



Business and Economics

Q Manual

A student guide for producing quality work on time

Nell Kimberley and Glenda Crosling



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Monash University

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Preface and acknowledgements

The purpose of the Q (for Quality) Manual is to provide new students with practical and easily accessible information regarding university-level study. As its name suggests, this publication is aimed at increasing your effectiveness as a student. For many of you who have not experienced university level study, the Q Manual will provide you with ideas, suggestions and guidelines to enable you to achieve academic success by producing quality work, and getting it submitted on time. We suggest you read the Q Manual thoroughly and refer to it often throughout your course of study.

This fifth edition of the Q Manual contains major revisions and new material throughout. Chapters 2 and 12 have been reorganised and a new chapter on Business law added.

Our special thanks go to Irene O'Leary for leading and co-ordinating the team of contributors, and for her own contribution to the fifth edition of the Q Manual. Irene is an inspirational educator who has worked exceptionally hard on this and other projects to benefit all students. Without your commitment Irene, this edition could not have been published.

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Finally, we wish you a stimulating, challenging and rewarding learning experience throughout your undergraduate and postgraduate studies with the Faculty of Business and Economics.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Congratulations on your selection to study one of the courses offered by the Faculty of Business and Economics at Monash University. This manual is intended to provide you with information on how to produce quality work and achieve the best possible results in your studies.

The major goal of the university is to assist you to obtain an excellent education so that you may take your place in society as a well-qualified graduate. It is important to note that while the courses provide the teaching support and the necessary framework for your studies, success can be achieved only through your personal commitment and dedication to hard work throughout all the years of your course.

The following information is aimed at familiarising you with the Monash University study environment and increasing your effectiveness as a Monash student, thereby enabling you to reach your potential. For those of you who are experiencing university level study for the first time, this manual will lay an important foundation and prepare you for a new world.

Monash University

Monash University was established in 1961 and named after General Sir John Monash (1865–1931). Sir John was a soldier, scholar and engineer, and the Commanding General of the Australian forces in France in World War 1. In addition, as the first Chairman of the State Electricity Commission, he took on the immense task of overseeing the development of the LaTrobe Valley's brown coal resources. Sir John was a man of wide interests and vast intellectual range. He was this country's first Doctor of Engineering and exemplifies the University's motto – Ancora Imparo (I am still learning).

The university now has a population of more than 62,000 students from over 100 countries, who speak 90 languages. There are eight Monash campuses in Australia, Malaysia and South Africa and a centre in Italy. The primary pursuits of teaching and research are carried out in the university's eleven faculties. The faculties, which each cover a specific body of knowledge, are: Art and Design; Arts; Business and Economics; Education; Engineering; Information Technology; Law; Medicine, Nursing and Health Sciences; Pharmacy; and Science.

Faculty of Business and Economics

The Faculty of Business and Economics engages in high quality research and education across all its disciplines in order to improve the human condition and have a positive impact on a changing world.

The Faculty pursues its mission by:

- recruiting talented staff and students and providing them with a responsive, relevant and challenging intellectual environment that supports academic excellence
- leveraging its scale, scope and international reach to conduct high quality research that extends the boundaries of knowledge
- applying knowledge in a way that helps to address the theoretical and practical challenges that face communities around the world
- delivering degree programs that develop, enhance and reward critical and creative scholarship and global engagement
- embracing a philosophy of continuous improvement driven by rigorous self-assessment and external benchmarking.

Faculty structure

The Faculty of Business and Economics is the largest faculty in the university, with more than 18,000 students enrolled over five Australian campuses at Berwick, Caulfield, Clayton, Gippsland and Peninsula, as well as in Malaysia and South Africa.

In addition to a diverse range of undergraduate bachelor degrees, the faculty offers a comprehensive range of graduate courses including an executive certificate, graduate certificates and diplomas, masters degrees by coursework and research, the Master of Business Administration, the Master of Philosophy and the Doctor of Philosophy.

Courses are delivered on campus, usually through lectures, tutorials and seminars, while off-campus students are catered for by distance education.

The dean and the main faculty office are located on the Caulfield campus. In addition, there are faculty staff located at the other campuses.

Go to <http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/student/contact/> for location and contact details.

Departments and centres

The Business and Economics faculty is subdivided into organisations that are responsible for particular areas of knowledge. There are six departments and two research centres. The departments are: Accounting and Finance, Business Law and Taxation, Econometrics and Business Statistics, Economics, Management, and Marketing. The research centres are: Centre of Policy Studies, and Centre for Health Economics. They cover fields of study including accounting, banking, business law, business statistics, economics, econometrics, finance, international business, management, human resource management, marketing, taxation and tourism. Whatever your major or areas of study, it is essential that you have an understanding of each of the disciplines and how they interact with each other in the overall operations of a business organisation.

Aims for learning at Monash University and in the Faculty of Business and Economics

The university and the faculty recognise the needs of students for their lives following graduation. As a Monash graduate you will be operating in a globalised and rapidly-changing world, and the university and faculty aim to develop in students attributes beyond the ability to understand and operate competently with course and unit content. Objectives for all our degree families can be found in the University Handbook at <http://www.monash.edu.au/pubs/handbooks>.

As you undertake your studies, you will notice an emphasis on these learning objectives and you will be engaged in activities and assessment tasks to help you achieve them. The faculty makes certain that you complete your courses with the appropriate level of learning through its Assurance of Learning processes. Assurance of Learning is defined as the “systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development” (Polomba and Banta, 1999, p.). Consistent with the standards established by the AACSB (The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business), the faculty undertakes a periodic evaluation of student work with a view to improving its teaching and learning practices. Assurance of Learning (AoL) not only makes the faculty accountable for its promises, but is a means of supporting the continuous improvement of its degree programs.

In the following chapters of this Guide, we explain the influences of these attributes on your approach to study.

Units

Each department offers a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate units. In a three-year undergraduate degree, there are twenty-four units, with four units taken in each semester (part-time students would normally undertake two units each semester). The Chief Examiner is

responsible for the administration of the particular unit. You can consult with your unit leader, and in larger units you may also consult with the other lecturers and tutors.

Role of lecturers/tutors

Lecturers and tutors have a key role as facilitators of your learning. They are able and most willing to help you with your studies and can be contacted using your student email account. Their e-mail addresses are located in the unit outline. Alternatively, academic staff can be contacted during their consultation hours which are often posted on their door or outside the main administration office.

Role of on-line sources of information

Monash has adopted a learning management system which provides you with access to on-line unit information. The web contains information that you need to know for the unit, both of an administrative nature as well as useful material for your studies.

Role of course directors/coordinators

If you are encountering academic performance issues, course progression and similar problems, you should initially discuss these with Student Services staff. You may then be referred to course directors or course co-ordinators to help with these issues.

Additional important information

The *Undergraduate and Postgraduate Handbooks* and the *Student Information Index* provide important information regarding various aspects of university life, such as study resources, course and academic information and support services. The *Student Information Index* is available on-line at <http://www.monash.edu.au/students/> and contains academic policies, as well as grievance and appeals procedures. An excellent resource for students is also available on-line via the student link on the Business and Economics faculty webpage at <http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/student/>. The site contains links to important information regarding: courses and units, admissions and enrolments, schools and departments, exams and results, administration, study resources, calendars and timetables, IT and computing, support services, careers and employment, international students, and clubs and associations.

Faculty expectations of student performance

As students of the faculty, there are a number of units that you will study as part of your course. Although these units may have differing methods of assessment, the faculty has the following expectations of your behaviour and performance.

Attendance and participation at lectures and tutorials

Lectures and tutorials are central to your performance in the university. Lectures provide the material you require in order to understand the overall nature and direction of the unit. Important concepts and analysis can be emphasised by the lecturer and put into context for the student. Tutorials are a vital part of your studies. They reinforce lecture material and provide you with an opportunity to discuss material presented in lectures, as well as to ask questions. Tutorials also provide you with the opportunity to develop your oral communication skills. The material presented is not designed to give you one view on a topic but to facilitate your understanding of the issue under discussion. Where there are alternative views on an issue, you should learn to articulate, critically approach and assess these differing positions.

