

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY FACULTY

- BLOCK, Mary (PhD, University of Kentucky 2001) Assistant Professor**
 U.S. Constitutional and Legal History
 U.S. West
 Latin America
- BYRD, Melanie Sue (PhD, Florida State University 1992) Professor**
 Ancient History
 Early Modern Europe
 Revolutionary Europe to 1914
- CROWLEY, John G. (PhD, Florida State University 1996) Associate Professor**
 Local and Regional History
 Religious History (especially Southern U.S.)
 U.S. Social History to 1877
- DUNN, John P. (PhD, Florida State University 1996) Assistant Professor**
 World Military History
 Middle East
 Islamic History
- HAGGARD, Dixie Ray (PhD, University of Kansas, 2005) Assistant Professor**
 Colonial North America
 Revolutionary and Early U.S.
 Native American; Early American Social and Cultural History
- JOHNSON, Charles T. (PhD, Western Michigan University 1997) Associate Professor**
 United States, 1877-1932
 German History, 1700-1945
 American and German Cultural Studies
 Diplomacy and International Studies; Historiography and Philosophy of History
- MEYERS, Christopher C. (PhD, Florida State University 1996) Director of Graduate Studies and Associate Professor**
 U.S. 1920-1945
 U.S. Political and Military History
 Georgia History since 1865
- OGLESBY, Catherine (PhD, Michigan State University 1996) Professor**
 U.S. Women's History; Race and Gender (U.S.)
 U.S. Social and Intellectual History
 New South
- RICKMAN, Barney J. (PhD, University of Connecticut 1990) Director of Undergraduate Studies and Professor**
 U.S. Diplomatic History Since 1922
 U.S. Since 1945
 Asian History
- RIGGS, Paul T. (PhD, University of Pittsburgh 1997) Department Head and Assistant Professor**
 Modern Britain
 Scotland
 Legal, Social, and Economic History
- SCHMIER, Louis (PhD, University of North Carolina 1969) Professor**
 Modern Europe
 Germany
 Jewish Studies
- SHIROYA, Okete, J.E. (PhD, Michigan State University 1968) Associate Professor**
 African-American History
 Africa; Women and Gender in Africa
 Pan-Africanism; African Nationalism
- WILLIAMS, David (PhD, Auburn University 1988) Professor**
 Antebellum South
 U.S. Civil War Era
 Georgia History to 1865

Student's Name _____ Catalogue Year _____ Advisor _____

Undergraduate Program Handbook

Upon admission to the program, each student will be provided with an Undergraduate Program Handbook. This document will define all program requirements. The handbook may at times be modified. Students will be held to the requirements of the program based upon the edition of the handbook given to them at the beginning of their program of study.

Brief Overview of the B.A. DEGREE WITH A MAJOR IN HISTORY

The undergraduate major in History is designed to help students complete their education by building on the Core Curriculum. The program also provides students with the basic knowledge, skills, and values required for professional careers in History and for advanced study in the field. The program is a flexible one that presents students with opportunities to supplement the major by taking one or two minors or even a second major. Internships are available, particularly with such agencies as the Lowndes County Historical Society, to give students "hands on" experience in the applied aspects of History.

History's scope is extremely broad, and people and their institutions form a particular focus of the discipline. The use of language and the ability to communicate skillfully are also concerns of History. Thus, the study of History prepares students for many different occupations and professions in which such qualities are essential.

Selected Educational Outcomes: Students will

1. demonstrate knowledge of major political & social developments in history.
2. demonstrate knowledge of research skills (esp. library) key to historical study.
3. communicate effectively in writing and orally.
4. demonstrate the ability to engage in critical analysis and historical interpretation.

HIST 3000: The Study of History. First upper-division course taken by majors and must be taken at VSU. In a seminar setting, this course provides students with background on the discipline of history and the skills (interpretation, analysis, research, writing, & discussion) essential to historical study & the upper-division courses of the major.

History 3000 **must be taken as, or concurrently with**, the first upper-division history course. Any student **withdrawing** from History 3000 **must also withdraw** from any upper-division history course that student is taking concurrently with History 3000.

Course prerequisites include both freshman English courses (1101 & 1102) and nine hours of history survey. This is **not an open enrollment course** since it is closed to all but history majors. In addition to course prerequisites, student must have declared a major in History and met with their advisor, who will submit the paperwork to the Department Head who will override them into History 3000 when registration begins. This course must be taken at VSU. This course is strictly limited to an enrollment of 10 per section, is not offered during summer semester, and cannot be exempted. Neither History 4800 (Directed Study in History) nor any other course can be used as a substitute for History 3000. History 3000 and History 4950 cannot be taken in the same semester.

If a student receives **any grade other** than an "A," "B," or "C" in History 3000, including a grade of "W" or "WF," that student may take History 3000 **only one more time**. If

that student receives any grade other than an “A,” “B,” or “C” (including a grade of “W” or “WF”) on the second attempt in History 3000, then that student **must switch** to a different major as History majors are only allowed **two attempts** at passing History 3000.

Eight (8) upper division courses numbered above 3000, including at least one each in: a) European or British History; b) United States History; c) Latin American, African, or Asian History

All upper division courses require written work in the form of essays, research papers, and/or similar projects that help determine progress in written communication skills, analytical and interpretive skills, and mastery of course content. Opportunities for oral expression will also be provided.

Active Learning: majors should think about how the eight upper-division courses they take contribute to their skills and knowledge.

HIST 4950: Senior Seminar. The Senior Seminar will measure student progress in the program in the **mastery** of effective oral and written communication, the acquisition of skills in critical analysis and historical interpretation, and the ability to make effective use of library resources and computer and information technology.

All history majors must complete History 4950 during their senior year and this course **must be taken at VSU**. This is not an open enrollment course! This course is strictly limited to an enrollment of 10 per section, is not offered during summer semester, and cannot be exempted. Neither History 4800 (Directed Study in History) nor any other course can be used as a substitute for the Senior Seminar. Students doing off-campus course work such as internships or studies abroad during their senior year should complete History 4950 during their last semester on campus. All students who need 4950 must see the Department of History's Senior Seminar Coordinator, Dr. Melanie Byrd, to register for the course or to be placed on a waiting list. Students must complete the “Application for Degree Form” and provide Dr. Byrd with a photocopy before they can be registered for 4950. History 4950 and History 3000 cannot be taken in the same semester.

Any student who withdraws from History 4950 or who receives a grade other than an “A,” “B,” or “C” in it will be placed at the **bottom** of the waiting list for future History 4950s.

