

METHODOLOGY OF HISTORICAL WRITING

B.A HISTORY: CORE COURSE

IV SEMESTER

(2014 Admission onwards)

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STUDY MATERIAL

METHODOLOGY OF HISTORICAL WRITING

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IV SEMESTER

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MODULE-I

WRITING OF HISTORY

History is interpretation of the past in the words of a historian. It is a scholarly study of what happened in the past without being judgmental or subjective. The main job of a historian is to record the information and facts based upon narratives of the past and recollect the entire sequence of events without getting biased. History starts from the time when writing was invented and people started to keep records of events occurring at that time. Events belonging to a period before history are termed as prehistory and include events and people that are beyond the scope of history as it cannot be verified. History includes authentic information about the past as and when it happened

What is Historical Research?

Historical research is the process of systematically examining past events to give an account of what has happened in the past.

- It is not a mere accumulation of facts and dates or even a description of past events.
- It is a flowing, dynamic account of past events which involves an interpretation of the events in an attempt to recapture the nuances, personalities, and ideas that influenced these events.
- One of the goals of historical research is to communicate an understanding of past events.

Significance of Historical Research

The following gives five important reasons for conducting historical research.

1. To uncover the unknown (i.e., some historical events are not recorded).
2. To answer questions (i.e., there are many questions about our past that we not only want to know but can profit from knowing).
3. To identify the relationship that the past has to the present (i.e., knowing about the past can frequently give a better perspective of current events).
4. To record and evaluate the accomplishments of individuals, agencies, or institutions.
5. To assist in understanding the culture in which we live (e.g., education is a part of our history and our culture).

Historical research is a type of analytical research. Its common methodological characteristics include (i) identifying a research topic that addresses past events, (ii) review of primary and secondary data, (iii) systematic collection and objective evaluation of data related to past occurrences with the help of techniques of criticism for historical searches and evaluation of the information and (iv) synthesis and explanation of findings in order to test hypotheses concerning causes, effects or trends of these events that may help to explain present events and anticipate future events. Historical studies attempt to provide information and understanding of past historical, legal and policy events. The historical method consists of the techniques and

guidelines by which historians use historical sources and other evidences to research and then to write history.

Characteristics of Historical Research

1. It is not a mere accumulation of facts and data or even a portrayal of past events.
2. It is a flowing, vibrant report of past events which involves an analysis and explanation of these occurrences with the objective of recapturing the nuances, personalities and ideas that influenced these events.
3. Conducting historical research involves the process of collecting and reading the research material collected and writing the manuscript from the data collected. The researcher often goes back-and-forth between collecting, reading, and writing. i.e. the process of data collection and analysis are done simultaneously are not two distinct phases of research.
4. It deals with discovery of data that already exists and does not involve creation of data using structured tools.
5. It is analytical in that it uses logical induction.
6. It has a variety of foci such as issues, events, movements and concepts.
7. It records and evaluates the accomplishments of individuals, agencies or institutions

Steps in Historical Research:

The essential steps involved in conducting a historical research are as follows:

1. Identify a topic/subject and define the problems/questions to be investigated.
2. Search for sources of data.
3. Evaluate the historical sources.
4. Analyze, synthesize and summarize interpreting the data / information.
5. Write the research report.

Since most historical studies are largely qualitative in nature, the search for sources of data, evaluating, analyzing, synthesizing and summarizing information and interpreting the findings may not always be discreet, separate, sequential steps i.e. the sequence of steps in historical research is flexible.

Let us now look at each of these steps in details.

1. Identification of a Historical Problem.

According to Borg “In historical research, it is especially important that the student carefully defines his problem and appraises its appropriateness before committing himself too fully’. Many problems are not adaptable to historical research methods and cannot be adequately treated using this approach. Other problems have little or no chance of producing significant results either because of the lack of pertinent data or because the problem is a trivial one.”

Beach has classified the problems that prompt historical inquiry into five types:

1. Current social issues are the most popular source of historical problems in education. e.g. Rural education, adult and continuing education, positive discrimination in education etc.
2. Histories of specific individuals, histories of specific educational institutions and histories of educational movement. These studies are often conducted with “the simple desire to acquire knowledge about previously unexamined phenomena”.
3. A historical study of interpreting ideas or events that previously had seemed unrelated. For example, history of educational financing and history of aims of education in India may be unrelated. But a person reviewing these two researches

separately may detect some relationship between the two histories and design a study to understand this relationship.

4. A historical study aimed at synthesizing old data or merges them with new historical facts discovered by the researcher.

5. A historical inquiry involving reinterpretation of past events that have been studied by other historical researchers. This is known as revisionist history. On the other hand, in order to identify a significant research problem; Gottschalk recommends that four questions should be asked:

(i) Where do the events take place?

(ii) Who are the persons involved?

(iii) When do the events occur?

(iv) What kinds of human activity are involved?

The scope of the study can be determined on the basis of the extent of emphasis placed on the four questions identified by Gottschalk i.e. the geographical area included, the number of persons involved, the time span included and the number and kinds of human activities involved often, the exact scope and delimitation of a study is decided by a researcher only after the relevant material has been obtained. The selection of a topic in historical research depends on several personal factors of the researcher such as his/her motivation, interest, historical knowledge and curiosity, ability to interpret historical facts and so on. If the problem selected involves understanding an event, an institution, a person, a past period, more clearly, it should be taken up for a research.

The topic selected should be defined in terms of the types of written materials and other resources available to you. This should be followed by formulating a specific and testable hypothesis or a series of research questions, if required. This will provide a clear focus and direction to data collection, analysis and interpretation. i.e. it provides a structure to the study. According to Borg, without hypotheses, historical research often becomes little more than an aimless gathering of facts.

SOURCES AND ANCILLARY DISCIPLINES

Sources of history

All the material which has a direct bearing or can be any assistance in constructing the history of a particular period is called as historical facts or sources. The historical sources can be of two types, i.e. Primary and Secondary Sources. A primary source is the evidence of an eye witness or mechanical device which was present at the time of the occurrence of an event. It is the work of the historian to convert the scattered difficult primary evidences into coherent, intelligible secondary sources.

The secondary source is the evidence of someone who was not present at the time of occurrence of the event e.g., books written by historians. The secondary source is also of great historical importance to the historians although secondary source is itself dependent on primary sources.

A primary source may contain secondary information e.g., news papers are usually considered primary sources but the information provided by news paper is not

all based on primary sources. Such as certain incidents reported by the paper may be such which the correspondent saw or in he actually took part while certain offer information may be based on official information or sources considered reliable.

Primary Sources

The primary sources can be classified into the following categories:

(1) Contemporary Records:

These types of primary sources are in the form of the instruction documents, stenographic and phonographic records, the business and legal paper and autobiographies, etc. The instruction documents may be in the form of an appointment notification, and direction from foreign office to the ambassador etc. Generally such documents have very little chance of error but it is essential to ascertain their authenticity.

The Business and legal letters consists of the bills, journals, leases, wills, tax records which gives an insight into the working of the firms as well as the persons. The autobiographies are a credible source of history because they are very close to the events with which they deal and written by a person himself. These are non-prejudicial.

(2) Confidential Reports:

The confidential reports are not intended for general audience and are less reliable than the contemporary sources. These types of reports are generally in the forms of military and diplomatic dispatches, Journals, diaries or memoirs and personal letters.

(3) Public Reports:

The public reports are meant for general public and less reliable. There are three types of public reports and each possesses a different degree of reliability, such as— Newspaper reports and dispatches are more reliable which depends upon the agency from which it originated and the news paper in which it is published; Memoirs and autobiographies are another public reports which are written for the public at the close of the life when the memoirs of author is fading and are therefore, not very reliable and the official histories of the activities of government or business house are also an important kind of public reports. They possess incriminating material and less reliable.

(4) Government Documents:

Numerous government documents are compiled which are also a source of vital importance to the historians such as statistics about fiscal, census and vital matters which can be made use of by the historians. All these reports have first hand importance, but require proper evaluation before the use.

(5) Public Opinion:

The public opinion as expressed in editorials, speeches, pamphlets, letter to editor are another important source available to the historian, But authenticity of this

must be corroborated by other evidence because public opinion may not be always reliable,

(6) Folklores and Proverbs:

The folklores which reveal the stories of legendary heroes are also an important source of history. They tell us about the aspirations, superstitions and customs of the people among whom- the stories developed, e.g. “Alla-Uddal” the hero Rajputana.

To make the use of these folklores the historian should not only possess a thorough knowledge of the history of the period but also able to distinguish between the legendary and authentic elements. Similarly proverbs can give us an idea but scholar must have the thorough knowledge of the customs and traditions.

Secondary Sources

The primary sources can be of great help to the historian if he has acquire thorough knowledge of the background through the study of secondary sources, i.e. the works of the great and important historians of the proposed area and period of research. On the basis of this knowledge, he can utilize the contemporary document at relevant place and can correct the secondary sources.

