MASTERING THE CRITICAL ANALYSIS RESEARCH ESSAY

Assembled by
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APPROACHING THE RESEARCH ESSAY

The research essay – the bane of college students everywhere – represents a new level of critical thinking. Although the term essay can be confusing – particularly when used to describe virtually any type of writing a student may engage in – its origins, when examined through its etymology, provides insights. Although essay migrates into the English language through a French influence on Middle English, its paternity derives from the Latin verb exigere, which means "to examine, test, or (literally) to drive out." Linguists suggest that it can be traced back even farther in time to the Greek word exagion which means to assay or weigh as is used today when determining the weight and purity of gold – to assay in that context means “to weigh, to test or to determine.” Accordingly, one might understand then that an essay differs from a report in that the essay requires critical thought and an evaluation or judgment of ideas.

The purpose of an essay then is to showcase a student’s ability to sort through facts, data, statistics, and other forms of information to reach a reasonable, rational, and logical interpretation that reveals an evaluation or judgment that the student then expresses as a debatable claim or argument. That claim must then be systematically supported and substantiated through the essay with accurate, fair, coherent, and logically-presented evidence to demonstrate the validity of the student’s critical thinking process that led to the claim.

Essays, therefore, require not only careful analysis of the subject matter that will be investigated and later discussed, but also clarity in purpose and direction. This requirement emphasizes a formal structure that focuses on the student responding to interpreted meaning with ideas. The college experience emphasizes critical thinking skills and nowhere can critical thinking can better assessed than in the development and execution of the research essay.

To be sure, though, writing a research essay requires following a critical path – from reading and understanding the source material(s) to developing an analysis and assessment to the process for clearly and coherently presenting evidence of those critical thinking skills.

Moreover, although there can be informal essays that focus on describing observations, feelings, experiences, and details or narrating a process or a sequence of events, the platinum standard for collegiate essay writing is the expository essay and its corollary, the argumentative essay.
Expository Essays

The expository essay requires an individual to investigate an idea, evaluate evidence, expound on the idea, and present an argument concerning that idea in a coherent and concise manner that emphasizes reason, rationality, and logic.

The expository essay’s structure emphasizes:

- A clear, concise, and defined thesis statement -- a debatable claim/argument and a minimum of three supporting areas of evidence -- in the first paragraph of the essay.
- Clear and logical development of ideas and transitions in and between the introduction, body, and summary paragraphs.
- Body paragraphs that systematically delineate support for the thesis claim
- Substantiating evidence under each support that is not only accurate and fair, but also detailed, specific, and clearly stated
- A conclusion reached in the summary paragraph that does not simply restate the thesis claim, but readdresses it in light of the evidence provided.

The five-paragraph paradigm provides a straightforward and easily understood approach to writing the expository essay:

1. an introductory paragraph that features a judgment -- in relation to ideas being examined -- expressed as a claim/argument
2. three body paragraphs that systematically develop supporting/substantiating evidence to validate the claim
3. a summary that reviews the best evidence, synthesizes what is most important about the evidence, and reaches a conclusion in light of the evidence

The Argumentative Essay

Unlike the expository essay that often needs little or no research to develop, the argumentative essay requires investigating a topic thoroughly and collecting, generating, and citing evidence to establish a path for validation of the thesis claim. In as much as argumentative essay depend on finding citable outside information from reputable sources to substantiate and confirm the validity of the student’s ideas, it will take more time and effort – generally at a library – to discover and discern the best evidence and the best approach in presenting it.

Argumentative essay assignments generally call for extensive research of literature or previously published material that permits students to move beyond previous notions or ideas and to view the subject divergently – and to understand
the complexity of varying points of view and to learn how to reasonably, rationally, and logically form an opinion that can be validated.

Much like the expository essay, the argumentative essay (the research essay) emphasizes:

- A clear, concise, and defined thesis statement -- a debatable claim/argument and a minimum of three supporting areas of evidence -- in the first paragraph of the essay.
- Clear and logical development of ideas and transitions in and between the introduction, body, and summary paragraphs.
- Body paragraphs that systematically delineate support for the thesis claim.
- Substantiating evidence under each support that is not only accurate and fair, but also detailed, specific, and clearly stated.
- A conclusion reached in the summary paragraph that does not simply restate the thesis claim, but readdresses it in light of the evidence presented.