Special consideration and extension of time for submission of an assessment task

Students need to use a Special Consideration Application when applying for Special Consideration for overall assessment, end-of-semester examinations, or additional assessment for a unit (or units) studied during the current semester. Please refer to the following webpage for information on both faculty and university special consideration policy and procedures:

<http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/secretariat/policies/spec-con.html>

An application for extension of time for submission of an assessment task needs to be used by students when seeking an extension of time for submission of an assessment task. Reasons for such consideration include serious short term circumstances beyond the student's control, such as illness, accident, personal trauma, family emergency or compassionate grounds. Applications should be discussed with the examiner/lecturer/tutor responsible for assessing the task.

Please refer to the current student faculty webpage for forms and further information:

<http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/student/policy-procedures/special-consideration-studentprocedures.html>

Workload

You are expected to undertake private study in addition to attending lectures and tutorials. Preparation of work to be discussed in tutorials is essential. You will also be required to complete assignments and projects and submit them on the due dates. The total time commitment for a six credit point unit with three hours class contact per 12 weeks is 144 hours. In order to meet the faculty's expectation, students should plan to spend on average nine hours in self-directed study, in addition to the three hours of class contact, each week.

Students enrolled in coursework in the Faculty of Business and Economics are required to attend a minimum of 80% of the scheduled class sessions for each unit. Please refer to the Student Information Index online for further details:

<http://www.monash.edu.au/pubs/sii/rules-attendance.html>

Self-reliance

Compared to your school experience, at university you are expected to be more independent and self-reliant. In contrast to teachers at school, lecturers and tutors usually teach large numbers of students, sometimes as many as one thousand. They are happy to assist you, but you need to approach the staff member and be clear about what you wish to discuss. It is also your responsibility as a self-reliant student to attend lectures and tutorials, prepare your tutorial work and submit all written work on time.

Time management

The expectation at the university is that you learn to manage your own time. This applies to full-time students who have a great deal of time available outside of classes, as well as for part-time students who have to balance work and study.

The following chapter on study techniques in this manual provides, among other things, some helpful hints on how to best manage your time and get the most out of your career as a student.

Student assessment

Assessment in a unit may be made up of several components: a formal examination, essays, reports, case analyses, oral presentations and tutorial participation. Assessment details for each unit are provided in the unit guide that you will receive in the first week of each semester.

The final mark that a student receives in a unit will be determined by the Board of Examiners on the recommendation of the Chief Examiner, taking into account all aspects of assessment. The rights of students to have assessed work re-marked are determined at the departmental level. A student can only be failed after the exam paper has been marked by two staff members. All results are reviewed by the units' Chief Examiners. You can find further information relating to the university's assessment in undergraduate units and the responsibilities of examiners using the main policy bank link at:

<http://www.policy.monash.edu/policy-bank/academic/education/assessment/assessment-in-coursework-policy.html>

Examinations

For details of examination regulations, please refer to:

<http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/esg/agu/policies/feedback-exam-performance.html>

Use of English dictionaries and calculators

As English is the language of instruction within Monash University, foreign language translation dictionaries are not permitted to be used by students sitting examinations. Calculators are permitted if specified on the examination paper, but some units may have a calculator restriction. Students are advised to familiarise themselves with any calculator restrictions applying in units they are studying. For permitted calculator(s) for examinations and units of study go to the faculty policy link at:

<http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/secretariat/policies/calculator.html>

Results

At the end of each semester, following the completion of examinations, a board of examiners considers student performance as a whole before the results are published. All undergraduate and coursework graduate students who pass are graded into the categories of high distinction, distinction, credit and pass. Honours courses use a different grading system, classified into first class, second class division A, second class division B, third class and pass.

Marks and grades

Following is a list of marks and grades used within the faculty:

0–49	N	Fail
40–49	NS	Fail, supplementary exam awarded by Board of Examiners only to graduate students and under special circumstances
45–49	NP	Near pass is only awarded to undergraduate students. It may be awarded for the last unit to complete a degree.
50–59	P	Pass
60–69	C	Credit
70–79	D	Distinction
80–100	HD	High distinction
	NE	Not examined. Used when a unit is taught over two semesters
	WH	Withheld. Used, for example, when assessment is outstanding due to a special consideration application or incomplete assessment.
	DEF	Deferred examination granted
	SFR	Satisfied faculty requirements

For further information, please go to:

<http://www.policy.monash.edu/policy-bank/academic/education/assessment/grading-scale-policy.html>

Honours grading

Honours units are graded as follows:

Below 50	Fail
50–59	HIII
60–69	HIIIB
70–79	HIIA
80–100	HI

Examples of grades and corresponding achievement levels

	HD High Distinction 80–100%	D Distinction 70–79%	C Credit 60–69%	P Pass 50–59%	N Fail 0–49%
General description	Outstanding or exceptional work in terms of understanding, interpretation and presentation	A very high standard of work which demonstrates originality and insight	Demonstrates a high level of understanding and presentation and a degree of originality and insight	Satisfies the minimum requirements	Fails to satisfy the minimum requirements
Reading	Strong evidence of independent reading beyond core texts and materials	Evidence of reading beyond core texts and materials	Thorough understanding of core texts and materials	Evidence of having read core texts and materials	Very little evidence of having read any of the core texts and materials
Knowledge of topic	Demonstrates insight, awareness and understanding of deeper and more subtle aspects of the topic. Ability to consider topic in the broader context of the discipline	Evidence of an awareness and understanding of deeper and more subtle aspects of the topic	Sound knowledge of principles and concepts	Knowledge of principles and concepts at least adequate to communicate intelligently in the topic and to serve as a basis for further study	Scant knowledge of principles and concepts
Articulation of argument	Demonstrates imagination or flair. Demonstrates originality and independent thought	Evidence of imagination or flair. Evidence of originality and independent thought	Well-reasoned argument based on broad evidence	Sound argument based on evidence	Very little evidence of ability to construct coherent argument
Analytical and evaluative skills	Highly developed analytical and evaluative skills	Clear evidence of analytical and evaluative skills	Evidence of analytical and evaluative skills	Some evidence of analytical and evaluative skills	Very little evidence of analytical and evaluative skills
Problem solving	Ability to solve very challenging problems	Ability to solve non-routine problems	Ability to use and apply fundamental concepts and skills	Adequate problem-solving skills	Very little evidence of problem-solving skills
Expression and presentation appropriate to the discipline	Highly developed skills in expression and presentation	Well developed skills in expression and presentation	Good skills in expression and presentation. Accurate and consistent acknowledgement of sources	Adequate skills in expression and presentation	Inadequate skills in expression and presentation. Inaccurate and inconsistent acknowledgement of sources

Source: Adapted from University of Adelaide and University of South Australia

Approaching study

Study at university is like a full-time job that requires commitment and effort, and cannot just be added on to a range of other interests. It differs in many ways from study in other educational settings. A major difference is the independence and self-reliance expected of students in their study. This idea concerns:

- managing your time and balancing your study with other commitments
- your approach to learning in your units

In this chapter, we discuss the implications of independence and self-reliance for the way you approach your studies. Assistance with time management is also available from learning skills advisers in the library at each campus <http://lib.monash.edu/learning-skills/> and from personal support services <http://www.monash.edu.au/counselling/academic-support/motivation-stress-time-management.html>

The study “mindset”

The units that you study present information, concepts and theories. It is expected that you will understand these fully. In addition, you must think critically and analytically so that you can evaluate and apply the knowledge, concepts and theories to different situations. You also need to think about the information from international and global perspectives, and to communicate your thinking clearly and appropriately orally and in writing.

This means that you must do more in your study than merely learn facts and information, and more in your written work than merely describe the concepts and knowledge. There are times when you do need to provide definitions and an overview of concepts and theories, but this usually only functions as an introduction for your integration of ideas, critical analysis and application, in relation to the issue, topic and task.

Integration of information and critical and analytical thinking are central to the idea of independence in study. It means that you take an objective approach to the knowledge, concepts and theories. Such an approach is necessary so that you can:

- integrate sometimes contrasting or even conflicting ideas from a range of sources, and develop your own ideas
- generate your own position (see Chapters 4 and 5 for details) on an issue or topic
- ‘pull apart’ the knowledge in your units and explain how the parts all work together (analysis)
- evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, advantages and disadvantages of knowledge, concepts and theories for particular situations (critical approach)

This emphasis may differ from how you approached your study in other educational settings. For instance, you may have expected there to be one right answer, or only two sides to an issue or topic. In your university studies, you need to understand that there are multiple views surrounding a topic or issue. The suitability of the view that you develop, often by synthesising several views, depends on the perspective from which you look at the issue.

