KENT SCHOOL
HISTORY DEPARTMENT

RESEARCH GUIDE
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Thanks and Credits

The editors of this manual owe a tremendous debt of gratitude to Mr. Edward Kelly, legendary history teacher at Charlotte Country Day School in Charlotte, North Carolina, for his generosity, wisdom, and expertise. The research manual that he first developed in 1976 and has since revised several times served as the structural and philosophical foundation for this manual. In certain places—especially, but not limited to, in the section regarding citation—text was largely cut and pasted from the manual he developed and edited. His selflessness significantly facilitated the development of this manual.

Definition, Description, and Purpose of a Research Paper

According to Lorraine F. Dangle and Alice M. Haussman in *Preparing the Research Paper*, “a research paper is a presentation of facts which are (1) based upon reading or consulting several specified sources, (2) presented according to a standard method of procedure, (3) limited to a relatively narrow phase of a subject, and (4) original in selection, evaluation, expression, and conclusion.”

Thousands of manuals have been written concerning the nature and purpose of historical research, each with its own particular definitions and descriptions. However, the basic concept behind a research project remains essentially the same: it is a scholarly effort to take a position on an issue or topic of historical importance and to support that position using analysis of significant evidence from a variety of sources. Thus, research is the essence of learning.

Regardless of the size and shape of the intended project or of the researcher’s level of experience, the undertaking of a scholarly project can be daunting. The process of any ultimately successful project is always organic and quite personal. As Professors Booth, Colomb, and Williams explain in *The Craft of Research*, “Even experienced researchers feel anxious when they tackle a new project. So whatever anxiety you may feel, most researchers have felt the same. The difference is that experienced researchers know what lies ahead—hard work, but also the pleasure of the hunt; some frustration, but more satisfaction; periods of confusion, but confidence that, in the end, it will all come together.”

This guide is designed to aid Kent students in this process. The History Department faculty hope that it not only helps you become a more effective researcher and writer, but that it helps to make the entire experience more enjoyable and rewarding.

The Iterative Nature of a Research Project

No two research projects ever follow the same exact pattern. While all projects include the same components—thesis development, research, outlining, drafting, and editing, to name a few—each of these steps is often revisited several times before the final paper is completed. For instance, while completing your outline, you may find a weakness in your evidence, which will then cause you to perform more research. You may also change the wording of your thesis several times as a result of your research.

This is why the process of developing and ultimately writing a research paper is often referred to as **iterative** rather than **linear**. Do not expect to simply move from one step to the next in lockstep.

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fashion. Instead, embrace the cyclical nature of your project from the very beginning; let your research
guide you on your quest to arrive at a thesis and an argument in which you have complete confidence.

From Topic Selection to Research Question

The first task which the writer of a research paper must face is the selection of a topic. The
student may be assigned a topic by her teacher, or she may choose a topic in which she has some interest;
in either case, it is very important that this topic be one that she can thoroughly research and analyze in
the time she has at her disposal. The topic should be related to the subject area under study, and the topic
should not cover too broad an area.

Once the topic has been selected, the next step is to develop a research question. (Depending
upon your level of knowledge of the topic you have chosen, you will likely need to do some background
reading on your subject prior to creating your question.) This is an especially important step, as the
question must be specific enough for such a project and must be one “worth asking.” As Booth, Colomb,
and Williams indicate in The Craft of Research, “If the writer asks no question worth pondering, he can
offer no focused answer worth reading….Serious researchers do not report data for their own sake, but to
support the answer to a question that they (and they hope their readers) think is worth asking.”

In essence, your eventual thesis will be your answer to your research question. So how do we
define a research question “worth asking?” Appropriate and effective research questions are, therefore,
those that enable and encourage the development of insightful thesis statements.

From Research Question to Thesis Development

Because of the iterative nature of a research project, it would be a mistake to hold too dearly to a
preliminary thesis, particularly during the research stage. As Booth, Colomb, and Williams note in The
Craft of Research, “Most of us embrace our first answer so strongly that we read less critically than we
should. We easily spot data and arguments that confirm our claim, but we just as easily overlook or
distort data that qualify or even contradict it…You have to guard against this bias, not only in your own
work but in your sources.” The key is, therefore, to view this process as a constant interchange between
your research and your analysis of those findings – let the evidence, not your preconceived notions or
biases, guide you.