It is also important to explain how and why the evidence – in the mind of the student -- supports the thesis. That is known as a warrant.

However, beyond merely stating and advancing the student’s judgment, the argumentative essay also discusses and provides affirming or refuting arguments on any differing points of view regarding the topic. Depending on the length of the assignment, students can devote a sentence of two in each paragraph discussing and eventually dismissing any major conflicting opinions on the subject of the essay through by demonstrating the superiority of the evidence supporting and substantiating their claim.

Accordingly, the argumentative essay requires well-researched, accurate, detailed, and current information to support the thesis statement while considering differing points of view. Some factual, logical, statistical, or anecdotal evidence should support the thesis. However, students must consider multiple points of view when collecting evidence. As noted in the paragraph above, a successful and well-rounded argumentative essay will also discuss opinions not aligning with the thesis. It is unethical to exclude evidence that may not support the thesis.
DEBATABLE CLAIMS

The heart of the research essay is the Thesis Statement – and the heart of the Thesis Statement finds the argument advanced through the Debatable Claim.

Claims nowadays usually fall into one of six categories:

**Claims emphasizing discerning facts or definitions (Logos):** These claims focus on facts, details, established understanding or particular definitions.

**Claims emphasizing swaying emotions (Pathos):** These claims focus on appealing to a reader’s sympathy, empathy, sense of fair play, or identification.

**Claims emphasizing trustworthiness (Ethos):** These claims focus on appealing to a reader’s underlying desire to associate with such traits as reliability, stability, honor, honesty, and reputation.

**Claims emphasizing cause and effect:** These claims focus on appealing to a reader’s understanding that while diversity in life exists, interconnectivity between events, individuals, and ideas make it possible to affirm relationships that cause or result from another event, individual, or idea.

**Claims emphasizing value:** These claims focus on distinguishing and deciding in what degree the merit or worth of an event, individual, thing, or idea ranks in relation to different or conflicting events, individuals, things, or ideas. These claims often force a respondent to specify value or rate or categorize something.

**Claims emphasizing a particular solutions or policies:** These claims argue for or against a certain solution or policy approach to a problem, often citing an existing policy or situation as having greater merit because of its pre-existing status.

**Pursuing validation of a claim in an essay requires a backing up or substantiating the claim with evidence. Indeed, such a systematic approach to writing the essay requires a discernible and easy-to-follow form; consequently, “formal” writing.**

So, formal essays – particularly research essays -- cannot rely on inference or implication, but rather explicit statement and presentation of supporting evidence (and the corollary presentation of refuting evidence against the thesis.)

Accordingly, the essay writer in fashioning a thesis statement actually promises to deliver a conclusion from the introductory paragraph. Delivering on that promise – by leading the reader through each paragraph to the conclusion where the thesis has been validated demonstrates unity, coherence, logical development, and sufficient evidence and details is what an essay does. When a conclusion does not flow from the thesis, topic sentences and supporting evidence, it appears artificial, as if it were simply tacked
onto the end of the paper – much the same way a happy ending might be tacked onto a movie. It may exist, but the audience leaves feeling dissatisfied and cheated because the promise was never faithfully rendered.

The purpose of the research essay, then, lies in reading with maximum attention to filtering out ideas. That’s why when a student reads through a story or an essay or a book very carefully and looks for particular clues and notes information to remember, the process (when followed through a minimum of three filters) can lead to a reasonable, rational, and logical interpretation of the core ideas in that work expressed in the essay’s Reference Sentence.

The Reference Sentence identifies the source materials to which and about which the essay responds, including the full name of the author, the title of the source material (in quotation marks for shorter works and underlined or italicized for longer, book-length works), sometimes an author’s identification that might require a professional or governmental title and/or qualifying credits or experience, and a distillation of the source material’s core ideas.

The interpretation of the core ideas in the source material is always speculative – or put more simply, it is not a fact; it is an opinion (NOTE: Nevertheless, having been arrived at through a process of careful reading and analysis, the interpretation must now then be distilled into a strong declarative sentence. (Weak or wishy-washy observations or routine summaries of the progression of the source materials will prove insufficient to crafting a Thesis Statement.)

