Guide to Writing Coursework

The guidance below will help you write essays and other similar pieces of coursework based on a structured argument supported by historical evidence. There are, of course, other types of coursework, such as document analyses, secondary source criticisms, pieces of empathy writing, and presentations. Please consult your module tutor for specific guidance on these, but please note that you should always follow the general principles outlined below, and especially the guidance on how to footnote your work and avoid plagiarism.

Reading for the Essay

A good essay, in part, rests on a broad range of reading. It is important to demonstrate a range of thought, and this can only come if you have read extensively and are not reliant on one or two works. Remember that work of quality derives from a critical engagement with the works you have read, where you show not only what you have learnt from the work, but also your ability to evaluate it. This means that when you are reading, you should attend both to the empirical content of the work, and to the methodology and approach of the historian, to the evidence deployed and to the mode of argumentation.

Do not simply look to length of bibliography, but to relevance. It is better to read four articles that address a particular essay topic, than seven textbooks, all of which give the same basic information (but better again to read ten or more items). Remember the vital importance of academic journals: these are the principal medium in which scholarly exchange takes place. You should form the habit from an early stage of consulting recent numbers of journals in the Current Periodicals section of the library: many journals are also available in the library, and online via the library website.

In starting to read for an essay, you are normally coming to a topic about which you know little or nothing. Begin by reading the relevant section of one or more textbooks that cover the topic in general terms. This will provide you with an overview of the subject. Do not dive into the more specialist literature (monographs and journals) until you have gained an overview. You can then begin to embark on more specialist monographs and journal articles. This means giving yourself time to plan and locate your reading.

Note-taking

Individuals collect and process information in differing ways, and the following can only be an outline of a system that works well for many people.

a) When you are reading a work, do not initially take any notes. Rather construct an index of themes that are suggested to you by the book or article. For an essay on ‘Why Did Revolution Occur in Russia in 1917’, some appropriate themes might be: a) the development of revolutionary organisations; b) the privations of war; c) the radicalization of workers and soldiers; d) the impoverishment of the peasants and their drive against landowners; e) the narrow social base of Tsarist support etc. Alongside these themes, jot down the pages of the work where the themes are dealt with and no more.

b) When you have finished reading the work, put it to one side, and write - merely on the basis of the index heads you have - your thoughts on each theme. Take each theme in turn and write what the work has suggested to you about it. When you have written that, and only then, turn back to the work, and look at the pages pertaining to the theme and write down in
brackets after your treatment of the theme the page numbers that particularly have led you to your thoughts - sometimes its a few pages, sometimes its a whole chapter. That way you can be sure to specify what your source is. At the same time, looking at those pages again - you will now simply be scanning - will allow you to pull out some key facts, quotations, statistics, always being careful to note on which pages these are to be found and always being sure in your transcription that you know - through quotation marks - where you are using your words and where you are not.

c) When you have finished that theme, move on to the next and repeat the process.

d) Do not take voluminous notes - a scholarly article of 20 to 40 pages should not lead you to take more than 2 or 3 pages of notes. Do not forget that there are different modes of reading. Some sources must be read very closely; others - even rather large ones - can be scanned and gutted for what is relevant to your subject. It sometimes happens that a long work, because it is marginal to your essay topic, or because it is dealing with themes/evidence that you have picked up elsewhere, provides you with no more than a paragraph of notes.

e) Never take notes verbatim. Be vigilant about using your own formulations. This will help you to avoid the academic offence of plagiarism (for which, see below). Clearly indicate in your notes what is direct quotation, and what is paraphrase. Otherwise, you will be confused later on. If a chapter or article seems particularly relevant, photocopying it and highlighting the relevant sections can be a time-saving alternative to writing out large sections.

f) The Department is not allowed to set the same or similar questions for essays and examinations. Remember, therefore, that from the point of view of examinations, it is wise to take notes on the topic in all its different aspects, rather than to concentrate only on the particular aspect covered by the essay question. At the same time, when it comes to writing the essay, avoid the temptation to write on all aspects of the topic, rather than the actual question asked, simply to show how much you have read and understood.

