questions are meaningful to you.

In some respects the research project can be a little intimidating. It’s new for most of you to define your own issue and find your own sources, and, because you are supposed to come up with something substantial in the end (in terms of a long essay with complicated-looking...
citations of lots of different sources). It may seem like an overwhelming task that will be difficult to complete. On the other hand, students in the past have said that the American History Research Project was one of the most valuable and interesting assignments they have done at Loomis Chaffee. It taught them important skills they would use not only in college, but in any number of occupations and professions; and interesting primarily because they were able to do research and writing on something that was truly meaningful to them. Similarly, history teachers at Loomis Chaffee and the librarians see the exercise as fundamentally important because it offers each of their students the opportunity to show what they have learned about using a library and thinking historically by working on a subject that really interests them. Time and again, teachers say that students do their best work in history all year on the research project.

As for the intimidating aspects, students in the past who completed the project listed these sage words of advice:

- Anticipation of this task is your greatest obstacle.
- The project will not happen overnight.
- Relax. Approach this task in a series of steps.
- Get started as soon as the project is assigned.
- Be sure to choose a topic that really interests you.
- Map out a plan for completing the project.

A Word about Historical Research and Writing

Original research in history offers the writer a chance to gather information to answer a question and ultimately solve a problem. The problem may simply be to determine what happened at a certain time or place, or it may involve puzzling over why something happened, why some situation has developed or how people of the past lived their lives. Through the research process a researcher identifies a problem, questions the problem, gathers the information from primary and secondary sources, evaluates that information using sophisticated analytical skills, and either solves the problem or recommends a solution. Research is interpretive, analytical and investigative. Writing a research paper gives the researcher a means to present his/her finding in an organized manner. Your written research is evidence that you see the problem or a solution in a way that is unique to you. Thus, the research paper is different from what some teachers might call a “report.” It goes far beyond the simple reporting of information the researcher has found in his/her sources.

Using This Research Manual

The goal in creating this manual is to present a step-by-step approach to writing a research paper. Take heed of the advice above from former students. Pay special attention to the advice about starting assignments far enough in advance to compensate for setbacks. Follow the directions in this manual carefully, ask questions of your teacher when you are lost, and most of all relax and enjoy. The manual will help you break down the project into manageable parts that won’t seem so intimidating after all. It will also offer help in ways to use sources, record information, and write your paper that will save you time in the long run. In essence, the goal of this manual is to reduce the hassle as much as possible, so the interesting and enjoyable aspects of the project are what occupy most of your time and energy.
Getting Started

In order to complete this project you need some basic equipment. Your teacher may have specific recommendations about items on this list. It's a good idea to check with him or her before you acquire your supplies.

- 1 package of 3” x 5” lined index card (if using NoodleTools will not need)
- 2-3 packages of 4” x 6” lined index cards (if using NoodleTools will not need)
- 1 card box to hold notecards (if using NoodleTools will not need)
- Dividing cards for notecard box (optional)
- Flash drive to save files
- 1” notebook with dividers
- Copy card (Vendamat) from the library

Create a To-Do-List

Since the work habits of each researcher and the difficulty of each topic is different, only you can determine how much time you should allot to each stage of the research paper. Below are some general guidelines to help you budget your time.

Selecting Your Topic
- Choose at least 3 preliminary topics
- Read background information on the topics
- Determine whether or not there is enough material to research each topic adequately
- Choose one topic
- Narrow the topic

Selecting Sources
- Evaluate your sources
- Identify the sources you will use
- Familiarize yourself with the sources
- Prepare a preliminary bibliography
- Locate/access the sources

Writing a Prospectus
- Describe and fully explain your topic
- Discuss available sources that are applicable to your research and those that you plan to use
- Explain why the topic is relevant, clear and interesting
- Identify and clarify which questions you intend to answer by doing this research
- Decide whether you are going to write an analytical or a narrative paper

Reading and Note Taking
- Collect and interpret information
- Analyze, rethink and collect additional information
- Write notecards
Writing the Paper

- Review notes
- Develop an outline
- Organize notes according to the outline
- Write a first draft in accordance with the outline
- Revise the first draft (after teacher comments) and write the final draft of the paper
CHAPTER I: SELECTING YOUR TOPIC

The first step in the research process is to develop an appropriate research proposal. Selecting a topic and defining a purpose for your research is one of the most difficult steps in completing the research project, and is one that should be taken with great care. Remember, you have to live with this topic for several months. As you work toward developing your final proposal for research, keep in mind the following criteria for topic selection and use them as a checklist for determining if you have a good topic.

- The topic must be American history-related. After all, this is an American history course.
- Avoid very recent topics (from the last 20 years).
- The topic should be of considerable interest to you (Note: you do not have to know much about your topic now, but you should be curious about learning more) Avoid topics based exclusively on personal experiences – these will not have source material from varying perspectives.
- The topic should be worth investigating. Don’t choose a topic for which history has no answer, such as “what is the meaning of war?”
- The topic should present a problem which you believe needs to be addressed (because other researchers have not addressed it, or because there is controversy about its solution). Don’t select a topic that has already been researched to death or about which you will not be able to develop any original ideas. Also, avoid topics that seek to measure the effect of an event, cultural trend or idea on American society. These are difficult to research and often stray far from the essential questions historians ask. (To review these questions, see paragraph one of the Introduction.)
- There must be sufficient (but not too many) sources of information accessible to you.
- Your teacher must approve your topic. (They have a pretty good idea of what topics work and which ones are doomed.)

Brainstorming a Topic

The following tips will help you choose a topic:

- List on a piece of paper areas of interest in American History.
- Survey your textbook for possible topics – scan the table of contents, pictures, the index, subject headings, etc.
- Ask your teacher for some ideas.
- Think of an historical controversy that research could help clarify.
- Work with three or four other students and brainstorm some topics you would like to know more about.

Choose three preliminary topics that interest you. You may find that when it comes to finding resources, at least one of your topics will not provide enough information. By choosing three topics, you will leave your options open if the topic is unsuitable for research.
The Importance of Background Reading

Familiarizing yourself with a topic and its implications will help you to identify clear possible research problems. The best way to do this is to read some background information about possible topics. The best sources for background reading are:

- Encyclopedias
- Magazine articles that deal with your topic in general
- Your history textbook
- Book introductions or chapters in books on your topic

If you find there are shelves and shelves of reading material on your topic, either you will have to narrow it down considerably, or perhaps this topic has been researched so much that you will not have anything original to say about it after only a few weeks of research.

Take those three preliminary topics and read some background information on each. Jot down some keywords, dates and concepts and formulate some questions about these topics. While reading background information, find some interesting aspects of the topics. Investigate at least three sources (periodicals, books, newspapers, primary sources) on each to determine whether or not there is enough information to research these topics adequately. Question your topics from a variety of viewpoints. This may seem like a lot of extra work, but the more time spent in finding a good topic that lends itself to research, the more success you will have researching and writing.

Sources for Background Reading

Encyclopedias, chapters in books, reference books, and magazine articles that deal in general with your topic are excellent sources of background information. While you read these articles, look for keywords, concepts, and dates that will give you access points to other resources. Often these sources of background information provide extensive bibliographies on your topic as well as a list of related topics. The Katherine Brush Library subscribes to all of the following resources in either electronic or paper formats.

Reference Works (Print)

- Encyclopedia Britannica—REF AE 5.E363 1997
- American Eras—REF E 69.1.A471979
- American Decades—REF E 169.12.A419
- Facts on File—REF D 410.F3
- CQ Researcher—REF H 35.C672
Reference Works (Electronic)—All available at the Library website (http://www.loomischaffee.org) under Academics, Katharine Brush Library, Library Subscription Databases. See a librarian for off campus use of databases.

- Grolier Online
- Britannica Academic Edition
- U.S. History in Context
- American Decades
- Dictionary of American History
- Major Acts of Congress
- Gale Encyclopedia of U.S. Economic History
- St James Encyclopedia of Popular Culture

These online sources are just a small sample of the many reference books covering United States History available in the reference section of the library.

After you have completed your background reading select the one topic which best meets the criteria stated at the beginning of this chapter.

Narrowing the Scope of Your Topic

Now that you have done some background reading on your general topic and have determined the availability of resources, you should begin to narrow your focus and develop a specific angle. Find an event, court case, piece of legislation, or person connected with your topic that interests you and that warrants further exploration. Then refocus your narrowed topic to a topic statement by adding modifying words like conflict, debate, etc. (Avoid examining EFFECTS of something as this is often too difficult to gauge.)

An example of a broad topic that has been narrowed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Broad Topic</th>
<th>Narrowed Topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Civil Rights Movement</td>
<td>The conflict between Jesse Jackson and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) after Martin Luther King’s death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease in Colonial America</td>
<td>The debate surrounding smallpox inoculation in early 18th century Boston.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Suffrage</td>
<td>Opposition to the women’s suffrage movement in the late 19th century.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes a good test for a paper topic is whether or not it can be expressed in the form of a question:

- “What internal disputes arose in the SCLC in the wake of Martin Luther King’s death?”
- “Why was there such a strong debate surrounding smallpox inoculation in Boston in the 1730s?”
- “Why did so many women oppose the suffrage movement in the late 19th century?”

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Defining a Rationale — A Purpose for Your Paper

*Topic:* I am studying__________________________________

*Question:* Because I want to find out what/who/how/why _____________________________

*Rationale:* in order to understand how/why/what _______________________________

**Example of a Rationale**

*Topic:* The conflict between Jesse Jackson and the SCLC after Martin Luther King’s death.

*Rationale:* in order to understand what internal disputes existed in the SCLC and how those contributed to the overall success or failure of the Civil Rights Movement.