A secondary source is one in which the eyewitness or the participant i.e. the person describing the event was not actually present but who obtained his/her descriptions or narrations from another person or source. This person may or may not be a primary source. Secondary sources, thus, do not have a direct physical relationship with the event being studied. They include data which are not original. Examples of secondary sources include textbooks, biographies, encyclopaedias, reference books, replicas of art objects and paintings and so on. It is possible that secondary sources contain errors due to passing of information from one source to another. These errors could get multiplied when the information passes through many sources thereby resulting in an error of great magnitude in the final data. Thus, wherever possible, the researcher should try to use primary sources of data. However, that does not reduce the value of secondary sources. In conclusion, the various sources of historical information both primary and secondary can be summarized as follows:

It must be mentioned here that the branch of historical research using all or some types of oral records is known as oral history. It should also be mentioned here that some objects can be classified as documents or relics depending on the how they are used in a historical study. For example, in a research study on how a historical figure (a politician, a freedom fighter or a social reformer) is presented in textbooks of different periods, the textbook will be classified as a document as the emphasis here is on analyzing its content-matter given in a verbal form. On the other hand, in a research study on printing methods in the past, the textbook can be used as a relic as the focus here is not on analyzing its contents but on its physical, outward characteristics or features.

Ancillary disciplines or Auxiliary sciences

Ancillary or Auxiliary sciences of history are scholarly disciplines which help evaluate and use historical sources and are seen as auxiliary for historical research. Many of these areas of study, classification and analysis were originally developed between the 16th and 19th centuries by antiquaries, and would then have been regarded as falling under the broad heading of antiquarianism. "History" was at that time regarded as a largely literary skill. However, with the spread of the principles of empirical source-based history championed by Leopold von Ranke from the mid-19th century onwards, they have been increasingly regarded as falling within the skill-set of the trained historian.

Auxiliary sciences of history include, but are not limited to:

Archaeology

Archaeology is the study of ancient and historic sites and artefacts. It is the study of human activity through the recovery and analysis of material culture. The archaeological record consists of artefacts, architecture, bio facts or eco facts, and cultural landscapes. Archaeology can be considered both a social science and a branch of the humanities. In North America, archaeology is considered a sub-field of anthropology, while in Europe archaeology is often viewed as either a discipline in its own right or a sub-field of other disciplines.

Archaeologists study human pre-history and history, from the development of the first stone tools at Lomekwi, eastern Africa, 3.3 million years ago up until recent decades. Archaeology as a field is distinct from the discipline of palaeontology, the study of fossil remains. Archaeology is particularly important for learning about prehistoric societies, for whom there may be no written records to study. Prehistory includes over 99% of the human past, from the Palaeolithic until the advent of literacy in societies across the world. Archaeology has various goals, which range from understanding culture history to reconstructing past life ways to documenting and explaining changes in human societies through time.

The discipline involves surveying, excavation and eventually analysis of data collected to learn more about the past. In broad scope, archaeology relies on cross-disciplinary research. It draws upon anthropology, history, art history, classics, ethnology, geography, geology, linguistics, semiology, physics, informationsciences, chemistry, statistics, paleoecology, paleontology, paleozoology, paleoethnobotany, and paleobotany.

Archaeology developed out of antiquarianism in Europe during the 19th century, and has since become a discipline practiced across the world. Since its early development, various specific sub-disciplines of archaeology have developed, including maritime archaeology, feminist archaeology and archaeo-astronomy, and numerous different scientific techniques have been developed to aid archaeological investigation. Nonetheless, today, archaeologists face many problems, such as dealing

with pseudo archaeology, the looting of artefacts, a lack of public interest, and opposition to the excavation of human remains.

Epigraphy

Epigraphy is the study of inscriptions or epigraphs as writing; it is the science of identifying graphemes, clarifying their meanings, classifying their uses according to dates and cultural contexts, and drawing conclusions about the writing and the writers. Specifically excluded from epigraphy are the historical significance of an epigraph as a document and the artistic value of a literary composition.

A person using the methods of epigraphy is called an *epigrapher* or *epigraphist*. For example, the Behistun inscription is an official document of the Achaemenid Empire engraved on native rock at a location in Iran. Epigraphists are responsible for reconstructing, translating, and dating the trilingual inscription and finding any relevant circumstances. It is the work of historians, however, to determine and interpret the events recorded by the inscription as document. Often, epigraphy and history are competences practiced by the same person.

An epigraph is any sort of text, from a single grapheme (such as marks on a pot that abbreviate the name of the merchant who shipped commodities in the pot) to a lengthy document (such as a treatise, a work of literature, or a hagiographic prescription). Epigraphy overlaps other competences such as numismatics or palaeography. When compared to books, most inscriptions are short. The media and the forms of the graphemes are diverse: engravings in stone or metal, scratches on rock, impressions in wax, embossing on cast metal, cameo or intaglio on precious stones, painting on ceramic or in fresco. Typically the material is durable, but the durability might be an accident of circumstance, such as the baking of a clay tablet in a conflagration.

Numismatics

Numismatics is the study of coins. It is the study or collection of currency, including coins, tokens, paper money, and related objects. While numismatists are often characterized as students or collectors of coins, the discipline also includes the broader study of money and other payment media used to resolve debts and the exchange of goods. Early money used by people is referred to as "Odd and curious", but the use of other goods in barter exchange is excluded, even where used as a circulating currency (e.g., cigarettes in prison). The Kyrgyz people used horses as the principal currency unit and gave small change in lambskins; the lambskins may be suitable for numismatic study, but the horse is not. Many objects have been used for centuries, such as cowry shells, precious metals, cocoa beans, and gems.

Today, most transactions take place by a form of payment with either inherent, standardized, or credit value. Numismatic value may be used to refer to the value in excess of the monetary value conferred by law, which is known as the "collector value." Economic and historical studies of money's use and development are an integral part of the numismatists' study of money's physical embodiment.

Folklore

Folklore can be described as traditional art, literature, knowledge, and practices that are passed on in large part through oral communication and example. The information thus transmitted expresses the shared ideas and values of a particular group. British antiquarian William Thoms is generally credited with coining the term "folklore" in 1846. Elliott Oring states that folklore is that part of culture that "lives happily ever after".

The academic study of folklore is most often known as folkloristics, although it is sometimes also termed "folklore studies" and "folk life research". As an academic discipline folklore shares methods, and insights with literature, anthropology, art, music, history, linguistics, philosophy, and mythology.

Place Names

Oral tradition, in the form of stories, songs, and place names, was the primary method for the dissemination of knowledge and instruction, from generation to generation, in societies that did not rely on written language. The identification of area place names known within the area you are attempting to focus on can often yield valuable information on any areas past use that might not otherwise be known. While it is true that the nature of place names differ greatly depending on the culture assigning a name, all names can tell us much regarding the landform or place being named, the people doing the naming, and/or events tied to a general locale. Place names often convey diverse information on a variety of traditional features of a people. This information is especially important in an area where historical records are sparse or populations were decimated by disease and/or displaced through forced relocation. The primary information conveyed in place names often deals with the occupation of the land and the delineation of band or language territory. Names also describe resource use, population centres, trail systems, transportation routes, hunting strategies, food preservation techniques, beliefs, the general economy of an area, and clues to the identity of previous inhabitants. The meaning behind these names provides a glimpse of the ancient relationships with the land and the personal life experiences that perhaps have set one location off from another. Fragments of history can be reconstructed by studying when the distribution of names reflects the sharing of a territory with members of other language groups or where the absence of names hints at band extinction. Because place names tend to be consistent through time, their antiquity reflects the history and importance of particular locations. Place names serve as a representation of an area's history, a focus of culture and knowledge which was/is important for the maintenance of the physical and spiritual identity of a people. When a name is forgotten, more than a name is lost.

Literature

Literature consists of written productions, often restricted to those deemed to have artistic or intellectual value. Its Latin root *litteratura/litteratura* (derived itself from *littera*, letter or handwriting) was used to refer to all written accounts, but intertwined with the roman concept of *cultura*: learning or cultivation. Literature often uses language differently than ordinary language (see *literariness*). Literature can be

classified according to whether it is fiction or non-fiction and whether it is poetry or prose; it can be further distinguished according to major forms such as the novel, short story or drama; and works are often categorised according to historical periods or their adherence to certain aesthetic features or expectations (genre).

The concept has changed meaning over time: nowadays it can broaden to include non-written verbal art forms, and thus it is difficult to agree on its origin, which can be paired with that of language or writing itself. Technology has allowed an ever growing distribution and proliferation of written works, culminating in electronic literature.

Archival studies

Archival science, or archival studies, is the study and theory of building and curating archives, which are collections of recordings and data storage devices. To build and curate an archive, one must acquire and evaluate recorded materials, and be able to access them later. To this end, archival science seeks to improve methods for appraising, storing, preserving, and cataloguing recorded materials.