Planning the Essay

Concentrate upon the question posed, which will in most cases reflect only one aspect of a larger historical topic. Reflect upon the ideas and information gathered in your notes, with a view to developing an argument around the question. Make sure that you are covering all the relevant issues connected with the question. Sometimes it is possible to refine an essay topic - eg by deciding to use one or two case studies to illuminate the question - but beware of trying to rewrite the question in such a way as to change its basic thrust. You will be marked on your ability to answer the question set - not one of your own devising (except, of course, where setting your own title is required by the module teacher). One way of ensuring that you construct an argument rather than write a report is to attend to the different interpretations or approaches of historians.

When thinking about the implications of an essay topic, consider different ways of approaching it, before plumping for a particular line of argument. Assess the relative strengths of different arguments, and weigh the evidence that can be mustered in support of them. Once you have chosen a line of argument, think of possible counter-arguments and counter-evidence. Do not be afraid to engage with these, or to incorporate elements of them into your own argument in order to qualify or expand it.

Write a plan, even if it is only very rough. If you cannot do this, it is a sign that you have not really thought through the implications of the question, or the argument you wish to make. You then
need to refine your plan to ensure that there is a consistent development of your analysis throughout the essay.

Writing the opening paragraph

This should ‘unpack’ the problem or issues raised by the essay question, ie explain to the reader what the question is getting at. This might, for instance, entail explaining the importance of the topic; or a controversy among historians around the issue; or setting the issue in a wider historical and/or historiographical context in order to frame the question for the reader. You should, however, also avoid making the opening paragraph a catalogue of your intentions (‘I shall first discuss...then go on to discuss’ etc). This should be unnecessary, since your argument ought to emerge clearly from the essay. It is, however, acceptable (but not obligatory) to summarise your thesis (ie your answer to the question) at the end of the opening paragraph.

Arguing effectively

Plan your argument and argue it in a consistent manner. Imagine that you are trying to persuade a somewhat sceptical reader, less informed than yourself but not completely uninformed, of the validity of your argument. Effective argument depends on evidence to support its points and on logical exposition. If you say something with which a reasonable person might disagree, clinch the point by citing examples and by offering supplementary argumentation. Remember that this may mean refuting counter-evidence and counter-argument. By all means express disagreement with authorities, but do so in an informed and rational way. Avoid expressing bombastic, unsubstantiated opinions. Choose examples that are telling ones. Do not make sweeping generalisations. Do not labour the obvious.

Remember that most essays are, in large part, concerned with explanation: demonstrating why something in the past happened. Do not be content simply to list different factors, causes or trends. Try to rank them in order of importance. Do not be content to amalgamate different historians’ explanations: look out for incompatibility and disagreement between them. Be critical of the explanations proffered by the historians you read. Be prepared to reject their explanations by scrutinising their methodology, mode of argumentation, or evidence deployed.

Writing in paragraphs

A paragraph should mark a new stage in your argument. It should have a main point, which should be illustrated with evidence, and be backed up with supplementary argumentation. It is appropriate to include additional points in the same paragraph if they relate to the main point, but a new stage in the argument - a full pause for breath - means that it is time to begin a new paragraph. You should never write single-sentence paragraphs, just as you should never write two-page paragraphs. The logical link with the preceding paragraph should always be clear to the reader.

Concision

We give you word limits because quality of thought is related to concision. Never write a single word more than is required by your argument. Go through your essay after you have drafted it, striking out anything that is not essential.
Writing the concluding paragraph

This should draw the threads of your argument together. If you have not stated your thesis in the opening paragraph, you should do so succinctly at this point; if you have, it is not inappropriate to restate it. A conclusion is also the place where you may wish to reflect more widely on the subject of the essay - place it in a broader context, look beyond the time-frame of the essay - or to acknowledge continuing problems in existing interpretations.