Such a concept of the relativity of knowledge applies to all the business and economics disciplines. In accounting, for instance, particular accounting situations are interpreted in terms of the Standard Accounting Concepts; and in Econometrics and Business Statistics a set of data is interpreted in relation to a particular purpose, or the needs of a particular user.

Your ability to operate in the way explained above is based on your understanding the nature of academic enquiry and discovery, as we explain in the next section.

Academic enquiry, discovery and independence in study

Academic inquiry and discovery are concerned with the development or advancement of knowledge in a field of study, which occurs through research and investigation. Students engage in academic inquiry and discovery when they integrate and apply knowledge, concepts and theories to different situations. Thus, in university study, there are:

- no absolutes
- knowledge evolves as researchers challenge, confirm or modify earlier understandings

When investigating an issue for an assignment task that is based on evidence from the literature, you need to review and integrate the range of perspectives surrounding the issue or topic. When you have formed your response and structured your written work to express this, you must indicate to your reader how you have arrived at that view. That is, the ideas and views that you read in the literature function as the ‘building blocks’ of your response. In your writing, if you do not explain to your reader the evidence or the building blocks for your view, you are only expressing opinions. These are ideas unsubstantiated by evidence and are not valued in university study.

Figure 1: Multiple views of a topic or issue

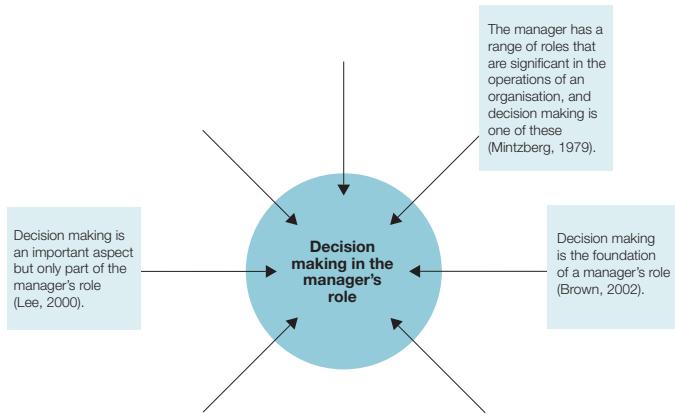


Figure 1 depicts the situation in relation to a topic in a unit that relies on views in the literature. Note how decision-making in the manager's role is seen from different perspectives by different authors.

In a unit such as Econometrics and Business Statistics, you may be required to analyse a set of data from a perspective of, for instance, a marketing manager, or a city council. Thus, the information in the data that would be relevant to a marketing manager may emphasise aspects such as sales, while for the city council, which is concerned with providing services, the emphasis may be on a city's population and its needs. So, in units that rely on data such as Econometrics and Business Statistics, you need to analyse the data, form a perspective on the issue from the data analysis, and then select appropriate data to support the viewpoint you have developed. In a unit such as Economics, it means being able to distinguish between facts and value statements.

Approaching study in the faculty disciplines

As you continue with your faculty study, you will realise that the approaches to knowledge in the disciplines of the faculty differ in some ways. Understanding such variation will help you adjust your thinking and approach across your units of study. This is particularly applicable if you are a double degree student, and studying across two faculties.

For instance, when you are studying a first year law unit in your Business and Economics degree, you will be presented with problem-solving assignments. You approach and think about these, and structure information differently, than you would for essays in a unit such as Management, or, for example, reports in a Marketing unit. You are using different forms of data and evidence, and applying critical analysis in ways that are particular to the unit and its discipline.

The approach that the disciplines take to knowledge is reflected in the way information is put together in the texts and in lectures. These exemplify the characteristics of the particular discipline. To develop some understanding, you should think about your units in terms of:

- the type of data and information used
- the way data and information is integrated, analysed and critiqued
- the way data and information is used as evidence in addressing issues and topics
- the way data and information is presented in written form

This will help you to develop the appropriate ‘mindset’, or ‘way of looking at the world’ that is characteristic of the discipline in which you are studying and writing.

In the next sections of this chapter, we discuss learning through lectures, tutorials, reading, and working with your class mates to help you to study efficiently and effectively.

Lectures and your learning

If you are an on-campus student, lectures are a very important part of your learning. Broadly speaking, the lecture provides you with the general framework and important approaches for your topic for the week. Often, you will also be engaged in the lectures in activities that will deepen and expand your understanding of the topic. This will save you time in the long run, as you will leave the lecture with greater understanding of the topic, providing you with a clearer direction for your further work and study on the topic and the subject.

Even though you may be able to download PowerPoint slides, you should attend your lectures. The slides usually only provide a framework for the topic. It is in the lecture that explanations and activities to increase your understanding and knowledge are provided. Attending lectures also helps you to feel part of the faculty and the university by giving you the opportunity to develop networks with other students. You will probably find that even a brief discussion of an aspect of the topic with a fellow student will help your understanding.

To get the most out of lectures, you should approach them in a systematic way. This means preparing before the lecture and following up on your understanding after it.

Preparing for the lecture

As we have already explained, the units you study have different styles and emphases, as do your unit lecturers. You may feel ‘lost’ when you begin a unit because the ideas, and the language used to express them, are new and unknown. It may also take time to orient yourself to your lecturers’ individual styles of communication. Some of your lecturers may also have accents from other language backgrounds, which will take time for you to get used to. It is important in these situations to be active rather than passive. You can do this by preparing for the lecture, such as by:

- reading about the topic from the materials listed in the unit outline
- downloading any PowerPoint slides released before the lecture as a guide for your preparation
- thinking about the topic in relation to the subject
- talking to your classmates about the topic and the subject

Reading before the lecture

Before the lecture, you should try to get an overview of the points and issues to be discussed from your reading. Not all items on the reading list need to be read in full at this stage. Your purpose is to gain an overview of the ideas, vocabulary and phrases related to the topic. The textbook for the unit may be the most appropriate item for your pre-reading.

You can also make a list, or glossary, of any new vocabulary and language specific to the unit, writing the meanings next to these. If English is not your first language, this practice will help you to become familiar with the specific language and concepts of the topic, and it is invaluable preparation. You may not have heard such language in spoken form before. Schedule a minimum of 2 hours per subject each week for pre-reading; that is, a total of 8 hours per week for a full time load of 4 subjects.

Using Powerpoint slides

Students may think that the lecture slides will provide them with all they need to know about the topic, and therefore not attend lectures. The slides however, are not a substitute for lecture attendance and usually only include the main points. If the slides are available before the lecture, you can use these to advantage in preparing for the lecture. You should aim to:

- preview the slides to get an overview of the topic
- use the slides in your pre-lecture reading to guide you to the relevant information for the topic
- print out the slides (perhaps 2 per page) and fill in the details and your comments during the lectures

Thinking about the topic and the subject

The topics that you cover in your weekly program form a wide and deep view of the unit. Placing the topics into the overall unit structure will help you study with understanding and meaning. This underpins your ability to integrate ideas and to think critically and analytically about your study material, as well as to evaluate and apply it to new situations in assignment and exam questions. Thus, you should try to build a picture of the unit as a whole in your study. You can do this by:

- being aware of the learning objectives for your unit (presented in the Unit Guide) and relating your topics from week to week to these learning outcomes
- thinking about your topics from week to week, and asking yourself how they relate to each other, and to the unit learning objectives overall

In this way, you are not studying isolated pieces of information. You are seeking meaning and understanding. It will also probably mean that your study will be more interesting and enjoyable because it makes more sense to you. If you are motivated like this, you will probably get better grades in your studies (Biggs, 2000).

Talking to your classmates about your weekly topics

Many students find it useful to form study groups with a few classmates and meet informally for an hour or so each week, before or after the lecture. It is a good use of time and there are several advantages. With your study group friends, you can:

- clarify any material or concepts you do not understand
- explain to your friends things they do not understand. Doing so often leads to better understanding on your part
- if the group meets after the lecture, fill in any details in the notes missed in the lecture, and clarify understanding of the topic and information covered

It is most important, however, that all assignment work you submit must be your own. *There are severe penalties for copying and plagiarising the work of others.* This is discussed in Chapter 9. If you understand the difference between studying together and learning from each other in the way we have explained above and individual assignment work, there are many advantages in collaboration.

Taking notes in the lecture

You should take an active rather than passive approach to note taking. This will enable you to work efficiently and effectively, and get maximum benefit from your study time.