An archival record preserves data that is not intended to change. In order to be of value to society, archives must be trustworthy. Therefore, an archivist has a responsibility to authenticate archival materials, such as historical documents, and to ensure their reliability, integrity, and usability. Archival records must be what they claim to be; accurately represent the activity they were created for; present a coherent picture through an array of content; and be in usable condition in an accessible location. An archive curator is called an archivist; the curation of an archive is called *archive administration*.

Hypothesis

A hypothesis is a description of a pattern in nature or an explanation about some real-world phenomenon that can be tested through observation and experimentation. The most common way a hypothesis is used in scientific research is as a tentative, testable, and falsifiable statement that explains some observed phenomenon in nature. We more specifically call this kind of statement an *explanatory hypothesis*. However, a hypothesis can also be a statement that describes an observed pattern in nature. In this case we call the statement a *generalizing hypothesis*. Hypotheses can generate *predictions*: statements that propose that one variable will drive some effect on or change in another variable in the result of a controlled experiment. However, many science resources promote the myth that a hypothesis is simply an *educated guess* and no different from a prediction.

Many academic fields, from the physical sciences to the life sciences to the social sciences, use hypothesis testing as a means of testing ideas to learn about the world and advance scientific knowledge. Whether you are a beginning scholar or a beginning student taking a class in a science subject, understanding what hypotheses are and being able to generate hypotheses and predictions yourself is very important.

Drafting Synopsis

In order to clarify your thoughts about the purpose of your thesis and how you plan to reach your research goals, you should prepare a synopsis. A synopsis is a short, systematic outline of your proposed thesis, made in preparation for your first meeting with your supervisor. It serves to ensure that your supervisor gets a clear picture of your proposed project and allows him or her to spot whether there are gaps or things that you have not taken into account.

Your synopsis will work as a kind of protocol for the further steps you need to take to ensure that your thesis reaches the required academic level – and that you finish on time. Although there are no rigid rules for how a synopsis should look, it must contain:

- ***Background:***

Set the stage by addressing the scientific background: How will your proposed research contribute to the existing body of knowledge? Use your own words and be as specific as possible.

- *Rationale* – should address the gaps/problems/issues observed as part of the background section and thus present the argument/justification for completing the study – as described in the lesson of the same name.
- *Problem formulation* – the problem you aim to address in your thesis, as described in the lesson of the same name.
- *Overall and specific objectives* – the actions to be taken in order to address the problem, as described in the lesson of the same name.

- ***Method outline:***

What type of study is best suited to support the actions stated in the specific objectives? What kind of data (qualitative, quantitative) will your study require? What is your geographical study area and who is your target group(s)? Are there ethical considerations you have to make? Etc.

- ***Time plan:***

In the beginning a rough timeline showing a plan on how your work will be divided over time. When is your deadline for e.g. literature search, potential fieldwork (e.g. interviews and/or questionnaire administration), data analysis, writing and layout? Once your problem formulation and objectives are approved by your supervisor, all details should be added to your time plan.

- ***References:***

Create a short list of the major references on which your rationale is based. Make sure that your in-text citations and reference list are completed correctly, both in support of your subsequent work, but also to demonstrate that you have a serious, scientific and methodical approach to your work. See how to use references correctly in the lesson of the same name in the module: Writing process.

At the beginning of your thesis period, your synopsis will be limited in scope and detail, but as you work your way deeper into your topic and you get a clearer

picture of your objectives, methods and references, the more complete and detailed your synopsis will become.

A rule of thumb is that the length of your synopsis can vary from two to five pages, but the precise length and exact requirements of your synopsis can vary from institute to institute and from supervisor to supervisor.

Most study programmes will require that you present a final synopsis before starting data collection. However, the first version of your synopsis for discussion with your supervisor should not be an informal draft. Carefully performed work creates respect and motivation and saves a lot of you and your supervisor's time.

A good approach from the very beginning is to establish a practice of how to write headings, references, names of species, etc. And be consistent. This will help you save time and importantly, lead to a better overall assessment of your final work.

Bibliography

A bibliography is a list of books, articles, government documents, manuscripts and other publications on a subject, described and arranged in some systematic order. Bibliographies may be book-length, and are also found as lists of publications in individual books, articles and entries in encyclopaedias, etc. Bibliographies are so useful in the research process because they are a means to locate material on a certain subject.

First step to faster research: find published bibliographies

Research tip: Search for bibliographies at the beginning of the research process. They provide information on what has been published in a given subject area and can save hours of research.

Bibliographies are often overlooked in the research process but they are a valuable tool. The compiler, in most cases, a professor or librarian, has gathered together a list of sources on a specific topic which means that a good deal of research has already been completed. As pointed out by Gregory Mahler, author of two of the best bibliographies on Canadian government and politics, the main advantage of a bibliography is that it reduces the more tedious and mechanical part of doing research - the process of pouring over many indexes and databases searching for relevant information. Unfortunately, there are too few subject bibliographies published, but look carefully and you may be able to find one of these "jewels"

Why bibliographies are still important

It has been argued that published bibliographies have become passé because they have been replaced by online searches of databases, library catalogues and the Internet. Online searches can gather together a pool of relevant resources without the need for a bibliography. While it is true the power of search engines make this possible, it is a superficial argument.

Published bibliographies cannot be replaced in the research process for a number of reasons:

- They are the work of experienced scholars, librarians and researchers who can judge the significance of the material. This indication of quality provides a remedy to the proliferation of published literature.
- Bibliographies can organize citations in a helpful manner and make it possible to find relevant information quickly. The best bibliographies provide subject grouping to give some indication of the schema of the discipline with a keyword index for quick access.
- They may include valuable information from sources not covered by databases (eg. chapters in books, government documents, conference proceedings, dissertations, primary sources, etc.).
- Even seasoned researchers don't always use search engines effectively and miss relevant resources.
- Bibliographies save the need to repeat a search in many different databases and indexes.

All this being said, it is difficult to convince people of the need to consult a bibliography. Indeed, Thomas Mann, a seasoned reference librarian at the Library of Congress, notes that almost every researcher uses a bibliography at the end of a book or article which happens to come their way but it is comparatively rare that a researcher starts out by looking for bibliographies. A secret of professional researchers is that they start their investigations by looking for published bibliographies. However, it is worth noting that people are generally much more willing to use an online bibliography with a search engine. Some of the bibliographies listed in this section have taken this approach

Conclusion

Bibliographies are invaluable tools for researchers to quickly access the literature of a subject.

MODULE-II

HISTORY AS SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINE

History as a scientific discipline is concerned with the past. Man is in the centre, not as individuals, but rather as parts of a greater whole, or as parts of big events. History can be described as a “mutt” as it has incorporated elements of other scientific disciplines. However, historians argue that the subject can be helpful to other disciplines as well. Other social sciences are more oriented toward the present time, and seek to uncover regularities that can be explained. History is focused on the past, is concerned with specific events, and has a more pragmatic relationship to the general regularities of the other social sciences. The discipline is so wide-ranging that one sees a tendency to specialization within the subject. As a Historian one thus wish to concentrate on a specific event, time, time period etc. One seeks to draw conclusion from single events.

History makes use of sources, that is, remains or traces from the past, in order to recreate events, how things used to be, or to give descriptions of important persons. The historian tries to build puzzles where most of the pieces are missing. History is a discipline where diversity is regarded as something positive. A historian does not work to uncover given truths, he or she rather wish to illuminate several versions of the same story. The sources are the objective part of History, whilst the Historian is the subjective. Through scientific research methods the historian seeks to come as close to pure objectivity as possible.

History is about knowing man’s history, and to learn lessons from it. The discipline can be regarded as a mutt, which lies between the historical-philosophical disciplines and the other social sciences. (Tor G.Jakobsen)

Collection of Data-Written and Oral

The procedure of searching for historical data should be systematic and pre-planned. The researcher should know what information he needs so as to identify important sources of data and provide a direction to his search for relevant data. Using his knowledge, imagination and resourcefulness, he needs to explore the kinds of data required, persons involved, institutions involved. This will help him to identify the kinds of records he requires and whom he should interview. Since a historical research is mainly qualitative in nature all the primary and secondary sources cannot be identified in advance. It is possible that as one collects some data, analyzes and interprets it, the need for further pertinent data may arise depending on the interpretive framework. This will enable him to identify other primary or secondary sources of data.

The search for sources of data begins with wide reading of preliminary sources including published bibliographies, biographies, atlas, specialized chronologies, dictionaries of quotations and terms. Good university and college libraries tend to have a great deal of such preliminary materials. This will enable a researcher to

identify valuable secondary sources on the topic being studied such books on history relating to one's topic. For extensive materials on a subject, the researcher may need to go to a large research library or a library with extensive holdings on a specific subject. Such secondary materials could include other historian's conclusions and interpretations, historical information, references to other secondary and primary sources. The historical researcher needs to evaluate the secondary sources for their validity and authenticity. Now the researcher should turn his attention to the primary sources. These are usually available in the institution or the archives especially if the source concerns data pertaining to distant past or data pertaining to events in which the chief witnesses are either dead or inaccessible.