THE THESIS STATEMENT ESTABLISHMENTS THE ESSAY’S PURPOSE

A thesis statement is the KEY sentence in the opening paragraph that explicitly identifies the purpose of the essay (by declaring with a strong, active, dynamic verb) a CLAIM, which, in conjunction with a minimum of three supporting areas of evidence (TOPICS OF SUPPORT) that will substantiate the claim establishes the path of validation for the claim while previewing its main ideas.

THE CLAIM ESTABLISHES THE WRITER’S VALUE SYSTEM

The writer establishes the purpose of the essay by stating an evaluative response to the source material’s core idea in the Reference Sentence.

This evaluative response involves a judgment and the courage to express it plainly and clearly as a debatable claim (sometimes referred to as an “argument” or an “assertion”.)

This debatable claim requires then a systematic process that explores argument and its substantiating evidence for the purpose of VALIDATING the claim.
COLLEGIATE ESSAYS DEMONSTRATE THE VALIDITY OF IDEAS

Successful essays make the argument interesting and, therefore, rely on “building a case’ to back-up the claim. Not unlike the way a lawyer presents a claim in court and then uses all types of evidence to substantiate the claim, an academic essay’s ultimate goal is to demonstrate the validity of the claim.

Backing up the claim with evidence – a process referred to as “substantiation” – then requires finding accurate, reliable sources of information, experience, facts, statistics, and qualified opinion that will confirm and support each part of the writer’s thesis statement argument.

How that information is presented – whether from direct quote or by paraphrasing ideas or summarizing the ideas – requires proper attribution.

ATTRIBUTION GIVES CREDIT TO OTHERS

When one “attributes” a quote or cited information to another source – as in the process of substantiation – it means the writer of the essay did not originate that knowledge or phrase and that the writer provides “credit’ to the source from which the information of quote was found. If this is not done or even done in an inattentive or sloppy manner, the issue of “plagiarism” can be raised.

PLAGIARISM CONSTITUTES A CRIME

Many people think of plagiarism as merely copying another's work or borrowing someone else's words, this simple understanding can disguise the seriousness of the offense, particularly in the academic world where ideas and the expression of those ideas get the highest priority. Indeed, the seriousness of “borrowing” intellectual properties such as ideas of expression of ideas moves beyond fraud (misrepresenting the creation or expression someone else’s work) to actual theft.

The etymology of the word “plagiarism” underscores its seriousness. Originating from the Greek word “plagios” meaning treacherous, the word migrated through the Latin word “plagium” which means “to kidnap or steal a person’s property (a slave)” and in a very real sense plagiarizing today means to kidnap or steal another’s person’s “intellectual property” or their ideas or the expression of those ideas.

A review of virtually any collegiate dictionary shows that “plagiarize” has come to mean in its modern conventional usage stealing or passing off another person’s ideas or words as one’s own or to simply leave uncredited and unacknowledged the genesis of ideas or expressions one uses to substantiate a claim in an essay.

Plagiarism also includes presenting as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source (through paraphrasing or summarizing.) In other
words, plagiarism involves both stealing someone else’s work and/or concealing authorship about it afterward – either deliberately or inadvertently.

It doesn’t matter if the act of plagiarism were deliberate or accidental; the net result is the student can be punished severely – from failing the essay assignment to suspension from class or school to the expulsion from class or school. Plagiarism is a serious offense – and yet, it can be avoided very easily with the proper crediting citation.

Simply acknowledging that certain material has been borrowed and providing accurate and viable reference citation that allows location and verification of the original source is usually enough to meet the reasonable standard for avoiding a charge of academic plagiarism.

UNDERSTANDING REFERENCE CITATIONS

Providing a reference citation properly acknowledges the genesis of an idea, quote, information or statistics. It acknowledges that the writer did not originate this information and did, in fact, find it in an external source.