Now that the topic is selected and narrowed and you have defined a rationale for writing this paper, it is time to find resources and compile a bibliography on your topic.
CHAPTER II: SELECTING SOURCES

By now you should have:

- Chosen a general topic
- Read background information on your topic, enough to get a comprehensive overview
- Narrowed your topic to a specific aspect of your general topic

The next step is to locate sources and to compile a working bibliography. A working bibliography is different from a final bibliography in that it includes possible resources that you intend to use to research and finally write your paper. The final bibliography is a list of all the resources you actually used in writing your paper. Do not include sources in the final bibliography that you did not ultimately use. The research process is so dynamic that as you investigate your topic, you may come across additional sources that are useful. Therefore, your working bibliography will probably look very different from your final bibliography. Good researchers add sources throughout the process.

To compile a working bibliography, you must use a library. On your visit to any library, take with you your stack of 3”x5” index cards or be ready to use NoodleTools to compile a working bibliography. If you feel unsure how to locate sources in the library, talk to a librarian. They are there to assist and point you in the right direction, as well as to provide you with information located in other libraries and other databases.

While you are browsing sources, try to narrow the focus of your paper. Write questions that come into your head about your paper. These questions should take the form of who, what, where, when, why, etc. They should be thoughtful, probing questions that should help direct your use of the resources.

Examples of questions from our sample-narrowed topic:

- What role did the SCLC play in the Civil Rights Movement?
- When did Jesse Jackson get involved in Civil Rights?
- What was the relationship between King and Jackson in the SCLC?
- Were there internal disputes in the SCLC that predated Dr. King’s death?

This set of preliminary questions for your narrowed topic in addition to keywords, names, and dates should help you start looking at your sources. Try also to identify the kinds of sources that you will need. Do you need periodical information? Newspapers? Statistics? Books? Can the internet help you? By identifying possible sources, you are one step closer to organizing your research. This chapter will assist you in identifying sources that will be helpful in your research and in compiling a working bibliography.

The Library’s Online Catalog (PeliCAT) searches the collection of the Katharine Brush Library. It includes books, CDs and video, offering primary and secondary sources in most media types. It also includes a collection of ebooks from ebrary and The Humanities E-Book Project.
Understanding Primary vs. Secondary Sources

You want to include both primary and secondary sources in your bibliography. The following are definitions of primary and secondary sources:

**Primary Sources**—These are sources that derive from personal observations or experiences. A primary source may also come from a person who lived at the time of the event, but was not necessarily an eyewitness.

**Examples of primary sources include:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Art</th>
<th>Newspapers</th>
<th>Poetry</th>
<th>Speeches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diaries</td>
<td>Letters</td>
<td>Music</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artifacts</td>
<td>Autobiographies</td>
<td>News Footage</td>
<td>Photographs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Some subject headings that indicate primary sources:**

- Narratives
- Personal narratives
- Photographs

**Secondary Sources**—These are sources written based on research using primary sources. Secondary sources are usually interpretations of primary sources, reviews, or criticisms.

**Examples of secondary sources:**

- Textbooks
- Encyclopedias
- Biographies

Doing historical research means using mainly primary sources. It is appropriate to use secondary sources for background information, contextual information, and understanding of what historians already know about a topic area. However, using secondary sources to develop the main body of information upon which your research paper is based does not constitute historical research. Thus, if you cannot find a significant number of primary sources upon which to base your research, you should find another topic.

**Popular and Scholarly Journals**

**Popular Magazines** — Typically, popular magazines are informative and up-to-date, but are not based on scholarly research. No bibliography or list of sources is included.

**Scholarly Journals** — These are published for expert and academic readers and consist mostly of “serious” research-oriented articles written by professors and other researchers for readers who already know something about the topic. They are usually based on original research that supports the author’s theory or conclusion. Scholarly articles tend to be longer in length than popular articles and often include tables, graphs, and diagrams. Scholarly articles often begin or end with the word “Journal,” “Review,” “Bulletin” or “Research” and may be sponsored by an association such as the American Historical Association.
Types of Sources

All sources for United States History, United States History AP and American Civilization are broken down in the LibGuide Resource Finder. Resource Finder is located at http://loomis.libguides.com/resourcefinder Note: if working remotely (off campus), you will need a copy of the Electronic Resources Sheet, which includes usernames and passwords. Below is a general description of what is available.

Periodicals

Periodicals are often excellent sources of good concise information on your topic from a variety of perspectives. They can serve as either primary or secondary sources, depending on the date in which the article was written. For example, an article written in Time magazine in 1968 about Martin Luther King's assassination would be considered a primary source, whereas a 1998 article written on the 30th anniversary of his death is a secondary source. The indexing for periodical information can be found in:

**Academic OneFile** is a database with over 1 million full-text articles from peer-reviewed journals, magazines, newspapers, and reference sources. With extensive coverage of the physical sciences, technology, medicine, social sciences, the arts, theology, literature and other subjects.

**JSTOR** archives and provides access to archival and current issues of more than 1,400 scholarly journals across more than 50 academic disciplines. JSTOR includes scholarly journals, conference proceedings, and primary source materials. JSTOR contains complete backfiles for each journal with a moving window that averages around 5 years. This means JSTOR, for a particular journal, will have the journals first issue up until about five years from now.

**Readers' Guide Retrospective, 1890-1982** gives the researcher the Readers' Guide to Periodicals online as well as access to 512 periodicals, updated subject headings reconciled for uniformity throughout the years, original headings with original images from Readers' Guide volumes and cross references to other headings.

**SIRS Researcher** provides thousands of full-text articles on a variety of social, scientific, health, historic, economic, business, political and global issues. Articles are selected from around 1500 newspapers, magazines, journals and government publications. Articles that have been selected as a sampling from the SIRS Researcher database to encourage research and awareness of topical issues.

Newspaper Databases

Newspapers provide an excellent source of primary information. They include speeches, quotes, and day-by-day accounts of important issues.

**Archive of Americana** provides online access to the printed record of early America. It offers a wide range of documents in hundreds of subjects so that students can read first-hand accounts that reveal what American life was really like. Featuring books, pamphlets, broadsides,
newspapers and government publications, the Archive of Americana lets educators easily pick and choose from the vast number of publications found in:

- Early American Imprints, Series I and Series II, 1639-1819
- Early American Newspapers, Series I, 1690-1876
- American State Papers, 1789-1838 • U.S. Congressional Serial Set, 1817-1899
- American Broadsides and Ephemera.

**Christian Science Monitor** is an independent daily (5-day) general newspaper providing national and international news and commentary on peoples and cultures. Articles are written by correspondents in eleven different countries. Christian Science Monitor full-text coverage is from 1997 to the present. It is indexed from 1980 to the present.

**New York Times** is found in ProQuest with full-text coverage from 1985 to the present. There is a one-day moving window for the current issue. In ProQuest Historical Newspaper, **The New York Times** is available full-text from 1851 to 2007.

**ProQuest Civil War Era** provides a combination of newspapers and pamphlets covering the American Civil War period allowing researchers access to primary resources that highlight the causes of the war and the conflict itself. Coverage: 1840-1865.


**SIRS Researcher** provides thousands of full-text articles on a variety of social, scientific, health, historic, economic, business, political and global issues. Articles are selected from around 1500 newspapers, magazines, journals and government publications. Articles that have been selected as a sampling from the SIRS Researcher database to encourage research and awareness of topical issues.

**The Hartford Courant** through ProQuest provides full-text coverage of the newspaper from 1992 to the present.

**The Wall Street Journal** is found in ProQuest with full-text coverage from 1987 to the present. In ProQuest Historical Newspaper, **The Wall Street Journal** is available full-text from 1889 to 1993.
Other History-Related Electronic Resources

ACLS Humanities E-Book Project is an online collection of over 3,300 books of high quality in the humanities, accessible through institutional and individual subscription. These titles are offered by the ACLS in collaboration with twenty learned societies, over 100 contributing publishers, and librarians at the University of Michigan’s Scholarly Publishing Office. The result is an online, fully searchable collection of high-quality books in the Humanities, recommended and reviewed by scholars. This collection is also available in PeliCAT.

CQ Researcher Online plus Archive is noted for its in-depth, unbiased coverage of health, social trends, criminal justice, international affairs, education, the environment, technology, and the economy. Reports are published weekly in print and online 44 times a year by CQ Press since 1923. Each single-themed, 12,000-word report is researched and written by a seasoned journalist. The reports provide researchers with an introductory overview; background and chronology on the topic; an assessment of the current situation; tables and maps; pro/con statements from representatives of opposing positions; and bibliographies of key sources.

ebrary® is a full-text ebook database containing material from scholarly presses and other leading publishers. The academic complete collection provides over 70,000 ebooks in many disciplines, including History, English, Science, Religion, and the Social Sciences. Ebrary ebooks are also found in PeliCAT. Students can read, highlight, save, and build their own bookshelf using InfoTools. Ebrary's password changes on a monthly basis. Check in the Student Portal under Katharine Brush Library Resources for the current password.


Historical Statistics of the United States provides a standard source for the quantitative facts of American History. Updated from the 1975 edition, this database provides topics ranging from migration and health to crime and the Confederate States of America place in historical context. The electronic version has downloadable tables in Excel or CSV. Data can create custom tables. Advanced searching of tables and their documentation and essays are provided.

LegalTrac provides indexing for more than 1,500 major law reviews, legal newspapers, specialty publications, Bar Association journals and international legal journals, including more than 200 titles in full-text.

U.S. History in Context covers U.S. history from colonial times to the present. This database is an integrated collection of articles from journals, magazines, newspapers, reference works, primary source documents, timelines, historical maps, atlases, and audiovisual clips of historic speeches and events.
Primary Sources

The reference section of the library, the library’s collection and the library’s website provides additional primary sources. The following are examples of print primary sources found in the library:

- Messages and Papers of the Presidents — REF E 173 .U64 R5
- Annals of America — REF E 173. A793
- Documentary Sources of Western Civilization — Indexed in the reference collection, Microfiche, on reserve in the library

Non-Print Sources

- Interviews — Caution: good interviews require directed, but fair, unbiased questions.
- Video Sources — Interviews on television (Journal Graphics) (American Memory Collection) (YouTube).
- Audio Sources — Radio interviews, tape recordings, CD recordings.
- Images and Artifacts — Photographs, visual material, objects.