In case of data concerning the recent past, the researcher can contact witnesses or participants themselves in order to interview them and/or study the documents possessed by them. However, it is not possible for a historical researcher to examine all the material available. Selecting the best sources of data is important in a historical study. In a historical study the complete "population" of available data can never be obtained or known. Hence the sample of materials examined must always be a purposive one. What it represents and what it fails to represent should be considered. The researcher needs to identify and use a sample that should be representative enough for wider generalization.

Data Collection or Literature Review

This step involves identifying, locating, and collecting information pertaining to the research topic.

- The information sources are often contained in documents such as diaries or newspapers, records, photographs, relics, and interviews with individuals who have had experience with or have knowledge of the research topic.
- Interviews with individuals who have knowledge of the research topic are called oral histories.
- The documents, records, oral histories, and other information sources can be primary or secondary sources.
- A primary source is a source that has a direct involvement with the event being investigated like a diary, an original map, or an interview with a person that experienced the event.
- A secondary source is a source that was created from a primary source such as books written about the event. Secondary sources are considered less useful than primary sources.

Verification and Authenticity of Data

The data of historical sources is subject to two types of evaluation. These two types are: (i) external evaluation or external criticism and (ii) internal evaluation or internal criticism. Let us now look at these in detail.

(1) External Criticism(Heuristics or Lower Criticism):

The technique of testing the degree of authenticity of document is called External Criticism or Heuristics or Lower Criticism. The 'External Criticism' is of a

less intellectual type of criticism of the documents. It includes examinations of document like manuscripts, books, pamphlets, maps, inscriptions and monuments. The problem of authenticity of document arises more in case of manuscripts than the printed documents because the printed document have already been authenticated by the editor.

Historian has to resort to a number of tests to determine the authenticity of a particular document in his proposed area of research such as— ‘Authorship’ the first question while examining the authenticity of a document is its author. Even the anonymous writings can provide us useful and important knowledge. But the discovery of an author’s or writer’s name adds the authenticity of the information because of the character, connections and trust worthiness of author determines the authenticity.

Secondly, “Date of Document”, i.e. the time, place of publication of the document must be inquired to determine the authenticity of the document. In the modern publications year and place of publication is indicated on the book or document on the title page or back side (over leaf). However in old manuscript where the data and place are absent it can be found out from the language or from the date of birth and death of author.

Thirdly, the historian confronts with the textual errors which may be either unintentional or deliberately committed. Unintentional error can take place in the copies of the documents (originals are not available). These mistakes may be caused by the scribe, typist or printer.

An intention error may creep in when effort is made to modify, supplement or continue the original. This problem can be overcome through textual criticism. Under this technique effort is made to collect as many copies of dubious text as possible and they are compared.

If the ideas and style do not match or resemble the idea and style of the author it can be safely assumed that they were not parts of the original manuscript and were forged by the later ones. Further’ more, the textual accuracy can be solved with the help of “sciences auxiliary” to history such as “Paleographers” have authenticated numerous documents of the medieval period by their handwritings and have published easily legible printed versions.

The “archaeologists” provides rich information to the historians; the “numismatists” by dating the coins, metals and deciphering their inscriptions render valuable assistance. Fourthly, after the confirmation of authenticity of the sources historians confronted with the different terms used in document.

The meaning of words often changes from generation to generation. Therefore historian must find out the meaning and sense in which it has been used in document. The misinterpretation of terms may lead to misunderstanding of the historical development.

In this way, even after the historian established the authenticity of the documents and discovered the meaning of the text his duty is not over. He is confronted with another important problem the credibility of document.

(2) Internal Criticism (Hermeneutics or Higher Criticism):

The Technique of testing the reliability of the contents of document is called Internal Criticism or Hermeneutics or Higher Criticism. While collecting the material, it must be remembered that a document contains the idea of the man who wrote. A historian must analyse the contents of the documents with a view to determine the real meaning. He must try to avoid the laps such as avoid the reading into meaning which author did not mean to convey, etc., and make a sincere effort to find out the facts even if they are contrary to his set notions and theories.

He must be able to understand the literal and real meaning of the document which is termed as 'Positive Criticism'. It reveals us with the author's conceptions and general notion which he represents. On other hand, historian sometimes comes across documents which contradict each other. Hence the need of eliminating statements and facts which are obviously wrong and false arises.

Therefore, historians have come to hold the view that all that cannot be proved must be temporarily regarded as doubtful because of the incompetency and unreliability of the author which prevents him from telling the truth even when he knows. To assess the correctness of the fact, historian must ascertain whether author had opportunity to know the facts as an eyewitness or not.

What was his source of information and how much time elapsed between the event and the record? But the dependable testimony depends on a number of factors such as ability and willing to tell the truth, accuracy of report and independent corroboration. However, it may be noted that there is a possibility that a skilful liar may deliberately create the condition, i.e. ability and willing to tell the truth with accuracy to establish the credibility of his statements.

Therefore, in those cases the credibility must not be accepted without proper investigation. Moreover, if there is agreement between documents, we cannot draw the conclusion that the facts are definitive but we must ensure that the facts are harmonious and prove each other are interconnected.

Facts and their Synthesis

This refers to synthesizing, or putting the material collected into a narrative account of the topic selected. Synthesis refers to selecting, organizing, and analyzing the materials collected into topical themes and central ideas or concepts. These themes are then pulled together to form a contiguous and meaningful whole.

Be sure to watch out for these four problems that might be encountered when you attempt to synthesize the material collected and prepare the narrative account.

1. Trying to infer causation from correlated events is the first problem. Just because two events occurred together does not necessarily mean that one event was the cause of the other.
2. A second problem is defining and interpreting key words so as to avoid ambiguity and to insure that they have the correct connotation.
3. A third problem is differentiating between evidence indicating how people should behave and how they in fact did behave.
4. A fourth problem is maintaining a distinction between intent and consequences. In other words, educational historians must make sure that the consequences that were observed from some activity or policy were the intended consequences.

Generalizations

A generalization is a connection or relationship between facts; it is an 'inference' or, as Marc Bloch puts it, 'an explanatory relationship between phenomena'. It is the result of the effort to provide an explanation and causation, motivation and effect or impact.

More widely, generalizations are the means through which historians understand their materials and try to provide their understanding of facts to others. Analysis and interpretation of events, etc., is invariably done through generalizations. Generalization is involved as soon as we perform the two most elementary tasks: classify 'facts' or 'data' or 'phenomena' and compare and contrast them, or seek out similarities and dissimilarities among them, and make any inference from them.

Thus, we make a generalization when we put our facts into a series one after another. For example, when we mention the caste or religion of a leader we are making a generalization. By connecting the caste and the leader or writer we are suggesting that his or her caste was an important part of his or her personality and, therefore, his or her political or literary work. Or even the mention of his or her age. More comprehensively, a generalization occurs when we try to understand facts, or make connection between data, objects, events, records of the past through concepts and convey them to others through concepts.

The roles played by generalization in History writing are:

- (i) They serve as the organizing principles for his/her data thus resolving a basic problem for the historian with a mass of untidy facts in his notes not knowing how to put them in some type of order.
- (ii) They improve a historian's perception or 'broaden his gaze'; they increase his ability to grasp an ever-increasing area of reality and make more and more complex interconnections.
- (iii) They enable the historian to draw inferences and establish chains of causation and consequence or effect. In other words, they enable him to analyze, interpret and explain his data. The five W's of a historian's craft are who or what, when, where, how and why. Direct facts can at the most enable us to answer who (or what), when and

where questions but not how and why questions. The latter require wider generalizations.

(iv) More specifically, generalizations lead the historian to look for new facts and sources. Quite often new sources can be properly grasped only through new generalizations. But very often the process is the other way around. In general, the search for new materials is motivated by new generalizations.

(v) Generalizations also enable the historian to establish new connections between old, known facts. When we say that a historian has thrown new light on old facts, it invariably means that the historian has used new generalizations to understand the known facts.

(vi) Generalizations help the historian to avoid 'empiricism' or 'literalism' that is taking the sources at their face value or literal meaning. Instead, he is led to establish their significance and relevance in his narrative. The generalisation has to be made that there are differences in his theory and practice or may be one has to say that there is general and continuous unsystematic and irregular thinking by him. Then one can make the generalisation that Naoroji was confused and incoherent. The latter would, in any case, be the impression of the reader if 'literalism' was followed. On the other hand, generalisation would enable the historian to look at different options in interpretation; his discussion would be put on a

In Naoroji's case we may say that he was an admirer of British rule during the initial period (till early 1870s) and then became critical of British rule and began to consider it an impediment to economic growth and a cause of India's poverty. Similarly, we may point out that he initially favoured the use of foreign capital and later, after 1873, started opposing its entry. We may also analyse the reason for his change of views.

(vii) Generalizations enable a historian to constantly test what he is saying.

To sum up: Generalisations guide us, they enable us to doubt facts as they appear or as they have been described by contemporaries or later writers; they suggest new possible understanding of old facts; they bring out fresh points and views for confirmation, refutation, further development, further qualification of existing views. Generalisations help define a student of history's theme whether in the case of an essay, a tutorial, a research paper or a book.