Reference citation information will normally include specific information (much of which allows anyone reading the essay to track down and verify the source) that includes:

- Identifying and qualifying information about the author
- the title of the work
- the name and location of the company that published the copy of the source material being cited
- the date the copy of the source material was published
- the specific page(s) on which the information cited can be found in the copy of the source material

Not only does providing a reference citation provide the acknowledging credit to the original author by citing sources from which information or quote being used in the essay is culled, it also protects the essay writer by:

- **Proving the source of a statement, statistic, or quotation so questions of accuracy and authenticity are attributed to the source and not the essay writer.** (This proves helpful if the reader/evaluator of the student essay disagrees with the veracity or accuracy of the cited reference material.)
- **Providing a way to locate the source materials to obtain further information.** (This proves helpful when a student uncovers a rare or useful source of information that the person reading and grading the essay may find valuable for follow-up research.)
• Providing a means of demonstrating that information or the expression of that information was originated by another and merely cited by the essay writer as confirming evidence. (This proves invaluable when the reference citation’s accuracy or its “expression” or “phrasing” is challenged by a faculty member. Being able to provide a path to the originating source’s responsibility to be accurate, fair, and reliable can often relieve the student of this burden and prevent a grade penalty on the essay.)

• Providing way to demonstrate the balanced and comprehension nature of the research behind the essay. (Along with a proper Bibliography, this shows that the essay writer’s diligence and integrity in taking a more comprehensive approach to researching the subject through the variety of sources used to create the systematic presentation of evidence to substantiate the essay’s claim.)

• Providing a means of demonstrating credibility through the use of fair, reliable, accurate, logical, and reasonable evidence. (The grades students receive on critical analysis essays – particularly formal research critical analysis essays – reflect not only the ideas involved and the mechanics of writing, but also the trustworthiness involved in the development and validation of a logical, reasonable, and rational argument. Citing a wide variety of sources strengthens the believability of the essay’s claim by confirming outside supports.)

PROVIDING REFERENCE CITATIONS

Set up and Identify Key Information before Citing

The first time an external source gets referenced – whether it’s a verbatim quote – Latin for word-for-word) or a paraphrased quote, or summary information such as facts, data, or a statistic – the author of the referenced materials must be identified and qualified by providing the following information:

• Full name, and
• Academic or Recognized Qualifications to contribute to the substantiating process,
• The title of the referenced work – article, short story, play, book, etc. – where the substantiating evidence can be found (for the purposes of verification)

Setting up the cited materials means providing the reader with a means of following and understanding the logic of your substantiating process. It can be a phrase, such as “According to …”

For example, the following sentence provides information about the author and work before the quotation:
Mark Twain who often disguised himself in his work as with his first-person narrator in the novel, *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, wrote, “It’s no wonder that truth is stranger than fictio...”

If the cited author is not well-known or popularly known, but the information helps substantiate the essay’s thesis claim, then cite author’s vocation (occupation) or avocation (hobby) and qualifying title or experience helps the reader understand the relevance and importance of the material being used as confirming evidence:

Dr. Francis Crick, the English molecular biologist, biophysicist, and neuroscientist who co-discovered the structure of the DNA molecule in 1953 and won the 1962 Nobel Prize for Physiology or Medicine with Dr. James D. Watson, believed that the soul was identical to consciousness, stating, “So many people pray that one finds it hard to believe that they do not get some satisfaction from it.”

Use only the title (if one exists – Dr. or Rev. or Gen or Prof.) before referencing the same author or source later:

Dr. Crick also advanced neuroscience by promoting constructive interactions between specialists from the many different subdisciplines concerned with consciousness.

**DIFFERENT WAYS TO CITE REFERENCE MATERIAL**

There are several ways to cite information from referenced sources.

A *verbatim quote* uses the exact words from an original source. The Latin word, *verbatim*, literally means “word-for-word” and it means the actual and accurate reproduction of a person’s statement. Accordingly, cited quotes must be identical to the original, matching the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.

The power of a direct quote is that it uses the reputation or expertise of a qualified person to express support for the thesis claim.

*Paraphrasing* involves putting a passage from source material into the writer’s own words. However, just as a quote needs to be attributed to the original source, paraphrased material must be attributed.

*Summarizing* involves putting the main idea(s) into the writer’s own words, including only the main idea (or ideas) and distilling or condensing them to make a short, powerful point. Summaries run shorter than an original quote, but likewise need attribution to the original source material.
While quoting brings the authenticity and emphasis of the reference source’s words, often paraphrasing or summarizing accomplish the same goal while shortening and distilling the essential confirming information. However, just as every verbatim quote requires explanation and sometimes definition so the purpose in quoting becomes evident, so do paraphrases and summaries.