3 Booth, Colomb and Williams, Research, 41.
4 Booth, Colomb and Williams, Research, 84.
One of our former department members, Mrs. Laura Herr, used a handout on the development of an appropriate and well-conceived thesis. Nowhere would you find a more concise or thoughtful description of this process, so we have simply included some excerpts of the handout:

Believe it or not, there is really only one type of History essay: the thesis essay. Whether you are writing an in-class essay, a final exam essay off an outline or producing a 15 page research paper, you will be writing a thesis essay…A thesis essay is simply an essay that seeks to prove a point. Your thesis is the argument that your paper is making. A thesis must, therefore, take a stand that a reasonable person could argue against. If your ‘thesis’ winds up being a statement of fact or even a universally agreed upon opinion, your paper will suffer.

If, for instance, your thesis is a statement of fact, you will usually wind up with a paper that simply relates a narrative, rather than making an argument. Let’s take this ‘thesis’: ‘Abraham Lincoln led this nation through the Civil War.’ This paper will almost certainly relate Lincoln’s experiences as President during the Civil War, but it will not make an argument about Lincoln’s leadership. It will be simply a summary of events that the reader could just as easily find in an encyclopedia.

But what of a thesis that argues a universally held opinion? ‘Abraham Lincoln’s leadership during the Civil War makes him one of America’s greatest presidents.’ This is an opinion, but it is tough to argue against. The paper will be neither creative nor stimulating; it will simply be a recollection of commonly held beliefs. As an academic exercise, this paper will be essentially pointless.

So what might be a thesis for this writer? The best solution is to narrow your argument so that it becomes more closely tied to you and your thinking and research. ‘It was Abraham Lincoln’s deep religious belief in a just God that allowed him to lead America through the Civil War.’ This thesis promises not to be a bland rehashing of commonly known events in Lincoln’s presidency, but will instead attempt to analyze Lincoln’s presidency. The writer here will have to explain why Lincoln was a great leader and will have to prove that she has come up with the best explanation for this fact or opinion.

As the handout used by Mrs. Herr explains, a thesis must be provable AND historically significant in order to be effective.

**Finding and Evaluating Sources**

Another benefit of a thoughtful, well-conceived research question is that it generally enhances the effectiveness of your research. Kent School provides its students with a wealth of resources to use in finding information for your project, all of which are included in the Library’s digital resources (libguides.kent-school.edu).

- **Library Staff.** One of the best resources we have here at Kent is one that is too often overlooked. Our Library staff members have expertise in research techniques and tools and want to help you.
Consulting with a member of the Library staff at the beginning of your research may lead you more quickly (and effectively) in the direction you need to go.

- **General Reference Materials.** With some notable exceptions (including a few in our Library’s collection), tertiary sources like encyclopedias and textbooks are often too broad to serve as evidentiary sources for your paper. However, a quick review of these can provide you with a list of secondary and even primary materials that are more specifically tailored to your topic, and aid you in developing search terms that will be useful in your research journey.

- **Library Catalog.** With all of the tremendous resources at our disposal, it can be easy to overlook the books that can be found in our stacks. Use the Library catalog (with help from the staff, if necessary) to locate books we have in our collection.

- **Online Databases.** Our Library provides access to many of the same academic databases used by the most prestigious universities in the world. Our library staff can show you how to use these to discover articles, e-books and other sources that speak directly to your topic.

- **Interlibrary Loan.** Our Library here at Kent has a reciprocal agreement with many other institutions that may give our students access to materials found at their libraries—an incredible tool, provided you begin your research early enough in your process to allow for the time it takes for the materials to arrive at Kent.

Sifting through the abundance of information sources may be the most intimidating step in the research process; it is also among the most important. As you can see from all of the resources listed above, it is not difficult to find sources that propose to offer well-researched information on your topic; the difficulty lies in identifying reliable sources. It is, therefore, absolutely crucial to properly evaluate all potential sources before selecting those upon which you will base your paper.

