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THE HISTORY RESEARCH ESSAY

SECTION I

1. Why A History Research Essay

Professors in the History department assign essays expecting their students to demonstrate definite cognitive skills in their written assignments. Such expectations include a demonstration of “superior grasp of the subject matter,” “familiarity with the appropriate literature and techniques,” a demonstration of “critical,” “constructive,” and “high degree of creative and/or logical thinking,” and the ability to “organize” ideas, “analyze” issues, and “integrate ideas.” These expectations are fully described in the Undergraduate Academic Calendar of the University of Guelph.

The essay is a tool your professors use to build in you those cognitive skills that you are expected to acquire during your time as a student in the university. For instance, essay-writing demands that you understand (correctly interpret the requirements of) the essay topic, read around the topic, gather relevant information from the library, take notes to use in writing your essay, analyze and interpret your evidence, outline your arguments, and arrange your evidence around such an outline in an effective order.

You are asked at every turn to make important decisions and judgements and to make assessments and evaluation of orders of significance. On top of all of these is the skill of effectively communicating your ideas to others in a clear, concise, logical and convincing manner. Your professor can assess what skills you have, how well you have deployed them and what areas of weakness remain that need attention just by reading your essay.

On your part, it is reasonable to assert that you want to perform excellently, preferably turning out “A” papers during your course of studies in the university. The question then is how to ensure you achieve this goal? What steps could you take to write an excellent history research paper?

2. Choosing Your Essay Topic

You are either given a topic to write on or asked to choose one of your liking. If the latter is the case, you have a double-edged sword in your hands. On the one hand, it allows you room to research topics that particularly appeal to you and to which you can give full commitment. On the other hand, it demands that you ensure that your topic is viable. Essays are designed, in part, to test
your appreciation of certain themes or issues in a course of studies. Hence, it would be logical to expect that themes, questions and controversies that come up during the course of the study would help you specify a viable limit for your topic. Discussing your chosen topic with your T. A. or professor to ensure its parameters are right will not hurt.

Other factors that affect the viability of your topic include the page limit your professor set for the essay and its submission deadline. You can only deal with so much material within a given period and in so many pages. Choosing a topic that is too broad and general will not only prove unmanageable, but might well result in a flat and wide ranging narrative enclosing a large amount of detail but lacking in interpretation or analysis. Consider the following two topics:

| The Causes of War
| The Origins of First and Second World Wars

The first topic is too broad and will prove unwieldy. The second is much more manageable and focused and is obviously better. The latter topic easily allows room for analysis, comparison, contrast, and assessment; all tasks that go beyond the narrative.

3. Thinking Through Your Topic.

Whichever way you come by your topic, you need to think critically through it. You should

- rephrase the topic in different ways
- dissect its various components
- approach each from different angles in your thought and
- attempt different possible interpretations of it.

If you have been provided with the topic, it is important to break down the sentence comprising the topic into its grammatical parts, identifying what exactly you are expected to do.

- Does it call you to identify, describe, explain, analyze, discuss, compare, contrast, assess, synthesize, or verify, etc.? Do you understand what task each of these verbs demands of you? Can you identify a clear thesis to argue or analyze in the topic? Do you perceive in your topic a clear-cut objective around which you can structure a set of arguments? Can you in two or three sentences answer
the question of where, for your essay topic, you are coming from and hope to end? A good topic allows you to conceive of a working thesis even before you start or do much research for the essay. Your understanding of the topic provides some guideposts for efficient library research. You would be able to zoom in on materials that are directly relevant to the thesis and to the argument your topic consists of without wasting time reading materials that are only marginally related to the major issues you hope to discuss or analyse.

4. Researching the Topic.

4.1 Using the Library: The next step in your research is to set about procuring the materials to use for your composition. If you have no previous introduction to your topic, you need to do a background reading around it to clarify in your mind what issues the topic embraces. This should clarify your thoughts about the topic and it could even result in you refining or changing it. At any rate, most of what you need for the essay is in the library, hence, the library is the obvious place you next head to. To maximize your limited time as well as access relevant source materials for your essay, it is important that you make effective and efficient use of the library. You can pick up information leaflets from the MacLaughlin Library explaining what services it has to facilitate your research experience. You can read up on these from their web site at http://www.lib.uoguelph.ca/ You should watch out for library orientation classes that MacLaughlin offers at the beginning of each semester.

Searching the on-line library catalogue gives you a list of specific books, journal articles, and other materials directly relevant to your topic. You therefore need not waste a minute checking for materials on the wrong shelf or even looking beyond a range of materials that are specifically relevant to your topic. By effectively using the library, you can decide whether there are enough sources on which you could rely to write a good essay on your topic. You could tell where these materials are and how to get hold of them very quickly.

4.2 Historical Sources: In writing your essay, you want to test your argument or a particular point of view with the available evidence. The perspective you choose on your topic might involve you refuting a contending position. Whatever the case may be, you want to argue your position convincingly showing why you prefer it to another, being able to perceptively analyse the relationship between a set of positions. For all these, you need evidence and these you get from your historical sources. The two major sources you will encounter are primary and secondary sources.
Historical source evidence provides the building blocks for your composition. All the books you have ever read and the materials you will consult for your essay are themselves one or a combination of primary, secondary/tertiary evidence. When you write an article for a newspaper, publish your books, or perhaps when in the future, as a civil servant, you are called to head an investigation to produce a report or prepare a position paper for government or civil use, the materials with which you produce your write-up fall into one or a combination of these categories. Because the historian is forever looking for all possible perspectives on an issue or interplay of events, and as such, the nearest approximation to “truth”, what combination of source materials you employ, their quantity and quality, quite apart from your interpretation of them, would affect the originality, credibility and effectiveness of your essay. You therefore want to have appropriate and sufficient source materials to use for your essay.