There is no one 'correct' way to take notes. You need to develop a style that suits your way of studying. For instance, some students like to take a lot of notes, whereas others record only key words and points and mainly listen to the lecture to assist their understanding. In developing your own style, you can consider other students' styles. In a study group, you can look at each others' notes and learn from each other. However, the following points will assist you as you are developing your style.

You should always arrive at the lecture on time. In the introduction, the lecturer often overviews the learning objectives and the material to be covered, usually linking it to the previous week's lecture. This helps you form a framework or structure in your mind for the details that follow, helping you to better understand and situate the information within the context of the unit.

If English is not your first language and you are not yet familiar with the Australian accent, you should try to sit close to the front in the lecture. This will mean that the lecturer's body language and facial expressions will help you understand the spoken message.

Use a note-pad to take notes. You should not take notes on scraps of paper, which can be misplaced easily. Make sure the layout of your notes is clear. You should include any relevant information regarding the source of your notes. For instance, it is a good idea to write down the unit, the date of the lecture, the lecture's title, and the lecturer's name. If you download PowerPoint slides for the lecture, make sure there is ample room around the slides on the paper to record all your notes.

Recognising and recording the main points

You should not try to write down all the lecturer's words. Aim to record in your own words the main points and key information. The structure will be available for you if you use PowerPoint slides, or prepared lecture notes. If these are not available, you need to recognise this structure and build it into your lecture notes.

Overall, the lecture will be largely structured around main points and sub points, and these form the framework for your notes. If you are using linear notes, you can underline the main points, indent the sub points, and use numbers for the 'sub- sub- points', and so on.

As well as the structure of ideas, information in the lecture serves different purposes. Following are some of the purposes, which the lecturer will usually signal with language phrases (examples of language signals are in brackets):

- introducing main points: should be recorded in abbreviated form ("The first main point concerns...")
- rephrasing of main points: help you to understand, but do not need recording ("So, what I'm saying here is that ...")
- illustrating points: do not need recording. A key word in your notes may remind you of the example ("An example that comes to mind is ...")
- digressing: does not need recording. Places the point into a larger context, perhaps adding interest to the lecture ("An interesting aside at this point is...")
- moving to the next point: lets you know that the following information is key to the topic, and you should record it ("Following from ..., the next main point is ...")
- summing up main points: Not necessary to record ("To sum up what I've been saying, ...")

The lecturer's voice and body language which accompany the language cues will help you to recognise the purpose of the information in the overall lecture structure. For instance, for a main point, this may mean:

- a pause before beginning
- emphasis in the lecturer's voice
- more formal body language

In contrast, the language style for less important examples and digressions may be more informal and colloquial, and the body language more relaxed.

Using abbreviations

A system of abbreviations will mean that you are not constantly writing words in full. Examples of abbreviation techniques include:

- shortening words. For example, the word 'consumer' used often in marketing can be abbreviated to 'consmr', 'dev.' for develop, and so on
- use mathematical signs, such as =, +, ..., arrows, for example, ▲ for 'increase', or ▼ for 'decrease'
- use Δ for change

Learning styles

Implicit in our discussion above is the view that different students feel more comfortable with particular approaches and styles of learning. For instance, some students require quiet environments to study, while others prefer to listen to music as they work. Some students prefer to learn from written materials, and complement this with their lectures, tutorials, and electronic learning materials. Other students prefer to focus on the electronic, and to complement it with other forms of learning. Similarly, some students like to begin their study from a broad or global perspective of the topic, while others prefer to begin with the details, and build up to a global view.

It is useful to try out different ways of learning, so as to broaden your study approach. If you have previously learnt mainly from reading and note taking, complement this with discussion with classmates, and use of

electronic learning resources. If you have previously focused mainly on the details of a topic, try to place these into a global perspective of the topic, and if you initially take a global view, complement this with the topic details.

Regardless of your preference, you must be independent and self-reliant, and try to establish your own learning style. The best way to do this is to consider how an approach helps you to study well, so that you can integrate, critically analyse and apply information and ideas effectively, and achieve the highest possible results in your assessment work.

On the other hand, independence and self-reliance also mean that you recognise if your learning style is ineffective, and why you are not understanding or performing well in your units of study. While at times lecturers or tutors may alert students to their inappropriate styles, in the end, the onus is on students themselves to reflect on and develop appropriate learning styles. On campus learning and personal support staff (see link in Introduction) are also available to assist students requiring help with particular issues or challenges.

Managing visual and spoken information

Many students find it difficult initially to balance the lecturer's spoken language with the written information on overhead slides. We emphasise again that it is not necessary to write down all the lecturer's words, nor all the information on the overheads. Only the key information is usually required.

To cope with both sources of information, you can decide from which of these you gain the most, and use this as your main source. The other can then be used to deepen understanding, and as back up. For instance, if you are most comfortable with the visual information on slides, base your note taking on this, and use the spoken text for more detailed information. On the other hand, if you are more comfortable with the spoken language, use the visual to help you discern the main points and key ideas.

Losing concentration in the lecture

The key point here is not to panic. If you lose the thread of the lecture, simply leave a space, and continue taking notes from that point on. You can check your text, or fill in the details from a friend's notes after the lecture.

After the lecture

Knowledge in your units of study is developmental, meaning that understandings build on those presented earlier. You must keep up to date with your understandings of the topics and the unit overall. If there are concepts or ideas about which you are unclear, you can follow these up in your study group, from the text, or from your tutor's consultation time.

Try to make summaries of your lectures, either after the lecture, or at the end of the week. Not only is this a way to check that you have understood the lecture, it will also be useful in preparation for your exams when you need to review all the material covered in the unit. It will save you time in the long run. You can make lecture summaries by:

- writing a half-page summary
- making dot point lists of the lecture
- drawing a diagram or mind map of the main topic, sub points and so on

Tutorials and your learning

Tutorials are one of the other important ways through which you learn in your studies. Just as it is important to attend the lectures, you also need to attend tutorials. In fact, many units allocate assessment marks for attendance and participation. The tutorial usually is a group session, where the leader for the session is the tutor. Students are usually expected to participate in the tutorials by entering into the discussion and activities.

The key to participation is being prepared for the topic. Depending on the nature of the unit, preparing may mean:

- reading, making sure you understand the concepts, ideas and theories
- completing exercises
- being prepared to discuss issues and answer questions
- being prepared to make comments and ask questions

Initially, many students find it difficult to participate in tutorials. For instance, students with English as a second language may feel that their accent and expression styles are different from native English speakers, and so may be hesitant in speaking up. However, just remember that you are not alone and that many students, including local students with English as their first language, also find it difficult to participate. You do need to learn how to participate by developing questioning, answering and commenting skills that are suitable for tutorial discussion. This will help you develop oral communication skills that are most important for the workplace when you graduate.

Importantly, you need to learn to express your point clearly. This has a stronger impact on being understood than faultless English grammar and syntax. When you have developed confidence in speaking up, you can then focus on improving your grammar.

If you feel shy about participating, the best way to prepare yourself is to think of likely questions, and form answers to these before the tutorial. You can never predict the exact questions, but this practice helps you to develop a flexible approach to your study information. In study groups with your class mates, you can practise asking questions and providing answers.

You then need to watch out for opportunities in the tutorial to participate. It may mean letting your tutor see that you want to respond or comment, by, for instance, looking alert, sitting forward, or raising your hand. It is also important to approach tutorials as spaces where students and teachers are aware, respectful and considerate of others, and every member's contribution to the learning environment is valued.

Reading

Reading is an important way to learn at university. The purpose of your reading may be to overview information before a lecture, to prepare for a tutorial, to read widely on a topic, or to research a specific assignment topic. Regardless of this, an *active* rather than a passive approach is required. Active reading involves:

- reading to *comprehend* (what is the writer *saying*?)
- *critical*/reading to integrate ideas, analyse and evaluate (what is the writer *doing*?)