The Internet

The internet has a wealth of information, but a great deal of the information is unorganized and invalid. The school’s website has a list of Internet sources in LibGuides. Many of these sources are primary sources. Students should familiarize themselves with web site evaluation criteria before they include Internet sources in their bibliography. An evaluation checklist can be found on the next page. If you are in doubt about a source, check with your teacher or a librarian.

Sources From Other Libraries: Interlibrary Loan

The librarians will help you find a book or a periodical in another library. Planning ahead on your part is essential since interlibrary loans take from 5-14 days. If you are a day student, the librarians can assist you in locating the book or periodical in an area library and you must initiate an interlibrary loan on your own. For boarders, the librarians will initiate an interlibrary loan. Once interlibrary loan books arrive in the library, the student will be notified of their arrival and the books will be placed on the reserve shelf for use only in the library. Students may not take interlibrary books out of the library. The librarians will contact you when the due date for interlibrary loan is approaching to see if you want to renew an item.

Evaluating Sources

All sources should be approached with a critical eye. Are they valid, authoritative, and consistent with the material about which you are researching? Below is a list of criteria for evaluating sources:

- **What is the source about?** What subject area does it cover? If the source is a book, check the table of contents, the index, dates covered, etc.
• **Is the source primary or secondary?** Can the primary source be tested? Upon which facts does the source rely for an opinion? Do secondary sources accurately interpret or reflect the original material? Primary sources need as much caution as secondary sources in that they may not be necessarily accurate, due to distortion of information.

• **Is the author reputable?** Check to see if the author is qualified to write this book. Check on the book jacket of the book to determine educational background, experience, and expertise in the field of the book. Check *The Harvard Guide*, the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, book reviews, or the bibliography of an authoritative source to find out more about the author.

• **Is the work documented?** Is there evidence of footnotes, notes, a bibliography? Inclusion of these items indicates that the author is not afraid to tell his readers where he obtained his information.

• **Finally, when in doubt about a particular work, read a review.** Sources for reviews are *The New York Times*, *Readers’ Guide*, or *Book Review Digest*. When you read reviews, look for words such as, “not recommended,” “inaccurate information,” and “poorly written.”

**Evaluating Internet Sources**

As mentioned before, the internet presents a wealth of valuable information, but it also has a great deal of invalid information. Since anyone can put anything on the internet, evaluating internet resources is critical in finding good information. Evaluating internet sources follows the same guidelines as print resources. Trusted information that comes from these extensions:

- .org Organizations
- .edu Educational organizations
- .com Commercial enterprises
- .gov Government

**Web Evaluation Checklist**

• **Question—Who owns the web site?** Is it affiliated with an organization or institution or does an individual own the site?

• **Question—What is the purpose of the web site?** Is it to entertain, persuade, educate or sell?

• **Question—Who is the author of the information?** What is the author’s expertise on the subject? Is the author’s education, position provided? Is the contact information for the author available?

• **Question—How recent is the information?** When was it web site last updated?

• **Question—Is the information well written and grammatically correct?**

• **Question—Does the site contain links to other sites that reflect a bias?**

• **Question—Is the information meaningful and useful to your research?**
**Primary Sources**

Primary sources are the original, first-hand accounts on a subject or an event. Primary sources include letters, diaries, manuscripts, autobiographies, eyewitness accounts, interviews, opinions, surveys, investigations, and government documents. To find primary sources you may use several approaches, using books, bibliographies, newspapers, or periodicals.

**Finding Primary Sources Using Books**

Determining what a primary source is can be tricky, and in no case is this more apparent than with books. From one vantage, books are the quintessential secondary source: scholars use primary source materials such as letters and diaries to write books, which are in turn secondary sources. However, books can also be a rich source of primary source material. In some instances, as in the case of published memoirs, autobiographies, and published documents, it is easy to determine when a book functions as a primary source.

- To find sources in books using PeliCAT or in ReQuest (Interlibrary Loan), do a Keyword Search using your topic and one of these search terms:
  - Sources
  - Personal narratives
  - Correspondence
  - Manuscripts
  - Diaries
  - Autobiography
  - Interviews
  - Speeches
  - Documents
- Find a relevant item in your results click on the title and use the subject headings to find additional sources

**Finding Primary Sources in Newspapers**

Primary sources can be found in newspapers. Newspapers may contain primary sources such as:

- Eyewitness accounts of an event.
- Statements or quotes on an issue.
- Editorials that express a public opinion.
- Interviews with significant persons.
- Reprint of important documents.

**Finding Primary Sources in Magazines and Journals**

Periodicals are good sources for primary information. To find periodical information (magazine), consult *The Katharine Brush Guide to Periodicals* for periodicals subscribed to by the Library, print and electronic periodical indexes (Readers’ Guide, Readers’ Guide Retrospective), and periodicals indexed in Academic OneFile and SIRS Researcher.
• Choose an appropriate index to search your subject.
• If the magazine article is a secondary source, locate and browse through the article, looking for primary sources used by the author to write the article.
• Pay attention to footnotes, endnotes, bibliographies, supplementary reading lists, etc.
• As with newspapers, look over periodical information for evidence of:
  o Eyewitness accounts
  o Statements or quotes on an issue
  o Full-text of speeches
  o Interviews with significant persons
  o Reprints of important documents

Finding Primary Sources in Government Documents

A government's documents are direct evidence of its activities, functions, and policies. For any research that relates to the workings of government, government documents are indispensable primary sources. A wide range of primary sources are found in government documents: the hearings and debates of legislative bodies; the official text of laws; regulations and treaties; records of government expenditures and finances; statistical compilations such as census data; investigative reports; scientific data; and many other sources that touch virtually all aspects of society and human endeavor. This information comes in a similarly wide variety of formats, including books, periodicals, maps, and online databases.

What makes all these sources "government documents?" What all these sources have in common is that they are published or otherwise made available to the general public by a government for the general public, at government expense or as required by law. They are a government's official "voice." Government documents are usually housed in separate sections of libraries, and have their own specialized arrangement and finding aids. Government document collections typically do not include primary legal sources, such as court decisions and law codes, which are often published by for-profit publishers and are found either in the main library collection or in separate law libraries. For decades the U.S. government has been the largest publisher in the world, but government documents are also produced by regional, state, and local governments, and by international bodies such as the United Nations and the European Union.

For Loomis Chaffee students, many government documents may be found on the internet. Using the LibGuides Resource finder, you may find some government documents by clicking on “Government Documents.” There are several links to legislative and judicial decisions. Note the scope of the Congressional Record and access to Supreme Court decisions. It may be necessary for you to visit academic libraries, especially those that are government documents depositories. Yale University is one of them. We do not have interlibrary loan privileges and borrowing privileges with Yale, but the following is a link to their index to Government documents: http://www.library.yale.edu/govdocs/index.html

Finding Primary Sources in Archives and Manuscripts

Manuscript and archival materials are unique resources that can be found in only one library or institution (though digital copies may be available elsewhere). They are valuable primary source material for researchers in many fields of study, including history, political science, sociology,
literature, journalism, cultural anthropology, health sciences, law, and education. Manuscripts and archival materials are distinct from other library materials in the ways they are described, accessed, handled, and evaluated. Manuscripts and archives are unpublished primary sources. The term archives, when it refers to documents, as opposed to a place where documents are held, refers to the records made or received and maintained by an institution or organization in pursuance of its legal obligations or in the transaction of its business. The term manuscripts, which originally referred to handwritten items, refers now to a body of papers of an individual or a family. Both terms can encompass a broad array of documents and records of numerous formats and types. Archival records or manuscripts may include business and personal correspondence, diaries and journals, legal and financial documents, photographs, maps, architectural drawings, objects, oral histories, computer tape, video, and audiocassettes.

To locate sources in archives, many academic libraries have access to databases that locate collections. Sometimes a Google search may provide you with locations of special collections and manuscripts. Sometimes those special manuscripts or collections are available online.

Realia Artifacts—Once functional objects used by people, realia and artifacts convey important information about the lives and histories of peoples. Realia and artifacts are three-dimensional and unlike two-dimensional objects such as books and manuscripts, can be either man-made or naturally occurring. While all collected realia and artifacts are deemed as having documentary value, some are valued for their intrinsic worth, others for their artistic merit, and others for their historical significance or scientific value. Realia and artifacts commonly used for research are:

- War memorabilia such as canteens, mess kits, and uniforms
- Emblems and badges
- Cards and board games
- Jewelry, clothing, and textiles
- Leather goods
- Needlework
- Architecture
- Gravestones
- Furniture

Visual Materials—The term "visual material" refers to any primary source in which images, instead of or in conjunction with words and/or sounds, are used to convey meaning. Some common and useful types of visual materials are as follows:

- Original art, including but not limited to paintings, drawings, sculpture, architectural drawings and plans, and monoprints.
- Prints, which are works produced in multiple but limited numbers such as woodcuts, engravings, etchings, and lithographs
- Graphic arts, including materials such as posters, trade cards, and computer generated graphics
- Photographs
- Film and video

Any of these materials can provide valuable information to a researcher. Factual information can often be extracted from visual materials; however, the best information imparted by these
materials is often of a subjective nature, providing insight into how people see themselves and the world in which they exist.

**Music**—The creation, performance, significance, and definition of music vary according to culture and context. For purposes of discourse and research, music is categorized and subcategorized, although the relationships between categories are often unclear and controversial. Music is, on the whole, the art and science of combining vocal or instrumental sounds to produce beauty of form, harmony, melody, rhythm, and expressive content and it is that content, composition, and performance which can be the subject of not only music-related, but interdisciplinary, study.

Resources commonly used for research in music are:

- Manuscript music scores
- Musical instruments
- Sheet music
- Historical and contemporary sound recordings on LP and disc
- Research resources such as books, periodicals, photographs, and archives related to music and musicians

Resources such as these can reveal information about the production and performance of music, aural traditions, histories of musical composition, notation, and technique, information about music theory and about individuals' and cultures' technological advancement, economy, education, cognition, and more.