The first step in this process is to understand the differences between primary, secondary, and tertiary sources. A **primary source** is an original work by a participant or “witness.” In history, primary sources are letters, diaries, documents, and news accounts from a period. In literature, a primary source is a novel, play, short story, poem, or piece of nonfiction. A **secondary source** in both areas is the analysis, interpretation, or criticism of primary sources. **Tertiary sources** are broad reviews of secondary sources; examples of tertiary sources are encyclopedias, textbooks, and many websites. **While carefully chosen primary and secondary sources form the basis for all scholarly research projects, tertiary sources may not offer more than background information on specific subjects.** (Be particularly cautious about Internet sources; keep in mind that literally ANYONE can post a page on the Internet, so if you cannot clearly ascertain the qualifications of the person or persons responsible for a website, do not use it.)
So, what defines a reliable source? A reliable source is one that has been created by a person (or group of people) who can be authenticated as experts on the topic of your project (or at least some part of it). While authenticating the reliability of a primary source is usually quite easy, evaluating secondary sources can be more difficult. There is no “mathematical formula” for doing so; however, in order to qualify as a reliable source, each one should pass both of these tests:

1. **The source was written or developed by a recognized authority on your topic, OR it was published/produced by a reputable press.** Most scholarly sources identify their authors right up front, so it is usually quite easy to ascertain the author’s (or authors’) qualifications. If an author is not listed, then identify the publisher; most university presses are reliable, as are some commercial presses. Sources that have been peer-reviewed are typically reliable.

2. **The source is current.** What qualifies as current can depend upon your topic, but any secondary analysis should provide the most recent analysis on your topic.

As with any step in this process, consult your teacher or a member of the Library or Academic Resource Center staff for help in determining the reliability of a source. And whenever considering whether to use a potentially risky source, bear this in mind—the strength of your paper’s argument is in large part dependent upon the reliability and strength of your sources.

**Keeping Track of Your Sources**

It goes without saying that keeping a good record of your sources as you research is an absolute must. Regardless of whether you keep this record on your laptop, on paper, or on a series of notecards, you must be sure to document all of the necessary bibliographical information on a source should you ultimately choose to reference it in your paper. Once you have identified a source as one that you will use, your very first action—prior to taking notes from the source—should be to record all of the necessary bibliographic information, lest you forget to do so later.

1. Author(s)
2. Title (of book, of Web page, of video source, etc.)
3. Place of publication [book]
4. Publisher name, location
5. Date of publication
6. Pages used [book or article]
7. Call Number OR Database Name OR web address
8. URL/DOI (digital object identifier) if online
Note Taking

Various philosophies and methods exist regarding the recording of notes from a variety of sources. Some researchers choose to use notecards, as cards can be easily organized during the planning stages of the process. Others choose to use notebooks, while some researchers prefer electronic methods. Regardless of what method you choose to use, be sure that, when you ultimately arrive at the planning and writing stages of the process, you are clearly able to differentiate between the words taken directly from a source (a quote) and notes you have put in your own words (a paraphrase). In order to avoid any confusion (and potential plagiarism issues), you may choose to record all of your notes directly from your sources (i.e. quoting the source directly). As you take notes, be sure to record the page number(s) from which you are retrieving the information, as you will need that when you cite the information in your paper. Quoting, paraphrasing, citing, and plagiarism will all be discussed in later sections.

Outlining

An argument could be made that the most important step in the entire process of creating a successful research paper is the planning stage. As was stated earlier, the development of a research paper is an iterative practice, not a linear one. A good researcher will move back and forth between her research, her thesis, and her planning, allowing the information she discovers to guide her planning and her planning to guide her research. Thus, the outlining of your paper should not begin only after you have “finished” your research; a rough outline of the major sections of your argument should become apparent to you during the investigative stage, which will also help to focus your additional research.

At some point in the course of your research project, your teacher will likely ask you to submit an outline to him or her, prior to the beginning of your rough draft. As you begin to visualize your outline, you will need to devise a system for organizing your research; consult with your teacher if you need help doing this. The size and format of your outline will be specified by your teacher, so be sure to follow the instructions given to you. However, bear in mind that a thoroughly executed outline nearly always results in a strong final paper; the best outlines attempt to account for every single point (including your own arguments as well as the evidence and analysis) you plan to include in your paper. You may wish to note the source of your supporting evidence alongside each point in your outline, to make it easier to add footnotes later.