4.3 Primary Sources: These are first hand documentation of some historical events, for example, in diaries, journals, log books, private or official letters and memos, and video and audio tapes, etc. Others include songs, proverbs, sagas, myths, written record of an oral account by a first hand witness, and oral traditions passed from generation to generation, recorded or not, etc. Often times, primary sources would themselves have no further source beyond themselves (i.e., other than their firsthand observer or recorder). As you will have noted, primary sources might be centuries-old, as indeed, are some records of sagas and myths. However, some might well be as recent as last winter, for instance, where you incorporate into your essay an oral interview with your parents that relate their experience returning home from a journey in an unheated car when the last snowstorm hit Ontario.

4.4 Secondary sources: These include books, journal articles and articles in collections of essays in which authors or researchers have made use of selected evidence from primary sources to produce their reports, analyses, interpretations and conclusions. Thus, assuming you publish all the letters you have ever written to your friends, they would constitute a primary source. However, if I use them to write a biography about you, the biography becomes a secondary source. While the biography may contain copious quotations from your letters and, perhaps, pictures of you from when you were a toddler, it is nonetheless a secondary source. It is second hand observation or interpretation of materials derived from your first hand letters.

History professors often require that you utilize much primary source evidence in your essay. It is obvious that secondary sources already come
with established positions, views and possible biases. You have better chances of producing original works that can go beyond pre-set arguments and positions in secondary sources when you go to the very sources secondary sources have used—primary sources. This allows you to decide for yourself what evidence to select and what logical and reasonable interpretation and analysis the evidence could bear. You could then judge whether the position maintained in the secondary source could be sustained or challenged. Since secondary sources are based on primary sources, it is obvious that they contain primary source materials that you could use, should you not have access to the original primary materials. Thus, a student who has no access to the compilation of your published original letters could nonetheless make use of extracts from those I had used in writing your biography.

4.5 Note Taking: Having decided on what sources to use, you go over your sources carefully, gathering your evidence, guided by your topic and the arguments about it and the analysis that you want to test out. You can take good notes placing your evidence under appropriate heads, if you choose. Each of the note-taking options that you might employ, viz., summarising, paraphrasing or quoting demands that you meticulously place the full citation for each piece of evidence you gather beside the respective note.

Important: Any information or evidence, however relevant to your topic, whose source you forgot to write down in your note is useless. As such, it might be best to start with writing down in your notebook the full citation for each source as you consult it.

5. Writing the Essay

5.1 Using An Outline: Before you start on the draft of your essay, you might need a formal outline. Alternatively you might work only with a mental map of the various sections and subsections into which you wish to structure your essay. At any rate, you have done enough research that the basic outline of your argument or thesis is fairly clear in your mind. The relationship of the line of argument you wish to pursue to alternative ones and to available evidence is getting clearly set at the back of your mind and you are ready with your evidence with which to engage them. Once you work these in your notebook or computer into a structure of sectional and sub-sectional heads in a logical order, your writing experience could proceed smoothly and methodically. This affords a clear preview of the essay that you will write; the relationship between each section, subsection, and points or ideas in it; and how logically they connect.
The following example is a pictorial diagram of an outline.

**Section 1: Major Idea**
- Point 1
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii
- Point 2
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii
- Point 3
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii

**Section 2: Major Idea**
- Point 1
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii
- Point 2
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii

**Section 3: Major Idea**
- Point 1
  - Illustration i
- Point 2
  - Illustration i
- Point 3
  - Illustration i
  - Illustration ii

**Not every essay contains three sections as occurs in this outline. However, when an essay does consist of more than a section, each must relate to the other as is represented by the interconnected rectangles. Each section discusses or analyzes a major idea. This idea is further subdivided into points and each point is illustrated with examples, data, or some other evidence.**

**Note that your introduction to the essay and the conclusion are separate from this outline. (See 5.3.1 below).**

5.2 Working With a Critical Attitude: You should start writing your essay, maintaining a critical attitude all along. An essay that is structured to argue for a point of view or contend for or against a position would most likely stimulate an engagement in critical evaluative thinking. You would sift your information, ideas, and viewpoints, and evaluate and assign orders of significance to them. As you set arguments against arguments, using fact and information that are organized in order of significance, you stand more chances of discovering different or new perspectives and insights that would make your essay stimulating, original and incisive.

5.3 Structuring Your Essay: Students are taught from high school that an essay consists of the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. In the university, a fourth section is the reference list or bibliography.
5.3.1 Introduction. The point about introducing anything is to make it familiar to the audience. You want to advertise your essay in such a way that the reader gives it due attention. You can do this by starting off your essay highlighting a bigger background issue within which your topic or thesis finds a particularly relevant context. Supposing your essay is about the origins of the First and the Second World War. You might start off by drawing attention to the September 11 tragedy, the American war in Afghanistan, the late Gulf war, or the ongoing Arab-Israeli conflict; how devastating they have been to human kind; how these wars pale in devastation compared to World War I & II, and how the world could not afford World War III. Seeking to understand why these wars broke out implies a desire to be able to prevent future re-occurrence. You then state that your essay seeks to do just that! You go ahead to impress on the reader what your thesis is and what focus you bring to bear on it. You can include in this section a general description of the structure of the essay, mentioning the major sections and how they are connected to each other.

You might start your draft by first writing the introduction, but some people defer this until after the body of the essay itself has been written. Choose whichever method suits you best. However, if you have worked out a good outline, or have at the back of your mind a fairly good idea of the question you set yourself to answer in your essay, it should be possible for you to start with the introduction. This gives you, as it will eventually give your professor, a panoramic fore view of your essay.

5.3.2 Main Body: Here you lay out your main arguments, the components and sub-components to them and you elaborate on them one after the other, meanwhile connecting them with one another logically and cohesively. Remember to tackle your points one at a time, making sure you have a point per paragraph, explaining each and relating them to your central thesis or larger argument.

5.3.3 Conclusion: Until you have exhausted all the points in the body of the essay that you want to make in support of your position, you cannot write a conclusion. Put another way, the conclusion is not the last point in the argument that makes up your thesis. Your conclusion could sum up the main points in your essay, constantly aware that the reader is not interested in rereading the paper all over. If you were writing the essay on World Wars I and II, you may conclude by picking up on the point in the introduction about the need to understand why wars break out in general by stating the implication of your arguments for the grand and noble desire to prevent World War III.