Most of music resources mentioned are not available at Loomis Chaffee, but could be available at academic libraries or perhaps on the Internet.

**Sound Recordings**—Sound recordings include not only music but also the spoken word - poetry, plays, speeches, etc.

**Oral History**—Oral history interviews and video memoirs provide important perspectives for historians. Since the invention of the tape recorder in the 1950s, oral history projects of many kinds have proliferated, ranging from the "man-on-the-street" type of interview to the more formal presidential archives.

Oral history source—In the First Person: [http://www.inthefirstperson.com/](http://www.inthefirstperson.com/)

**Finding Primary Sources Using The Internet**

The internet has increasingly become a fine source for primary sources. However, since anyone and anything can be posted on the internet, information retrieved must be evaluated. Be aware that the World Wide Web is only one small aspect of the Internet. Speak to your teacher or a librarian about sources not indexed in the World Wide Web, but in the “invisible web.” Most primary sources in history can be found in some of the universities or through the government. However, individuals have posted some remarkable web sites.
If you are looking for collections, papers, etc., you might want to start with a Google search. Be aware that you want to evaluate any website that you look at. Google is excellent at giving you leads to where the primary sources are. Sometimes these leads, lead you to databases or collections to which you cannot access without being a subscriber or paying for the information. It may be an archive, museum or collection that cannot be borrowed. In that event, please consult with librarian to determine that’s resource’s availability.
CHAPTER III: WRITING THE PROSPECTUS

Now that you've accessed a solid base of sources, it is time to write your research prospectus. A prospectus is a brief (one page) statement of purpose for your research paper. In developing your prospectus, you should:

- Describe and fully explain your topic.
- Discuss available sources that are applicable to your research and those that you plan to use.
- Explain why the topic is relevant, clear and interesting.
- Identify and clarify which questions you intend to answer by doing this research.

Before writing your prospectus you must decide whether you will write a narrative or an analytical paper. Here is a brief description of the differences.

Analytical

An analytical paper presents a thesis, which is defended by a series of carefully considered arguments and supporting evidence. It addresses a debatable question. The paper moves from one analytical argument to the next while also considering the significance of these main ideas. It finishes with a conclusion that synthesizes the arguments into a convincing and definitive endpoint for your reader.

Sample Prospectus for an Analytical Paper

Limitations on Jewish Immigration to the U.S. During World War II

My research paper will deal with the immigration restrictions set forth by the United States during World War II, specifically on Jewish refugees from Europe during the Holocaust. In 1938, the U.S. slightly relaxed its existing immigration restrictions, but from 1939 to 1941 the nation almost completely closed its doors to outsiders. From 1941 until 1944, President Roosevelt and his advisers debated whether to increase the number of Jewish refugees admitted into the U.S., but ultimately decided against changing the existing policy. During World War II, the United States admitted fewer than half of the number of immigrants allotted according to the quotas. Furthermore, the country intentionally required documents that Jewish immigrants could not provide. I seek to find out why FDR and his top advisers stood by and allowed so many Jews to be killed in Europe.

Some research has been done on this topic, yet there is still room for much more examination. David S. Wyman’s *The Abandonment of the Jews* provides a comprehensive, relatively objective account of the many groups conflicting over the country’s lack of action and of the many meetings that took place to look for a solution. The United States Holocaust Memorial Museum has put together exhibits on its website and in the museum, which I intend to visit in March. Another useful source is Richard Breitman’s *American Refugee Policy and European Jewry, 1933-1945*, which argues that the poor economic condition of the United States, not anti-Semitism, was the major reason for not accepting refugees. Finally, there are a number of recently declassified U.S. government documents from the Roosevelt era that should prove most valuable in shedding new light on the FDR administration’s decision-making.
process. Many historians have wrestled with why the United States government refused to help a people in dire need, and I hope to contribute new scholarship to this debate.

**Narrative**

A narrative is essentially a story based on historical events. But aside from merely telling a story, a narrative also explores the broader significance of the events in the story. While a narrative essay does not have a clearly defined *thesis*, it does have a story line or path, and like all good stories, it contains a discernible beginning, middle and end. It moves from one event to the next, while considering the significance of each event or turning point. Narratives are less concerned with proving an argument than with crafting a story that flows, has a sense of chronology, and includes people or events that get to the heart of the story.

**Sample Prospectus for a Narrative Paper**

**The Origins of “Little Italy” in Hartford, 1920-1940**

Beginning in the mid 19th century and continuing into the early twentieth century, America experienced a wave of immigration unlike that of any other country. Millions of foreign men, women, and children poured off ships into U.S ports. Circumstances for which emigration became immanent differ based on the country of the immigrant. Mass starvation, the potato famine, drove millions of Irish to America in the late 1800’s. In the case of many Germans, religious persecution caused their exodus from Germany. For many others, the simple prospect of higher wages and better opportunities was enough to want to leave home. As America grew, matured, and became industrialized, the need for more workers and the chances for success increased. In truth, the possibility of achieving a better life turned America into the Land of Hopes and Dreams for many.

Yet, for the majority of optimistic immigrants their dreams of success were just that: only dreams. Historians debate the cause of the failure of the American dream; the starvation, horrendous living and working conditions, and general poverty of so many of America’s newest sons and daughters. Some historians argue that most immigrants were seen as only laborers and were never given the opportunity to succeed. Others contend that the established, prominent business men in America, who despised immigrants and saw them as filth, already controlled the positions of power and refused to allow immigrants to climb the company ladder; from 1900-1930 in Connecticut, 107 of the 110 most prominent industrialists were native born.

Still others believed that by isolating themselves within their own ethnicity, immigrants never adapted to American life. Whatever the cause of their problems may have been, many immigrants, still clinging to their dreams of prosperity, took action in hopes of escaping their wretched lifestyle. Allyiing themselves with corrupt neighborhood politicians and business men also known as “bosses”, fighting for government reform for their disease-ridden neighborhoods, or migrating as a group to another part of the city were all options various immigrant groups explored to escape poverty.

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During the period between 1920 and 1940, Hartford, Connecticut culturally experienced a geographical alteration. Nearly ten thousand Italians, the city and state’s largest immigrant group, began migrating from the center of the Hartford to the southern edge of the city. Yet, what caused these people to wish to leave an area that had been home their ethnic community for fifty years? How did this group succeed in their migration? Key community leaders, such as politician Tony Zazzaro, introduced the idea that a better life could be attained. Social clubs and organizations helped to bring together an often divided population; in addition, the natural unity of the Italian family made group coercion much easier. Community loyalty allowed Italian workers to gain status in the business world. Churches, the center of Italian life, provided the emotional catalyst for the people to work for change.

By moving from the city to the suburbs, the Italians hoped to live a lifestyle common to the middle class families; free from dangerous crimes, health risks, and corruption. Hartford Italians saw the inner city atmosphere as the chief contributor of their problems and viewed the more suburban outskirts of the city as their solution. The distinguishing characteristic of unity and loyalty to your family and culture allowed the Italians of Hartford to better their way of life.

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CHAPTER IV: COMPILING A BIBLIOGRAPHY

Your topic has been chosen and you have started to look for sources. As you look for possible sources for your research, you need to record those sources for future reference. One effective way is to note your sources on bibliography cards. You should buy a packet(s) of 3 x 5 index cards to record your sources or use NoodleTools. The advantage of using index cards or NoodleTools is that they are portable and can be sorted easily.

Writing Bibliography Cards

When writing bibliography cards, it is important to glean from the source the proper information to include. The bibliography card should be formatted properly and should include accurate bibliographic information as well as any information about the source that will aid you in writing notes. The following guidelines will help you find the correct information to include on your bibliography card:

- The title page of a book provides the accurate title, publisher, publication place, and author of the source. Do not get the title of a book from the cover. Often it is different. The same is true for the author. Sometimes the author’s name is abbreviated on the cover.
- The verso (the reverse side of the title page) includes information about the publication date. If there are many copyright dates, the last one listed is the date that you use.
- In the case of online resources, especially an internet resource, check the URL at the top/bottom of your printout for the source and record the day you downloaded that resource.
- Each reference should be entered on a 3”x 5” index card or into NoodleTools. Add useful sources as you find them, and discard those that prove to be useless.

On Each Card

- In the top left-hand corner, copy the call number of the book (not needed if it is an ebook). This is so you can find the book on the library shelf.
- In the body of the card, copy source information in the proper format (author, title of work, and facts of publication, and, if necessary, page numbers, index pages, subject heading that you found the resource on).
- Be complete and accurate in copying information. If you prepare your cards carefully now, you will save a great deal of time when you work on your final copy.
- Assign a source identification letter to identify the source in the upper right-hand corner. This letter is how you will identify this particular source when writing notecards. Your first source will be labeled source “A,” your next will be source “B,” and so on.
- Write a brief annotation, or description of the scope and usefulness of the resources.
- Indicate in the lower left-hand corner of the card whether the source is Primary (P) or Secondary (S).
- Include call numbers of books used.
Sample Bibliography Card for Book

E 841.B59


(A chronicle of significant American events and personalities during the tumultuous period in the nation’s history.)

Secondary (S)

Sample Bibliography Card for Magazine as a Secondary Source

B


(Debate over the legacy of the Civil War today)

Secondary (S)
Sample Bibliography Card For Magazine as a Primary Source

C
(Changing role of women in politics in the 1920s)

Primary (P)

Sample Bibliography Card For Newspaper Article

D
(About current crisis in Middle East, suicide bombers, includes comments from President Bush)

Primary (P)
Sample Bibliography Card For An Article/Essay From A Book:

D.804.348.I8 E


(A collection of scholarly essays discussing examples of genocide, and debating the appropriate comparisons, if any, to the Jewish Holocaust)

Secondary (S)

Sample Bibliography Citations

The following represents sample formats for bibliographies. The History Department recommends that you use the Chicago/Turabian method of documentation for both your bibliography and your footnotes. The Student's Guide for Writing College Papers, by Kate L. Turabian is on reserve in the library for further consultation. Also included in these sample bibliographic formats are formats for citing online sources from the Internet and sources from online databases.