If a student receives **any grade other than** an “A,” “B,” or “C” in History 4950, including a grade of “W” or “WF,” that student may take History 4950 **only one more time**. If that student receives any grade other than an “A,” “B,” or “C” (including a grade of “W” or “WF”) on the second attempt in History 4950, then that student **must switch** to a different major as History majors are only allowed **two attempts** at passing History 4950.

THE SENIOR SEMINAR

This course is designed to be unlike any that you have taken before. Its purpose is to develop your critical thinking, reading, writing and articulation abilities in a sophisticated manner that reflects advanced, senior level mastery of skills. You may find this course more difficult and demanding than ones that you have taken previously.

Just because you are required to take this course to graduate does **not** automatically mean that you will pass it. You are graded on your competency in the course, not on your need to

graduate by a certain date. This is a serious course and not just something that you “walk through” in order to graduate.

The seminar format involves an approach to a topic, and sometimes a topic itself, that is more **abstract** and intellectually challenging than those traditionally covered in the other upper division classes.

A seminar usually involves a **thematic** approach to a subject. In a seminar, you have to make the connections between diverse facts, ideas and interpretations, whereas in other courses, the professor organizes and presents at least some of the information to you.

A seminar may include some lectures, but usually focuses on **student participation and discussion**. You cannot be a passive non-participant in a seminar.

In other upper division classes, you may get fairly specific reading and writing assignments, whereas in a seminar the assignments cover greater breadth and depth of information.

In a seminar, you have to demonstrate independent initiative in developing and pursuing a research topic.

In a seminar, your work is subjected to a **more rigorous level** of scrutiny and detailed criticism from the professor than in other upper division classes. Such critiques are intended to help you recognize and correct flaws in your work. The senior seminar is designed specifically to assess the work of senior history majors, whereas other upper division courses are generally designed to inform any junior and senior level students about different subjects.

The senior seminar is where you prove that you merit receiving a degree in history. A degree in history demonstrates that you have mastered highly intellectual thinking, reading and writing skills, not that you simply have taken some courses on different history topics.

Incomplete Grades. A grade report of "I" (Incomplete) requires the subsequent completion of all requirements in the course involved by midterm of the immediately succeeding semester regardless of enrollment status. Students are responsible for making arrangements with the instructor to complete course requirements.

Application for Degree. Prospective graduating seniors should apply to the Office of the Registrar for final evaluation of credits two full semesters in advance of the expected graduation date. Application forms are available at History Department or the Registrar's Office and must be completed both by the student and academic advisor.

Regents Test. Students are expected to register for and take both components of the Regents Test prior to the accumulation of 45 semester hours of earned credit. Students should not delay initial testing beyond having earned 30 hours of degree credit and may take and fail the test as many times as needed prior to 45 hours without remediation. Students who have not taken the Regents Test prior to the end of the semester in which they will have accumulated 45 semester hours of earned credit are subject to denial of registration. All students who have not passed the test, whether they have taken the test or not, by the time they earn 45 semester hours of degree credit must take the appropriate non-degree credit course in remedial writing, RGTE 0199, and remedial reading, RGTR 0198, in each semester of attendance until they have passed all components of the test. For further details, see the *VSU Undergraduate Catalog*.

Foreign Language Requirement. Students who have not had a two-year sequence of the same foreign language in high school must take a three-hour course in a foreign language without degree credit before they have completed 30 semester hours. History majors must complete a nine-hour sequence in a foreign language. If it is the same language they took in high school or took as the non-degree make up, the sequence will be 1002 or 1111, 2001, and 2002. If it is a different language, the sequence will be 1001, 1002, and 2001. Mindful that the sequence requires three semesters to complete, students should begin the process as early as possible. For further details on the foreign language requirement, see the *VSU Undergraduate Catalog*.

Georgia Legislative Requirements. In accordance with an act of the General Assembly, students are required to demonstrate a reasonable mastery of U.S. History and Constitution, and Georgia History and Constitution. These requirements are met by successful completion of History 2111 or 2112, and Political Science 1101. Transfer credit for these three courses will be accepted only from accredited institutions of higher learning, public or private, within the state of Georgia. Exemption exams in Georgia History or Georgia Constitution are offered to transfer students whose courses do not meet that criteria. The exam is given once each semester, and students should take the exam(s) well before their final semester at VSU. Students should register for the Georgia History and the Georgia Constitution exam at the Office of Testing.

College Preparatory Curriculum. All students admitted with a College Preparatory Curriculum deficiency must complete the required course(s) to correct the deficiency before accumulating 30 semester hours of credit. A course used to correct a deficiency will not apply toward graduation. For further details, see the *VSU Undergraduate Catalog*.

Total Number of Upper-Division Courses Necessary for Graduation. To graduate, students must have a total of 39 semester hours of courses 3000 or above. The History major will provide 30 hours of upper-division courses, and the student must also take 6 hours of upper-division courses in a single discipline outside of History. The student will then need to take at least one more 3-hour upper-division course to achieve the minimum of 39 hours; this course can be another upper-division History course.

Advising Forms & Flags. To avoid misunderstanding, complete an Academic Advising Form at the time of advising. Be sure that both student and advisor sign the form, and be sure the advisor lifts the Banner flag before the student leaves.

Grade Point Average. A grade point average (GPA) of at least 2.00 (institutional AND cumulative) is required for graduation from VSU. Students must maintain the following minimum standards according to the accumulation of semester hours:

- 1-29 semester hours: 1.60 GPA
- 30-59 semester hours: 1.75 GPA
- 60-89 semester hours: 1.90 GPA
- 90-graduation: 2.00 GPA

PROGRAM OF STUDY

The normal B.A. program with a Major in History takes four years or eight semesters to complete. Listed below is a sample program.

Year 1	<u>Fall (14 hours)</u> Engl 1101 Hist. 1011 Math. 1101 Foreign Language VSU 1101	<u>Spring (15 hours)</u> Engl 1102 Hist. 1012 Hist. 2111 Foreign Language Non-Lab. Science *Regents Test
Year 2	<u>Fall (16 hours)</u> Lab Science History 3000 Engl. 2110-40 Foreign Language History 1013	<u>Spring (15 hours)</u> Lab Science Pols. 1101 Hist. 2112 Upper Division History Pers
Year 3	<u>Fall (15 hours)</u> Area "F" Elective Other Area "C" course Upper Division History Upper Division History Elective (3-hour)	<u>Spring (15 hours)</u> Area "F" Elective Upper Division History Upper Division History Upper Division History Elective (3-hour) *File Application to Graduate
Year 4	<u>Fall (15 hours)</u> Upper Division History Upper Division History Upper Division Non-History Upper Division Non-History Elective (3-hour)	<u>Spring (15 hours)</u> History 4950 Upper Division Elective (3-hour) Pers Seven hours of electives

Know Why You Are Studying History.