6. Writing Well
An excellent essay consumes resources. You will have to work hard researching your topic and sweat it out writing on it. This, however, is hardly the end of the matter. Failure in your essay to communicate your views and ideas clearly, concisely, and effectively to your professor could ruin an otherwise excellent
effort. You must make all effort to ensure that you express your views in correct grammar, paying attention to your spelling, punctuations, and sentence structures. You must follow conventions on citation of evidence, and generally ensure that your essay is word-processed and looks professional.

The good people of The Learning Commons
(http://www.www.learningcommons.uoguelph.ca) on the first floor of the MacLaughlin Library are eager to assist you with writing and other learning matters.

6.1 Proofreading: It has often been emphasised how difficult it is to catch one’s own mistakes. Nonetheless, do your best to proofread your essay as many times a possible. Also, get friends to proofread for you—you can proofread theirs too. This could help rid your essay of debilitating typographical, grammatical and spelling errors.

6.2 Avoiding Plagiarism.
Many ideas, positions, facts, and figures you put into writing an excellent essay are borrowed intellectual products of other researchers. It is mandatory, by appropriate referencing, that you give credit to the sources from which you borrowed these materials. Failure to do this is termed plagiarism. The section on “Academic Misconduct in Undergraduate Degree Regulations and Procedures” in the current undergraduate calendar of the University of Guelph lists plagiarism among offences students must guard against. It carries severe penalties. The following is the University of Guelph definition of and position on plagiarism:

. . . misrepresenting the work of others as one's own. Plagiarism specifically can be understood as: the act of copying, reproducing or paraphrasing significant portions of someone else's published or unpublished material, and representing these as one's own thinking by not acknowledging the appropriate source or by the failure to use appropriate quotation marks. These materials include: literary compositions and phrasing, performance compositions, chemical compounds, art works, laboratory reports, research results, calculations and the results of calculations, diagrams, constructions, and computer reports or software. Students have the responsibility to learn and use the conventions of documentation, and, if in any doubt, are encouraged to consult with the instructor of the course, the academic supervisor, or the department chair/director for clarification. Instructors have the responsibility of advising students in writing of any significant individual interpretations of plagiarism or of any aspects concerning paraphrasing limits or referencing formats unique to the instruction, the discipline, or the course material.**
The following are examples of plagiarism, the first taken from Joseph Gibaldi’s *MLA Handbook For Writers of Research Papers* (New York: The Modern Language Association of America, 1995), 27.

**Example 6. Original 1.**

Everyone uses the word language and everybody these days talks about culture. . . . “Languaculture” is a reminder, I hope, of the necessary connection between its two parts. . . . (Michael Agar, *Language Shock: Understanding the Culture of Conversation* [New York: Morrow, 1994] 60.)

**Example 6. Plagiarism -1**

At the intersection of language and culture lies a concept that we might call “languaculture.”

In Plagiarism #1, it is clear, as Gibaldi points out (p.28), that the “student borrowed a specific term (“languaculture”) without acknowledgment.”

The capital costs of starting a sugar estate were so high by 1860 that only rich capitalists or companies could contemplate such a venture. The most efficient and most profitable plantations were the largest ones, founded or reorganized during Cuba’s railway age. High costs were slowly driving out the small sugar cultivators. Just as the other costs of running a plantation rose during this period, so did the price of slaves as the demand for them increased and the supply through the slave trade fluctuated. By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars, double or triple the average price in the first half of the century. Only the very richest Spaniards or Cubans could afford to outfit a slave-trading expedition, but the enormous profits to be made and the unceasing demand for slaves offered tempting incentives for those with the necessary capital.


Example 6 (Plagiarism-2)

By the 1850s, a few short years before the extinction of its slave trade, Cuba was in the midst of what historians have termed a “sugar revolution.” The sugar industry became highly capital intensive. Small-scale planters were run out of business. They could not compete with rich capitalists who alone could put up the huge capital both to start new sugar estates and to acquire the increasingly expensive slave (and indentured) labor needed to turn out a profit.

In Plagiarism #2, the author pretends to be the owner of the idea. What the author does is to paraphrase David Murray’s idea without acknowledging it. Not citing the source of the borrowed idea is dishonest. You must always remember that paraphrasing another person’s idea does not change the genesis or ownership of that idea. All that a paraphrase does is re-word the same ideas, usually, but not necessarily, retaining some of the original words. You must give due credit to the source with proper citation.
Example 6.2 (Plagiarism-3)

David Murray believes that the sugar revolution in Cuba concentrated the sugar industry into fewer hands of huge capitalists who alone were able to cope with the increasingly exorbitant capital and labor costs.

In Plagiarism #3, the author attributes the idea to David Murray but does not cite the source, and the idea is presented as though it was his/her interpretation of some personal communication between him/herself and David Murray. This is wrong and still constitutes plagiarism. It is not the author's personal interpretation of a communication between him/her and David Murray, but a paraphrase of the latter's idea taken from a specific ascertainable source.

6.3 When Are Citations Not Needed
Information that is commonly available or is part of the general knowledge about an issue need not be referenced. However, once placed within an interpretive context, they cease being common knowledge and must be referenced.

Example 6.3.1

1. Adolf Hitler died in 1945.
2. Nazi Germany came to an end the hour Adolf Hitler died in 1945.

Example 1 needs no reference, but Example 2, because it is somebody’s opinion about Hitler’s 1945 death does. Assuming that this were a conclusion you arrived at from the evidence that you consulted, it becomes an idea that can be credited to you, otherwise, you have to document its source.

6.4 Quotations:
Reproducing a word, words, a clause or a passage verbatim.

6.4.1 When to Use
a. use quotations only when you cannot paraphrase the idea without losing its gist.
b. for style (e.g., in an introduction or conclusion) when the particular language or style of the author effectively demonstrates your point.