Both comprehension and critical reading are necessary. For instance, you cannot integrate ideas and critically analyse a view expressed by a writer in a piece of writing if you do not understand or comprehend the view being put forward. Your purpose for reading may be achieved through various reading techniques:

- read the title, headings and sub-headings throughout the piece
- read the Introduction and Conclusion to the piece
- read the headings and sub-headings throughout the piece
- think about/form a preliminary view of what the article is about
- use this information to form a framework for your more detailed reading

Figure 2: Reading techniques

Technique	Purpose	Method
Skimming	To gain a general overview of an unfamiliar text. To build a mental framework, or structure, for understanding an unfamiliar text	Read quickly; do NOT read every word. Features of the text to read: <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Title, headings, subheadings■ Abstract■ Introductory paragraph■ Concluding paragraph■ First sentence of each paragraph (long texts)
Scanning	To find a specific unknown detail e.g. a date or statistic or name	Read quickly; do NOT read every word. Scroll quickly through the text to find the detail you need (as for a phone book).
Close reading	To gain thorough comprehension of what the writer is saying	Read carefully several times. Your first reading should focus on main ideas. Your second and subsequent reading/s should focus on relationships, secondary ideas and supporting evidence.
Critical reading	To evaluate what the writer is doing	This is done at the same time as the second or subsequent close reading/s. Relate this information to information you already know or from other sources. Make judgements about the quality of ideas, arguments, evidence in this source. Focus on how the writer uses particular points; for example to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Agree with, defend or confirm something;■ Propose something new;■ Reformulate an existing idea to make a better explanation;■ Dismiss someone else's idea because it is inadequate, irrelevant, incoherent, or has other flaws; or■ Concede that someone else's point has some merits but it needs to be changed in important ways?

Note taking

If you are making notes from a written document, for example a book or journal article, you should record the full publication details and the page number for later use.

In your note taking, extract and record the main ideas and key points. You should try to express these *in your own words*, rather than simply highlighting or underlining them. This means that you understand the material, and helps you to concentrate as you read.

Separate your notes from your comments. When you look back at your notes, you may not be able to distinguish your comments from your notes, so keep them separate.

Write a summary of your notes, or draw a diagram of the structure of the lecture. This will help you understand the points and their inter-relationship as presented in the lecture.

Time management

One of the most important skills for university study is time management. The following quote is an example of recent research regarding time management skills in new university students:

Flinders University (2007) notes that many new students fail to understand the depth of preparation that is required for participation at the university level, and are easily distracted from their studies. This is a belief echoed by Cushman (2004, p.2) who contends "*Learning to manage time in a less regulated learning environment provides a major challenge for many young people.*" For a significant proportion of these beginning university students, the issue is underpinned by an inability to manage their time. (Huntly & Donovan, 2009, p.2)

Time management is essential at university because study involves a complex and diverse mix of tasks. University study includes processes which are carried out over time (such as the assignment process); and *multitasking* which requires allotting and prioritising time for a range of tasks (for example, multiple simultaneous assignments

plus exam preparation). Time available for academic study depends on management of whole of life activities. Time management involves both allocating time for tasks and also using the allocated time effectively.

You need to allocate 12 hours minimum per week per unit, including contact time in lectures and tutorials. A full time load of four units means 48 hours minimum per week of study.

You need to allocate the time for study according to your personal circumstances. It is useful to work through the following steps. On a weekly timetable:

1. record fixed commitments (3 hours per unit for lectures and tutorials = 12 hours + paid job, family, sport or other commitments)
2. allocate study time for associated items (2 hours pre-reading + 2 hours revision per unit + 2 hours tutorial prep per unit = 24 hours)
3. add time for assignment preparation (3 hours per unit = 12 hours)

Once you have allocated all your times, make one copy of the timetable for each week. Use the spaces on the timetable to record specific tasks for each block of non-contact time. This planning helps to keep you on track over the semester.

Figure 3: Sample week 5 timetable

Week 5	Monday	Tuesday	Wed	Thurs	Friday	Sat	Sun
8-9	Lecture A	Tutorial prep B	Assign C edit/ proofread	Tutorial prep D	Assign D read/take notes/outline		
9-10			edit/ proofread		read/take notes/outline		
10-11		Tutorial B	(submit Fri 5pm)		read/take notes/outline		
11-12	Tutorial prep A	Lecture C		Lecture D	Revise B		
12-1							
1-2				Tutorial D			
2-3	Tutorial A	Assign B drafting			Tutorial prep C		
3-4		drafting		Assign A			
4-5	Lec B	drafting	Revise C	drafting	Submit Assign C		Pre read B
5-6				drafting	Tutorial C		
6-7							
7-8	Pre read C	Revise A	Pre read D	revision D			Pre read A
8-9							

The assignment process

Many students are unaware that university assignments require substantial time and preparation:

An early 'reality shock' occurs for first year students when their first semester marks begin to come in... more than one-third of students are likely to face the fact that they were not performing as well as they expected. (*Australian Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, 2005 p. 19*)

Allocating enough time for assignment preparation is crucial for success. Figure 4 below maps the assignment process in steps, with indications of the amount of time each step requires.

You can see that the entire process should begin 5-6 weeks before the due date. Work backwards from the submission date, recording on your weekly timetables the stage for each assignment in each week. Further details for each step can be found in Chapter 4 Academic Writing Skills.

Figure 4: Assignment process

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6
Task analysis	Search & select sources	Read and take notes and build an outline	Draft and redraft several times	Edit & proofread	Submit
1 hour	2–3 days	two weeks	two weeks	2–3 days	on time

It is very important to realise that you are responsible for managing your time. Be aware that over a semester, there may be several peak periods, usually mid-semester and end of the semester, when exam preparation and due dates for several assignments may coincide. Plan ahead to manage your time effectively at these points. For example, early in the semester, if you have a paid job, negotiate leave, reduced hours or alternative shifts for peak study periods.

If you would like assistance with time management skills, contact a learning skills adviser via <http://lib.monash.edu/learning-skills/> or a counsellor via <http://www.monash.edu.au/counselling/academic-support/motivation-stress-time-management.html>

Revision

Revision is an essential aspect of university study. It allows you to build your understanding of new material and make connections with other material. It is not possible to gain an acceptable level of understanding of the content in your courses except through revisiting that content in a reflective and analytical manner.

Revision is not simply remembering or repeating material; for example, by rote learning. For example, while you may be required to rote learn a formula, that is not enough on its own. It is the appropriate application of a formula as part of solving an unfamiliar problem which is valued; in other words, the formula is a minor part of understanding the problem and identifying a solution. Revision is more complex than rote learning because revision requires synthesising material from many sources and developing your own critical interpretation of the material.

Revision is part of a three stage process for working with new material: first, pre-reading the material; second, taking notes in your lecture and tutorial; third, revising the material. Pre-reading is your first exposure to new content and gives you the opportunity to try and make sense of the content in your own way, and to formulate questions you need answered. The lecture and tutorial will give you other perspectives and a chance to clarify issues. Revision is arguably the most important step as this is where you take ownership of the material and develop your own perspective.

Creating a set of synthesised revision notes

It is important to transfer the material you read to your own notes, not simply highlight or underline ideas in books or articles. Writing notes helps you to focus; to make decisions about what is important; and to create relationships between ideas by the way you organise them. To revise, create a set of notes on the topic of the week by transferring and synthesising ideas from *all* sources- your lecture and tutorial notes, your textbook, your reading list and the extra reading you do on your own. Allocate a minimum of two hours each week for this initial revision. It may take longer at first, but your skills will improve with practice.

It may be useful to use the lecture structure as the basis for your own notes. Into this structure insert information or conflicting perspectives from other sources *as well as your own comments*. Keep your set of notes as simple as possible, using key points (not sentences), perhaps creating diagrams or a concept map.

Revision for exams

Revision is also exam preparation. In university exams it is generally expected that your perspective is given when answering questions, so focussing on developing your perspective is really important.

Revision for exam preparation should begin in Week 1. Revision for exams requires repetition, but not rote learning. There are several steps to revising effectively for exams:

- create your initial set of synthesised notes on the topic
- put the set of notes and all books aside and try to reconstruct your set of notes *from memory*. This will give you a clear picture of what you need to re-revise. Go back over material you were unsure of

- repeat this step of writing your notes *from memory* at least five times and at longer intervals: immediately, next day, next week, next month, Swot Vac
- practice using your notes from memory to answer practice exam questions

This process achieves three important things:

- it creates long term memory
- your notes will change as you reconsider the ideas on each occasion and as you learn more during the course. This is a desirable outcome, as it develops your understanding and your own perspective
- repetition *from memory* will also force you to simplify and reduce your notes. Your notes will gradually become a set of simple triggers. These triggers will jog your memory quickly during an exam and bring to mind all the associated material

Exams

As for assignments, university exams test more than just knowledge so mastery of content is not enough. Some students are not aware of the nature of university exams:

In some educational settings outside Australian higher education, the more closely a student can replicate the work or words of an expert, the greater the student's learning or mastery of the subject is considered to be. Some students are unaware that this is not usually the case in Australian higher education. (James, McInnis, & Devlin, 2002, p.3)

Rather than simply testing knowledge, university exams also test your ability to use the knowledge, for example:

- *apply* your knowledge to new situations
- *explain* ideas and arguments clearly in written form
- *solve* problems
- *critically evaluate* material

Furthermore, university exams test your proficiency at all these skills; that is, how well you can perform the relevant skills in the short time given. Finally, exams are also, of course, one way to determine your success/readiness for the next stage.