Anything cited as evidence must be fully and coherently explained – to demonstrate its relevance to the topic and its importance to validating the claim. Readers cannot be expected to “connect the dots.” The writer must “build a case for validation” carefully, as if presenting an argument or defense in a legal setting or court room. This requires one or two sentences to establish reference’s saliency.

**DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN CITATION FORMAT STYLE MANUALS**

As with most procedures in life, rules exist to govern the process through which writers cite reference information. Different disciplines and different professors often require adherence to a particular approach or style sheet.

Each discipline tends to have its own distinct citation style. Some of the more well known and required citation styles include: Chicago Handbook of Style, Turabian (a form of the Chicago style approach), APA, MLA, and CBE. These styles each tend to be used by specific academic disciplines. The style used by the core journal in a particular academic discipline usually defines what style of citation becomes commonplace for classes in that discipline.

Additionally, depending on the discipline and the style sheet, terms such as documentation, citation, and reference often become synonymous. Documentation refers to the process of providing evidence found in external sources. A citation is an attribution to a specific source. Finally, the term “reference” can be a specific attribution – or the general practice of noting important attribution information, such as: author name(s), title of source material, publishing company or publication, city of publication, date of publication, and specific page(s) from which the substantiating evidence can be found and verified.

In many ways, the various style sheets contain or cover the same information – although according to different formats. All make it possible for a reader to understand where information was found and can be verified at some later date.

Although a student may prefer one style over another, becoming familiar with the requirement for each of the major citation styles will make it easier to respond to any writing requirement at the university level.

At Citrus College, the following four citation styles are used: Chicago, APA, CSE, and MLA styles. (IMPORTANT NOTE: For the purposes of this class, however, focus exclusively on learning the Chicago Manual Guide.)
UNDERSTANDING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STYLE GUIDES

The Chicago Manual of Style gets its name because it represents one of the oldest and most used guides, published by the University of Chicago, beginning in 1906.

The Chicago Style Manual, though, represents more information than just a style manual for essays. It also suggests formatting practices, English grammar and usage, and style issues for all kinds of publications, including books for non-academic audiences. (NOTE: The Chicago Style Manual can be also used for some social science and humanities journals, so you might see this used in places where you’d otherwise see MLA or APA style used.)

Kate Turabian authored a more concise style guide in that compiles and reviews all the relevant style rules that students would need to know, entitled, A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations. Although it’s been regularly revised through the years, the book is still referred to as the “Turabian style” even though it is basically the Chicago Style Manual although severely edited and compiled for undergraduate and graduate students.

What’s distinctive about the Chicago Style Manual is that it supports two different reference styles, and supports the mixing of those two styles in the same publication. Moreover, it uses superscripted “footnotes” or “end notes” rather than parenthetical references in the body of the essay. People concerned about the clarity in the research essay try to avoid parenthetical references – preferring to use citation information to direct the reader to either the bottom of the page or at the end of the essay. Increasingly through the years, footnotes have been abandoned for reference citations in favor of end notes. Recently, both foot notes and end notes have begun being used – but for different purposes. The foot notes provide amplification information for concepts discussed on the page in question, and end notes found at the end of the essay provide specific citation information so that referenced evidence can be verified.

Moreover the Chicago Style Manual requires a Bibliography page that lists by sections all of the books, journals, magazines, newspapers etc. that the writer consulted during the research process.

The abbreviations on APA Style Manual stand for American Psychological Association. The first APA Style Manual came out in 1927, and was designed to serve the writing needs of psychologists and anthropologists, but the APA style is now widely used across the social sciences, and there are branches of the humanities that use the style as well.

It uses parenthetical references – in the body of the text – while holding to a form of Bibliography page – entitled “References” rather than a Works Cited page.
The abbreviation on the CSE Style Manual stands for “Council of Scientific Editors” and this citation style is commonly found in the natural sciences. Originally the editors were mostly biologists and the format was focused on life sciences like microbiology, zoology, plant sciences, and so on, but now it’s used across a wide array of physical and biological sciences.

**NOTE: The CSE Manual format actually supports two quite different citation styles. The first is just a variant of the author-date system and the second is the ‘citation-sequence’ system in which citation are labeled with a superscripted footnote reference numbers and the Bibliography page follows a simple sequential order rather than being sectioned by the type of reference material.