In Writing Your Bibliography Remember These General Rules

- Author (last name first, followed by a comma, then first name) then a period. When there is no author, just begin with the title.
- The full title (title and subtitle – found on the title page) must be given in a bibliography. Separate the main title from the subtitle with a colon (:).
- Always capitalize the first letter of the first and last word of the title and subtitle as well as the first letter of all major words. Articles, prepositions, the “to” of infinitives, and coordinate conjunctions (“and,” “but,” “or,” “nor,” “for”) are not considered major words.
- When a publisher lists offices in several cities, provide only the first city.
- Italicize the titles of published works, books, plays, pamphlets, periodicals, and newspapers. Enclose in quotation marks (do not italicize) titles of essays, articles, or chapters of books.
- If a work exists in more than one edition include information about what edition you are using after the work’s title (or editor, if any). Example: 2nd ed., 3rd ed., or revised ed.
- If a work exists in more than one volume, write the total number of volumes the work encompasses after the title (and editor, if any). After the publication information, provide the actual volume you are using. Example: Vol. 2, Vol. 3.
• Indent the second, third, fourth, etc. lines of the bibliographic entry. This is the opposite format for footnotes, where the first line is indented.

Book with One Author


Book with Two Authors or Editors


Book with an Institution, Association, or the Like, As “Author”


Book with No Author


An Essay or Article in an Edited Collection or Anthology


Encyclopedia Article (Signed)


Encyclopedia Articles (unsigned)


Magazine Article with an Author


Magazine Article with No Author

Journal Article


Newspaper Article


Electronic Sources: Websites and HTML Database Articles

Use the following citation styles for articles or information found on a website and database articles found in HTML format, which do not have concise page divisions. Following the “Title of the Webpage or Article” is the “Bread Crumb Trail.” In this section, you want to provide the way a reader could navigate to the cited webpage from the original homepage. This is provided if the web address is a broken link.

Basic Bibliographic Citation Format for Electronic Sources

Author/Owner of the Site. “Title of Webpage or Article.” Bread Crumb Trail. Web Address. (Date Accessed).

Article from a Website


Article in Reference Book Online (HTML Format)


Journal Article (HTML Format)

Book Review in a Journal (HTML Format)


Magazine Article (HTML Format)


Newspaper Article (HTML Format):


NoodleTools Basic Instruction

The URL for NoodleTools: http://www.noodletools.com

See a Librarian for username and password. The username and password is found on the Electronic Resources Sheet on the Student Portal under Katharine Brush Library Resources.

Registration

- Click on Current User Sign in at the top right of the screen.
- Click on Create a Personal ID if this is the first time you are using this resource.
  - If this is not the first time you have used NoodleTools, enter your username and password in the area under: Already Have a Personal ID?
  - The remaining directions are for those setting up a NoodleTools account.
- Under Subscription Type choose An account linked to a school/library subscription or trial and click Register.
- Enter the Username: loomis Password: kbl, then click on “Sign In.”
- Choose I am a student or a library patron.
- Next fill in the relevant information about you or your group.
- Make sure that you write down this username and password. Click Register to go to the next screen.
- Your personal account is now created.

Creating Citations

- Under My Project, click on the Create a New Project to the right of the screen.
- Choose citation style:
  - For History use: Chicago/Turabian Advanced.
b. For English use: **MLA Advanced**.

- Fill in a description of your bibliography in **Description**. Example: Civil War Bibliography.
- Click **Create Project**.
- Under **Components**, click **Bibliography**.
- Under **Cite a**: choose a citation type (book, periodical, journal newspaper, etc.). Once the citation type is selected, choose the **Create Citation** button to the right of the screen.
- The next couple of screens will limit your citation down, such as print or electronic.
- Enter information on your bibliographic screen that is necessary to complete the format type.
- Each different kind of resource requires different kinds of information. **Pay attention to the screens and the help screens on your NoodleTools citation**.
- Check for errors by clicking on the **Check for Errors** button.
- Now click **Generate Citation** to create your citation.
- Once the bibliographic information is filled in, then scroll down to the bottom of the page and write your annotation if your teacher requires one.
- Once your citation is generated, it is saved to your personal folder.
- You now have the choice of adding more citations under **Cite a**:
- If your teacher wants you to share the bibliography click **Share** on the top of the screen. Enter the class name that your teacher assigned to you in the **assignment drop box** with your name in the other box.

**Saving and Sending Your Bibliography**

- The moment that you generate a citation, your bibliography is stored in your personal folder.
- You mail also email a copy of your bibliography to yourself by clicking on **email**.
- You can make also make a hard copy of your bibliography by clicking on **Print/Export**.

**Retrieving Your Citations**

- You may want to add to your bibliography at different sessions or you might want to edit its contents. To do this:
- Got to [http://www.noodletools.com](http://www.noodletools.com).
- Choose **Current Users Login** to the top right of the screen.
- Enter your username and password under **Already Have a Personal ID** and click on **Sign In**.
- Now click on your bibliography and start adding citations under **Cite a**: or you can edit a citation by placing a check mark before the citation and clicking on the pencil and paper icon to the right of the citation.
CHAPTER V: DOING THE RESEARCH

You are the historian, analyzing the raw data that is all that remains of the past and you are the thinker, trying to determine the meaning of this data for us in the present.

As you look over your sources think about the following things:

- **Historical Context**— *When* was the document written? *Where* was it written? What other events were happening at the time?
- **Author**— *Who* is he/she? *What* makes them an authority on this subject? From what angle do they approach the subject? *Why* might the author be writing this particular document?
- **Audience**— *To whom* is the document addressed? Does this give a clue as to why the document was written?

Collect and examine data from both primary and secondary sources, as well as from a variety of perspectives. Do not ignore contradictory evidence. An effective historian will acknowledge other viewpoints, but will ultimately persuade the reader to agree with him or her. In your reading and note taking you may find that others agree with the conclusion you derived by yourself. This is a good sign that you are conducting good historical research, but you must document that source even if you had the same conclusion before you read the source.

Although it may seem that you are only repeating the opinions of others on notecards, the final paper will be your original project. Your selection and arrangement of facts and opinions will reflect your unique presentation and personal interpretation of your subject. Be careful, however, to read your sources carefully. Sometimes, when one has a theory about events or people in the past, it is tempting to interpret information in ways that support the theory, even if it means taking an author’s words out of context. This is the way myths are born—and passed on as truth.

**Procedure for Taking Notes**

Once you have completed bibliography cards for all the sources you’ve compiled to date, you are ready to begin note taking.

Record all your notes on 4” x 5” notecards or use NoodleTools Notecards. Why do we use notecards:

- They provide flexibility - they can be easily shuffled according to your outline, allowing you to organize your paper more effectively.
- Notecards are the most efficient way to achieve portability.

**Notecard Headings**

In the top right-hand corner of a notecard, indicate the source by writing the source identification letter (A, B, C, D, etc.) All notecards taken from that source will have the same letter. Be sure that this letter corresponds with the letter on your bibliography card. Note that the source letter corresponds to the full information on the bibliography card.
Taking Notes

As you take notes, record only one item of usable data (fact, quotation, interpretation) on each card, and only write on one side. Entering only one piece of information per card provides you with the flexibility needed to organize your cards as your paper develops. Do not worry about having too many cards. If a note does not work, it is easy to write another card.

The data included on each card will include one or more of the following:

- A direct quotation
- A direct paraphrase (putting the source’s ideas into your own words)
- An indirect quotation (quoting what is already a quotation)
- An indirect paraphrase (paraphrasing what is already a paraphrase)

If your paraphrase or quotation covers more than one page from your sources, indicate the turn of the page by the use of a double slash (///). In case you elect to use a portion of the note, the double slash (///) will pinpoint the page or origin. If your quote continues past the length of one card, continue onto a new card.

You should copy directly (quote) as much as possible from primary sources. Later you can decide what to quote and what to paraphrase. It’s harder, though, to discover later that you really need a direct quotation, or more of a quotation, and all you have is a paraphrase or an incomplete quotation.

Do not rely on a secondary source for a quotation if you have access to the original source. Find the original (primary) source of the quotation, and cite that instead of citing the secondary source.

There are two situations when you should quote directly from a secondary source rather than paraphrase:

- When there is no way to rephrase accurately the material of the original source.
- When the author’s choice of words is so elegant, clear, brilliant, or powerful that you want to retain the impact of his or her expression.

When you do paraphrase, however, you should do so immediately. That way it is fresh in your mind and less prone to distortion later on.

In the top center of the card, place a short heading (a significant word or phrase or tag) that relates to the information on your card. The author often gives you a good suggestion from the chapter heading. This is an easy step in helping you organize your paper later.
If you wish to record your own reactions and observations (questions, links to other sources, apparent contradictions, ideas that pop into your head) as you take notes, write them at the bottom of the card. Set them off from the body of the note with brackets [ ] and your own initials to avoid confusing your editorial thoughts with the author’s materials. For big ideas, make a separate notecard. These will help later in organizing your paper around your ideas.

**Sample Notecards**

**Direct Quotation (quoting directly from a source)**

Whenever you quote, you must copy the information exactly as it appears in the original— with every word, every mark of punctuation, every capital letter, and every underline. Enclose the beginning and the end in quotation marks.


For years now I have heard the word “Wait!” It rings in the ear of every Negro with piercing familiarity. This “Wait” has almost always meant “Never.” We must come to see, with one of our distinguished jurists, that “justice too long delayed is justice denied.”

**Notecard for Direct Quote**

```
43  King in jail  A, 56
(topic heading) (source letter, page #)
```

"For years now I have heard the word ‘wait!’ It rings in the ear of every Negro with piercing familiarity. This ‘wait’ has almost always meant ‘Never.’ We must come to see, with one of our distinguished jurists, that ‘justice too long delayed is justice denied.’"