Time management

You should begin preparing for your exams in Week 1 of the semester. The revision which you do each week after your lecture and tutorial *is also exam preparation*. Schedule a minimum of 2 hours per subject into your weekly calendar for this revision; that is, a total of about 8 hours per week minimum for revision for a full time load of 4 subjects (see Figure 3 above).

When you are revising, work in short blocks with a 5-10 minute non addictive break at the end. Start with 30 minute blocks, and build up to a maximum of 2 hour blocks. In order to use your scheduled time efficiently, set yourself specific goals per study block; for example:

- write key points/design a concept map of a particular section of the textbook
- make cards of definitions and formulae to use on the train/bus
- test yourself on the tutorial questions for this week
- do five questions from the textbook
- summarise a topic from memory

It is also important to concentrate during the blocks of time you have set yourself. Thinking requires energy and effort. If you find yourself not focussing, take a break for a few minutes (e.g. get a drink or feed the dog), then sit down again and *concentrate*. Gradually build up the time you are able to concentrate. Avoid daydreaming, social networking or other distractions which will prevent you thinking clearly. Save these activities as a reward for productively completing your study block.

Do timed practice exams only when *you are confident*, later in the semester or in Swot Vac.

Establish the type of exam

You should begin preparing for your exams in the early weeks of the semester. A useful start is to get copies of past exams for your units, and to look at these in relation to the unit objectives and assignment task requirements. Past exams can be found at <http://exams.lib.monash.edu.au/>. It is not a good idea to attempt to answer the exam questions early in the semester, but past exams will give you a clear idea of what to expect. The type of exam questions along with the unit objectives and the assessment requirements will give you some indication of how to go about studying the unit to best prepare for the exam. For example:

- if the exam is composed of multiple choice questions where there are only slight differences between the possible answers, you will know that you need to understand your unit material in detail
- in short answer questions that require succinct and focused responses in exams, you need to know the information thoroughly and be able to organise and express that knowledge efficiently
- in a unit such as accounting, if there are problem questions that ask you to analyse a situation and apply accounting principles, as well as complete computational processes, you need to develop a mental flexibility with the study material so that you can apply it to differing situations. A good way to achieve flexibility is to practice a range of questions
- if there are longer essay type questions in a subject such as Management, you need to be very familiar with your unit material, as well as being able to apply ideas from across topics in your response to the question

Practise past exam questions

During the latter part of the semester, you should select past exam questions that relate to topics that you have already studied. Plan and write responses for these. It is a good idea to do this in study groups, so that you can compare and contrast your understandings and responses with classmates, learning from each other. If suitable, you can consult your tutor during their consultation times to get further feedback.

Exam types

Multiple choice questions

To prepare for multiple choice questions you need to be very familiar with the content of your units in a detailed fashion. Often, the differences between correct and incorrect choices are subtle and require close and careful understanding. It is also important to clearly understand the question. You need to analyse, or ‘pull apart’ the questions carefully, especially if English is not your first language. Study the analysis of the multiple choice questions for a first year accounting and finance exam below:

Example exam question 1

Exchanges which take place between the business and outside parties and affect the financial position of the business are called:

- a) bills of exchange
- b) monetary measure
- c) financial transactions
- d) balance day adjustments

In the example above note that the main topic is “Exchanges”. The question asks the name of the exchanges that are:

- a) between business and outside parties
AND THAT ALSO
- b) affect the business’ financial position

Example exam question 2

According to SAC4, which of the following is NOT a necessary characteristic of liabilities:

- a) future sacrifice of economic benefits
- b) present obligation to make that sacrifice
- c) obligation is to another party
- d) obligation arose out of a past transaction
- e) none of the above

Note the word NOT in the above question.

Short answer and essay questions

In preparing for short answer and essay exam questions, practise analysing questions so that you can focus your answer on what you've been asked. Short answer and essay questions require you to apply and interpret the material you have studied.

While some short answer questions may ask you to recall, or retell, information, most will expect you to be able to interpret and analyse information. Essay questions require you to apply, interpret and analyse, and may require information in your answer from several of a unit's topics. Study the short answer question and analysis from a Management exam below:

Example exam question 3

List the five stages of group development. *What* is involved in each stage?

This question requires you to do two things:

1. "*List*" – You must define/explain the five stages of group development
2. "*What is involved...*" – You must explain how the stages achieve the objectives, how they relate to each other, and so on

A suitable plan for this question is as follows:

- explain the details of each stage, one at a time
- explain how they work. As such, you can consider aspects such as the effects, advantages and disadvantages of certain elements of the stages. You can also explain how the stages relate to each other in group development
- provide examples for stages, if possible
- link groups and the stages to other topics, such as leaders and conflict

Typical essay question

Study a typical question for a Management unit and our analysis.

Example exam question 4

Describe the *sources of stress* in organisations. Discuss the *strategies management can use to reduce employee stress* at the workplace, as well as *what individuals can do to reduce their own stress*.

This question is asking:

- What causes stress in organisations?
- What can management do to decrease employee stress? What are the advantages and disadvantages of these strategies?
- What can individuals do to reduce stress? What are the advantages and disadvantages of these strategies?

Calculation questions

It is important that you are able to recognise when particular processes are required, and that you can apply them correctly. The best way to do this is to make sure you understand the processes, and their advantages and disadvantages for particular purposes. You then need to practise these in a range of situations.

The exam “mindset”

Getting into the exam “mindset” is important for achieving maximum performance during the exams. What this means is putting yourself into a frame of mind that enables you to approach the exam in a calm, confident manner where you are able to achieve your personal best.

Here are a number of ‘*exam smart*’ practices to put into place before the exams to ensure that you are in a calm and confident state of mind.

Check and double check all exam details

These include date, time and venue of exams. How many exam are you taking? What are the names of these exams? What type of exams are they (i.e. multiple choice questions, calculation, short answer, essay, case study)?

Read past exam papers to familiarise yourself with exam instructions. These instructions can be difficult to understand if you are reading them for the first time under exam conditions.

These instructions tell you where to write your name and student number, how many questions to answer, where to write your answers, and so on.

Plan your exam time in advance

Do not leave anything to chance. Use past exams to help you work out how much time is typically given to complete each question for each exam paper. This will prepare you to utilise the ten minutes reading time at the beginning of each exam to allocate a time for answering each question.

Practice makes perfect

Like most performance exercises, exams are no different. The more you practise, the higher the confidence level you gain. Attend any mock exams (a rehearsal or timed practice exam done under real exam conditions in an exam room) organised by the faculty or subject coordinator even if you feel that you are not quite ready to take them. The experience of doing a mock exam is invaluable in preparing you mentally for the real thing! If there are no mock exams to go to, pick a past exam paper or make up your own exam questions and conduct a mock exam for yourself. Make sure you write the answers to a set number of questions in silence within a time limit in an exam-like setting. Discuss your answers with your tutorial mates after the mock exams.

Have health will succeed!

Eat well before the exam to maintain your stamina and concentration. Slow releasing carbohydrates like bread and cereals are good. Drink plenty of water the week before the exam to avoid dehydration. Get plenty of sleep to ensure that you are rested and focussed in order to give your best during the exam. Do not stay awake late the night before the exam. Instead have your favourite snack and a hot, relaxing bath before going to bed for a good night’s sleep. It is important that you engage in recreation and exercise regularly all through the exam period. Exercise helps you to stay positive and focussed and also helps to eliminate any excess adrenalin built up in your body as a result of exam related stress.

Managing exam stress

Feelings of anxiety and stress during the exam period are normal. However, excessive levels of stress can be detrimental to your mental and physical health which in turn affects your concentration and performance at the exams. Hence what we need to focus on is how to manage the stress and not let it get the better of us. Here are some stress management strategies that all of us can use to keep stress under control and harness it for better performance at the exams.