As you construct your outline, it may be helpful to think of yourself as a lawyer making a case in court. In criminal cases, lawyers begin by making an opening statement (much like the introductory paragraphs of your paper) in which they not only make their primary claim (your thesis) but also give a
relatively brief overview of the major points of their argument. They then make their case by calling their own witnesses (experts) and presenting their own evidence (facts). They also get the chance to cross-examine the witnesses called by the opposing side (reducing the effectiveness of alternative theories can often be a great way to prove your own argument). At the end of the trial, the lawyer has the opportunity to review and summarize his argument (your concluding paragraphs) for the jury. The best lawyers make their primary point very clearly and concisely (thesis), and then make a strong argument by presenting abundant support (evidence) and demonstrating how that evidence confirms their thesis (analysis).

**Composing Drafts**

The drafting step in the process, when done properly, is another example of the iterative nature of research projects. You will be using your outline as a guide, but rarely are outlines perfect pieces of work; drafting often reveals gaps in your outline that may cause you to do a bit more research. You may also discover flaws in your argument. Don’t panic—this happens to even the most experienced researchers. Simply try to address the flaw with additional research, and if necessary, consult with your teacher or a member of the Library or Academic Resource Center (ARC) staff.

Once you have completed your first draft, be sure to have it thoroughly edited—for format, composition, and content—by at least two individuals you trust; your teacher may give you more specific guidelines regarding who qualifies as a legitimate editor. The spelling and grammar checks on your laptops are neat tools, but there are rarely conclusive and often wrong. So, too, you should be careful in your use of online citation tools—they can be helpful, but ultimately you are responsible for the accuracy of your citations within and at the end of you work. Again, the staff of the ARC is a tremendous resource, and we encourage you to use their expertise during this process.

**Plagiarism**

Plagiarism is defined as presenting the ideas or words of another person as one’s own words, and is considered academic theft. Plagiarism ranges from taking another’s words exactly, to paraphrasing another’s words without giving credit to that source. It can also be defined as taking another person’s ideas as one’s own.

To be clear, you must give proper credit whenever you borrow words or ideas from another source. Plagiarism is a major violation of Kent School rules; potential cases of plagiarism are referred to and adjudicated by the Disciplinary Committee, and consequences can involve dismissal from school.
You do not need to provide citation information for facts that are considered “common knowledge.” This can be defined as information an informed member of your class would know, or that can be found in multiple tertiary sources (such as encyclopedias). But whenever you are in doubt, however, always cite a source.

Quoting and Paraphrasing

A paraphrase is the recording of another person’s ideas in one’s own words. Paraphrasing is most often used to include references to facts in your paper. The examples below show the difference between a proper paraphrase and one that is too similar to the original text to qualify as a paraphrase.

Original Text

The execution of Louis XVI convinced the kings of Europe that they, too, were in danger. As early as 1790 a famous Englishman, Edmund Burke, had predicted in his Reflections on the Revolution in France that the Revolution would prove to be a menace to all established governments. At that time few people agreed with him. In England, and in most continental countries, many people sympathized with the French in their effort to win political liberty. Rulers and statesmen felt that the uprising in France was perhaps an advantage to them, since it had weakened the French government and demoralized the French armies.

A Paraphrase:

After the King of France was put to death, the rulers of the major European countries felt that their lives might be in jeopardy. Of course, this new threat may not have come as a surprise to the rulers, because in 1790 an English political philosopher named Edmund Burke had suggested that the French Revolution might undermine the existing regimes in Europe. While Burke might have been right, some of the monarchs saw that France had been weakened by the Revolution and that this weakness might be advantageous to them. Despite this hope and alarm felt by many of the crowned heads, there were other people living in Europe who believed that the Revolution in France was justified.

Not A Paraphrase:

The kings of Europe were convinced by the execution of Louis XVI that they, too, were in danger. In his Reflections on the Revolution in France, Edmund Burke had predicted that the Revolution would prove to be a menace to all governments. Few people agreed with Burke. In England and many continental countries, many people were sympathetic with the French effort to win political liberty. Some rulers believed that the uprising in France was an advantage to them, because it had weakened the French government and demoralized the French armies.

A comparison of this last example with the original text shows too many similarities for this to be considered a true paraphrase.

Direct quotations are used to include the opinions and arguments of experts in your paper, either to defend your own arguments or to demonstrate the existence of conflicting schools of thought on a particular topic. When used effectively, direct quotations from authoritative work can be an incredibly effective form of evidence; however, you must seek to strike a balance between using too few quotations and too many. A good rule of thumb is to average no more than 2-3 quotations per page in your paper, and quotations should never “stand alone”—they should be used to amplify one of your own points. Always be sure to thoroughly analyze a quote you have provided.