They enable him to take notes - whether from a book, an article, or a primary source. In fact, a student of history's essay or thesis has to be a series of generalisations to be tested, whether he puts them as statements or Generalisation questions. Generalisations also enable him to find out which of his notes are significant and relevant to the theme or subject matter of his research. Generalisations also enable a researcher to react to what he is reading. He can do so only if he is generalising while he is reading.

Generalisations lead to debates among historians, otherwise the only reaction to each other's work among them would be to point out factual mistakes. Generalisations lead historians to pose issues for discussion and debate and to start processes of fruitful discussion among them. Some would agree with the generalisations presented in another historian's work and find new guides for research and thinking in them. Others would disagree and try to find new and different explanations for the phenomenon under discussion and would look for different evidence for their point of view.

Generalisations thus promote search for fresh supporting or countervailing evidence regarding them. Participants can at the most refute or add to the facts presented in the paper. The absence of generalisations also explains the boring character of some of Indian historical writings. The reader does not have anything to react to them.

MODULE-III

FORMS OF WRITING AND DOCUMENTATION

Research Paper

"Research paper"-What image comes into mind as you hear those words: working with stacks of articles and books, hunting the "treasure" of others' thoughts? Whatever image you create, it's a sure bet that you're envisioning sources of information--articles, books, people, and artworks. Yet a research paper is more than the sum of your sources, more than a collection of different pieces of information about a topic, and more than a review of the literature in a field. A research paper analyzes a perspective or argues a point. Regardless of the type of research paper you are writing, your finished research paper should present your own thinking backed up by others' ideas and information.

To draw a parallel, a lawyer researches and reads about many cases and uses them to support their own case. A scientist reads many case studies to support an idea about a scientific principle. In the same way, a history student writing about the Vietnam War might read newspaper articles and books and interview veterans to develop and/or confirm a viewpoint and support it with evidence.

A research paper is an expanded essay that presents your own interpretation or evaluation or argument. When you write an essay, you use everything that you personally know and have thought about a subject. When you write a research paper you build upon what you know about the subject and make a deliberate attempt to find out what experts know. A research paper involves surveying a field of knowledge in order to find the best possible information in that field. And that survey can be orderly and focused, if you know how to approach it. Don't worry--you won't get lost in a sea of sources.

Thesis

A thesis or dissertation is a document submitted in support of candidature for an academic degree or professional qualification presenting the author's research and findings. In some contexts, the word "thesis" or a cognate is used for part of a bachelor's or master's course, while "dissertation" is normally applied to a doctorate, while in other contexts, the reverse is true. The term graduate thesis is sometimes used to refer to both master's theses and doctoral dissertations. Dissertations and theses may be considered to be grey literature.

The required complexity or quality of research of a thesis or dissertation can vary by country, university, or program, and the required minimum study period may thus vary significantly in duration.

The word dissertation can at times be used to describe a treatise without relation to obtaining an academic degree. The term thesis is also used to refer to the general claim of an essay or similar work.

Etymology

The term "thesis" comes from the Greek , meaning "something put forth", and refers to an intellectual proposition."Dissertation" comes from the Latin meaning "path".

Structure

A thesis (or dissertation) may be arranged as a thesis by publication or a monograph, with or without appended papers respectively. An ordinary monograph has a title page, an abstract, a table of contents, comprising the various chapters (introduction, literature review, findings, etc.), and a bibliography or (more usually) a references section. They differ in their structure in accordance with the many different areas of study (arts, humanities, social sciences, technology, sciences, etc.) and the minimal differences between them. In a thesis by publication, the chapters constitute an introductory and comprehensive review of the appended published and unpublished article documents.

Dissertations normally report on a research project or study, or an extended analysis of a topic. The structure of the thesis or dissertation explains the purpose, the previous research literature which impinges on the topic of the study, the methods used and the findings of the project. Most world universities use a multiple chapter format : a) an introduction, which introduces the research topic, the methodology, as well as its scope and significance; b) a literature review, reviewing relevant literature and showing how this has informed the research issue; c) a methodology chapter, explaining how the research has been designed and why the research methods/population/data collection and analysis being used have been chosen; d) a findings chapter, outlining the findings of the research itself; e) an analysis and discussion chapter, analysing the findings and discussing them in the context of the literature review (this chapter is often divided into two—analysis and discussion); f) a conclusion.

Style

Degree-awarding institutions often define their own house style that candidates have to follow when preparing a thesis document. In addition to institution-specific house styles, there exist a number of field-specific, national, and international standards and recommendations for the presentation of theses, for instance ISO 7144. Other applicable international standards include ISO 2145 on section numbers, ISO 690 on bibliographic references, and ISO 31 on quantities or units.

Some older house styles specify that front matter (title page, abstract, table of content, etc.) uses a separate page-number sequence from the main text, using Roman numerals. The relevant international standard and many newer style guides recognize that this book design practice can cause confusion where electronic document viewers number all pages of a document continuously from the first page, independent of any printed page numbers. They therefore avoid the traditional separate number sequence for front matter and require a single sequence of Arabic numerals starting with 1 for the first printed page (the recto of the title page).

Presentation requirements, including pagination, layout, type and colour of paper, use of acid-free paper (where a copy of the dissertation will become a permanent part of the library collection), paper size, order of components, and citation style, will be checked page by page by the accepting officer before the thesis is accepted and a receipt is issued.

However, strict standards are not always required. Most Italian universities, for example, have only general requirements on the character size and the page formatting, and leave much freedom on the actual typographic details.

Thesis committee

A thesis or dissertation committee is a committee that supervises a student's dissertation. This committee, at least in the US model, usually consists of a primary supervisor or advisor and two or more committee members, who supervise the progress of the dissertation and may also act as the examining committee, or jury, at the oral examination of the thesis (see below).

At most universities, the committee is chosen by the student in conjunction with his or her primary adviser, usually after completion of the comprehensive examinations or prospectus, and may consist of members of the comps committee. The committee members are doctors in their field (whether a PhD or other designation) and have the task of reading the dissertation, making suggestions for changes and improvements, and sitting in on the defence. Sometimes, at least one member of the committee must be a professor in a department that is different from that of the student.

In India the thesis defence is called a viva voce (Latin for "by live voice") examination (viva in short). Involved in the viva are two examiners and the candidate. One examiner is an academic from the candidate's own university department (but not one of the candidate's supervisors) and the other is an external examiner from a different university.

In India, PG Qualifications such as M.Sc. Physics accompanies submission of dissertation in Part I and submission of a Project (a working model of an innovation) in Part II. Engineering qualifications such as Diploma, B.Tech or B.E., M.Tech or M.Des also involves submission of dissertation. In all the cases, the dissertation can be extended for summer internship at certain research and development organizations or also as PhD synopsis.

Oral history

Oral history can be defined as the recording, preservation and interpretation of historical information, based on the personal experiences and opinions of the speaker. It may take the form of eye-witness evidence about the past, but can include folklore, myths, songs and stories passed down over the years by word of mouth. While it is an invaluable way of preserving the knowledge and understanding of older people, it can also involve interviewing younger generations.

Oral history is a very subjective and personal form of evidence – but this is also one of its great strengths. In the words of the Italian oral historian Alessandro

Portelli, oral sources ‘tell us not just what people did, but what they wanted to do, what they believed they were doing, what they now think they did... Subjectivity is as much the business of history as the more visible “facts”...’

Oral history can give a voice to individuals and groups who are sometimes marginalized in ‘conventional’ histories – the working classes, women and ethnic minorities, for instance. It can provide new information, alternative explanations and different insights which are potentially of enormous value. The spoken word can convey feelings and emotions with immediacy and an impact that the written word cannot match, as well as preserving a record of local dialects and accents. It allows the historian to ask questions of his or her informant – to be present at the creation of a historical source, rather than relying solely on those created by others.

Local history

Local history is the study of history in a geographically local context and it often concentrates on the local community. It incorporates cultural and social aspects of history. Historic plaques are one form of documentation of significant occurrences in the past and oral histories are another. Local history is often documented by local historical societies or groups that form to preserve a local historic building or other historic site. Many works of local history are compiled by amateur historians working independently or archivists employed by various organizations. An important aspect of local history is the publication and cataloguing of documents preserved in local or national records which relate to particular areas.

In a number of countries a broader concept of local lore is known, which is a comprehensive study of everything pertaining to a certain locality: history, ethnography, geography, natural history, etc.

Local history tends to be less documented than other types, with fewer books and artefacts than that of a country or continent. Many local histories are recorded as oral tales or stories and so are more vulnerable than more well known issues. Artefacts of local history are often collected in local history museums, which may be housed in a historic house or other building. Individual historic sites are inherently local, although they may have national or world history importance as well. Many however have little overall historical impact but add depth to the local area.

Micro history

Micro history is the intensive historical investigation of a well-defined smaller unit of research (most often a single event, the community of a village, or an individual). In its ambition, however, micro history can be distinguished from a simple case study insofar as micro history aspires to "[ask] large questions in small places", to use the definition given by Charles Joyner.