Use of historical evidence

Successful argument relies on the effective use of evidence. This may take the form of reference to particular events, to what historical actors said or did, to the extant sources, such as documents, statistics or visual material and, very commonly, to the sense you have derived from secondary works of the operation of specific ‘factors’, trends or whatever. In most of your essays you will be dependent on secondary sources (other publications on the same or related subjects) for evidence. Remember that such evidence has been selected from the historical record and utilised for particular ends by the historian whose work you are using. Treat it, therefore, with a degree of scepticism. Remember, too, that historians construct their narratives on the basis of a diverse body of primary material: manuscripts, official records, contemporary accounts, press reports, diaries, interviews etc. Think about the strengths and limitations of different types of evidence, about the different ways that evidence is used in secondary works, and about your own use of evidence in essays. Evidence should be typical, not untypical; it should be ‘objective’, not subjective; it should be selected with a view to persuading and enlightening the reader; it should be suited to the argument you wish to make.

Conveying a sense of historical change

You should not need to be reminded that the essay is primarily an analytical rather than a narrative vehicle. Particular problems can arise, however, when trying to combine an analytical structure with conveying to the reader a sense of how things changed through time. It is sometimes appropriate in the paragraph which follows your opening paragraph to offer the reader some brief (and the emphasis is on ‘brief’) overview of the period as a whole. You should try to find ways in the course of your analysis of reminding the reader of the basic course of events and of signalling how the analysis offered was influenced by the passage of time. It is not acceptable to range back and forth through time, heedless of whether generalisations made for one period hold for another. This is not just a problem that arises if you are dealing with a long span of time. In periods of revolutionary change, for example, events become accelerated, and a generalisation, which holds at one moment, may not be valid for the situation three months later. There are no easy solutions to this problem of combining a sense of chronological change with analytical coherence, but you should think about it when planning the essay.

The use of a quotation

1 Avoid quotation as a way of conveying information. Look carefully at the function of the quotation in this invented extract from an essay:

   By the 1930s Soviet workers had lost many of their rights. As V. Andrle writes, ‘Managers were often unable to provide everything the workers were entitled to under the rules; workers often had to be asked to work without prescribed safety clothing and devices, to tolerate delays in payment of wages, and to work at a hectic pace during “storming” periods.’

   This is not a good use of quotation, since Andrle is here conveying basic information, rather
than expressing an opinion. You should not use a quotation as a short cut to recounting
the information in your own words.

2 The correct use of quotation. It is best to quote directly from a historian’s work only if you wish
to endorse, draw attention to, or take issue with the opinion expressed. Thus it would be
appropriate to quote Andrle in the following way:

In late-imperial Russia the intelligentsia played a more significant role than its counterpart in
Britain or the USA. As Andrle suggests, ‘in tsarist Russia the intelligentsia rather than the
entrepreneurial bourgeoisie defined the values of progress’.

Here you are using the opinion of an authority to strengthen your point. Note, however, that
this does not necessarily establish its correctness: to do that you will need to cite evidence in
support of it.

3 Avoid quotation as a substitute for historical argument. There is a tendency on the part of
some students to support their argument not with evidence and examples but with the opinions
of the historians they have read. In the worst cases, whole essays consist of stitched-together
quotations. Such appeal to ‘authority’ (ie, the opinion of another historian) does not constitute
adequate substantiation of an argument. This is an issue on which there is possibly a
difference in convention between history and other social sciences, so joint-honours students,
in particular, should be aware of different disciplinary conventions. In a sociology essay, for
example, it might be acceptable to argue in the following fashion:

Racism in Britain is, as Cohen notes, ‘not something tacked on to English history, by virtue
of its imperialist phase, one of its aberrant moments; it is constitutive of what has become
known as the “British way of life”’. Or as Gilroy points out: ‘Racism is not a unitary event
based on a psychological aberration nor some historical antipathy to blacks. It must be
understood as a process’.

Generally, in a historical essay you would not be advised to construct an argument in this way,
ie by direct quotation of secondary authors, though it would be all right to cite their opinions if
you wished to take issue with them. Contrast the following examples:

Why were Communists so prominent in the movements of resistance to the Axis powers
during the Second World War?