It is often frustrating to some students to study subjects that they see as having no practical value. And, of course, it is unlikely that a history course alone will land you a job. But it can help. How can it help? What is the value of a history course, and how can it enrich your life? Although many students like history simply because it is interesting, there are a number of solid, "practical" reasons for studying it. It is often said that we need to understand our past to live in the present and build the future. This is true on a number of levels. On the psychological level, identification with the past gives us a badly needed sense of continuity and order in the face of ever more rapid change. Indeed, one of the greatest lessons we learn from history is that

everything changes. We see how change has occurred in the past and are therefore better prepared to deal with it in our own lives. On another level, it is important for us to know how political, economic, and social systems work and what benefits and disadvantages accrue from them. Further, we need to understand how historical experiences have shaped our own lives and views as well as those of others. Only then can we come to understand why we think the way we do and why the views of others differ from our own. Thus, history breaks down the barriers erected by provincialism and ignorance.

Perhaps the strongest reason for the study of history is that it recreates the big picture at a time when it is fashionable and seemingly prudent to be highly specialized and narrowly focused. We live in the Age of Specialization. Even our colleges often appear as trade schools, where we are asked to learn a lot about a little. As a result, it is easy to miss what is happening to the forest because we have become obsessed with a few of the trees. While specialization has undeniable benefits, both societies and individuals also need the generalist perspective and the ability to see how the entire system works. History is the generalist discipline. Everything has a history, and every profession draws on its own history and that of related fields to function and advance itself. Looking at change over time, history shows us how to take all the parts (politics, war, diplomacy, science, economics, architecture, sex, demography, music, philosophy, & much more), and put them together so that we can understand the whole. It is through a study of the interrelationships of the parts over the expanse of time that we can develop a vision of society. By promoting the generalist, or renaissance, perspective, history plays an important part on today's college campus.

Additionally, the study of history has a more personal and surprisingly practical application. It is becoming increasingly apparent to many employers and educators that neglect of the liberal arts and humanities by students has left them unable to think and reason analytically and to read and comprehend effectively. Overspecialized, narrowly focused education has left these students seriously deficient in basic communication and intellectual skills, placing them at serious disadvantage in the job market. Here is one of the many ways this major can help. It is universally recognized that studying history is an excellent means of developing the ability to read and reason.

What is History? How do historians approach the past?

History is the study of change over time, and it covers all aspects of human society. Political, social, economic, scientific, technological, medical, cultural, intellectual, religious and military developments are all part of history. Usually professional historians specialize in a particular aspect of history, a specific time period, a certain approach to history or a specific geographic region.

Non-historians often say that “history repeats itself” or that “things were always this way.” History cannot repeat itself because history is not a living, thinking being. History is an intellectual discipline practiced by historians who try to make sense of the past. Because history is about change, nothing was ever “always” a certain way.

Non-historians often romanticize the past and speak of the “good old days” when they believe that things were generally better than at present. Conversely, some see history exclusively as a story of progress with everything constantly improving. People of all eras have made great achievements and committed terrible blunders; so processes of historical change cannot be categorized as either simple progress or regression. Historical processes involve complex relations between interrelated factors.

Non-historians derive information mainly from television and movies as well as some books or magazines. They generally accept any sources uncritically as long as the source is interesting. Historians know that all sources, even those original to a particular historical time period, have some biases, omissions, contradictions, or various other limitations. That does not mean that such sources are completely invalid and useless; rather it means that historians have to know and study much to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of different sources.

Historians who write history emphasize the value of primary sources---that is those sources actually dating from a particular time period--while understanding the limitations of such sources. Non-historians read books or watch documentaries, while historians do that plus go to archives in search of original records.[Historians who study non-English speaking regions must learn and use foreign languages.]

Historians who write list all the sources that they have used in footnotes and bibliographies in their works. This helps other scholars who are interested to find those sources, and it shows that the writer is careful, thorough, and honestly giving credit for the origin of the writer’s information. Providing footnotes and a bibliography is how historians demonstrate their methodology and support their conclusions.

Non-historians assume that historians have always approached history the same way. Historians know that the philosophy and methodology of history have changed over time and will keep changing. Many different interpretations of all historical topics exist. Historians must work to recognize the difference between facts and interpretations in their field. Historiography refers to the history, philosophy and methodology of history. Historians must be familiar with the historiography of their particular area of study.

Non-historians often make broad generalizations about people, ideas, events, or time periods in history. Historians tend to focus more on the specific, detailed developments that underpin the generalizations, and sometimes question or reject the generalizations themselves.

Non-historians may assume that time periods are fixed and absolute, whereas historians have various ways of organizing history thematically and chronologically. Periodization, to historians, is just a convenient form of broad organization, especially useful for course listings in university catalogs and subject headings in library catalogs.

No historian can be 100% objective, but historians try to recognize their own limitations and biases. Historians try not to place the values, beliefs, behaviors, and attitudes of the present onto the topics they study. Historians try to understand their topics in the context of how and why people of that era thought and behaved, and not how people think and act today.

How to Study and Prepare for Exams

The study of history can be rewarding but also perplexing. History courses require you to read and understand large bodies of detailed information. The history student is expected to perform many tasks: memorize information, study the reasons for change, analyze the accomplishments and failures of various societies, understand new ideas, identify historical periods, pick out broad themes and generalizations in history, and so forth. These tasks often present difficulties. This guide will make your study easier, assist you in developing good reading habits, increase your retention skills, and help you improve your performance on exams.

Organize Your Study Time

Many students fail to do well in college courses because they do not organize their time effectively. In college, students are generally viewed as adults and are treated as such. They are expected to read the material before class, review, and prepare themselves for examinations. Many instructors give only two or three tests during the semester; therefore, assuming personal responsibility for learning the material is vital. It is suggested that the student make up a semester calendar to show scheduled test dates and blocks of time to be set aside for study. Then, each week, check the calendar and your course outlines and notes to see what specific preparation is necessary for that week, and plan your time accordingly. Look at all the reading and try to estimate how much time you will need to devote to the material. Set aside a block of time each day for reading your text and studying your lecture notes.

Despite what one may observe on campus, studying is not done most effectively late at night or with background music. Find a quiet, comfortable place to study alone, one where you can tune out the world and tune into the past. After you have reviewed the material by yourself, you might find it helpful to go over it with one or more classmates. If done in a conscientious manner, this serves to reinforce the material.