**Direct Paraphrase (summarizing/putting material into your own words)**

Slightly modifying the words or switching the order of parts of the passage without crediting your source amounts to plagiarism.

The New Frontier and the Great Society failed to address the endemic nature of American poverty. And Kennedy and Johnson, stymied by the influence of special interests on the Hill, would not propose truly redistributive taxation. Further, the Vietnam War absorbed federal energies and funds necessary for continued social reform.

**Notecard of a Direct Paraphrase**

The Great Society failed in large part because:

- The Kennedy and Johnson administrations were beholden to special interest groups on Capitol Hill, and
- Economic and political resources were diverted toward the Vietnam War

*Secondary (S)*

**Indirect Quotation (quoting a quotation)**

If the passage you quote is already a quotation, you must indicate that you have an indirect quotation by using double quotation marks, then changing the original double quotation marks to single quotation marks, and then placing a closing quotation mark at the end. Identify at the bottom of your notecard the original source, writing all the information (title, author, publishing data, and page reference(s)) that your source provides. You can find this information in the text itself or, more commonly, in a footnote.


The bus started exploding, and a lot of people were cut by flying glass. We were taken to the hospital...The people at the hospital would not do anything for us. They would not. And I was saying, “You’re doctors, you’re medical personnel.” They wouldn’t. Governor Patterson got on state-wide radio and said, “Any rioters in the state will not receive police protection.” And then the crowd started forming outside the hospital, and the hospital told us to leave.
Notecard of an Indirect Quotation

"The bus started exploding, and a lot of people were cut by flying glass. We were taken to the hospital...The people at the hospital would not do anything for us. They would not. And I was saying, 'You're doctors, you're medical personnel.' They wouldn't. Governor Patterson got on state-wide radio and said, 'Any rioters in the state will not receive police protection.' And then the crowd started forming outside the hospital, and the hospital told us to leave."

(interview with Hank Thomas, a freedom rider)

Primary (P)

If your source uses block quotations (setting it apart from the main text through spacing and indentation), it could still be a quotation even though there are no quotation marks in your source. Watch for this.

Indirect Paraphrase (paraphrasing a paraphrase)

When you paraphrase material that your source borrowed from another source, it is imperative to identify on the bottom of your notecard the original sources and all the information that your source provides.


The bus started exploding, and a lot of people were cut by flying glass. We were taken to the hospital...The people at the hospital would not do anything for us. They would not. And I was saying, “You’re doctors, you’re medical personnel.” They wouldn’t. Governor Patterson got on state-wide radio and said, “Any rioters in the state will not receive police protection.” And then the crowd started forming outside the hospital, and the hospital told us to leave.
Although the above example shows the correct format for an indirect paraphrase, you can see how much more effective it is to quote the source directly (see #3: indirect quote). By paraphrasing rather than quoting Mr. Thomas’ words, one loses the true impact of the scene he is describing.

Reflection During Research

It’s a good idea every now and then, as you collect your information, to take time to think about what you have discovered and where it is leading you. In fact, failure to do this could result in hours of work wasted. You may get off on a path of research, which does little to support the thesis you will defend, or the story you will tell. Take time to write your ideas down on notecards (one idea per card). Think about how your ideas are shaping up. Work on developing a preliminary thesis or storyline, and think about what parts of the paper will be weak unless you do further research in that area. Reevaluate your evidence. Interpret and reinterpret the documents. Talk over your ideas with someone else to see if they make sense. The worst thing to do is to dive into your sources and take notes blindly—a large pile of notecards is, in fact, NOT an indication that you have done ANY research. Research includes thinking. And thinking is the most important part of this project.

NoodleTools Notecards Instruction

Creating Notecards

- Create a citation before beginning to make notecards.
- For each citation, Set an Attribute (primary or secondary source) at the bottom of the citation list.
- Create a notecard by clicking New to the right of the citation. This can also be done on the Notecard Tabletop.
• **Notecard Screen**
  - Title the notecard.
  - Supply URL of resource, if applicable.
  - Pages of notetaking.
  - Create tags for the notecard.
  - There are three types of information you can supply with descriptions of each:
    - Direction Quotation
    - Paraphrase
    - My Idea
  - Save the Notecard.

**Notecard Tabletop**

• The tabletop itself extends beyond what you see on the screen, giving room to space out and organize notecards.
• The bird-eye-view, in the lower left hand corner, is the complete notecard area.
• Piles are created on the tabletop. To create a pile click **Add to Pile**. A pile is a group of notecards that share a common theme, support an idea, or center on a particular topic.
• There is also the ability to create tags for notecards. To create tags click on **Tags**. There are three different types of tags:
  - **Colors**—Color-code notecards.
  - **Visual Cues**—These include needs further research, original idea, etc.
  - **Keywords**—These are keyword tags assigned to each notecard.

**Printing Your Notecards**

• On the Notecards screen, click **Print** above the Notecard Tabletop.
• Choose **Export as a Web page (HTML file)** or **Export to Word (RTF)**.
• There are three print options:
  - Export all notecards.
  - Export selected notecards only.
  - Export notecards from a pile.

**Outline**

• An outline is created on the right panel of the Notecard Tabletop.
• For each new outline there is already a sample topic and subtopic. These can be deleted.
• There is the ability to add notecards to topics in the outline.
  - To add a notecard to a topic, drag-and-drop a notecard or pile from the Notecard Tabletop onto a topic or subtopic.
  - A small black checkmark appears in the top-left corner of the notecard on the tabletop.

**Printing Your Outline**

• Click **Print** in the outline toolbar.
• There are three print options:
Plagiarism

Before you begin to take notes, it is important to understand plagiarism. “As students asked to do research of your own, you have every right to draw upon, borrow, and criticize the work of other scholars. In exercising this right, however, you also incur the obligation to acknowledge your sources.”

When you put your name on the cover page of any paper, you are stating that all the points made in the paper are yours—conceived and written by you—unless you document, that is tell your reader from where you borrowed information. To present in the paper words or ideas from another without giving credit to your sources, regardless of intent, constitutes plagiarism. Even if you commit plagiarism unintentionally, it may result in disciplinary action. At the very least, the paper will have to be redone to make it an honest paper.

Defining Plagiarism

The Loomis Chaffee History and Social Science Department accepts the following three-part definition of plagiarism below by Donald Sears:

- **Word-for-Word plagiarism**—This includes (a) the submission of another student’s work as one’s own; (b) the submission of a paper downloaded from the internet; (c) the submission of work from any source whatever that is not properly acknowledged by a footnote, bibliography, or reference in the paper itself; (d) the submission of any part of another’s work without proper use of quotation marks.

- **Patchwork-Quilt Plagiarism**—As our great grandmothers used to put together large quilts out of scraps of cloth, a student may make the mistake of passing off as an original paper one that is stitched together from phrases and sentences taken from his or her sources. If the student does not include quotation marks around all such borrowings, that is committing plagiarism.

- **Unacknowledged Paraphrase**—An author’s discovery of fact or original interpretation of fact is as much his property as his exact words are. Restatement by means of paraphrase does not remove the necessity of giving credit to the original sources.

Examples of Plagiarism

To avoid plagiarism, you will need to take notes carefully. Whenever you use material from another source, you must either: **Quote** (copy the information exactly as it appears in the original) or **Paraphrase** (restate in your own words).

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3 The Committee on Sources of Dartmouth Colleges, *Sources: Their Use and Acknowledgement* (Hanover, NH: Dartmouth College, 1987), 1.

The following examples illustrate the three types of plagiarism and the correct way of crediting the content of a passage(s).


Reducing the forest was an essential first step toward reproducing that Old World mosaic in an American environment. For the New England landscape, and for the Indians, what followed was undoubtedly a new ecological order; for the colonists, on the other hand, it was an old and familiar way of life.

Word-for-Word Plagiarism

**Example:**

For the New England colonists, cutting down abundant trees was an essential first step toward reproducing the Old World mosaic in an American environment. What followed was undoubtedly a new ecological order.

**Correction:**

For the New England colonists, cutting down abundant trees “was an essential first step toward reproducing the Old World mosaic in an American environment…What followed was undoubtedly a new ecological order.”

Patchwork-Quilt Plagiarism

**Example:**

Cutting down trees was an essential first step to recreating an Old World mosaic in the New World.

**Correction:**

Cutting down trees “was an essential first step” to recreating an “Old World mosaic” in the New World.¹

**NOTE:** Moving phrases out of their original order and mixing some paraphrased writing with unacknowledged quotation from the sources does not legitimize this mosaic.

Unacknowledged Paraphrase

**Example:**

The colonists sought to recreate their English pastoral landscape in the New World by deforestation. This greatly altered the ecology of New England, and thus the Indians’ way of life.
Correction:

The colonists sought to recreate their English pastoral landscape in the New World by deforestation. This greatly altered the ecology of New England, and thus the Indians’ way of life.¹

The above version is a good paraphrase of the original passage; however, the student forgot to note the source. The entire paragraph must be footnoted to acknowledge the ideas of William Cronon. To avoid a serious charge of intellectual dishonesty, all the writer has to do is place a footnote at the end of the paraphrased paragraph.

Avoiding Plagiarism

Reducing your source material to essential points and utilizing your own words is difficult at first. You need to practice this technique and think about the material. Try paraphrasing your information after reading at least a whole paragraph first. Without looking directly at the material, rephrase the material in your own words. Check what you have written against the original. If necessary, redo the notecard or put quotation marks around any words that need quoting.

If the passage you quote is already a quotation, you must indicate that you have an indirect quotation by using a double quotation first, then changing the original double quotation marks to a single set of quotation marks, then placing a double quotation mark at the end. (See sample notecards on page 35 for examples.)

Often you don’t want to use the whole quotation exactly as written. Never change (add, delete, or modify) something without showing what you have done. There are two ways to excerpt quotations:

- To omit portions of the original source without changing the meaning, use an ellipsis, consisting of three spaced periods (…), for the words left out in the middle of quoted material. If the portion omitted is the end of a sentence, insert four dots, three to indicate omission and the fourth to indicate the end of the original sentence.
- To insert your own words (explanations or corrections), use square brackets [ ]. Parentheses cannot be substituted for square brackets. Square brackets are used to change and upper-case letter (capital) to a lower-case letter and a lower-case letter to an upper-case letter.