Background and meaning

The original idea of writing microhistory came from Italy in the 1970s. *Microstoria* included social history (Giovanni Levi: *L'eredità immateriale. Carriere di un esorcista nel Piemonte del seicento*. Einaudi: Torino, 1985.) and

cultural history (Carlo Ginzburg: *Il formaggio e i vermi*. Einaudi: Torino, 1976.). However, E. P. Thompson's *Whigs and Hunters: The Origin of the Black Act* (1975) and Emmanuel Le Roy Ladurie's *Montaillou* (1975), pioneering British and French microhistories, each preceded Ginzburg's book. An even earlier notable work is *Pueblo en vilo* (1968) by Mexican historian Luis González y González, a microhistory pioneer in Latin America.

Carlo Ginzburg himself has sketched the story of the term "microhistory". A likely first occurrence appears to be the title *Pickett's Charge: A Microhistory of the Final Charge at Gettysburg, July 3, 1863* (1959), by the American historian George R Stewart. Various other uses are found during the 1960s, when it is usually contrasted with large-scale structural views and its contents are designated negatively.

An earlier term for the concept of micro history was expressed as "microscopists of history" in 1887 by Adam and Charles Black, while writing a critical review of *The Family of Brocas of Beaurepaire and Roche Court* (1886) by Oxford professor Montagu Burrows -- "Our local and our family historians have from time to time done us invaluable service; they are the microscopists of history, and it cannot be too often repeated that without their aid the historian would have to creep timidly along many a mile where now he can march forward fearlessly, making sure progress."

Micro history had a significant impact on French and German historians in the 1980s and 1990, when it produced classics in several languages (e.g., Natalie Zemon Davis: *The Return of Martin Guerre*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, Mass., 1983.). It can be seen as part of cultural history together with the *histoire des mentalités* of the French Annales School, the German *Alltagsgeschichte*, or historical anthropology. It is especially close to the latter, with the important difference that it, especially its original Italian version, puts a great stress on the agency of historical actors and is therefore unwilling to see culture as a determining force.

MODULE-IV

TECHNIQUES OF HISTORICAL WRITING

Notes

Notes within a paper are used to clarify or expand on a point made, or to give credit to the sources used to support that point. Parenthetical notes are set off by parentheses and are included directly after the source is referred to. Footnotes are similar to parenthetical notes, but are marked by a superscript (raised) number at the point the source is cited. The note itself appears at the bottom of the page. Notes include the author and pages cited, and may include the title. Footnotes are generally more complete than parenthetical notes, and resemble bibliography entries.

Footnotes

The footnote system of referencing uses a numeric reference to the citation in the body of the text, with the citation details at the bottom of the page. In other words Note citing a particular source or making a brief explanatory comment placed at the bottom of a page corresponding to the item cited in the corresponding text above.

Example

Fashion writer Colin McDowell notes that it is partly thanks to Duke Philippe III that 'exaggeration entered male fashion – exaggeration of shape, in particular'¹

Citation details at bottom of page

¹ Colin McDowell, *The Man of Fashion: The Peacock Male and Perfect Gentleman*, Thames & Hudson Ltd, London, 1997, p. 36.

Numeric reference in body of text

Advantages of Using Footnotes

- Readers interested in identifying the source or note can quickly glance down the page to find what they are looking for.
- It allows the reader to immediately link the footnote to the subject of the text without having to take the time to find the note at the back of the paper.
- Footnotes are automatically included when printing off specific pages.

Disadvantages of Using Footnotes

- Footnotes can clutter up the page and, thus, negatively impact the overall look of the page.
- If there are multiple columns, charts, or tables below only a small segment of text that includes a footnote, then you must decide where the footnotes should appear.
- If the footnotes are lengthy, there's a risk they could dominate the page, although this issue is considered acceptable in legal scholarship.

Endnote

Note citing a particular source or making a brief explanatory comment placed at the end of a research paper and arranged sequentially in relation to where the reference appears in the paper.

Advantages of Using Endnotes

- Endnotes are less distracting to the reader and allow the narrative to flow better.
- Endnotes don't clutter up the page.
- As a separate section of a research paper, endnotes allow the reader to read and contemplate all the notes at once.

Disadvantages of Using Endnotes

- If you want to look at the text of a particular endnote, you have to flip to the end of the research paper to find the information.
- Depending on how they are created [i.e., continuous numbering or numbers that start over for each chapter], you may have to remember the chapter number as well as the endnote number in order to find the correct one.
- Endnotes may carry a negative connotation much like the proverbial "fine print" or hidden disclaimers in advertising. A reader may believe you are trying to hide something by burying it in a hard-to-find endnote.

Things to keep in mind when considering using either endnotes or footnotes in your research paper:

1. Footnotes are numbered consecutively throughout a research paper, except for those notes accompanying special material (e.g., figures, tables, charts, etc.). Numbering of footnotes are "superscript"--Arabic numbers typed slightly above the line of text. Do not include periods, parentheses, or slashes. They can follow all punctuation marks except dashes. In general, to avoid interrupting the continuity of the text, footnote numbers are placed at the end of the sentence, clause, or phrase containing the quoted or paraphrased material.

2. Depending on the writing style used in your class, endnotes may take the place of a list of resources cited in your paper or they may represent non-bibliographic items, such as comments or observations, followed by a separate list of references to

the sources you cited and arranged alphabetically by the author's last name. If you are unsure about how to use endnotes, consult with your professor.

3. **In general, the use of footnotes in most academic writing is now considered a bit outdated** and has been replaced by endnotes, which are much easier to place in your paper, even with the advent of word processing programs. However, some disciplines, such as law and history, still predominantly utilize footnotes. Consult with your professor about which form to use and always remember that, whichever style of citation you choose, apply it consistently throughout your paper.

NOTE: Always think critically about the information you place in a footnote or endnote. Ask yourself, is this supplementary or tangential information that would otherwise disrupt the flow of the text or is this essential information that I should integrate into the main text? If you are not sure, it's better to work it into the text. Too many notes imply a disorganized paper.

Ibid

Ibid is used when citing a new reference that is from the same text as the preceding reference. In the first reference to the text give the full details of the source and use *ibid* for the second. If the citation is from the same page as the previous reference, simply use *ibid*. If it is from a different page, use *ibid* + page number, e.g. *ibid* p. 56.

Example

In 2002, Yves St Laurent gave his final couture show in Paris. 'The trailblazer of French fashion, gave his final show after a 40-year career'.¹ It had become apparent that the man who had dominated French fashion for so long, was 'reluctant and unable to respond to the market forces which now control the world to which his great skills as a couturier gave credibility in the last decades of the 20th century'.²

¹ Colin McDowell, 'The eye of the beholder', *The Spectator*, April 2002, Vol. 288, Iss. 9062, p 32.

² *Ibid*, p 32.

Op Cit

Op Cit is used to indicate that an author has already been cited, but it is not the preceding reference.

Example

¹ Joan Nunn, *Fashion in Costume 1200-1980*, Herbert, London, 1984, p. 29.

² Bronwyn Cosgrave, *The Complete History of Costume and Fashion*, Checkmark Books, New York, 2000, p 117.

³ Joan Nunn, *Op Cit*, p. 80.

PP

P. is used for single page references or citations (p. 13) while for multiple pages you must cite it as (pp. 35-40). So p stands for page, pp stands for pages.

Style of Bibliography

Basic Directions

1. Primary and secondary sources should be listed in separate sections. Each section should be labelled "Primary Sources" or "Secondary Sources." Journal articles and encyclopaedia articles should be listed with secondary sources (do not list each genre separately).
2. Entries are placed in alphabetical order under each author's last name. Because ancient and medieval authors usually do not have a "last name," you should generally list them under their first name.
3. Each entry should be single-spaced within the entry. It should be separated from the next entry by 1 blank line. Information within in each citation is separated by periods.
4. The first line of each entry should begin at the left margin. Each subsequent line should be indented 5 spaces from the left margin. [This arrangement is called a "hanging indent." Consult the help section in your word processor for directions on hanging indents.]
5. When listing more than one item by the same author, it is not necessary to write the author's name twice so long as the author's name has been printed in exactly the same way for each work (which is not always the case). For each subsequent reference in the bibliography, type five dashes and a period to begin the entry. See the example below.

Carruthers, Mary. *The Craft of Thought: Meditation, Rhetoric, and the Making of Images, 400-1200*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

----- "Reading with Attitude, Remembering the Book." In *The Book and the Body*, edited by Dolores Warwick Frese and Katherine O'Brien O'Keefe, 1-33. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 1997.

----- *The Book of Memory: A Study of Memory in Medieval Culture*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990.

Examples

Here are examples of the major kinds of works typically included in undergraduate history assignment.

Books

Books by modern authors are probably the most common sources used by history students in their papers. Citations should include the author's name (last name first), the title of the book (underlined or in italics), and the publishing information, all separated by periods. Here are a few examples of books:

Book by a single author:

Aston, Margaret. *Lollards and Reformers: Images and Literacy in Late Medieval Religion*. London: The Hambledon Press, 1984.