Finally, the MLA or Modern Language Association Style Manual represents recent citation format, with its first edition being printed in 1985. The is the most commonly used style for research essays in the humanities, such as English literature papers, literary criticism, media, and cultural studies – as well as assorted arts disciplines.

The MLA Style Manual uses the “author-page number” system rather than the “author-date” system. So, a quote from a work by Mark Twain would be inserted parenthetically into the actual text of the essay after the material being cited with a notation that reads, “Twain 193” when the referenced quote originates in a book by Twain and the page number in that source is page 193. While the MLA purports to be a simple method of providing reference citations, it’s parenthetical approach often interrupts the flow of the essay and the page number citation can be confusing, particularly since it requires full reference information provided on an end-of-essay page entitled, “Works Cited.”

(Note: In as much as it lacks the Bibliography page to provide a complete detailing of all the materials studied during the research process, increasingly professors using the MLA Style Manual citations also require an addendum page entitled, “Works Consulted” so the essay writers can identify all of the materials consulted during the research process.)

*** Just to clarify, the ONLY reference citation style sheet accepted for essays in this class would be the Chicago Style Manual.
UNDERSTANDING PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND TERTIARY SOURCES

While books, ebooks, magazine and journal articles (hard-bound and virtual), encyclopedias, dictionaries, and alike contain the information that can be used as evidence, the actual evidence may be more reliable or relevant depending on whether or not it is from a primary, secondary, or tertiary source.

Note that "primary", "secondary" and tertiary" in this document refer to their standard usage in the classification of academic source material.

Primary sources

A primary source is an original object or document -- the raw material or first-hand information. Primary sources include historical and legal documents, eyewitness accounts, results of experiments, statistical data, pieces of creative writing, and art objects. In the natural and social sciences, primary sources are often empirical studies -- research where an experiment was done or a direct observation was made. The results of empirical studies are typically found in scholarly articles or papers delivered at conferences, so those articles and papers that present the original results are considered primary sources.

Primary source material in the context of literature involves other stories by the same author, essays or articles written by the author, interviews the author submits to, and even webpages and blogs nowadays. While most primary source materials are written (or recorded by audio and/or video means), some primary source materials may also be in other forms, including drawings, paintings, and even computer software programs. Examples of primary sources include:

- Personal papers
- Letters (both personal and business)
- Diaries and journals (both personal and business)
- Photographs & paintings, sketches, original maps, etc.
- Advertisements, posters, and banners
- Memoirs
- Genealogy records, both personal/family and from public records
- News footage (newsreels, videotapes or audiotapes, etc.)
- Newspaper articles written at time of the event
- Speeches which are contemporaneous with the event
- Oral histories
- Minutes of meetings related to the event
- Vital records (birth and death records, census records, court records, tax records, property records, church registers, or other public and private records).
- Material artifacts (physical objects or evidence related to the event, including articles of clothing, furnishings, coins, stamps, buildings, tools, weapons, etc.)
- Creative works, such as novels, essays, poetry, music, art, and audio or video recordings
- More recently, computer software, e-mail archives, web documents, etc.
Secondary sources

A **secondary source** is something written about a primary source. Secondary sources include comments on, interpretations of, or discussions about the original material. Secondary sources can be thought of as second-hand information. If Person A tells Person B something, Person A is the primary source. If Person B tells someone else what Person A told him, Person B is the secondary source. Secondary source materials can be articles in newspapers or popular magazines, book or movie reviews, or articles found in scholarly journals that discuss or evaluate someone else's original research.

Examples of secondary sources include:

- Scholarly and non-scholarly Books or articles written about an author by someone other than the author
- Scholarly and non-scholarly Books or articles written about an event by someone who was not present at the event and has collected information from other sources (including primary source witnesses)
- Articles or reviews concerning other secondary source materials
- Commentaries on author’s works by someone other than the author
- Editorials
- Film reviews
- Re-issued advertisements, posters, and banners
- Newspaper articles written about the author or event after the fact
- Speeches made after publications by someone other than the author

Tertiary sources

In addition to primary and secondary sources, there are also **tertiary sources**. These are sources that compile or digest other sources. Some reference materials and textbooks are considered tertiary sources when their chief purpose is to list, summarize or simply repackage ideas or other information. Tertiary sources include dictionaries and encyclopedias, *Wikipedia* and similar user-contributed online 'encyclopedias' and reference material, as well as various republishing digests or forums (including the *Reader's Digest* and similar) and school text books.