M. R. D. Foote says that they ‘alone had foreseen the possibility of a resistance war’.¹
Meanwhile, E. J. Hobsbawm suggests that the ‘communists took to resistance, not only
because Lenin’s “vanguard party” structure was designed [for] efficient action, but because
extreme situations, such as illegality, repression and war, were precisely what these bodies
of “professional revolutionaries” had been designed for.’²

¹ M. R. D. Foote, Resistance: An Analysis of European Resistance to Nazism, 1940-45
(London, 1976), p. 84.

² E. J. Hobsbawm, Age of Extremes: the Short Twentieth Century, 1914-1991 (London,
Here the mode of argument is similar to that of the sociology example, and relies on appeal to authority. It makes no reference to concrete examples or events. Compare the following:

Why were Communists so prominent in the movements of resistance to the Axis powers during the Second World War? One can adduce four reasons. First, the disciplined structure of the Leninist 'vanguard party' was ideally suited to situations of war and repression, in a way that mass social-democratic parties were not. Indeed in Denmark the Social Democratic government, which was in office when Germany invaded, actually remained in place for the duration of the war. Second, the internationalism of the Communist parties allowed them to mobilise those who were more responsive to a message of anti-fascism than patriotism, such as the 12,000 Spanish Civil War refugees in south-western France. Third, the bravery, self-sacrifice and ruthlessness of many Communists was an inspiration to their fellow citizens, as the Yugoslav, Milovan Djilas, brings out in his memoir, *Wartime*. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, except in their Balkan strongholds, the Communists made no attempt to establish revolutionary regimes, being strongly supportive of broad anti-fascist alliances and coalition governments (in 1945 British Communists were opposed to the break-up of the Churchill wartime coalition).  


The second example is more effective, since it relies both on an explanatory argument and on the use of evidence. It relies entirely on Hobsbawm, so his work is cited as a footnote.

4 The technicalities of quotation. Note that both the above quotations are properly footnoted. Look at the first example, and you will see that if you wish to skip over part of a sentence or paragraph in a quotation, you indicate this by three spaced dots... or four if you run over the end of a sentence. Words added within quotations are indicated by square brackets.

5 You must show clearly the distinction between your own work and the words or ideas of others. Short quotations from other writers need quotation marks (inverted commas), followed by a footnote. Long quotations are indented as a block without quotation marks, and followed by a footnote. In typed essays, your paragraphs are double-spaced, while indented block quotations are single-spaced. Summaries based on others' work should also be footnoted, as in the last example above, based on Hobsbawm.

Stylistic advice

The following are some of the rules George Orwell recommended in his ‘Politics and the English Language’ (1946):

- Never use a long word where a short one will do.
- If it is possible to cut out a word, always cut it out.
- Never use the passive where you can use the active.
- Never use a foreign phrase, a scientific word or a jargon word if you can think of an everyday English equivalent.
- Break any of these rules sooner than say anything outright barbarous.

In general you should:

1 Try to adopt a clear, expressive use of English. Good grammar, syntax, spelling and punctuation will indicate to the reader that you have thought about how the language is used, and will give you greater powers of expression and analytical precision. Carefully
chosen words, well-constructed sentences and correct punctuation aid the flow of thought and make what you have to say more easily understood. If you find writing difficult, aim to be clear and simple, rather than convoluted and ‘sophisticated’.

2 Pause before you intrude your ego into the text. Conventions are a little more relaxed than in the past, but it is still preferred to avoid too ‘subjective’ a style.

3 Make sure you are consistent in your usage of ‘I’, ‘one’ or ‘the author’.

4 Avoid the use of abbreviations except in commonly accepted forms, such as the USA or UN. Do not use WW1. It is not good style to write ‘don’t’, ‘it’s’, ‘wasn’t’ etc.

5 Avoid using quirky, eighteenth-century-style capitalisation: ‘In the nineteenth century the development of Modern Industry led to increasing Social Differentiation’. Modern Industry and Social Differentiation - as abstract nouns - should be in lower case.

Equally, avoid the opposite error of putting proper names into lower case. ‘The peasants’ revolt of 1381 was sparked by protest against the poll tax’. Peasants’ Revolt should be in upper case here, and, arguably, so should Poll Tax. This is because the Peasants’ Revolt refers to a specific event, not the generic category of ‘peasant revolt’. And avoid: ‘Marie-Antoinette showed touching devotion to the french (sic) peasants’. You should not need reminding that in English, all names or adjectives referring to countries’ languages are put in the upper case.