Underline or Highlight

Too often students mark almost everything they read and end up with little more than an entire book highlighted in yellow, pink, or green. Highlighting can be extremely helpful or simply a waste of time in preparing for exams; the key is to be selective in what you highlight. Here are some suggestions:

A. Highlight major concepts, ideas, and conclusions. You will be expected to interpret and analyze the material you have read. In many cases the textbook authors themselves have done this to some degree; so you need to pinpoint their comments as you read. Is the author making a point of interpretation or coming to a conclusion? If so, highlight the key part. Remember, learning to generalize is very important, for it is the process of making history make sense. The author does it and you must learn to identify his or her interpretation as well as conflicting interpretations; then to make your own. Here is where your study of history can be of great personal enrichment and satisfaction. The historian, like the scientist, not only gathers facts, but also analyzes, synthesizes, and generalizes from that basic information. This is the process of historical interpretation, which you must seek to master. However, it is important to remember that interpretations are valid only when they are based on accurate, comprehensive information. In this process, it is a grave error to approach history with the view of proving or

disproving pre-conceived notions. To arrive at valid conclusions, the past must be examined with an open mind. Thoughtful questions must be asked without imposing one's prejudices upon the answers.

B. Highlight Basic Facts. You will be expected to know basic facts (names, events, dates, places) so that you can reconstruct the larger picture and back up your analysis and interpretations. One of the major reasons you are in a history class is to gain a sense of perspective. Only by learning what the pieces are, can we hope to know how they are put together to complete the puzzle.

C. Take Good Lecture Notes. Good notes are organized, readable, clear, and above all reviewable. However, remember that learning is done not with the pen but with the mind. It is neither possible nor necessary to write down everything the instructor says. Generally speaking, you need to use the same rules in listening to a lecture that you use in reading the text. Listen to the instructor, understand what he or she is saying, and then jot down only enough to jog your memory during review. Use abbreviations often. Leave spaces where appropriate and then go back and add to your notes as soon after the lecture as possible. You may find it helpful to leave a wide margin on the left side for writing in subject headings and questions, as well as for adding information and cross-references to the text and other readings. The result should be something of an outline of the professor's lecture. In reviewing your notes, DO NOT wait until the night before an exam to look them over. Review them each day and see how they complement and help you interpret your reading.

D. Work on Your Vocabulary. The course lectures and each chapter in the text will probably include words that you do not know. Some of these will be historical terms or special concepts, words that are not often used in ordinary speech. Others are simply new to you but important for understanding your readings and the lectures. If you cannot determine the meaning a word from the context in which it appears or from its structure, then you will need to use a dictionary. Improving your historical and general vocabulary is an important part of reading history as well as furthering your college career. Graduate school entrance exams and many job applications have sections to test vocabulary and reading comprehension.

DEFINITION OF GRADES

- A = Excellent: of highest or finest quality
- B = Good: of high quality
- C = Satisfactory: adequate
- D = Passing: cursory, superficial
- F = Failing: below the acceptable minimum

Assessment Rubric for Written Work

When grading written projects, History professors usually look for the following in assigning the grade categories just listed.

ADVANCED (A)

- * Essays have clear, strong introductions and conclusions that are not redundant.
- *The body of an essay or paper is logically, coherently organized and well developed.

- *Written work demonstrates original analysis and thought.
- *All assertions are supported by the appropriate facts.
- *Written work contains a balance between generalizations and specific examples that support the main point.
- *Written work shows a balance between direct quotations and paraphrased material.
- *All sources are documented with correctly formatted citations.
- *Grammar, punctuation, and spelling are correct.
- *Vocabulary is broad, sophisticated, and not repetitive.
- *Written work contains no slang, colloquialisms, or clichés.

PROFICIENT (B)

- *Essays have clear introductions and conclusions with little repetition.
- *Most parts of an essay or paper are well developed and well organized.
- *Most of the written work shows some originality and analysis.
- *Most assertions are supported by the appropriate facts.
- *Most of the written work contains a balance between generalizations and specific examples that support the main point.
- *Most of the written work shows a balance between direct quotes and paraphrased material.
- *All sources are documented; most are in the correct format.
- *Most grammar, punctuation, and spelling are correct.
- *Vocabulary is broad, and most words are used correctly.
- *Written work contains few examples of slang, colloquialisms, or clichés.

AVERAGE (C)

- *Essays have introductions and conclusions.
- *Written work is consistently organized.
- *Written work shows limited analysis.
- *Written work contains relevant facts.
- *Written work contains some specific examples to support broad generalizations, but much of the work is descriptive and sometimes vague.
- *Written work contains direct quotations and paraphrased material.
- *All sources are documented; some citations are correctly formatted.
- *Problems exist with grammar, spelling, and/or punctuation.
- *Problems exist with incorrect word use and/or repetition of phrases or ideas.
- *Written work contains slang, colloquialisms, and/or clichés.

BASIC (D)

- *Essays lack clear introductions and conclusions.
- *Written work is vague, superficial, and disorganized.
- *Generalizations often lack supporting details.
- *Written work has little analysis.
- *Written work contains few relevant facts.
- *Written work over uses or under uses quotations.
- *Written work shows little or incorrect paraphrasing.
- *Sources are not all documented.
- *Citations are infrequent or poorly formatted.

- *Many problems exist with grammar, spelling, and/or punctuation.
- *Word use is incorrect or confusing.
- *Written work contains many examples of slang, colloquialisms, and clichés.

UNSATISFACTORY (F)

- *Written work is unreasonably late.
- *Written work is often submitted incomplete.
- *Written work shows minimal development and organization.
- *Written work is unrelated to the assignments given.
- *Written work is not correctly documented.
- *Sources are not cited or are consistently cited incorrectly.
- *Written work is partially or wholly plagiarized. Plagiarism includes turning in the same work as another student, copying material directly from a published source, or failing to cite and document the sources consulted for a project.

How to Read Historical Writing

Reading history is very different from reading fiction. The purpose of reading a textbook is to develop a coherent overview of a particular topic. The purpose of reading a historical monograph or an article is to understand and remember key themes, supporting evidence offered, and the author's interpretation. You may read a textbook, article, or monograph for a class discussion, writing a paper, or taking an exam. You must understand *why* you are reading before you begin, so that you can read appropriately.

Reading history requires writing! Simply reading something over and over merely allows you to recognize it; you DO NOT really learn it. The only way to read history for content and understanding is to systematically take notes. You must be willing to make the time to take notes and study thoroughly, or you cannot expect to do well in history courses.