- *Spot the signs!* First thing you need to do is to recognise if you are experiencing excessive levels of stress. For example, do you i.e. awake worrying at night? Are you irritable and become angry easily? Do you feel guilty when you are not working?
- *What are your stress triggers?* Recognise what starts you feeling stressed. Do you get anxious when you workload increases? When you set yourself unrealistic goals? When others seem to be doing things badly or worse than you?

Once you identify your stress triggers and recognise your stress levels, work on managing them. Here are some practical things that you can do to stay calm, confident and focussed for the exams.

- *Sleep is important!* Aim for 8 hours of sleep. Lack of sleep lowers your energy levels, tires you and prevents you thinking clearly.
- *Take regular breaks.* Give yourself short breaks. Take deep breaths. Count to 100 and SMILE even if you do not feel like it.
- *What is your state of mind?* Do you think 'I can't ...', 'I'm no good at this...', 'It's too difficult...?' STOP! Change your thinking. Have the voice in your head say 'I can...', 'I understood X,Y,Z ...', 'It's not impossible, I can do this if I start with...'
- *Manage your time!* Reduce stress levels by organising yourself. Plan timetables and follow them to avoid predictable crises and reduce stress. Set priorities and work out which tasks are important and which can wait.

If you work steadily and conscientiously throughout the semester, the exams may be stressful but they will be manageable. Remember your long term goal- to successfully complete your degree; and celebrate a semester of learning new knowledge and skills by giving your best in the exams. Good luck!

Checklist for studying faculty units and courses

It is important that you study to understand and be able to apply information and ideas to a range of situations. To be able to do this, you need to approach your studies in a way where you look for links in, and across, the content of your units. This contrasts with merely trying to memorise information, or learn by rote. While it is necessary to learn some processes and concepts for your units of study, a memorising approach on its own will not assist you to do well in your studies. It will also be difficult for you to be motivated. Studies show that students who look for meaning and links are more highly motivated than those who do not, and therefore are better placed to do well in their units and courses of study (Biggs, 2000).

- establish semester and weekly time tables for your study. Allocate time in your weekly timetable for keeping up to date with your studies, and for completing your assignments
- be prepared to study six days per week. You can then plan ahead to have your assignments completed by the due date, and keep up to date with your weekly study
- you should also, in due course and when you are confident, be working through past exam papers to give you insight into the relevant standard of work to help you to revise for the exam

References

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The research process: A basic guide

The aim of this section is to introduce to you a process for planning and conducting efficient and effective research. This will save you time and effort in locating and using information to complete your assignments. The following sections provide a general introduction and the key points covered in the discussion. For more information and advice, we suggest that you consult staff at a library information desk, or refer to the Monash University Library home page: <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/>.

The library information desk staff can advise you on which particular resources are most relevant for your topic. The library also conducts a range of information skills training sessions, including: library familiarisation tours; researching for assignments; effective database searching; undertaking literature reviews; and using *EndNote* software. In addition, the library offers academic skills workshops. Details of all sessions are available via the library home page.

The research process

The research process consists of seven steps:

1. understand the assignment topic/question(s)
2. decide what sort of information you need to complete the assignment
3. decide where to look for this information
4. develop and use a search strategy
5. evaluate the information found and revise the plan as necessary
6. present your response to the assignment topic/question
7. final evaluation of your research approach

Step 1: Understand the assignment topic/question(s)

The first thing to do is to highlight key words and phrases in the topic statement or question. Clarify these terms and concepts in order to ensure a clear understanding of what you are required to do. You are then ready to brainstorm in order to identify what you already know about the topic, and to pinpoint gaps in your knowledge. The issues that may arise for you include: What type of assignment is it? Is it an essay, case study, literature review or a report? To help you answer these questions, you can consult the following sources:

- your unit guide
- lecture notes and online course resources (via *my.monash*)
- textbooks and your unit reading list
- business encyclopaedias and dictionaries, e.g. *The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Management* (which is also available online)
- your tutor or lecturer
- other sections of the *Q Manual*, regarding the particular type of assignment

This initial reading will provide you with an overview or introduction to the topic upon which to base your information search and your evaluation of the search results. In your reading, note any terms or phrases which could be useful search terms, as well as references to potentially relevant books, articles and other sources.

An assignment topic may consist of a number of questions. You need to treat each question as an individual search for information. This will make your research more manageable. Be aware of any limits that apply to the topic/question, for example, “the *Australian* market”, or “trends over the *last five years*”. For some assignments, you may be required to develop your own questions, or choose your own topic.

Step 2: Decide what sort of information you need

Depending on the assignment, the information you require may include: definitions, news reports, company financial information, demographic statistics, macroeconomic data, country information, legislation, legal commentary, information on industry/market trends, business case studies and academic research and theoretical perspectives.

- decide what level of detail you require – brief or in-depth. This will depend on the required length of the assignment and the relative weighting given to different parts of the topic within the assignment
- usually you will need a variety of information types to appropriately respond to a question; for example, “Discuss theories of conflict resolution and give *practical illustrations* of their application”
- your lecturer may require you to use specific kinds of sources to support your arguments; for example, “refer to at least eight academic journal articles”
- always bring a copy of the assignment question with you when seeking help at a library information desk

Step 3: Decide where to look for this information

Except for the simplest of questions, such as obtaining definitions, you will usually need to refer to a range of information resources. The resources below can be accessed using Search (the interface for searching the library’s extensive collections and many online resources), discipline-specific library guides, and the database menu. All of these link from the library home page, <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au>.

- reference – includes encyclopaedias, dictionaries, statistics, legislation and cases, handbooks and atlases. Find them using Search
- journals – articles and information on specialist topics, many of which can be accessed online via the library databases
- books – including textbooks and academic titles. Use Search to find them. An increasing number of books are available as e-books
- online reading lists – electronic versions of lecturers’ unit reading lists, including links to full text journal articles and book chapters
- internet sites – the library selects and provides access to academic quality internet sites via Search and the library guides
- databases – most heavily used for searching for journal and news articles. The full range of specialist business and economics databases includes company information, industry reports, country reports, legal materials, statistics and economic data. Access databases via the database menu or library guides

The following steps in the research process focus on the basic principles of database searching.

Step 4: Develop and use a search strategy

The most heavily used library databases provide access to journals and news articles, which are key information sources for many assignments. Effective and efficient database searching depends on using an effective search strategy. This involves planning the search in a systematic way and subsequently modifying the initial search to extract the most relevant information.

As databases vary in content and focus, it is important to select the databases that are most relevant to your topic. While different databases use different search interfaces, the search strategy development described below is applicable to any database, and reflects the basic principles of effective database search design.

The search strategy process comprises seven steps:

1. State the topic

For example: Is employer monitoring of workplace e-mail justified?

2. Identify the key concepts

monitoring workplace e-mail

3. List other ways of expressing these key concepts

For example:

- synonyms, including American terminology (e.g. mobile phones, cell phones)
- plural/singular (e.g. woman, women)
- spelling (e.g. behaviour, behavior)
- variations of a root word (e.g. strategy, strategic)
- acronyms (e.g. CEO, chief executive officer)

Example synonyms or search terms

monitor(ing) spy(ing)

workplace employee(s)

e-mail email electronic mail

4. For each key concept, link its keywords with OR to widen the search.

For example:

monitor* **or** spy*

workplace **or** employee*

e-mail **or** email **or** electronic mail

The **truncation symbol**, *, will include variations of the word, e.g. searching for monitor* will find: monitor, monitors, monitoring, monitored . (Some databases may use different truncation symbols – check the online help for the particular database.)

5. Link each key concept set with AND, to obtain records which contain at least one term from each set.

- AND focuses or narrows the search increasing the relevance of the results
- the complete search statement to be entered in the database search engine is:
(monitor* or spy*) **and** (workplace or employee*) **and** (e-mail or email or electronic mail)
- AND and OR are referred to as **Boolean operators**, and such searches are referred to as Boolean searches

6. Evaluate the records retrieved from the search

- look at the records retrieved from your search. If no records, or very few, are found, check for spelling mistakes in your search terms. Confirm whether the database is relevant to your topic (e.g. some international databases may have only limited Australian content, or the database may not cover the time period you are researching)
- identify any terms within the records (especially **Subject** terms or headings) that you could use to improve on the initial search. Subject terms (sometimes called descriptors) describe the main content of the article, and using them is a powerful way of focusing a search to obtain records of greater relevance to the topic

You should also assess the quality of the articles retrieved. Evaluation guidelines are covered in Step 5 of the research process, below.