Extended quotations – known as “block” quotations of four lines or longer – are treated differently than normal quotations. Block quotations should be single-spaced and indented .5” from the left margin, and quotation marks are not used.

One final reminder: A paraphrase is used to borrow an idea (or a fact) from another source and put it into your own words; a quotation is the exact use of someone else’s exact words. Summarizing means to condense ideas or facts in your own words. ALL THREE methods of using someone else’s ideas or unfamiliar concepts must be cited, without exception.

Composition and Style

“If something is worth doing, it’s worth doing right.” Whoever originally made this statement might well have been speaking of research projects. Keep in mind that a research project is a formal paper, and thus it is incumbent upon the writer to follow certain rules and principles of composition and style in the completion of his paper. Below is a list of guidelines that should help you avoid some of the more common errors.

Page numbers. Page numbers should appear in the upper right corner of each page of text. Your title page should neither be counted nor numbered.

Reference to Persons. In the first reference to a person, give his full name if possible for accurate identification. Later references, if the person is well known, may be by surname only; if little known, use the initials. If a person is generally known by a particular name always use it, thus, John C. Calhoun or John Talor of Caroline.

Capitalization.

- Use capitalization sparingly except for beginning a sentence and for proper names. Capitalize sections North, South, East, West but not directions north, south, east, west. Use lower case for the adjective form of the section.
• The word state should not be capitalized.
• Capitalize General Assembly but not legislature; Congress but not congressional or congressman; Senate but not senator; House of Representatives but not representative; President, Governor, and King when specific as the President of the United States, Governor of Kansas, or King of England but not president, governor, or king generally.
• Capitalize African-American and Native-American.
• Capitalize lake, river, county, and party when used with a single object but lower case in the plural; Lake Burton, Roanoke River, Orange County, Democratic Party but lakes Burton and Rabun, Tar and Neuse rivers, Orange and Durham counties, and Democratic and Republican parties.
• Decide upon the use of capitals or lower case and be consistent in the manuscript.

Use of Numbers.
• If a number can be written in two words, write it out; if not, put it in Arabic numerals. Thus, five, twenty-five, five thousand but 157 and 2,161. In a sentence or series, use the same form. In other words, if you must put one number of a series in Arabic numerals, put all of them in that form. Thus, there were 14 persons, 25 wagons, 125 horses, and 2,117 cattle in the caravan.
• Never begin a sentence with Arabic numerals.
• In running numbers or dates, use the full form, thus: 110-1, 1789-90, 1954-55. In writing numbers, always use the comma to separate the thousands, thus 1,152 not 1152 and 1,131,255 not 1131255; an exception is made of course in dates, pages, and street numbers.
• Sums of money are always written in figures-- $1.25, $11.21, etc.
• Do not use the symbol % but write percent.

Abbreviations. Use abbreviations sparingly, if at all, in the text. Always write out United States, the names of the states, and the names of the days and months. Abbreviations may be used for such well-known organizations as FCC, NATO, NAACP, but they should be written in full when first used.

Avoid at all cost: Contractions, use of first or second person, and informal/slang language.

Title Page. On the following page is an example of a proper title page. While your teacher may allow you to alter the format you use, all of the following information should be included: the paper’s title, your name, the course name, your teacher’s name, “Kent School,” and the date of your submission (written out in full).
The FBI’s Complicity in the Assassination of Malcolm X

Cindy Maholm
United States History
Mr. Thomas Jones
Kent School
February 18, 2017
DOCUMENTING SOURCES

Many different styles of source documentation exist, and you will likely be asked to use many if not all of them at some point during your academic career. The Kent School History Department faculty has chosen to use the Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS) Notes-Bibliography format for citations within the text and bibliographic referencing. This section will review the principles of CMOS formatting and give you a list of examples to follow; however, this is by no means an all-inclusive accounting. Should you encounter something that you believe is not discussed in this manual, be sure to consult with your teacher or a member of the Library or Academic Resource Center staff.

Citation in the Body of Your Paper

Every time you use evidence to support your thesis, you should cite where you found that information unless it is common knowledge (discussed above). This use may take the form of a direct quotation, a paraphrasing of someone else’s ideas, or a summary of ideas or subject-specific facts, and all of these uses require citation. The Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS) Notes-Bibliography format used at Kent calls for footnotes for each citation, with each footnote referring to an entry in the bibliography.