6 The key words in titles should also go into upper case. Book titles should be italicised – ‘Karl Marx’s The Communist Manifesto appeared in 1848, shortly before revolution broke out in Paris.’ Titles of articles in journals or edited books should be placed in inverted commas – ‘Lenin’s “Theses on the Constituent Assembly”, published in Pravda 26 December 1917, argued that the Constituent Assembly did not represent the will of the workers and peasants.’

7 The apostrophe indicates possession. Note the difference between its use with singular and plural nouns. ‘The Emancipation Act of 1861 outraged the peasants’ sense of fairness’. Here ‘peasants’ is in the plural, and so the apostrophe comes at the end of the word (after the ‘s’ which denotes the plural form). ‘The landowner always listened to his bailiff’s advice.’ Here the ‘bailiff’ is singular, and the apostrophe comes before the ‘s’ to indicate possession.

8 Divide words at the end of a line only when the lines would be conspicuously uneven if the word were completed. If division is necessary, use the hyphen at the end of the line - never at the beginning of the following line. Words must be divided only at syllables. If you do not know where the syllables fall, look in a dictionary. Do not divide short words or leave one or two letters dangling on their own at the beginning or end of a line.
Punctuation

1. Punctuation is important as an aid to comprehension. Poor punctuation makes it hard for the reader to grasp immediately what you are trying to say.

2. Think about commas. One way to test out your use of commas is to read your essay through to see if you would actually pause where you have put a comma. Avoid very long sentences broken up solely by commas. Learn to employ semi-colons and colons: they have their uses – as do dashes (and brackets). Throughout this section, colons and semi-colons have been deliberately used, and it would pay you to look closely at the functions they perform. If you find it difficult to use semi-colons or colons properly, stick to short sentences.

3. Students may find it helpful to refer to *The Blue Book of Grammar and Punctuation* at www.grammarbook.com

Spelling

While nothing under the sun is perfect, errors in typing, spelling and punctuation annoy readers and may adversely affect the mark given. Therefore, when in doubt, use a dictionary or a guide to English usage.

**FOOTNOTING YOUR WRITTEN WORK**

**PLAGIARISM**

You must provide references in the form of footnotes or endnotes when you write essays and other types of coursework. A key function of the footnote is to avoid plagiarism. To plagiarise is to give the impression that you have written or thought something that you have in fact borrowed from someone else. To do this is considered a violation of the professional responsibility to acknowledge ‘academic debts’. In its most blatant form, it entails reproducing someone else’s words more or less verbatim, and presenting them as your own. Please note that the Department uses Turnitin’s OriginalityCheck to check students’ work for improper citation or potential plagiarism by comparing it against the world’s most accurate text comparison database. We do not currently allow students to submit their own work through Turnitin.

The University regards both conscious and unconscious acts of plagiarism as equally problematic; it is your responsibility to make yourself aware of what constitutes plagiarism and to make sure that you avoid it. The University treats plagiarism as an academic offence and anyone found guilty of committing plagiarism risks being sanctioned: for more details, see the section on Academic Offences, on page 48.

**Footnotes**

1. To avoid plagiarism, footnotes are needed for all direct quotations and for all important statements of opinions derived from written sources. They should appear at the bottom of the page. Footnotes are numbered sequentially through the entire essay. In projects, separate sets of footnotes may be used for each chapter, or the whole can be numbered sequentially.

2. Once you have cited a reference in full - author, title, place and date of publication - merely
cite it in an abbreviated form thereafter, giving the author’s surname and a shortened version of the title. When two authors have the same surname, give their first names or initials to avoid confusion. The abbreviation *Ibid.* is used when citing the same work immediately after a full or abbreviated reference. If the page number is different, give the page number after *Ibid.* Avoid having too many *Ibid.*s in a row, however: often they can more effectively be combined into a single footnote.