6.4.2 How to Use
a. Short quotations (a sentence or two not exceeding forty words) are set within the text and are enclosed in double quotation marks.
b. Longer passages are set off in indented block quotes without quotation marks.
Example: 6.4.1: Short Within-Text quotation

By the 1850s, a few short years before the extinction of its slave trade, Cuba was in the midst of what historians have termed a “sugar revolution.” The sugar industry became highly capital intensive. David Murray’s research shows that “the . . . costs of running a plantation rose during this period . . . [and] so did the price of slaves. . . . By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars.” ¹⁰⁰ Small-scale planters were run out of business. They could not compete with rich capitalists who alone could put up the huge capital both to start new sugar estates and to acquire the increasingly expensive slave (and indentured) labor needed to turn out a profit.

Note

c. Ensure that you quote your sources verbatim. Any change you make to the quotation, e.g., elision and insertion of foreign words, must be clearly indicated.

d. Elision is indicated by periods inserted in replacement (three within a sentence with a space before and after each, and four if the elision ends a sentence, without a space before the first period.) Inserted words not in the original are enclosed in brackets. (See Examples 6.4.1 and 6.4.3)

6.4.3 How Not to Use
a. Too many disrupt the flow of your arguments
b. Too many detract from the originality of your essay. Your professor is not interested in another “book of quotes.”
c. While quotations may help support your argument, they will not argue for you.

Example 6.4.2 (block quote)

Most experts agree on this point. David Murray, for example observes that:

By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars, double or triple the average price in the first half of the century. Only the very richest Spaniards or Cubans could afford to outfit a slave-trading expedition, but the enormous profits to be made and the unceasing demand for slaves
offered tempting incentives for those with the necessary capital. 22

**Note:**

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**Example 6.4.3:** (A block quote with some modifications).

Omitted words are replaced by ellipses, the first before the start of a new sentence (four periods), and the second within a sentence (three periods).

Words not in the original, i.e., “and indentured labor,” are enclosed in brackets

Most experts agree on this point. David Murray, for example observes that:

By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars. . . . Only the . . . richest . . . could afford to outfit a slave-trading expedition, but the enormous profits to be made and the unceasing demand for slaves [and indentured labor] offered tempting incentives for those with the necessary capital. 24

**Note**

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Your essay includes a composite of information (evidence, statistics, graphics, ideas, quotations and perspectives, etc.) that you have put together from other sources to support your position. It bears repeating that each element in this composite, the creative product of other authors, must be acknowledged in the reference section of your essay. This you do by **inserting superscripted numbers** (reference numbers) or the author’s name, date and page numbers in parentheses at the end of the quote or the sentence constituting the borrowed materials.
N.B. The reference number always comes after the punctuation mark that ends a sentence or a clause—the dash being the exception. However, for parenthetical referencing at the end of a clause or sentence, the period or comma is placed outside the closing parenthesis.

The source or additional information corresponding to the reference numbers is entered serially at the bottom of the page for footnotes and at the end of the essay for endnotes. References thus enable you to avoid the charge of plagiarism.

8. Citing Your Sources:
You have three popular referencing methods to choose from: footnotes, endnotes and in-text (parenthetical) references. History and the other humanities use either footnotes or endnotes, while the social sciences prefer parenthetical referencing. **Should your professor not indicate a preference,** you could check with him/her. Otherwise, ensure that you are **consistent** with whichever style you use.

8.1. Footnotes: These are notes numbered consecutively in Arabic numerals below the text on each page of writing. They have the advantage of keeping the reference information as well as the passage in the text to which it refers on the same page.

**Example:**

**Footnote Referencing**

The sugar industry became highly capital intensive. David Murray’s research shows that “the . . . costs of running a plantation rose during this period . . . [and] so did the price of slaves. . . . By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars, double or triple the average price in the first half of the century.”

100 Small-scale planters were run out of business.

___________________

**Note**


8.2 Endnotes: These, on the other hand, are put at the end of the writing. **Endnote Referencing:** Treat as with footnote referencing above, but the “Notes” section comes at the end of the essay rather than at the bottom of the page.
8.3 Parenthetical Referencing or author-date system: Author’s last name, date of publication and page reference in parentheses replaces the superscripted reference number of the footnote/endnote referencing system at the end of the sentence or clause for which a reference must be made. All other information, such as thus further describing the author (ed., trans., comp., etc.), is reflected in the reference list.

Parenthetical Reference Following a Block Quote.

a. Remember that block quotes do not have quotation marks.
b. The quoted text is rather indented

Most experts agree on this point. David Murray, for example observes that:

By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars. . . . Only the . . . richest . . . could afford to outfit a slave-trading expedition, but the enormous profits to be made and the unceasing demand for slaves [and indentured labor] offered tempting incentives for those with the necessary capital (Murray 1980, 298-99).

N.B. The full reference must be listed in the bibliography at the end of the essay.

Parenthetical Reference in the Running Text: Variant 1.

The sugar industry became highly capital intensive. David Murray’s research shows that “the . . . costs of running a plantation rose during this period . . . [and] so did the price of slaves. . . . By 1860, the average price of a slave exceeded 1,000 Spanish dollars, double or triple the average price in the first half of the century.” (Murray 1980, 298-99). Small-scale planters were run out of business.

N.B. The full reference must be listed in the bibliography at the end of the essay

Parenthetical Reference in the Running Text: Variant 2.

David Murray (1980, 298) believes that the sugar revolution in Cuba concentrated the sugar industry into fewer hands of huge capitalists who alone were able to cope with the increasingly exorbitant capital and labor costs.

N.B. The full reference must be listed in the bibliography at the
8.4 Bibliography: You must list the published and unpublished sources that you consulted at the end of your essay in a separate section. It should be divided into sub-sections for primary and secondary sources. If you list only sources cited in the essay, you could entitle this section “Reference List” or “List of Works Cited” instead of “Bibliography,” as bibliography refers to all sources you have consulted whether or not they are cited.

8.5 What’s the Need: Referencing is a necessary part of academic writing. A glance at your references and bibliography provides your professor with a quick indication of the quality of preparation that went into your essay and what to expect reading through it. A good reference allows the reader to trace the source of the materials or evidence you employed for your discussion, allowing them to place your work within relevant historiographical contexts. References are also used to direct the reader to additional, background or tangential information that could not fit in the text without breaking the flow of argument. Such might be a short table of data or further explanation that is placed in the endnote or the footnote. If the data is large, it is better placed as an appendix to the essay rather than as a footnote or endnote.