How to read a textbook: First, look at the title of the assigned chapter. This will give you a sense of what general information is covered. Next, look at the sub-headings. These will tell you the main theme of each section within the chapter. Once you have a rough idea of what to expect, make a written outline of the sub-headings, leaving plenty of room to fill in key ideas. Now you can read the chapter, looking for the main idea expressed in each paragraph. Write these main ideas into your outline. Highlight or underline sparingly. You should highlight only 10% of what you read, and highlighted material should consist only of brief key words - ones that help to trigger your memory about what you should put in your outline. Read review questions, if there are any, and write answers to them. Write a summary of the chapter in your own words, based on your outline. Make a note of maps, charts, or pictures, included in the chapter. Be certain to understand what ideas they express and why they are included.

How to read a monograph: First, read the title and table of contents. These will tell you how the book is organized, and what kinds of material to expect in the text. Next, read the preface or introduction. This will state the author's thesis, methodology, and general

purpose in writing the book. Read the conclusion. This will re-state and expand on the information in the preface. If there is no clearly marked preface, introduction, and conclusion, read the first and last chapters. These often serve as introduction and summary. Next, make an outline based on what you have gleaned from the book. Make a note of whether the book's organization is chronological or thematic. NOW you are actually ready to read the book. As you read each chapter, plug the main ideas into your outline. Keep track of what kind of information is presented. Does the author stress people, events, ideas, theories, or some combination thereof? If people or events seem to be important, keep a separate list of them in your notes, particularly if certain names keep recurring throughout the book. When you finish reading, re-state the author's thesis in your own words. Make a note of any maps, charts, and illustrations. Be certain to understand how they relate to the content of the book, and what ideas they express. Look at the footnotes and bibliography. Make a note of what type of sources the author used. Finally, summarize your notes, following your outline. Be certain that you understand how each chapter contributes to the development of the author's thesis and overall purpose.

How to read an article: First, skim the article, looking for the topic sentence and concluding sentence of each paragraph. Make an outline based on the ideas expressed in these sentences. Read the article, looking for the main ideas expressed in each paragraph. Write these ideas into your outline. Re-state the author's thesis in your own words.

How to read a book or an article for class discussion: Follow the directions above, making certain that you write down the page numbers where relevant information is found. This way, you can direct your classmates to follow along with your commentary during the discussion. Be sure to review your notes before class. Create relevant questions and try to answer them yourself.

How to read lecture notes or books for a history test: After reading as directed above, pose sample questions to yourself and then write out the answers. This will help you to prepare for essay exams. Be certain to include appropriate specific details that support broad generalizations. If you must understand a particularly difficult concept or theory, break it into component parts and write a list of the parts before trying to tackle the concept as a whole. If you are required to remember various details like names, dates, or specific vocabulary, make flash cards and quiz yourself until you can remember the information without looking it up. When you study specific details, look for the significance of how they relate to the general themes and contexts in the material. If you are required to take a map test, trace a blank map, then practice filling it in with locations mentioned in class or in your book. Study until you are able understand content from memory without looking at notes.

Always:

Make a note, including the page number, of anything that you do not understand, and ask your professor to explain it.

Write your outlines and summaries. Do not trust your memory and a highlighter alone.

Review the notes over what you read within 24 hours of reading it, or you will forget what you read.

Take a break every half hour or so. Do not try to ingest large amounts of information in a single sitting.

Remember that even professors get confused by difficult concepts and have to re-read material. Re-read difficult passages until you can understand them, or decide to ask for help.

Remember that reading history is often an abstract and intellectual endeavor. Do not expect that you will understand everything. You usually have to work to grasp ideas.

Why do college professors seem so smart? Because we take organized notes when we read to prepare for classes, we look up words that we don't know, we ask our colleagues for help when we need it, and we review material constantly. *Follow these steps and you can be as smart as a college professor!*

GUIDELINES for PAPERS & STYLE SHEET

This style sheet contains an adaptation of rules set forth in Kate L. Turabian, *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* and Joseph Gibaldi and Walter S. Achtert, *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. For further suggestions on research and writing in history, consult Wood Gray, et. al., *The Historian's Handbook: A Key to the Study and Writing of History* as well as Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff, *The Modern Researcher*.

TOPIC SELECTION

When selecting a topic for a research paper, think small. Do not try to write papers on a broad, encompassing topic. Try to pick a topic that is important, but manageable.

A research paper should utilize as many primary sources as possible. Primary sources are the raw material of history: personal papers, letters and correspondence, diaries, newspapers, contemporary periodicals, memoirs, organizational records, interviews, autobiographies, government documents -- almost any source of information that is contemporary with the event about which one is writing. Secondary sources should be used to supplement the primary sources and to provide perspective.

In locating primary and secondary material, make extensive use of bibliographies and indexes in the VSU Library. If you do not know how to use these, ask a reference librarian.

Preparation of Paper

An outline is helpful in preparing a paper. In reading and taking notes, ponder and sift the facts, arguments, and viewpoints that relate to your topic and hypotheses. Outline the chief points and arrange them in the most effective order. Each point should follow logically from the preceding one and lead persuasively to the next one. The outline, like the final paper, should have a beginning, a middle, and an end. In looking at the outline, weaknesses in the argument may be discovered and corrected. If the research notes are sorted to correspond with the outline headings, sections of the paper that need more material can be identified and strengthened.

A good paper is not written but rewritten. On the basis of an outline, write a first draft well in advance of the date when the paper is due. Let it “cool off” before subjecting it to rigorous criticism. Rework it to achieve more unity, clarity, organization, and grace of expression; and eliminate superfluous words and phrases. The final paper should not be divided into “chapters,” although its major parts may be separated by the use of Roman numerals.

The best standards of English composition should be observed not only in matters of syntax, spelling, and punctuation, but also with respect to coherence, logic, and felicity of style. Be concise and precise, stick to the point, and do not ramble. Do not use contractions or abbreviations. There are no excuses for misspelled words. Meticulous proofreading is the final step in the preparation of a paper.

Quotations

A paper should NOT be an anthology of quotations. A good paper should contain only a few direct quotations. Rather than quoting extensively, the writer should be able to master and assimilate the material and to translate it into his or her own words. As one historian has said, "Papers that are simply strings of quotations tied together with a few comments are evidence that the author did not really understand what he was writing about."