3  

Note the following usages that are particularly common in historical writing.

a) ‘The British Commander-in-Chief in the Far East referred to Japanese soldiers as “sub-human specimens”’. [Cited by C. Thorne, *The Far Eastern War*, p. 18]. Here you should cite the source of this bit of primary evidence. Since you have not read the speeches or diaries of the C-in-C concerned, you indicate that you are citing the primary evidence by way of a secondary source.

b) The business of ‘second-hand’ citation of primary sources can be a little complicated, and since it is often the primary source we wish to cite, you need to be clear about the conventions. Supposing you wish to quote Chairman Mao in an essay:

Mao Zedong liked to give his denunciations of the Soviet Union a homely flavour. ‘I couldn’t have eggs or chicken soup for three years because an article appeared in the Soviet Union which said that one shouldn’t eat them. Later they said one could eat them. It didn’t matter whether the article was correct or not, the Chinese listened all the same’.

If you found this quotation in a secondary source, rather than by reading Mao’s writings for yourself, you must indicate this to the reader. The simplest solution is probably: As cited in Jonathan D. Spence, *The Search for Modern China* (New York, 1990), p. 577.

If you look at Spence’s own footnote, of course, you will find the original source cited: Stuart Schram (ed.), *Chairman Mao Talks to the People: Talks and Letters, 1956-1971* (New York, 1971), p. 98. If you wish, you may also cite this source, so long as you still indicate that it is ‘as cited in Spence’ (followed by the details). What you must not do is cite the original source without reference to Spence, as though you found it for yourself. Make it clear to the reader that the reference to a primary source comes via the secondary author.

This does not only apply to ‘second-hand’ citation of primary sources, but also to quotations from historians cited in other historians’ works (in the following example, all titles are fictitious).


**Form for books and pamphlets:**

NB: Footnotes may vary in different publications. We would like you to use the following conventions.

Name/Initials Surname, *Title in Italics* (Place of publication, Year of publication), p. xx. (a series of pages is pp. xx-xxi; several discrete pages is pp. 17, 35, 37).


If you wish, you can add the publisher’s name, but then you should do so consistently throughout.
Name/Initials Surname, Title in Italics (Place of publication: Publisher, Year of publication), p. xx.


For books purchased on Kindle and other electronic sources, use the following


Please note:
1. The punctuation of footnotes is as important as in an ordinary sentence. Pay attention to spaces and where the punctuation points are placed. Footnotes should always end with a full stop.
2. Page numbers may be abbreviated when a series is cited: e.g., rather than pp. 178-179, use pp. 178-9.
3. Usually, the author’s full first name is used when only one is given. If several forenames are given, initials can be used: e.g. P. J. Harvey; V. A. C. Gatrell.

Form for articles in journals:
The title of the article is placed in inverted commas; the title of the journal is italicised and must be followed by the number of the volume, date of publication, and page reference (using a ‘p.’ or ‘pp.’). When an article’s argument is summarised in its entirety, or you are referring to it in passing, use the full range of page numbers.


Form for articles/chapters from edited books:
Author, ‘Title in Inverted Commas’, in editor (ed.), Title of Book (Place, Date), p. x.

NB: (ed.) for one editor; (eds) for two or more.


Form for edited primary sources:
This is where a manuscript source or printed work is (re)published or translated, often with an introduction, by a later editor.

Original author, Title of Work, ed./ trans. editor’s name (Place, Date).

Henry Fitzsimons, Words of Comfort to Persecuted Catholics Written in Exile in anno 1607, ed. Edmond Hogan (Dublin, 1881).

Form for newspapers:


If the paper does not have page numbers, leave that part out.

Form for unsigned articles (encyclopaedias, weeklies, or anonymous books):

The Truth about Toad Hall (Balham, 1932), p. 73.

Form for original archival manuscripts:

Repository: Name of Collection: call number for box or volume, details of authorship or title of document.


Later references can be abbreviated:

PRO, T1/4573: Rickman to Trevelyar, 10 Feb. 1841.

Form for government publications:


You should ensure that you include all the information required to locate the specific document, which will probably include an internal archive reference.

Form for films:

Title (date), director.