Clanchy, M. T. *Abelard: A Medieval Life*. Oxford and Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell, 1997.

Wenzel, Siegfried. *Verses in Sermons: Fasciculus Morum and its Middle English Poems*. Cambridge, Mass.: Medieval Academy of America, 1978.

Book by more than one author:

Briscoe, Marianne G. and Barbara H. Jage. *Artes Praedicandi and Artes Orandi*, Typologie des sources du moyen âge occidental, 61. Turnhout: Brepols, 1992.

NB: Note that the first author's name should begin with the last name first, while the second author's name is listed with the first name first.

Book edited by one or more editors:

Alexander, J. J. G., and M.T. Gibson, eds. *Medieval Language and Literature: Essays Presented to Richard William Hunt*. Oxford: Clarendon, 1976.

Chance, Jane, ed. *The Mythographic Art: Classical Fable and the Rise of the Vernacular in Early France and England*. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1990.

Translated Books:

By a modern author:

Rossi, Paolo. *Logic and the Art of Memory*. Translated by Stephen Clucas. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2000.

Primary sources:

Augustine. *The Trinity*. Translated by Stephen McKenna, C.S.S.R., The Fathers of the Church, 18. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic University of America Press, 1963.

Stahl, William Harris, Richard Johnson, and E. L. Burge, trans. *Martianus Capella and the Seven Liberal Arts*. 2 vols. New York and London: Columbia University Press, 1971.

Stump, Eleonore, trans. *Boethius's De topicis differentiis*. Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1978.

Item in an Anthology

Primary sources are often included in collections of many sources. They should be cited as in the examples below:

Fulcher of Chartres. "The First Crusade." In *A Cloud of Witnesses: Readings in the History of Western Christianity*, 138-44. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 2001.

Pecham, John. "The Ignorance of Pastors." In *Pastors and the Care of Souls in Medieval England*, edited by John Shinnars and William J. Dohar, 127-32. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1998.

A similar method should be used for essays and articles collected into one book.

Areford, David S. "The Passion Measured: A Late-Medieval Diagram of the Body of Christ." In *The Broken Body: Passion Devotion in Late Medieval Culture*, edited by A. A. MacDonald et al., 211-38. Groningen: Egbert Forsten, 1998.

Aston, Margaret. "Devotional Literacy." In *Lollards and Reformers: Images and Literacy in Late Medieval Religion*, 101-133. London: The Hambledon Press, 1984.

Journal Articles

When citing a journal article in a bibliography, follow the examples below:

Bossy, J. "The Social History of Confession in the Age of the Reformation." *Transactions of the Royal Historical Society*, 5th series, 25 (1975): 21-38.

Brown, Peter. "Society and the Supernatural: A Medieval Change." *Daedalus* 104, no. 2 (1975): 133-151. [Here "104" is the volume number, "no. 2" is the issue number. It is also correct to list the month of publication with the year; in this case, do not add the issue number]

DeVries, Kelly. "The Lack of a Western European Military Response to the Ottoman Invasions of Eastern Europe." *Journal of Military History* 63, no. 3 (1999): 539-559.

Mango, Andrew. "Turkey and the Enlargement of the European mind." *Middle Eastern Studies* 34, no. 2 (1998): 171-192. or 34 (April 1998): 171-192. or 34 (1998): 171-192.

Sources on Internet sites

Basic citation components and punctuation

Author's Last Name, First Name. [author's internet address, if available]. "Title of Work" or "title line of message." In "Title of Complete Work" or title of list/site as appropriate. [internet address]. Date, if available.

Vasco da Gama. "Round Africa to India, 1497_1498 CE." In "Modern History Sourcebook." [<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1497degama.html>]. 6 September 2002.

Salvian. "Romans and Barbarians, c. 440." In "Medieval Sourcebook." [<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/salvian1.html>]. 6 September 2002.

Appendices

An appendix (one item) OR appendices (more than one item) is information that is NOT ESSENTIAL to explain your findings in the essay or report that you have written. However, this information may support your analysis and validate your conclusions. Some of the items may have been written by yourself or printed/photocopied from elsewhere, so there are special rules that you must follow. This fact sheet will assist you with:

1. When to use appendices 2.Examples of students' understandings about using appendices 3.Some examples from student essays 4. How to format appendices

1. When to use appendices.

The body of the text must be complete without the appendices, and it must contain all information including tables, diagrams and results necessary to answer the question or support the thesis. Therefore, you will need to know that: Appendices are used when the incorporation of material in the body of the work would make it poorly structured or too long and detailed. Appendices may be used for helpful, supporting or essential material that would otherwise clutter, break up or be distracting to the text. Other people's work in the appendix will be referred to (e.g. see Appendix 3), not quoted (e.g. using short or long quotes) from the appendix. Appendices must be referred to in the body of the text, for example, 'details of the questionnaire are given in Appendix B (on page 23)'. Appendices are not included in the word count.

2. Examples of items in appendices

Appendices may include some of the following:

supporting evidence (e.g. raw data that is referred to in the text) contributory facts, specialised data (raw data appear in the appendix, but summarised data appear in the body of the text.) sample calculations (referred to in the text) technical figures, graphs, tables, statistics (referred to in the text) detailed description of research instruments (referred to in the text) maps, charts, photographs, drawings (referred to in the text) letters, copies of emails (referred to in the text) questionnaires/surveys (questionnaire/survey results appear in the body of the text) transcripts of interviews (summarised in the text) specification or data sheets (summarised in the text)

3. Examples of students' understandings about using appendices

Student 1 (reflective writing).This example is about a two-page questionnaire that I designed and placed in the appendices. My understanding is that an appendix

can be information that you used to inform your writing that you don't want to put directly into the essay; however, you **MUST** refer to this appendix in the body of the essay. Therefore, in my Education essay, I included an appendix that was the actual questionnaire that I gave to my students when I was on teaching practice. In my essay, I wrote for the marker to 'see Appendix 1' when I had mentioned the results of the questionnaire I was required to write and use with my class. Student 2 (reflective writing) In my nursing assignment, my appendices were used to supplement the information in my essay. Firstly, we had to demonstrate our knowledge of the human skeletal system. The photocopied diagrams covered a number of pages, so Appendix 1 was a set of photocopied, labelled diagrams of the skeletal system discussed and referred to in the essay. Because the photocopied diagrams were copied from a book, I placed an in-text reference to this source in my writing. Secondly, we had to summarise the results of interviews with five patients at the local hospital about their recovery from bone breakages in car accidents, so Appendix 2 was a transcript of these interviews. Using appendices like this meant that I could show my lecturer that I had completed the set task and collected the data for the issues that were discussed in the essay

. 4. How to format appendices

The format and positioning of appendices in your essay must follow a number of procedures: 1. Appendices may follow the reference list. 2. Each appendix must begin on a new page. 3. The order they are presented in is dictated by the order they are mentioned in the text of the report. 4. The heading should be written as APPENDIX (upper case) or Appendix (sentence case), followed by a letter or a number. Centre the title of each appendix, and change to bold type e.g. APPENDIX A, Appendix 1. Be consistent in your choice of style. 5. Appendices must be listed in the table of contents (if used). 6. The page number(s) of the appendix/appendices will continue on with the numbering from the last page of the text.

WARNING: There is no limit to what can be placed in an appendix, but it must be relevant and referred to at the relevant point in a text (e.g. See Appendix 2). Do not attempt to overuse the appendix for vague or irrelevant information as this additional information will not contribute to your word count or affect essay marks unless it contributes directly to the essay answer.

Charts

A chart, also called a graph, is a graphical representation of data, wherein "the data is represented by symbols, such as bars in a bar chart, lines in a line chart, or slices in a chart". A chart can represent tabular numeric data, functions or some kinds of qualitative structure and provides different info.

The term "chart" as a graphical representation of data has multiple meanings:

A data chart is a type of diagram or graph that organizes and represents a set of numerical or qualitative data.

Maps that are adorned with extra information (map surround) for a specific purpose are often known as charts, such as a nautical chart or aeronautical chart, typically spread over several map sheets.

- Other domain specific constructs are sometimes called charts, such as the chord chart in music notation or a record chart for album popularity.

Charts are often used to ease understanding of large quantities of data and the relationships between parts of the data. Charts can usually be read more quickly than the raw data that they are produced from. They are used in a wide variety of fields, and can be created by hand (often on graph paper) or by computer using a charting application. Certain types of charts are more useful for presenting a given data set than others. For example, data that presents percentages in different groups (such as "satisfied, not satisfied, unsure") are often displayed in a pie chart, but may be more easily understood when presented in a horizontal bar chart. On the other hand, data that represents numbers that change over a period of time (such as "annual revenue from 1990 to 2000") might be best shown as a line chart.