If the precise wording of a given piece of information is crucial to one's paper, then one may profitably quote. If the writing style is striking or amusing, quoting the source is permissible. Quotations should be brief, pertinent, and smoothly integrated into the text. They should be used only when paraphrasing fails adequately to restate the original. (A paraphrase is a restatement of an author's statement using other words. Merely to omit a word or two from the original is plagiarism, not paraphrasing.) When quotations are used sparingly, they stand out more effectively.

Quotations should be accurate and enclosed in double quotation marks. If a quotation consists of four or more typed lines, it should be single-spaced and indented four spaces from the left-hand line edge without any quotation marks. Except in indented quotations, a quotation within a quotation is enclosed in single quotation marks.

Omissions that do not distort the sense of the original may be made and are indicated by three spaced periods (...). If the omitted portion is preceded or followed by a quoted period, the latter is added to the three representing the omission (four in all). (Example: The Supreme Court's majority agreed that the plaintiffs. . . are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment....) Editorial comments or explanations within a quotation are enclosed in brackets rather than in parentheses. Insert "sic" meaning "so" in Latin, within brackets after misspelled words and faulty logic contained in the original material that is quoted.

STATEMENT ON PLAGIARISM

Using the words, ideas, or conclusions of another person without giving proper credit is a form of intellectual dishonesty known as PLAGIARISM. That plagiarism, for many centuries, has occurred occasionally in scholarly and literary writings does not mean that it ever has or now is an acceptable practice. Plagiarism always has been and continues to be dishonest. The literal

meaning of the word plagiarism is "the act of stealing and passing off as one's own the ideas or words of another."

In writing history in any format (research paper, book review, essay, article, or book) the writer must give proper credit to the sources of words, ideas, and conclusions that he/she uses. The writer of history of any type provides proper credit to the sources of the words, ideas, or conclusions that originated with others by documenting through the use of footnotes or endnotes.

At the minimum, the penalty imposed by the Department of History upon a student who commits plagiarism is the grade of F for the work in which the plagiarism appears. However, the instructor is at liberty to impose a heavier penalty.

In addition to the actual paper, some History professors may require students to submit a folder containing photocopies of all the material cited in the notes, arranged in the order of its appearance in the paper, as evidence of research.

DOCUMENTATION: Footnotes & Endnotes

Papers must be thoroughly documented by means of footnotes or endnotes. Parenthetical notes (notes within the body of the paper) are not standard in American historical journals and should not be used.

A note is necessary for (a) each important statement of fact that is not common knowledge; (b) each direct quotation; (c) each conclusion derived from another source, author, or from original sources or documents.

DO NOT PLAGIARIZE! The way to avoid plagiarism is to quote correctly and accurately; to paraphrase completely material one does not quote, and to document correctly and accurately by means of footnotes or endnotes.

Footnotes serve two major functions: one, ethical; the other, practical. Scholarly ethics requires acknowledgement of a writer's intellectual debts to avoid any suspicion of plagiarism. Precise references to supporting evidence enable the reader to check the accuracy of the use of material or to explore the subject more intensively. Footnotes are occasionally used for asides to the reader, which would disrupt the flow of thought if included in the text.

If several sources are used to support a series of points in a single paragraph, they may all be cited under a single footnote inserted at the end of it. In such a footnote, the order of the citations should correspond to the order of the ideas being documented in the paragraph, and each citation is separated from the preceding one by a semicolon.

The footnote numeral should be placed slightly above the line. The same number should precede the citation either at the bottom of the page or on a separate page attached to the end of the paper.

The footnote numeral is placed slightly above the line and next to the first word of the first line, which is indented five spaces. Each footnote is single-spaced and separated by a

double space from those that precede or follow it. A single typed line between margins should separate the text from the first footnote; double space between the text and the line.

The Complete Footnote Citation

When a reference is cited for the first time in a footnote, complete bibliographical information should be presented in the following order:

1. The author's, editor's, or compiler's name is presented in the normal order (full first name, middle initial, and surname). When only one name appears on the title page as editor, it is followed by "ed." enclosed in parentheses. If the title page gives both an author's and editor's name, the latter is placed after the title preceded with "ed." or "ed. by." If there are three or more authors, the first one only may be cited, followed by the Latin abbreviation "et al." The name of the author, editor, or compiler is set off from the title by a comma.

2. The exact title of the book, pamphlet, periodical, or newspaper is underlined or placed in italics. (Turabian uses a solid line, but the spaces between words need not be underscored.) If the reference is to an article within a book or periodical, its title, followed by a comma, is enclosed in quotation marks and placed before the title of the volume in which it appears.

3. In the citation of a book, the place and date of publication, separated by a comma, are enclosed by parentheses. When citing a book for the first time, Turabian includes the publisher's name, which is preceded by a colon rather than a comma and separated by a comma from the date. Other information that may be inserted where applicable before the place of publication within the parentheses includes the total number of volumes represented by a title, the series title and series volume number, and the number of the edition. If the title is to a multi-volume set, the number of the volume used is indicated in Roman numerals and is preceded by a comma after the final parenthesis enclosing the facts of publication.

4. Periodicals are identified by underlining or italicizing the title, which is followed by a comma, the volume number in Roman numerals, the date of the journal, enclosed in parentheses, and a comma.

5. The abbreviations "p." and "pp." need not be used with page references. (Turabian uses the abbreviations but omits them when a citation has both a volume and a page number.)

Examples of Complete Citations of Books

¹Theodore C. Blegen, Norwegian Migration to America: The American Transition (Northfield, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1940), 243.

²Marcus L. Hansen, The Atlantic Migration, 1607-1860: A History of the Continuing Settlement of the United States, ed. Arthur M. Schlesinger (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1941), 128.

³John Hope Franklin, From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes (2d ed. rev.; New York, New York: Vintage Press, 1961), 253.

⁴Henry F. Pringle, The Life and Times of William Howard Taft (2 vols.; New York, New York: Vintage Press, 1939), II, 337.

⁵Theodore C. Blegen (trans. and ed.), Old Rynning's True Account of America (Travel and Description Series, Vol. I, Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minneapolis Press, 1926), 49.

Examples of Complete Citations of Articles in Books and Periodicals

¹John C. Weston, Jr., "Edmund Burke's View of History," The Review of Politics, XXIII (April, 1961), 203-209.

²Wesley C. Mitchell, "The Greenbacks and the Cost of the Civil War," The Economic Impact of the American Civil War, ed. Ralph Andreano (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1962), 66-67.

Examples of Complete Citations of Government Documents

¹U.S. Congress, House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, Immigration of Aliens into the United States. 59th Cong., 1st Sess., 1906, H. Rept. 4912, Serial 4908, 32-37. [Even though Turabian does not include the serial number in which the document is bound, it should be cited to facilitate locating it.]