Example of footnotes in the body of your paper:

As a public figure in a time of great change, people wanted access to Abraham Lincoln in a way that was unprecedented for a United States president. “On average, candidate Lincoln received fifty letters per day, but once elected, the number swelled.” 6

See below for the proper format for a full footnote citing the source of this quotation.

The second type of footnote used is the “short style” version, when you have already cited a source using a footnote and later need to refer again to the first source:

Lincoln’s attention to the efforts of the public to reach out was very much appreciated. “For the first time in American history citizens began to feel that the occupant of the White House was

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6 Harold Holzer, Dear Mr. Lincoln: Letters to the President (Reading: Addison-Wesley, 1993), 9.
their representative.” But the record of these letters, and of the many who visited him, also reveals much about who had access even in an age of greater connection, for “there are hardly any letters from black people in the archive of Lincoln’s correspondence.”

See below the way in which one quote, because it is from a source not yet used in the paper, requires a full-length footnote (footnote #7 below), while the second (footnote #8) can use the “short style” because it is a second/subsequent use from that source.

### Footnote Examples

**Full footnote format for a book:**

# Author’s Firstname, Lastname. *Title of Book: Subtitle of Book* (City of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication), Page number.

**Full footnote format for a journal article accessed online:**

# Author’s Firstname, Lastname, “Title of Article: Subtitle of Article,” *Title of Journal* Volume Number, Issue Number (Year of Publication): XX-XX [for pages], Database Name.

**Short footnote format for a book:**

# Author’s Lastname, *Shortened Book Title*, Page number.

**Short footnote format for an article:**

# Author’s Lastname, *Shortened Article Title*, Page number.

If you have questions about formatting footnotes, please seek help from your teacher, a member of the Library staff, or someone in the ARC (Academic Resource Center).

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8 Holzer, *Dear Mr. Lincoln*, 31.
The Bibliography

All research papers include a list of sources from which the author has drawn information. In CMOS format, this list is placed at the end of the paper and is called a Bibliography. Chicago style requires specific formatting of the entries included, and the following style sheet explains formatting requirements for the most commonly used source types.

There are specific rules for all types of sources and citation situations; if you are in doubt about formatting your citations, please reach out to your teacher, a member of the Library staff, or someone in the Academic Resource Center for help.

General Guidelines for Bibliographies:

- Create the bibliography as you gather your sources, to help you keep track of where you found your information. This will also help you with your footnotes as you create outlines and drafts of your paper.
- Citations in the Bibliography are alphabetized by author’s last name, or by title if there is no author, and are aligned to the left margin in the first line, with all subsequent lines indented (a hanging tab).
- Include page range whenever possible – for example, if you used a chapter in your textbook, include those pages in the citation.

Sample Bibliography entry formats for common source types:

**Book with one author:**
Lastname, Firstname. *Title*. City of publication: Publisher, Year of publication.


**Book with two or more authors:**
Lastname, Firstname, and Firstname Lastname. *Title*. City of publication: Publisher, Year of publication.


**Book with an editor:**
Lastname, Firstname, ed. *Title*. City of publication: Publisher, Year of publication.

Electronic book:
Lastname, Firstname. *Title*. City of publication: Publisher, Year of publication. Database Name.


Journal article from a database:
Lastname, Firstname. “Article Title.” *Journal Title* Volume number, Issue number (Publication date): Page range. Database Name or DOI or URL.


Reference source from a database:
Lastname, Firstname. “Article Title.” In *Original Print Information*, Editor information, Page range. Edition. Volume. City of publication: Publisher, Year of publication. Database Name or DOI or URL.


Website:
Lastname, Firstname. “Title of Web Page.” *Publishing Organization or Name of Website*. Publication date and/or access date. URL.


Newspaper article:
Lastname, Firstname. “Article Title.” *Name of Newspaper*, article date. URL.


Film/movie:

Additional citation style examples can be found on the Library [website](http://example.com) and by visiting the [Purdue Online Writing Lab](http://example.com), or by asking for assistance at the Library front desk or in the [Academic Resource Center](http://example.com).
This page gives you a sample Chicago style Bibliography for a paper on Lincoln’s relationship with the American public, as well as the sources used in the early part of this guide.

Bibliography