Example:

Your original source reads:

“In 1807 Thomas Jefferson decided to recommend to Congress that the United States adopt the same strategy which it had used during the Revolution: the boycott. Therefore, Congress passed the Embargo Act, making it illegal to trade with Great Britain as long as Britain refused to guarantee Americans equal rights on the seas.”¹

If you wanted to draw only some information from this for your paper, you might write it like this:
“In 1807…Jefferson decided to recommend…[that Congress pass] the Embargo Act, making it illegal to trade with Great Britain….”

• Whenever you quote, pay close attention to detail. You must copy the information verbatim, that is exactly as it appears in the original text, including all wording, marks of punctuation, capitalization, and underlining. You also must enclose the beginning and the end with quotation marks.

• Make sure all quotation marks are used in pairs. Make them prominent on your notecard.

• On notecards, you may abbreviate when paraphrasing, but never abbreviate when you are quoting. When you type the final copy, you will not remember, for instance, whether the “U.S.” you wrote on your notecard stands for “U.S.” or “United States” in the original source.

• Don’t misrepresent the author’s meaning by taking the source’s words out of context. If you can’t adequately translate the author’s expression of ideas in your own phraseology, use the author’s exact words in a quotation.

**Example:**

Your original source reads:

“I did not come to class on time on Tuesday.”

The entire sentence would have to be quoted. Misquotes like “I did…come to class on time on Tuesday” or “I did not come to class…on Tuesday” would seriously alter the meaning of the original statement.

**Some Final Thoughts on Plagiarism**

Don’t fall into the plagiarizing trap. Plagiarism often occurs inadvertently through inattention as you take notes. Take care not to copy a sentence, memorable phrase, or word and call it your own. Any striking word or words taken verbatim from a source need to be enclosed in quotation marks and need a reference source and exact page number.

**In short—When in doubt, footnote**
CHAPTER VI: WRITING THE PAPER

Writing the research paper is not very much different from writing any other paper—it’s just that this paper is longer. This is because you have researched some problem in depth, and you have substantial information that you have discovered and interpreted to bring to bear on that problem. Essentially you mull over the data, come up with your main ideas, organize your presentation around them, write carefully, and rewrite.

Reviewing Notes

Reading over your notecards is the best way to review all you have found out as a result of your research. As you read through them, make notes on the cards themselves about what they mean and how they seem to be fitting together. Change the headings on the top of the cards as you begin to see patterns and themes develop. Rearrange the cards in groups that go with particular ideas. Jot down more ideas on cards, and then sit back and THINK. Try to get a sense of the big picture. Now it’s time to get organized.

Developing an Outline

How you organize your paper depends first on what sort of paper you want to write: an analytical essay or a narrative, both of which require a different approach to organization. Whatever the form of the paper, though, the first thing to do is to get a clear picture in your mind of your purpose. Go back to your original research proposal. What was your purpose in doing the research in the first place? Have your findings produced an information base sufficient for accomplishing that purpose? If not, have you revised your purpose? What can you do with what you have found out? What can you argue? What story can you tell? What situation can you describe? To get a good sense of your purpose, write it out.

Once you have done that, you can determine the appropriate form for your paper. For example, if your purpose was to find out what really happened at Lexington, Massachusetts on April 19, 1775, the best form would be a narrative. If you wanted to find out why it was that Captain Parker was out on the Lexington Green at sunrise with his armed company, it might be better to write an analytical essay. You can talk this over with your teacher to make sure you are on the right track.

There is one task you should accomplish first, no matter what type of paper you are writing: write out your introduction now. Write it and rewrite it and rewrite it until it clearly conveys the purpose (and do this on a computer so you can change it easily, and so you can incorporate it into your paper once you have the outline done). Of course different types of papers require different types of introductions (see below). However, it is important in any case to have the beginning fully articulated. At this point, if you are writing an analytical paper you should be able to defend the issue and/or context clearly and state your thesis and its main arguments. If you are writing a narrative, you should know now where you will make your beginning, and what the theme of the narrative is.

Once you have the introduction written, you can draw up a skeleton outline for the rest, which is all you need, since all the information is on the notecards. Here are some suggestions for how to go about organizing two types of papers: Analytical and Narrative.
Outlining an Analytical Paper

• **Introduction**—Written in paragraph form. Define the issue and/or context. (You should provide background information on your topic, but you can assume some prior knowledge—that is, anything in your history textbook. Don’t bore your reader with recitation of widely known information). State your thesis. State the main arguments you will make to support your thesis in the order in which you will discuss them.
  • **First argument to support your thesis**—topic sentence
    o First supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o Second supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o You may or may not need a third supporting point
  • **Second argument to support your thesis**—topic sentence
    o First supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o Second supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o You may or may not need a third supporting point
  • **Third argument to support your thesis**—topic sentence
    o First supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o Second supporting point—3-4 words (list notecard numbers you will use)
    o You may or may not need a third supporting point
  • **Conclusion**—no need to write at this time, unless you feel you are ready to do so. Might be a good idea to jot down a few ideas at least.
• **Bibliography**

Whereas in a short analytical paper you would take up each argument in one paragraph, in a longer paper such as this each argument should be discussed in several paragraphs. In fact, you might think of each argument as a separate “paper within a paper.”

Outlining a Narrative

• Write out the introduction/beginning—This may include a preface, forward, or introduction to the narrative in which you state your purpose or what brought you to write this story; or you may simply begin with the beginning of the story as long as it is clear to your reader why you are telling it. In either case you want to hook your reader. Make them want to read on and find out how the story ends.
  • Write an “abstract” of the plot of the story—give just the main steps or turning points in the story from start to finish. Be sure to use simple and clear sentences. Then separate the sentences to make them into a list, and under each sentence list supporting details followed by the notecard numbers you will use to flesh out each part of the plot.
  • Ending—every narrative has an ending or resolution. Write out in a sentence where yours will end. (List notecard numbers you will use in developing the ending.)
  • Conclusion—Bring your story to a close and reflect on its meaning.
• **Bibliography**

Organizing Notecards According To Outline

Now that you have an outline, it is time to return to your notecards and arrange them in the order in which you will use them. Work with the big ideas or story components first, then organize the notecards within each section. You may find, at this point, that in order to develop
one idea that is essential to your thesis or story, you need to have more information. Alas, this is
a sad situation, but be comforted in knowing it happens to nearly every historian. Thus, you will
need to take time out to do some additional research (or revise your thesis or storyline and
reorganize your outline again.)

Another common occurrence is to discover that you have several notecards that do not really fit
anywhere. If that is because they require you to alter your thesis, or change your story, then do
so—don’t simply throw out information, which contradicts your argument! However, more often
than not, these extra notecards are the result of two possibilities:

- You already have the information from another source—if that is the case then keep the
  notecard, and when you footnote the information, put both sources in your footnote.
- The information, which may have seemed useful when you went to all the trouble to write
  it down, is now, on final reflection, useless and irrelevant. In that case toss the notecard.
  Well, don’t toss it too far—it may yet turn out to be of some use. But the worst thing you
could do is to try to find a way to incorporate the information into your paper just because
you would otherwise feel as though you had wasted time back when you wrote it down.
Let the purpose of your paper determine what information you use, and don’t include a
lot of irrelevant data that will simply bore your reader.

**The First Draft**

Now that you’ve written your outline and organized your notes, you’re ready to begin writing!
You already have your introduction written—but you may want to revise it one more time, if only
to remind yourself of your purpose. There are two ways to begin writing:

- Begin at the beginning and write your paper in order of your outline
  —OR—
- Begin anywhere. Yes, anywhere! Pick the spot in your outline that you think will be the
  easiest to work on and write that section first. This will get you going and give you the
  momentum you need to work fast. Work around your outline in the order you wish—go
  back now and then to work on the overall flow of the paper, paying particular attention to
  the need for transitions to keep your reader on track.

After you finish writing, you should revise, reformat, polish, and otherwise perfect your paper so
that it at least looks like a final draft. Begin with the text itself. See how it measures up to the
standards listed in the rubric on the next page. Is the paper introduced well, is it structured well,
are the transitions smooth, are quotations integrated and not just tossed in, is each point
convincing and supported with ample evidence or illustration, do you stick to the main theme or
thesis? These are all things you’re used to doing with shorter papers; it will just take longer this
time. Make sure you set aside time to proofread the paper.

Many students mistakenly call the first draft of their research paper “the rough draft.” Be
assured, there should be nothing “rough” about the first draft you submit to your teacher.
The teacher, in fact, should not see your rough or working draft. What you should give your
teacher is your best effort—what you think at that point is worthy of being called your final draft.
First Draft Checklist

Your teacher may distribute a rubric/checklist with specific components you’ll need to include in your first draft, but here is a good example of the key elements and characteristics that ANY good research paper includes:

• **Title**
  - Encapsulates your topic, and is clever and interesting

• **Introduction/Beginning**
  - Grabs the reader’s attention
  - Defines the issue and clearly articulates the thesis (*analytical*)
  - Sets the stage of the story and introduces theme (*narrative*)
  - Justifies the purpose of the topic (Why should we care? Why is this relevant?)