9. Citing Properly
Your endnote/footnote and bibliographic references have four major sections that you should take careful note of. Take note of the differences in the order in which these sections are arranged, differences
a. between footnotes, endnotes, and bibliographies
b. between first and subsequent citations in footnote/endnote system.
c. between the bibliographies for the footnote/endnote system and the author-date system.

Sections in a Note
i. name of the author(s)
ii. full title of document
iii. information on place of publication/publisher
iv. page reference for the information used

10. Three Elements of Referencing.
1. First (Full) Citation: when you first mention a source in your essay, its reference MUST BE FULL. It must include all the sections to the note mentioned above. See example of Full References in Example 11.1 below:
2. **Subsequent Mention**: After your first full citation of a source, you should henceforth **SHORTEN ALL SUBSEQUENT REFERENCES** to it. The shortened form for the same source must be consistent throughout your essay.

3. **Bibliography**: The third component (second for author-date system) is the bibliography at the end of your essay. This is a MUST.

## SECTION II.

**USING ENDNOTE/FOOTNOTE REFERENCING**

### 11. Citing Book References the First Time:

**11.1. Author(s) Name**

a. A comma always succeeds the name of the author, written in normal order.

b. Any further descriptions of the author are abbreviated and placed immediately after the author’s name, (e.g., ed., = editor; trans., = translator; and comp., = compiler) a comma separating the two. (No. 4).

c. The publisher and the author might be the same person, in which case the name appears as both author and publisher-name. (No. 6).

d. For a book with two authors, include the two names in normal order, joined by the word “and.” (No. 4)

e. For a book by three authors, the names are written in normal order as they appear on the book’s title page, the first and the second names followed by commas and the second and the third joined by the word “and.” (No.5).

f. Should your reference have more than three authors, only the first name, in normal order, is written followed by “and others,” or its latinized abbreviation, “et al.” (No.9)

g. Where, in addition to the author’s name, your source has a series editor’s name listed on the title page, this name, in normal order, follows the series title. The series title in regular font (not italicized) will follow the title of the book, and a comma will separate both, as well as follow the series title. The abbreviated title of the series editor, “ser. ed.,” followed by a comma precedes the series editor(s) name. (No.7)

### Example 11.1 Full References (Books)


2. Catharine A. Wilson, *Landlords, Tenants and Immigrants: The Canadian and Irish Experience* (Kingston/Montreal:


11.2. Book Title:
a. The title of the book (with subtitles) is italicized. If you choose to underline it, then be consistent about it.
b. Titles are written in headline form, i.e., all words other than prepositions, conjunctions and articles (and, of, the, a) are capitalized.
c. The first and the last words in the title (and subtitles) are capitalized whether or not they are prepositions, conjunctions or articles. (Nos. 2, 8, and 9).

d. A colon always separates a title and its subtitle. (Nos. 1 & 8.)

e. A comma precedes dates that occur at the end of the title or sub-title when they are not preceded by a preposition. (Nos. 7 & 8.)

f. Series title follows book title, separated by a comma in regular characters. (Nos. 6 & 7).

11.3 Publication Information:

a. Publication information is enclosed in parentheses and is not separated from the section or subsection in the reference note that precedes it by any punctuation.

b. The place(s) of publication and name of publisher are separated by a colon, and both are separated from the publication date by a comma.

c. Some trans-national publishing companies do not indicate particular cities as place of publication for some of their titles. In this case you have only the publisher name and date. (No. 4.) Any publication information consisting of only two components you should separate by a comma (as in nos. 4 and 6).

11.4 Page Locating Information

a. p. & pp.: You will notice in the examples that page numbers are not preceded by page/pages abbreviations “p.” and “pp.” They can be safely omitted. However, if you prefer to keep them, they must appear consistently in all your notes.

b. Passim: You use passim (in italics) if an idea you are referencing occurs many times in different sections of a book, or if it runs through the book. (No. 6) You want to be careful not to overuse this.

11.5 Volume Number

a. If your book source is one of two or more volumes and has no separate volume title other than a volume number, the volume number follows the title in abbreviated form, i.e., vol. 1, or vol. 5, with the “v” in lower case. (No. 4 of Example 11.1.)

11.6 Book Without Source Information

a. the abbreviations “n.p.” and “n.d.” in parentheses, indicate the absence of data on publication (place/publisher) and date respectively.

12. Subsequent Citing of Book References

a. After your first full citation of a source, you should henceforth shorten all subsequent references to it. The shortened form for the same source must be consistent throughout your essay.
b. Format: last name(s), comma, shortened title in italics, comma, and page reference followed by a period.
c. Using “ibid.”: When you have to refer to a source a couple of times in succession, ibid. is the abbreviated word to use. It is not italicized. It indicates that you refer to the same source as in the preceding note. (No.8).
d. When you cite a different page in the same source, you put the respective page number after ibid. and a comma. (No. 9).
e. Once a new reference intervenes in the series of “ibid.,” the next mention of the notes that had been repeated earlier on must be in the shortened form. (No.11)
f. However, if your essay calls for copious references to the same source in succession, it is acceptable that page references subsequent to the first full citation of the source in your note be incorporated in parentheses within the text. In this way, you will avoid an unsightly succession of “ibid.” after “ibid.” in your footnotes or endnotes.

Example 12.2: Subsequent References (Shortened)

7. Ibid.,
8. Ibid., 123-133.
13. Citing Chapters in Edited Books for the First Time:

a. Note that in addition to, and preceding, the name and title of the book editor, and the title of the edited book, chapter references include:
   i.) the name of the chapter author in normal order followed by a comma
      - for two joint-authors, write their names in normal order joined by “and”;
      - for three joint-authors names in normal order, the first two followed by a comma each, and the last preceded by “and.”
      - For more than three joint-authors, write the first author’s full name in normal order followed by comma and the abbreviation et al. for the others.
   ii.) chapter title in double quotation marks, with a comma before the closing quotation mark (See nos. 1-4 of Example 13.1)

b. next insert lower case “in” ; then proceed with the procedure for complete citation for book as in nos. 1-10 of Example 11.1.

b. a variation of ii.) above, after the insertion of lower case “in” reverses the positions of the book title and the author name and title. (Nos. 3 & 4 of Example 13.1)
   i.) In this case the abbreviated title “ed.” means “edited by”, and thus, irrespective of the plurality of the authorship, must never be rendered “eds.,” i.e., the plural form that is possible with the first variation.
   ii.) Also do not put a comma between it and the editor name(s).