Form for internet sources:

All citations of texts and graphics should include the following information:

Author, title, print publication or photographic/graphic collection (if known) and URL of the specific text or graphic; title and URL of the website; and the date the document was retrieved.

For example:

John MacNamara, ‘Berry Picker’, The Nation, 139 (12 Sept. 1934),
accessed 1 January 2008.

In the case of primary sources, which have been scanned or transcribed on to the world-wide-web, it is important to give full details of the original document/graphic as well as the internet
location, for example:


In the case of printed works that have been scanned into websites such as EEBO and ECCO, it is permissible to cite the original book, rather than crediting it to the website:

I. Cranford, The Teares of Ireland (London, 1642), pp. 22, 80

**Information Footnotes:**

In general, if it is worth saying, it is worth putting in the text. Occasionally, a peripheral fact or a statement regarding an interpretation may be added to a footnote or become a separate footnote. For example, in a paper on fourteenth-century peasant revolts, this might appear as an informational footnote:

As late as the eighteenth century, Berkshire magistrates issued warrants for the arrest of Wat Tyler.

**Repeat references:**

Later references to a book or article used earlier may be shortened, but must still clearly identify the source. Usually it is easiest to use: Surname, Short Title, p. x.

Joll, Europe, p. 135.


If two authors you have used have the same surname, use an initial to make the difference absolutely clear.

J. Joll, Europe, p. 135.
FORMS OF REFERENCE: BIBLIOGRAPHY

At the end of the essay list all the books and articles which you consulted in the course of researching the essay on a separate sheet, even if you do not make direct reference to all of them. The bibliography should exist separately from the footnotes, and should be alphabetised according to the surname of the author. The entry for a book should list the author, title (italicised), place and date of publication (publisher can also be given). The entry for an article in a journal should list the author, title (in inverted commas), journal title (italicised), the volume and number of the issue. If the journal is not numbered by volumes, indicate the number of the issue and the year published. The entry for an article in an edited book should list the author of the article, the article title, the editor(s) of the book, the book title, and the place and date of publication.

If you have used several different types of sources, it is preferable to divide the bibliography into sections: e.g. ‘Primary Sources’; ‘Printed Primary Sources’; ‘Secondary Sources’.

Form for books


Form for articles


The page numbers covered by the article can be included if you wish.

If a number of articles from the same book are used, it is possible to cite the book only once: French, Roger, and Wear, Andrew, (eds), *British Medicine in an Age of Reform* (London, 1991).

Form for unpublished or manuscript sources

EITHER list collections alphabetically, with the archive in brackets, eg:

Sir Austin Chamberlain (University Library, University of Birmingham)
Norman Davis (Library of Congress, Washington D.C)

OR by archive, with individual collections then listed alphabetically, eg

Herbert Hoover Presidential Library, West Branch, Iowa
William Castle
Herbert Hoover, Presidential Papers Series
Hugh Wilson
**Form for published primary sources**

Newspapers should be listed in alphabetical order; government publications should be listed alphabetically by government and originating department or agency, and then chronologically within each section.

**Form for internet sources**

It is more difficult to provide precise guidance on how to refer to internet sources in a bibliography, particularly if the site contains a collection of documents and photographs drawn from a number of archives or publications. At the very least, you should provide full details (including URL) of the particular site, and the date it was consulted, for example, *New Deal Network*, [http://newdeal.feri.org](http://newdeal.feri.org), accessed 1 January 2008.

OR  

If, however, you have used a particular document extensively, it should be listed separately, with its specific URL. For example, to use an earlier reference


**Further notes:**

1. In History writing, dates take the form of 1 January 1672, with no internal punctuation (not 1st January, and not January 1). Abbreviations for months may be used in footnotes: 1 Jan. 1672.
2. Whichever system you follow for footnotes and bibliography, you must be consistent throughout.
3. References to notes taken during lectures or seminars: it is both unnecessary and inappropriate to include in your bibliography or footnotes references to notes taken during lectures or seminars. It is presumed that you have attended and profited from both forms of instruction and that what you have learned there has informed your approach to your essay. The only exception is when citing statistical information provided in a lecture.