• **Evidence/Research**
  - Considers historical context of the evidence
  - Effectively introduces and integrates quotations
  - Balances high quality primary and secondary evidence from multiple perspectives
  - Includes sufficient evidence to support thesis (*analytical*)
  - Includes sufficient plot components and descriptive elements — i.e. details (*narrative*)

• **Analysis**
  - Presents sophisticated analysis and interpretation of the evidence
  - Sheds new light on the topic

• **Conclusion/End**
  - Effectively reiterates arguments and wraps up thesis — much like an attorney would deliver a closing statement to the jury in a trial (*analytical*)
  - Ties together the threads of the story (*narrative*)
  - End connects back to the beginning and clearly reinforces the purpose of the paper

• **Composition**
  - Smooth transitions between sentences and paragraphs
  - Topic sentences support/develop the thesis (*analytical*)
  - Each paragraph moves along a clear path through a series of events (*narrative*)
  - Clear and engaging writing style
  - Uses appropriate tone (formal, 3rd person, not sarcastic or colloquial)
  - Uses proper grammar and sentence structure

• **Format/Mechanics**
  - Indent quotations that are longer than four lines (see * below)
  - Page numbers appear centered at the bottom of each page (but NOT the first page)
  - Footnotes and bibliography are properly formatted
  - Carefully proofread and spell-checked
  - Margins are 1 inch all around
  - Text size is 12-point, and appears in Times, Palatino, Geneva or Helvetica font
  - Double-spaced
Quotations longer than four lines should be indented 10 spaces (or hit the tab bar twice) and single-spaced (with one space above and one below quotation.) If you do this, you do NOT need to use quotation marks. Indenting and single-spacing means “this is a quote.” Place the footnote reference number at the end of the last line of the quotation.

Documentation

Although you’ve already carefully documented your sources while taking notes, you now need to credit your sources while transferring the material from your notecards to your paper.

As you write, you will want to insert footnotes. (If you do not know how to insert a footnote using your Word program, ask someone who is familiar with the program – in most Word programs you can go to the “Insert” heading and select “Footnote.” or for Word 2007, click on the Reference Tab and choose “footnote”)

Here is what you need to know about when to footnote and what source information is needed.

What to Document

You may use any information from any source so long as you give your source credit, by providing documentation. Documentation is the acknowledgment of material you have derived from a source and exactly where in that source you found the material. You must document in all of the following circumstances:

- Any quotations—both direct and indirect.
- The paraphrasing of all ideas not your own that you have borrowed from someone else, including another’s opinion, judgment, interpretation, insight, attitude, feeling, or conclusion.
- Information that is in dispute.
- Data from illustrations, charts, graphs, tables, diagrams, polls, and statistics.
- An uncommon fact (any fact found in three or more sources can be considered as common knowledge and does not need to be footnoted).

Suppose you are writing a paper on the Mexican War. You should not document the following facts about the war: that it began in 1846, ended in 1848, was fought between the Mexicans and Americans during the Polk administration, and led to the American acquisition of California. You do, however, have to document causes of the war and the lists of casualties for each battle.

As you can see, footnotes provide the source of the facts and opinions that appear in your paper; they give authority to your paper. If you failed to document, you deny the author(s) whose material you used the acknowledgment they deserve. Bad idea! In addition, when the information is documented, the reader can verify the accuracy of your points, judge the credibility of your work, and carry out his or her own research using yours as a take-off point. Then that researcher will have to document your work.

Footnote all quoted material, even if you quote just a few words in a sentence, as well as all paraphrased material. Failure to document is plagiarism. Another bad idea. When in doubt, footnote.
Learning Where to Document

Place the footnote reference number at the end of each piece of information being documented. In the case of a direct quotation it should be placed after the closing quotation mark, as follows:

“This is a direct quotation, followed by a footnote reference number.”¹

Note that the punctuation always goes within the closing quotation mark. It is also all right if the quotation does not end the sentence in your paper, to wait until you have ended the sentence to insert the footnote.

• Do not have one quotation immediately follow another. You need a bridge between the two quotations; use your own words to show how the quotations are connected. Never simply “toss” in a quotation and expect your reader to see how it relates to the point you are making. Integrate your quotations into the text of the essay so they flow smoothly within your discussion.
• Introduce the speaker and/or context of the quotation in the text of your essay.
• Quote from secondary sources only when you are analyzing the source, or if that source has a particular way with words you will never top. Most of the time you should summarize or paraphrase information from secondary sources unless it is the historians argument or a subset. Quoting them directly does not add credibility to your paper—in fact, it is distracting from the flow of your text. All it proves is that you can’t figure out how to say things for yourself. But that can’t be the case, now can it?

Footnotes

Footnotes go at the bottom of the page—that’s why they’re called footnotes. This is the most convenient way for your reader to see your sources. All Word programs offer the footnote tool very easily.

Number your footnotes consecutively in the main text of the final draft. Most Word programs do that automatically, even when you insert a new footnote during your revisions. The program will automatically renumber all of the footnotes. Footnotes come in two parts: (1) a superscript number (a raised number slightly above the line) following your borrowed idea, information or quotation in the main text, and (2) the number repeated at the bottom of page followed by all the necessary information describing where the idea came from. Footnote numbers are never followed by a period.

The footnote must appear on the bottom of the page on which the information being cited appears above. Your word program should do that automatically for you, but it’s always a good idea to check anyway.

The first reference to a work should cite full information (author’s name, title of work, facts of publication, and page number). Subsequent mentions of the same source are less elaborate, as you will see in the next section.
Direct Quotations and Direct Paraphrases

Here is a typical footnote for a first reference to a book:

Author's first name author's last name, *Main Title* (Place of Publication: publishing company, most recent copyright date), page number(s).

Here is a typical footnote for a first reference to a periodical article:

Author's first name author's last name, “Title of article,” *Title of Periodical*, Volume and number (if available), date, page number(s).

Note the punctuation used above. Whereas bibliography entries use periods between the various parts of the citation, footnote entries use commas.

Indirect Quotations

If you quote a statement that is in quotation marks in your source, begin your footnote entry with the original documentation in proper footnote form. Then write “as quoted in.” Then indicate the source in which you found the material.

Indirect Paraphrases

If you paraphrase something your source has paraphrased, start the footnote entry with the original documentation. Then write “cited by.” Then indicate the source in which you found the material.

Sample Footnote Citations

Here are some citations for a first reference. Pay close attention to the arrangement of information and to punctuation. Note that each sample footnote citation corresponds with the examples of bibliography citations in Chapter IV.

Book with A Single Author


Book with Two Authors or Editors

Book with an Institution, Association, or the Like, as “Author”


Book with No Author

1 The Lottery (London: J. Watts, 1732), 89.

An Essay or Article in an Edited Collection or Anthology


Magazine Article with an Author

1Steven J. Bell, “From Gatekeepers to Gate-Openers.” American Libraries, August/September 2009, 52.

Magazine Article With No Author


Journal Article


Newspaper Article


Electronic Sources: Websites and HTML Database Articles

Use the following citation styles for articles or information found on a website and database articles found in HTML format, which do not have concise page divisions. Following the “Title of the Webpage or Article” is the “Bread Crumb Trail.” In this section, you want to provide the way a reader could navigate to the cited webpage from the original homepage. This is provided if the web address is a broken link.

Article from a Website

Journal Article (HTML Format)


Book Review in a Journal (HTML Format)


Magazine Article (HTML Format)


Newspaper Article (HTML Format)


Documenting Later References: Example

But Peter Scotto has offered another view. Frye defined the alazon as a “self-deceiving or self-deceived character in fiction.” Frye denies Scotto’s theory. Scotto’s theory states: “My essay, then, is about the ways in which a reader gives voice to those silences.”

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3. Ibid., 35.

*Note: *Ibid. is an abbreviation for ibidem, which means “in the same place.” When a source is referenced and following the same source, ibid. can take the place of the note. However, the author must include the page number(s). An ibid. footnote can never be the first footnote on a page.

**Note: **The author can use an abbreviated footnote after the original source is completely cited earlier in the paper (as seen in the first footnote). An abbreviated footnote includes the author’s last name, shortened title, and page number(s).
The Bibliography

To prepare your bibliography, refer back to your bibliography cards or to your NoodleTools bibliography for directions to format your final bibliography. Discard any cards for sources that did not aid you in the actual writing of the paper. If you are using NoodleTools, double check to make sure all your sources have been compiled into your online bibliography. NoodleTools automatically alphabetizes the list of sources. Remember, the bibliography format is different from the footnote format. (See Chapter IV for examples). Remember, bibliography citations are single-spaced (with a space between each) and they begin at the margin, while the second and succeeding lines are indented. Do not number the bibliography entries. Finally, make sure you've revised the bibliography title from Works Cited to Bibliography.

If you are not using NoodleTools, alphabetize the remaining bibliography cards according to the last names of the authors, or, for anonymous works, by the first important word of the title. (“A”, “An,” and The” are not important words.) Type the complete bibliography (alphabetized by author’s last name) in the proper format at the end of your paper. Remember, the bibliography format is different from the footnote format. (See Chapter IV for examples). Remember, bibliography citations are single-spaced (with a space between each) and they begin at the margin, while the second and succeeding lines are indented. Do not number the bibliography entries.

Preparing The Final Draft

When you get your first draft back from your teacher, look over all of the comments carefully and make sure you understand them. If you have questions, make an appointment to see your teacher as soon as possible. Don’t get discouraged if you see lots of “red ink” on your first draft. Even the strongest papers need lots of revision between drafts. Only through thorough revision will your final product be its best.

Remember, however, that your teacher is not your editor. Often a teacher will make one blanket comment, such as, “check your spelling,” or “your sentence structure needs a lot of attention.” Thus, if you correct only those places your teacher has marked on your paper, you will not be making adequate revisions.

Furthermore, while your teacher will make as many suggestions as he or she can, it is not always possible to see everything that needs to be done. After you have been away from your paper for a while, though, you ought to be able to pick up some of these problems by yourself. It is your responsibility to improve your paper, not your teacher’s. That way, it’s your paper. After all, you are the historian whose name appears on the title page.

Here’s how you write a title page for your final draft:

• Be sure to center the title of your paper in the middle of the page
• Then, in the bottom portion of the page, center your name, your teacher’s name, the name of the course and the date.
• Remember, do not number this page. You may consider creating the title page in a separate word file from the rest of your paper. If so, make sure you turn off the pagination function for the file.

**Sample Title Page**

No Polls for Us:
The Women's Anti-Suffrage Movement in
New York City 1880-1910

Mark Jones
Ms. Thomas/U.S. History
May 10, 2007