²U.S., Congressional Record, 63d Cong., 2d Sess., LI, Part 17 (May 1, 1914), 413-414. [The month and the day of the session should be cited.]

Examples of Complete Citations of Newspapers

¹Joseph Smith, "Name of Article," The New York Times, December 3, 1931, 27.

²Joseph Smith, "Name of Article," Democrat and Chronicle (Rochester, New York), November 12, 1909, 6. [Insert the name of the state to identify a town that is not well known.]

Examples of Complete Citations of Manuscripts

¹Joseph Story to Henry Clay, August 3, 1842, Papers of Henry Clay (Manuscript Division, Library of Congress).

Shortened Form of Citation

Subsequent references to the same work should be abbreviated clearly in a consistent form. They need include only the author's surname, a shortened form of the title, and page references. If only one work of an author is cited in a term paper and no work by another author with the same surname is cited, the shortened citation need include only the surname and volume and/or page number. The abbreviations "op. cit." and "loc. cit." should not be used in making shortened citations. (Turabian says their use is optional.)

¹Blegen, Norwegian Migration, 15.

²Blegen, Ole Rynning's True Account, 88.

When a footnote reference is immediately followed by one or more references to the same work, the Latin abbreviation “ibid.” is substituted for the latter.

¹John Hope Franklin, From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes (2d ed. Rev.; New York, New York: Vintage Press, 1961), 253.

²Ibid., 151, 193.[Turabian does not underline the abbreviation any longer.]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A formal bibliography must be included listing the materials used in the paper. Do not list sources in your bibliography unless you actually place your hands on the material and use it in a footnote or endnote. In professional circles, to do so is known as "padding the bibliography," or "stealing notes." It usually indicates an attempt on the part of the author to make it appear that he or she has done more research than is actually the case.

If different types of materials have been used, they should be segregated into categories and presented under the appropriate headings in the following order: manuscript sources, government documents, books, articles, and newspapers. Within each category, the items should be listed alphabetically according to author’s surname or by title if there is no author identified.

Note that the bibliographical and footnote citations of a work are not identical.

Examples of Bibliographical Citations

Blegen, Theodore C. Norwegian Migration to America: The American Transition. Northfield, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1940.

_____. (ed. and trans.). Old Rynning’s True Account of America. (Travel and Description Series, Vol. 1.) Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minneapolis Press, 1926.

Franklin, John Hope. From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes. 2d ed. Revised. New York, New York: Vintage Press, 1961.

Pringle, Henry F. The Life and Times of William Howard Taft. 2 vols. New York, New York: Vintage Press, 1939.

“Have American Opportunities Lessened?” The World’s Work, XXIV (August, 1912), 380-381.

Mitchell, Wesley C. “The Greenbacks and the Cost of the Civil War,” The Economic Impact of the American Civil War. Edited by Ralph Andreano. (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1962). Pp. 66-78.

U.S. Congress, House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization. Immigration of Aliens into the United States. Report No. 4912, 59th Cong., 1st Sess., Serial 4908, 1906.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING A BOOK CRITIQUE

A critique or critical review of a book should accomplish three things: (1) briefly summarize the “scope” of the book, (2) critically analyze the thesis and supporting points, and (3) discuss the strengths and/or the weaknesses of the book.

(1) The scope of a book may be summarized in no more than one or two paragraphs. Generally this should be done at the beginning of the critique. Your task here is uncomplicated: tell your reader “what” the book is about. While reading the book, therefore, you should think about topics and subtopics so that you can state these in a concise manner.

(2) The “core” of any critique is a careful "critical" analysis of the author's thesis or theses. What arguments did the author try to prove? Critical analysis does not mean negative writing. Rather it means that you are to use your critical facilities to break down into component parts (analyze) the author's interpretation. Your task at this point includes an explanation of how the author reaches his or her conclusion (interpretation, thesis). This should be done by a detailed discussion of the "component parts" of the thesis. What are the significant points in the author's construction of his or her argument? How does he/she connect these points?

(3) The third area of the critique concerns your conclusions as to the strengths and/or weaknesses of the author's presentation. You may want to comment on the validity of a point while discussing that particular point under section 2. At any rate, somewhere in the critique you should tell the reader such things as whether the author's thesis logically follows from the evidence presented. Has the author misrepresented the evidence? Is there any obvious bias and does that affect the author's reasoning? Be sure to explain your reasons for whatever praise or criticism you have. Do not be afraid to take a stand if you can back up your stand with evidence from other readings or from class.

Sample Book Critique (Written by Dr. Rickman as a sophomore in college.)

“Bismarck's Effect on Germany”

Erich Eyck's Bismarck and the German Empire gives a detailed account of the life of the famous chancellor and his impact on the development of Germany. Eyck begins with Bismarck's family atmosphere and his marriage. Then Eyck explains how Bismarck received his appointment into the Prussian government. The rest of the book details Bismarck's government activities which led to the unification of Germany, and the German Empire's effect on the international atmosphere of Europe. In his book, Eyck gives his own account of how Bismarck affected German policy during and after his service in government.

Eyck's thesis can be broken into two parts. First is that Bismarck held Prussian interests as primary and the interests of the German people as secondary. This part of the thesis explains Bismarck's activities in the formation of the German Empire and the place of Prussia within that empire. Also the placement of Prussia as central in the empire explains the later character of Germany according to Eyck. The second part of the thesis concerns Bismarck's diplomatic moves and style which gave rise to Realpolitik in both domestic and foreign affairs. Bismarck's ability towered over his counterparts in and out of Germany, and Bismarck was able to manipulate others to his objectives.

Eventually Bismarck's style was adopted by others which helped the growing trend of politics away from ideological principles and toward national self-interest. Bismarck's primary interests in Prussia are demonstrated best in the issue of Sleswig-Holstein. His main interest was expanding the influence of Prussia, and he was not overly concerned with the welfare of the Germans living in the two small duchies. At the beginning Bismarck intended to annex Sleswig-Holstein, but first he had to cultivate public sentiment toward his objective slowly. To get more support, Bismarck was able to make an alliance with Austria for the war against Denmark. Once the war was completed, Bismarck did not intend to let the two duchies become independent. Instead he delayed the settlement until he could convince the Prussian King William I to his point of view. Then Bismarck divided the two duchies with Austria controlling Holstein and Prussia controlling Sleswig. This settlement at the Gastein Convention was meant to weaken Austria by involving her in Northern Germany and to provide an area where conflict with Austria would be easy. In the whole Sleswig-Holstein affair, Bismarck never concerned policy with the Germans living there; instead his policy was meant to advance Prussia at the expense of Denmark and later Austria.