Example 13.1: First (Full) Citation for Book Chapters


14. Subsequent Citing of Chapters from Edited Books

a. Format: author last name(s) as on first page of the chapter, comma, shortened title of the chapter in italics, comma, and page reference without “p.” or “pp.” followed by a period.
   i. Note the absence of any information about the book (other than the page numbers, of course).

b. Multiple authorship
   i. For chapters with two authors, include their two last names joined by the word “and.” (No. 1)
   ii. For a chapter written by three authors, the names are written in normal order as they appear on the chapter’s first page, the first and the second names followed each by a comma and the second and the third joined by the word “and.”
   iii. Should your reference have more than three authors, write only the first name followed by “and others,” or “et al.”

c. Use ibid. to refer to the same source as in a preceding note, putting the respective page numbers after ibid. when page numbers change.
   i. Once you enter a new reference after an “ibid.,” the next mention of the notes that had been repeated earlier on must again be in the shortened form. (No. 5)

Example 14: Subsequent (Shortened) References

4. Ibid.
5. Ibid., 268.

15. Citing Reprinted Books
   When you consult reprints of older works, whether published by the original or a new publisher, you must show this in your footnote/endnote by the inclusion of the reprint information in the publication section of your foot/endnote.
Remember that in foot/endnotes, the publication information is enclosed in parentheses. The parentheses give way to periods in bibliographic entries.

Including reprint information
- the original date of publication followed by a semicolon
- followed the semicolon with the word reprint (its abbreviation repr.) or reprinted followed by a comma
- you should include any new information about the reprinted edition (e.g. “with a new introduction by Professor J. F. A. Ajayi”) together with the word reprinted, followed by a comma, (note 1)
- finally, the place, publisher information and publication date of the reprint comes next before the closing parenthesis as in any citation for a book source. A comma separates the publisher name from the publication date.

Example 15.1. First Full Citations for Reprinted Books


Example 15.2: Subsequent (Shortened) Citations for Reprinted Books

This is no different than in normal book citations.


16. Citing Journal Articles for the First Time

16.1 Author(s) Name

a. The name in normal order, as it occurs in the journal article, followed by a comma

b. For more than one author, follow practice as in 14. b.
16.2 Title of Journal Article:
   a. The title, with a comma, is enclosed in double quotation marks

16.3 Publication Information
   Notice that this is different from book references as it consists of
   a. the journal title italicized or underlined (use the same form as you used in book titles.)
   b. either of volume or issue number only: always in Arabic numerals, the
      abbreviation “vol.” omitted, follows the journal title without any punctuation between them, and with no punctuation after. (Nos.1,2, 4 & 7 of Example 16.4)
   c. volume and issue number together: the issue number, preceded by the
      abbreviation “no.” and a space, follows the volume number, both
      separated by a comma (see Nos. 3, 5 of Example 16.4)
   d. year of publication (see three varieties in 3-5), always enclosed in parenthesis, with no punctuation between its components, and none between it and the volume/issue number.
   e. A semicolon always follows the parenthesis, separating it and the page information.

16.4 Page/Locating Information
   a. Omit abbreviations “p.” and “pp.”
   b. Always followed by a period or full stop.

Example: 16.4: Full (First) Citation for Journal Articles


6. Terry A. Crowley, "Experience and Representation: Southern..."
Ontario Farm Women and Agricultural Change, 1870-1914,”


**N.S. means new series and is part of the publication information, i.e. new series no. 3. of 1992

17. Subsequent Citing of Journal Articles

a. After the first mention of a journal article, subsequent mentions are shortened.
b. Format: last name(s), comma, shortened title of journal article in quotation marks, comma, and page reference followed by a period. (Note that publication information is omitted).
c. You should treat multiple author names as in 14. b.
d. Use “ibid.” as in 14. c. (Remember that “ibid.” means in the same place or the same source.)
e. Idem refers to the same author (when citing another article by the same author as in a preceding reference note) See nos. 3 and 6 in Example 17.1 below.

Example 17.1: Subsequent (Shortened) References

1. Andrew, “Reading Charity Sermons,” 1-11.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid., 991.
18. Secondary Source
When your evidence (primary or secondary) is a second-hand quotation from your source, give full citations for the quotation as well as for your secondary source.
   a. Between the two full citations, insert a comma and the phrase, in lower case quoted in.
   b. A comma, rather than a period, follows the citation for the primary source.

Example 18.1: First (Full) Reference

19. Reviews
   a. Name of reviewer, comma
   b. Title of the reviewing article (occasionally different from title of book it reviews) is enclosed in quotation marks, comma
   c. Title of the work reviewed, preceded by the phrase review of
   d. Name, in normal order, of the author of work reviewed preceded by a comma
   e. All other details follow as in normal journal article citations.

Example 19.1: First (Full) Reference
(Unpublished Materials: Dissertation/Thesis, Interviews or Manuscripts)

20. Dissertation or Thesis
   a. Author: in normal order, comma,
   b. Title: Headline style, in quotation marks - with no punctuation following
   c. Degree type, name of institution, and thesis date (equivalent to publication information) are enclosed in parentheses, followed by a comma.
   d. The page information comes last with a period after it.

Example 20.1: First Full Reference


Example 20.2: Subsequent Reference


21. Citing an Interview You Conducted
   a. Name of interviewee, comma,
   b. Name(s) of interviewer(s) plus a comma, preceded by the phrase “interviewed by” or “interview with”
   c. Title of interview, when available is enclosed in double quotation marks and follows interviewee’s name (No.3)
   d. Medium of the interview if relevant (No. 2 in Example 21.1 below.)