Tables

A table is a means of arranging data in rows and columns. The use of tables is pervasive throughout all communication, research and data analysis. Tables appear in print media, handwritten notes, computer software, architectural ornamentation, traffic signs and many other places. The precise conventions and terminology for describing tables varies depending on the context. Further, tables differ significantly in variety, structure, flexibility, notation, representation and use. In books and technical articles, tables are typically presented apart from the main text in numbered and captioned floating blocks.

Diagrams

A diagram is a symbolic representation of information according to some visualization technique. Diagrams have been used since ancient times, but became more prevalent during the Enlightenment. Sometimes, the technique uses a dimensional visualization which is then projected onto a two-dimensional surface. The word graph is sometimes used as a synonym for diagram.

Photos

A photograph or photo is an image created by light falling on a light-sensitive surface, usually photographic film or an electronic medium such as a CCD or a CMOS chip. Most photographs are created using a camera, which uses a lens to

focus the scene's visible wavelengths of light into a reproduction of what the human eye would see. The process and practice of creating photographs is called photography. The word "photograph" was coined in 1839 by Sir John Herschel and is based on the Greek (*phos*), meaning "light", and (*graphê*), meaning "drawing, writing", together meaning "drawing with light"

Maps

Maps can be an important source of primary information for historic investigation. But what is a map? This is a deceptively simple question, until you're asked to provide an answer -- you may find it far more difficult than you think. Yet we encounter maps on a daily basis. The media uses them to pinpoint the location of the latest international crisis, many textbooks include them as illustrations, and we consult maps to help us navigate from place to place. Maps are so commonplace; we tend to take them for granted. Yet sometimes the familiar is far more complex than it appears. "What is a map?" has more than one answer.

Norman Thrower, an authority on the history of cartography, defines a map as, "A representation, usually on a plane surface, of all or part of the earth or some other body showing a group of features in terms of their relative size and position." This seemingly straightforward statement represents a conventional view of maps. From this perspective, maps can be seen as mirrors of reality. To the student of history, the idea of a map as a mirror image makes maps appear to be ideal tools for understanding the reality of places at different points in time. However, there are a few caveats concerning this view of maps. True, a map is an image of a place at a particular point in time, but that place has been intentionally reduced in size, and its contents have been selectively distilled to focus on one or two particular items. The results of this reduction and distillation are then encoded into a symbolic representation of the place. Finally, this encoded, symbolic image of a place has to be decoded and understood by a map reader who may live in a different time period and culture. Along the way from reality to reader, maps may lose some or all of their reflective capacity or the image may become blurred.

So what is a map? A map is text. John Pickles, a geographer with interests in social power and maps, suggests:

Maps have the character of being textual in that they have words associated with them that they employ a system of symbols within their own syntax, that they function as a form of writing (inscription), and that they are discursively embedded within broader contexts of social action and power.

In this view, maps are a form of symbolization, governed by a set of conventions that aim to communicate a sense of place. To fully understand a map we need to know how to decode its message and place it within its proper spatial, chronological, and cultural contexts. Maps, even modern maps, are historic. They represent a particular place at a particular point in time. This definition of a map

(although, like the mirror image idea, is also problematic) suggests that maps can afford the viewer a great opportunity to gain insights into the nature of places.

Why do relatively few scholars outside of geography use maps and why do maps intimidate people? Michael Peterson, a cartographer and professor of Geography at the University of Nebraska, Omaha, raises a critical issue that may also help to explain why maps are not utilized. He asserts that even highly educated people have trouble using maps and that more than half lack "basic" map competency. Peterson concludes that, "Most people are essentially mapping illiterate." Students often lack the basic skills necessary to read maps, much less the analytical skills needed to grasp the insights that maps can afford. This guide aims to help provide those basic skills.

Glossary

A glossary, also known as a vocabulary, or *clavis*, is an alphabetical list of terms in a particular domain of knowledge with the definitions for those terms. Traditionally, a glossary appears at the end of a book and includes terms within that book that are either newly introduced, uncommon, or specialized. While glossaries are most commonly associated with non-fiction books, in some cases, fiction novels may come with a glossary for unfamiliar terms.

A bilingual glossary is a list of terms in one language defined in a second language or glossed by synonyms (or at least near-synonyms) in another language.

In a general sense, a glossary contains explanations of concepts relevant to a certain field of study or action. In this sense, the term is related to the notion of ontology. Automatic methods have been also provided that transform a glossary into ontology or a computational lexicon.

Core glossary

A core glossary is a simple glossary or defining dictionary that enables definition of other concepts, especially for newcomers to a language or field of study. It contains a small working vocabulary and definitions for important or frequently encountered concepts, usually including idioms or metaphors useful in a culture.

Automatic extraction of glossaries

Computational approaches to the automated extraction of glossaries from corpora or the Web have been developed in the recent years. These methods typically start from domain terminology and extract one or more glosses for each term of interest. Glosses can then be analyzed to extract hypernyms of the defined term and other lexical and semantic relations.

Abbreviations

An abbreviation (from Latin *brevis*, meaning *short*) is a shortened form of a word or phrase. It consists of a group of letters taken from the word or phrase. For example, the word *abbreviation* can itself be represented by the abbreviation *abbr.*, *abbrv.* Or *abbrev.*

In strict analysis, abbreviations should not be confused with contractions, acronyms, or initialisms, with which they share some semantic and phonetic functions, though all four are connoted by the term "abbreviation" in loose parlance. An abbreviation is a shortening by any method; a contraction is a reduction of size by the drawing together of the parts. A contraction of a word is made by omitting certain letters or syllables and bringing together the first and last letters or elements; an abbreviation may be made by omitting certain portions from the interior or by cutting off a part. A contraction is an abbreviation, but an abbreviation is not necessarily a contraction. Acronyms and initialisms are regarded as subsets of abbreviations (e.g. by the Council of Science Editors). They are abbreviations that consist of the initial letters or parts of words.

Examples

app. -----appendix
arch. -----archaeological
art. -----article
cat. -----catalogue
cf. -----compare
ed. -----edited by, editor
edn. -----edition
e.g.----- for example
et al.----- and others
etc.-----and so forth, and so on
ibid.-----in the same place
i.e.----- that is
ISBN-----Inter National Standard Book Number
n.d-----no date of publication
n.p-----no place of publication
o.p-----out of print
op.cit-----in the work cited, such as a publication referred to earlier, but not in the immediately preceding footnote.
p.----- page
pp.----- pages
tr/trans-----translated by, translator
viz-----that is to say, namely
vol-----volume

w.e.f-----with effect from

Index

An index (plural: usually indexes) is a list of words or phrases ('headings') and associated pointers ('locators') to where useful material relating to that heading can be found in a document or on a page. In a traditional back-of-the-book index the headings will include names of people, places and events, and concepts selected by a person as being relevant and of interest to a possible reader of the book. The pointers are typically page numbers, paragraph numbers or section numbers. In a library catalogue the words are authors, titles, subject headings, etc., and the pointers are call numbers. Internet search engines, such as Google, and full text searching help provide access to information but are not as selective as an index, as they provide non-relevant links, and may miss relevant information if it is not phrased in exactly the way they expect.

Perhaps the most advanced investigation of problems related to book indexes is made in the development of topic maps, which started as a way of representing the knowledge structures inherent in traditional back-of-the-book indexes.

SYLLABUS

HIS4BO6 METHODOLOGY OF HISTORICAL WRITING

Module I Writing Of History

Identification of a Historical Problem

Sources and Ancillary Disciplines – Archaeology - Epigraphy- Numismatics - Folklore– Place Names – Literature – Archival Studies

Hypotheses and Drafting synopsis – Bibliography

Module II History as Scientific Discipline

Collection of Data – Written and Oral

Verification and Authenticity of Data – Internal and External Criticism

Facts and their Synthesis – Generalisations

Module III Forms of Writing and Documentation

Research Paper – Thesis – Oral History – Local History – Micro History

Module IV Techniques of Historical Writing

Notes – Footnotes – Endnotes – Text notes

Style of Footnoting and Text noting – Ibid. – Op.cit.- pp.

Style of Bibliography

Appendices – Charts – Tables – Diagrams – Photos – Maps – Glossary –

Abbreviations – Index

NB: Each student should identify and submit the Problem and Preliminary Bibliography for the dissertation at the end of the Semester.

BOOKS FOR STUDY

Module I

1. Arthur Marwick, The new nature of History
2. E. H. Carr, What is History
3. Elton G.R., The Practice of History
4. Sharron Sorenson, How to write Research Paper

Module II

1. Arthur Marwick, The new nature of History
2. G.R.Elton, The Practice of History
3. Sharron Sorenson, How to write Research Paper
4. E. H. Carr, What is History
5. Gottschalk L., Generalisation in the writing of History

Module III

1. Arthur Marwick, The new nature of History
2. Elton G.R., The Practice of History
3. *Sharron Sorenson, How to write Research Paper*

Module IV

1. Elton G.R., The Practice of History
2. Joseph Gibaldy, MLA Handbook for the writers of Research papers
3. Sharron Sorenson, How to write Research Paper

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