**Note:** Tertiary sources **cannot** be used for a research essay; they are simply unreliable or too broad and general.

The main value of sources on the Internet, such as *Wikipedia* (or general encyclopedias, abstracts, etc.) for academic work is to get a quick overview of the background and review ideas and possible issues related to a certain topic, to know how to focus one's research in primary and secondary sources on one's specific interest with that topic.

**NOTE:** The following provides basic information for a number of different types of citations in the Chicago Style Manual format:
REPRESENTATIVE EXAMPLES OF THE CHICAGO MANUAL OF STYLE

The Chicago Manual of Style presents two basic documentation systems: (A) notes and bibliography and (B) author-date. For all class assignments, the End Notes and Bibliography format will be required.

The notes and bibliography style is preferred by many in the humanities, including those in literature, history, and the arts. This style presents bibliographic information in notes and, often, a bibliography. It accommodates a variety of sources, including esoteric ones less appropriate to the author-date system.

Notes and Bibliography: Sample Citations The following examples illustrate citations using the notes and bibliography system:

- **All Ns** indicate the form for footnotes/end notes.
- **All SNs** indicate the form for subsequent footnote/end note usage for a source already listed as per the protocol of the initial End Note.
- **All Bs** indicate how that entry ought to be made as a bibliography citation – in alphabetic order of the first letter of the author’s last name (under subsection delineating the type of reference work, e.g. BOOKS, JOURNALS, MAGAZINES, NEWSPAPERS, DIGITAL/ONLINE. DATA SERVICES, AND DVD/TAPE.

**NOTE:** Underline OR *italicize* the titles for all major works (book titles, play titles, album titles, etc.) and add quotation marks around the titles for shorter works, such as articles and essay titles.

1. **Book -One author**
   END NOTE
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   Pollan, *Omnivore’s Dilemma*, p. 104
   BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION

2. **Book -Two or more authors**
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   Ward and Burns, *War*, pp 59–60
   BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION
3. Book-Editor, translator, or compiler instead of author
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4. Book-Editor, translator, or compiler in addition to author
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García Márquez, *Cholera*, p. 33.
BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION

5. Chapter or other part of a book
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6. Chapter of an edited volume originally published elsewhere (as in primary sources)
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Cicero, “Canvassing for the Consulship,” p. 35.
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7. Preface, foreword, introduction, or similar part of a book

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Rieger, introduction, p. xxxiii.

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8. Book published electronically If a book is available in more than one format, cite the version you consulted. For books consulted online, list a URL; include an access date only if one is required by your publisher or discipline. If no fixed page numbers are available, you can include a section title or a chapter or other number. If citing an eBook from a commercial database like EBSCO or Gale, use the first example.

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10. Journal article in an online journal Include a DOI (Digital Object Identifier) if the journal lists one. A DOI is a permanent ID that, when appended to http://dx.doi.org/ in the address bar of an Internet browser, will lead to the source.

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11. Article in a popular magazine
Newspaper and magazine articles may be cited in running text (“As Sheryl Stolberg and Robert Pear noted in a *New York Times* article on February 27, 2010, . . .”) instead of in a note, and they are commonly omitted from a bibliography. The following examples show the more formal versions of the citations. If you consulted the article online, include a URL; include an access date only if your publisher or discipline requires one. If no author is identified, begin the citation with the article title.

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BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION

12. Article in a newspaper

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SEQUESTIAL END NOTE
Stolberg and Pear, “Wary Centrists.” p.4

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION
Stolberg, Sheryl Gay, and Robert Pear. “Wary Centrists Posing Challenge in Health Care Vote.” *New York Times*, February 27,

13. Book review


SEQUESTIAL END NOTE
Kamp, “Deconstructing Dinner.”

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION

14. Gale Virtual Reference Library – Print publication reproduced online

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SEQUESTIAL END NOTE
Morgenstein, “Federal Reserve System.” p. 296

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION
15. SIRS – Online reference, journal, magazine or newspaper article
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17. EBSCOhost (Use Chicago/Turabian-Humanities format)
END NOTE
SEQUESTIAL END NOTE
Crowther, “Some Premises of the New Deal.”, p. 22.
BIBLIOGRAPHIC CITATION

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