Example 21.1: First Full Reference


Example 21.2: Subsequent Reference

a. Interviewee’s last name, comma
b. the word “interview” follows interviewee’s name
c. when there is an interview title, the interviewee’s name is followed by the shortened form of the title (no. 2).

1. Aboki Sawyer, interview.
2. Sawyer, “Going Back Home.”

22. Manuscripts

a. authorship: write name in normal order, (if the manuscript is a letter or a memo, write the names of the writer and the receiver linked by the word “to”) followed by a comma
b. Place from where letter was written, comma, and date of letter, comma
c. Where title of item cited is available, (2 and 3 below), it is placed, with a comma, in double quotation marks
d. collection in which item is found
e. Name of depository comes last, together with a period.

Example 22.1: First Reference

1. W. B. Baikie to S. Crowther, Lokoja, 10 April 1862, CMS Niger Mission, CA3\O4 (a) Letters & Papers 1857-63.

f. If the document is a journal or diary, entry date follows author’s name
Example 22.2: First Reference


Example 22.3: Subsequent Reference:

a. the name of the depository is omitted except when you have used manuscripts from two or three collections that bear the same name).

b. Where a title occurs, the shortened form can be used if there will be no confusion with other manuscripts by the same author. (No.4)

1. James Thomas, 31st October.

2. James Thomas, 8 August.

3. Baikie to Crowther, Lokoja, 10 April 1862.


6. T. C. John to S. A. Crowther, 7th January 1868.

23. Citing Internet Sources

The Internet is a cornucopia of every quality of information, only a portion of which is decidedly academic in motivation. Because it is free, democratic, and available, a high percentage of information on the Internet is not vetted, will not pass through academic reviews and critiques nor be made to comply with any professional requirements.

Nonetheless, a lot of information that has passed rigorous review criteria, some already available in print, is on the Web. Many private and academic institutions, international organizations, and publishing companies maintain Internet sites with high quality information. The Internet thus has substantial amount of high quality primary and secondary sources that could be useful for your essay.
23.1 Finding Your Way On the Web
a. Very much like the library that contains a plethora of documentary resources, the point is to identify for your research purpose useful sites that host high quality, regularly updated materials.
b. A word of caution though: the Internet does not replace the library, nor does it replace print sources - at least not yet. Hence, your essay preparation must rely on diverse sources as much as is possible. Special conditions may warrant the use of the Internet as the sole source for writing a particular essay, but you must ensure that your professor is in full approval of this.

23.2 Referencing Internet Information
Follow a simple rule of the thumb to properly cite Internet sources for your essay: arrange information that identifies the source of evidence into sections that correspond to those in book or journal references. Thus, you identify the following (where available.)

1. Authorship
   a. (could be private, corporate, or only an email address) in normal order followed by a comma

2. Title
   a. Title of the document, (corresponding to book chapters or to journal articles) are put in quotation marks
   b. Title of the complete work, where different from b. above (i.e. larger document from which file or document you referenced belongs) must be put in italics, followed by a comma. This corresponds to the book title.

3. Date
   a. Date document was published or last updated (one or the other will be available). Write this out in day-month-year format devoid of any punctuation, plus a comma.

4. Web Address
   a. (URL = Universe Resource Locator), usually starting with http://www or www, in angle brackets, e.g., <http://www.uoguelph.ca>.

5. Date Accessed
   a. Date of access, in parentheses.
Example 23: of an Internet Reference


SECTION III.

LIST OF REFERENCES FOR THE FOOTNOTE/ENDNOTE & PARENTHETICAL STYLES

24. The Bibliographic List
A list of published and unpublished sources consulted in writing essays is indispensable to all the three referencing systems, and especially to the parenthetical system. You should take careful note of the differences between the format of a parenthetical reference list and a reference list for the endnote/footnote system.

1. Basic Characteristics
   a. Major sections of a bibliographic entry are divided by periods, rather than by commas and parentheses as the case is with footnotes and endnotes. (Journal articles keep their parentheses, though.)
   b. All lines after the first in each entry are indented five spaces.
   c. Page numbers are omitted, except for journal articles and other publication in edited volumes, whose inclusive page numbers are listed.
   d. The reference list is not numbered, but listed alphabetically according to last name of the author or the first author.

   1. Author-names
      a. For multiple-author works, only first author’s name is inverted, the remaining names are left in normal order.
      b. When you list an author more than once (in succession), only in the first entry is the name listed in full. In subsequent entries the names are replaced with eight lines plus a period.
      c. Works of single authorship come before those of joint-authorship.
      d. The name of the co-author in normal order comes after the replacement lines.
Example 25.1: Books in a Reference List


Example 25.2: Reprints in a Reference List


Example 25.3: Book Chapters

Note:

a. “In” is capitalized, and, “ed.,” becomes “edited by”
b. Page numbers are omitted.


Example 25.4: Journal Articles/Reviews

a. Parentheses are maintained
b. Titles are put in double quotation marks, a period inserted before the closing parenthesis.
c. Dates are still enclosed in parentheses, followed by colon.
d. Inclusive page numbers of articles are listed.

26. Secondary Source

To list evidence derived second-hand in the bibliography, you proceed as in book list above but
a. capitalize the word “quoted.”

Example 26.1


27. Reviews

a. Note the insertion of the phrase “Review of” before the title of the book that was reviewed.

b. If the review article has a title of its own, it is put in double quotation marks and comes immediately after the reviewer’s name.
Example 27.


28. Manuscripts

f. Individual manuscripts are not represented in the list of works cited, except if it is an only item in the collection cited. When more than one, the collection is the significant element cited.

b. Full name, last name first, comma

c. If you got the material from a microfilm, include as the last item in the entry the following: (microfilm, university of wherever-you-got-it-from).

Example 28.


29. Internet Sources

Example 29.