Bismarck's realistic style of diplomacy is represented by his efforts leading up to the war with Austria. Bismarck wanted to unify Germany under Prussian leadership, and to accomplish this objective Bismarck realized that he had to remove all Austrian influence from Northern Germany. The chancellor saw war as a legitimate method to achieve his goal, but he also pursued other avenues of diplomacy. In the German Confederation Bismarck blocked every move by Austria to reform the organization. Also Bismarck made an alliance or agreement with Italy and France to ensure their neutrality in a war with Austria. Eyck believes that Bismarck was not bent on war, but that his foreign policy made war unavoidable. Even in the outbreak of war, Bismarck outmaneuvered Austria. By using the touchy Sleswig-Holstein settlement, Bismarck was able to provoke the Austrians into declaring war and appearing as the aggressor. In the peace settlement Bismarck avoids being overzealous and stayed to his objectives: Austria lost no land, but she had to give up influence in Northern Germany, and Prussia was allowed to annex three German states and the city of Frankfurt. In the whole war period Bismarck's policy was aimed at the objective of securing Prussian leadership in Northern Germany; and by outsmarting his adversary and his allies, Bismarck achieved his goal.

Another good example of Bismarck's diplomacy and its effects was the antisocialism bill of 1878. Before Bismarck had made an alliance with the National Liberals which allowed the successful passage of unifying laws and the unsuccessful attack on the German Catholic Church. Then Bismarck lost need of an arrangement with the liberals because of their opposition to long-term military budgets and their connection with the crown prince. So Bismarck made moves to decrease the liberal's political power. He did it by the introduction of an antisocialist bill which offended the liberal's belief in free speech. To get the liberals to divide over the bill, Bismarck distorted two attempts on William I's life to present the attacks as socialist moves. Then Bismarck dissolved the Reichstag and called for new elections. During the election Bismarck campaigned against the liberals by accusing them of favoring the socialists. Eventually the few liberals who did return to the Reichstag had to violate their ideological principles and support the bill. Bismarck succeeded in weakening the liberals in order to keep his position firm, and

he also caused them to become more realistic politicians; they voted according to public opinion and not their ideology.

A strong point of Eyck's book is his correct interpretation of the problems of the Bismarck structure of government. Bismarck designed the German government to be run by a great statesman. He held full power which prevented other government officials from gaining experience. He kept the Reichstag weak and divided. The only position of true power was the office of chancellor, and after Bismarck there was no sufficiently able man to fulfill the position which helped in the decline of the German state. One of the brilliant insights Eyck makes is how Bismarck's maneuvers affected the character of Germany. Bismarck's use of war as a legitimate method and his stress on the military produced a militaristic tone to German affairs. By violating and ignoring the constitution, Bismarck was able to prevent the development of a true parliamentary government in Germany.

Unfortunately Eyck overemphasizes Bismarck's contribution and in the process misinterprets many of Bismarck's activities. Often Bismarck is represented as fearless and reckless in his policy by Eyck. Of course Bismarck was aggressive in his moves, but he also could be diplomatic which is best demonstrated by his efforts to maintain peace after the Franco-Prussian War of 1871. Bismarck towered over his foreign counterparts, and he took advantage of their weaknesses. He was aggressive when it was necessary, and he was diplomatic when it suited his objectives; this inconsistent nature was required of a great statesman like Bismarck. Bismarck set his objectives, and he used the necessary means to achieve his goals. Actually Bismarck was part of a military tradition in Germany. The Prussian state had been built on the military. Also many of the early nineteenth-century German nationalists, such as Fichte and Hegel, had advocated an authoritarian government. So Eyck makes the mistake of blaming the militaristic character of Germany fully on Bismarck. Bismarck helped in the development of this character, but he did not do it all by himself, and by this oversight Eyck fails to fully describe the brilliance of Bismarck, especially in his diplomatic alliances near the end of his career which were defensive and maintained European peace.

Bismarck and the German Empire does reveal major insights into the chancellor and his effects on Germany. Bismarck's primary concern with Prussia did affect the empire because the military tradition of Prussia was transferred to the German Empire, but Eyck goes too far in blaming Bismarck completely for the character of Germany which would later help the rise of Hitler. Eyck is correct in that the Bismarck governmental structure would produce problems because it bred inexperience and required capable statesman. Also Bismarck's realistic style of diplomacy was effective and helped the decrease of ideology in politics. Although Eyck's account maybe overly negative, it is a good source to understand Bismarck, his effect on European diplomacy, and some of the reasons for problems of Germany after his downfall.

Odum Library

The Library is particularly strong in the areas of Southern, Civil War, Local/Regional history and selected areas in European history. Through the "Galileo" online database system, VSU students have access to library collections and resources databases from around the world.

Phi Alpha Theta

The Department of History encourages all its majors who are academically eligible to join Phi Alpha Theta (the national honor society for the History discipline). Students interested in applying for membership should contact Dr. John Crowley (333-5947) for further details.

ON CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR HISTORY MAJORS, see

<http://www.theaha.org/pubs/careers/Index.html>

<http://www.history.wadsworth.com/careers.html>

OUR GRADUATES

VSU History graduates are employed all over South Georgia and the State of Georgia generally. Nineteen attorneys practicing law in Valdosta majored in history at VSU, as did the senior partner in the Valdosta accounting firm of Alday, Tillman, Wright, & Giles. Graduates can be found teaching at both the high school and college level, occupied in business, working for state & federal governments, for archives & libraries, in the ministry, and serving as officers in the armed forces. The history major prepares students for numerous career possibilities, and the careers of past VSU history majors serve as proof.

APPLYING FOR GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL

Because the application process is detailed, majors should begin their preparation **early** in their **junior** year. Students should research the graduate/professional schools that interest them, and they should select a school based on its strength in the applicant's field of interest. Consult with VSU faculty for suggestions on schools with strong programs in different fields.

In addition to taking the GRE or other examinations, majors should be aware that graduate/professional schools **examine closely an applicant's performance** in the major. For example, to gain entrance to the MA program in History at VSU, applicants must possess an undergraduate GPA of at least 3.0 in all college-level history courses with no grade below a "C" for a history course as well as a cumulative GPA of at least 3.0 on a 4.0 scale for all undergraduate courses. Applicants should also give VSU faculty plenty of notice when asking for letters of recommendation (at least a month).