30. In-Text (Parenthetical) Referencing

a. Author’s name, date and page number are put in parentheses at the end of a quote or of a sentence containing borrowed materials.
b. Up to three joint-authors’ last names are included in the parentheses, the first two separated by a comma and the last linked to them by the word “and” (note 2 and 3)
c. For more than three authors, last name of the first author and “et al,” comma
d. When author name occurs within text in the sentence, the publication date and or page reference alone is put in parenthesis (note 1).
e. Author’s title (ed., trans. comp. etc.) is omitted.
f. Multiple references are separated by semi-colons (note 4)
g. Volume and page numbers are separated by colons and pages by commas (note 3)

Example 30.1

Together with the queen mother, he was the “king” when the real king was away. Not only this, he seems to be one of the officials charged with fostering diplomatic relations with the Sokoto Caliphate supporters of Manjiya, the Nupe contender. This man, Clapperton reported,

had just returned from seeing the Felatah [Sokoto Jihadist supporters] safe out of Koolfu ...[He] told me that the Benin people, before the civil war began, came here to trade: that the Quora ran into the sea, behind Benin at Fundah; that the Nyffe people and those of Benin were the same people; that Benin paid tribute to Nyffe (1829 1966, 122).

The reports of Oldfield, Allen and Thomson, and Schon and Crowther clearly show that the copiously documented slave raiding activities were well planned, and were deliberate set of policies executed by the jihadist Nupe governments of Rabba and Lade, however periodic or irregular they might have been (Lander and Lander [1832] 1965, 193; Laird and Oldfield 1971, 1:247-49, 2: 26; Allen and Thomson 1968, 1: 27, 2:116-8).

h. Page numbers are not preceded by “p.” or “pp.”
i. Two sources by same author dated the same year are differentiated by the addition of lower case letters “a” and “b” to indicate their chronology.
j. When you cite a reprint, the original publication date of the book, in brackets, comes before the date for the reprint (note 2 above).

Example 30.2

31. Book Entries in (Parenthetical) Reference List at the End of Your Essay
1. Authorship
   a. You can choose to write author names in full, or have either or both of the first and middle names abbreviated by their initials.
   b. Many works by the same author are arranged chronologically
   c. When two works of the same author occur in a year they are differentiated by lower case letters a, b, c, d, etc.
   d. When an author name occurs in the list in succession, it is not repeated but replaced by eight lines and a period.
   e. Family name of author (or first author), comma, other names and period at the end of the name(s).

2. Dates
   a. Publication date, exactly as they occur in text follows the author name
   b. If your book reference is a reprint of an older one, you should put the original publication date in brackets before the reprint date.
   c. Insert a period after the reprint date.

3. Title
   a. Books titles are italicized
   b. Titles of chapters in books and journal articles are not italicized, underlined or put in quotation marks.
   c. Book and chapter/article titles are capitalized sentence-style (only first word of title, subtitle, and proper nouns and adjectives are capitalized).

Example 31: (Work Cited for Author-date Style)


32. Book Chapters

1. Authorship
   a. Note that citation for works of single authorship comes before those of joint-authorship irrespective of date of publication.

2. Title
   a. chapter/article titles are capitalized sentence-style (only first word of title, subtitle, proper nouns and adjectives are capitalized).

Example 32.1


33. Journal Articles/Reviews.

1. Titles
   a. Titles of articles are capitalized sentence-style (only first word of title, subtitle, and proper nouns and adjectives are capitalized).
   b. Titles of journals are italicized and capitalized headline style, (i.e., all words except conjunctions and articles).

2. Volume/Page Numbers
   a. are separated by a colon.
   b. Volume and series number by comma

Example 33.1


34. Secondary Source
   c. capitalize the word “quoted.”
   d. Include the page number for the secondary evidence immediately after the title

Example 34

Warkentin, Germaine. ed. 1993. Stories from Ontario, 10. Toronto:
35. Reviews

Example 35


36. Interview

a. Name of interviewee, last name first, period,
b. Date of interview, period.
c. Name(s) of interviewer(s) plus a period, preceded by the capitalized phrase “Interviewed by” or “Interview with”
d. Medium of the interview if relevant (Example 21.2, no. 2.)

Example 36


37. Manuscripts

a. Names of the collections are arranged alphabetically
b. Dates are omitted as each collections contains manuscripts referring to many different dates
c. When only one manuscript is cited, its specific date could be included.

Example 37


38. Internet Sources in the Reference List.

Example 38


39. University of Guelph Grading System

The following is excerpted from page 37 of the University of Guelph Undergraduate Calendar, 2001-2002 (Guelph: University of Guelph, 2001), 37.

VIII--Undergraduate Degree Regulations and Procedures:

Grading System

Resolution 1. That the assignment of grades at the University of Guelph be based on clearly defined standards, which are to be published in the Undergraduate Calendar for the benefit of faculty and students and that the definitions for each of the numerical grade range (letter grades) be as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>80 - 100 (A) Excellent</td>
<td>An outstanding performance in which the student demonstrates a superior grasp of the subject matter, and an ability to go beyond the given material in a critical and constructive manner. The student demonstrates a high degree of creative and/or logical thinking, a superior ability to organize, to analyze, and to integrate ideas, and a thorough familiarity with the appropriate literature and techniques.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 - 79 (B) Good.</td>
<td>A more than adequate performance in which the student demonstrates a thorough grasp of the subject matter, and an ability to organize and examine the material in a critical and constructive manner. The student demonstrates a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
good understanding of the relevant issues and a familiarity with the appropriate literature and techniques.

60 - 69 (C) Acceptable. An adequate performance in which the student demonstrates a generally adequate grasp of the subject matter and a moderate ability to examine the material in a critical and constructive manner. The student displays an adequate understanding of the relevant issues, and a general familiarity with the appropriate literature and techniques.

50 - 59 (D) Minimally Acceptable. A barely adequate performance in which the student demonstrates a familiarity with the subject matter, but whose attempts to examine the material in a critical and constructive manner are only partially successful. The student displays some understanding of the relevant issues, and some familiarity with the appropriate literature and techniques.

0 - 49 (F) Fail. An inadequate performance.

40. On-line Resources For Essay Writing:

- Roget’s II: The New Thesaurus
- The Virtual Reference Desk
- Language Tools - Dictionary/thesaurus/translator @ Research-It
- Miriam-Webster Online: The Language Centre
- Oxford English Dictionary, 2nd ed.
41. Sources Consulted