7. Modify the original search and evaluate the new results.

- in general, to focus the search more closely: reduce the OR terms (i.e. synonyms and related terms), or add a further concept with AND. Consider limiting the search to a particular time period (e.g. the last 10 years)
- to broaden the search: increase the OR terms, or reduce the AND terms

Step 5: Evaluate the information

This section presents criteria for assessing the relevance and the quality of the information found, regardless of its format (e.g. a book, journal article, news report, or web pages). This evaluation is the basis for planning the next phase of the research.

Relevance and coverage

Does the material provide information relevant to the topic, and in the detail you need? Does it build on your previous research, or just confirm what you found in other sources? Are there any references to further potentially useful information? Are any new topic-related questions or issues raised in the material?

Intended audience

Information that is aimed at secondary students and the general public may not be at an appropriate level for a university essay. Equally, some academic research may be too specific or specialised for your needs.

Currency

This refers to whether or not the source is up to date. This will be of particular importance if you need to research the most recent developments in a field. In the case of a web site, is it still being maintained, or are many of the links broken?

Authority

Is the author a recognised expert in the field that you are researching? Is sufficient information presented about the author to verify his or her expertise (e.g. is he or she a member of a relevant university department?)

Accuracy

Does the work contain obvious mistakes, or poor editing? Where possible, check the information presented for consistency with other sources. Are the sources of information within the work acknowledged?

Objectivity

Look for any apparent bias in the work – this may be evident in the presentation of extreme viewpoints and in the use of emotive or derogatory language. Look also for omissions in information presented and information that contradicts established facts.

Further criteria for evaluating academic material

Lecturers often require students to find and use information from academic journals (also referred to as scholarly journals) and academic papers. Check articles or papers you intend to use in your assignment against the following criteria. The more criteria a particular article or paper satisfies, the more likely it is to be acceptable for academic purposes.

Abstract, reference list or bibliography

Academic articles usually start with an abstract (summary) and end with a reference list or bibliography. The reference list is usually extensive and may run to several pages. Each citation (acknowledgement of a source of information) within the text should have a corresponding entry in the reference list.

Author affiliation, qualifications

Is the author affiliated to a university? If so, you may assume the article has some academic credibility. Are the authors' academic qualifications listed? Affiliation and qualification details are often found on the first page of an article, or at the end of the article. In a book of readings there may be a separate section with brief details on the contributors.

Appearance

The appearance should be text based, with minimal or no illustrations. Advertising is limited to scholarly or academic products and services, such as an upcoming conference, or new books in the discipline.

Format

The body of the document is divided into sections, such as Introduction, Literature Review, Methodology, Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Reference List. Tables, figures and charts may be included.

Voice

Academic writing commonly uses technical language relevant to the particular discipline and may report empirical research, but it may also speculate on a theoretical issue. The writer assumes some discipline knowledge and background on the part of the reader.

Length

Academic articles are usually substantial, i.e. eight or more pages.

Publisher

Often the publisher name can give you a clue as to the academic status of the document. For example, is the publisher a university, professional organisation or other recognised authority producing research? Is the journal or book from a large academic publishing firm? Ask at a library information desk if you have a question about a particular journal or publisher.

Recommendation and peer review

Has the journal been recommended by your lecturer or by another recognised authority? Lecturers will often require you to refer to *peer reviewed* journal articles in your assignments. Articles in peer reviewed academic journals have been assessed, prior to publication, as being worthy of inclusion in the journal by experts in that academic discipline. The use of peer review serves as an indicator of journal quality. Peer reviewed journals are sometimes referred to as *refereed* journals. Ask at a library information desk if you are unsure whether a particular journal is peer-reviewed.

Textbooks and academic books

You will be required to refer beyond textbooks and prescribed readings, and consult academic books (also referred to as scholarly books).

Textbooks provide an overview or introduction to a discipline (e.g. management) or a sub-discipline (e.g. human resource management), usually arranged as individual chapters on specific topics. For example, a human resource management textbook might include chapters on human resource planning, recruitment, and selection. Textbooks often contain student activities, case studies, discussion questions and other learning materials. Textbooks are designed to be introductory; their target audience is students, so they are not considered academic.

Academic books, in contrast to textbooks, provide a book length, in-depth discussion of a particular topic, such as the book, *The Collapse of the American Management Mystique*. As their target audience is academics such works do not contain student directed activities and exercises.

Like journal articles, academic books result from detailed research, evidenced by referencing and bibliographies. Other evaluation criteria that apply to academic journals (as detailed above), such as voice, appearance, publisher and author qualifications and affiliation also apply to academic books.

Some academic books comprise chapters or articles contributed by different academic authors and compiled by an editor, which focus on a particular topic.

If you are unsure about whether a particular article or book meets the required academic standard, ask your lecturer or tutor.

Recording and planning

Keep a record of your research progress (including databases used, search strategies and search terms, and evaluation of search results) in order to effectively plan the next stages in your research. Identify the gaps that still remain in the information you require, and potential leads to further information from your research so far. Based on your evaluation, modify and repeat the previous steps in the research process as many times as necessary, to systematically gather more information. It may sometimes be necessary to return to Step 1 of the process to revise or refine your understanding of the topic. This repetition is fundamental to conducting research.

Step 6: Present your response

Report and assignment writing, oral presentations, plagiarism and referencing are covered extensively in other sections of the *Q Manual*.

- It is important to maintain accurate citations of the material that you will refer to in your academic work. Download or print out a copy of relevant database records to keep an accurate record of the full citation details. *EndNote* software can be downloaded from the library web site to help you manage and use your references. *EndNote* is highly recommended to students undertaking a thesis. The library runs regular *EndNote* classes-for details refer to <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/>.
- As changes to internet sites can occur frequently, it is recommended that you print a copy of any sites or material of special interest as you are conducting your search to ensure that you have all the relevant details, including the URL and date that you accessed the material.
- The library collections include guides to writing reports, assignments and theses, and on giving presentations. Check *Search* for details. Learning skills advisers in the library can provide advice on planning and writing assignments, presentation skills and referencing.

Step 7: Final evaluation

The key success criterion of your research is whether you have answered the question(s) set at Step 1. It is also useful to consider your experience of the research process, by reflecting on such questions as:

- What have you learned about the process of searching for and using information?
- What information resources might be useful in future research (especially for assignments for other units)?
- How might you improve the way you conduct future research?

By keeping a record of your research as you explore a particular topic you will not only be able to assess and plan your research efforts, but also reflect upon and expand your knowledge and experience of using particular information resources, and research techniques.

Using the internet for research

The internet presents particular challenges when conducting academic research because of its large and continually expanding volume and variety of information, lack of any overall organisation or structure, and extreme variation in information quality because practically anybody is free to add information to the internet.

Before attempting an internet search, check whether the particular information you need might be available in the library databases. A wide range of academic-quality documents (especially journal articles) and data (e.g. detailed company financial data, market research and analysis) can only be obtained from specialist databases, to which the library subscribes for the use of Monash staff and students.

Academic databases are not accessible via a general (e.g. Google) internet search. They collectively provide a large collection of discipline-specific, authoritative and up to date material that can be efficiently searched using powerful search engines. The library databases can be accessed via the library's home page: <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/>.

The internet can be a useful source of information of an academic standard, especially where currency is important (e.g. government reports, media releases, transcripts of speeches, podcasts of programmes, statistics and academic working papers). Your lecturer or tutor may recommend particular internet sites or resources relevant to the unit or your research topic.

Some further tips for productive internet research

- develop and use a search strategy, as you would when using a library database
- identify organisations that are recognised authorities on your topic, and go to their web sites (e.g. for economics and finance topics, the Reserve Bank of Australia site includes research, publications, statistics, media releases and transcripts of the Governor's speeches)
- Google has an Advanced Search option (as do some other search engines). Choose it to search more effectively and efficiently than is possible just using the default basic search. Read the search engine online help to become familiar with its capabilities and the way it presents results
- use limits, such as date or domain, as appropriate. When searching for information from the Australian government, specifying the domain `gov.au`, will restrict the search to only Australian government sites. Similarly, limiting to `edu.au` focuses the search on Australian university and other educational sites
- try other search engines. The database of each search engine can represent only a part of the total content of the internet, so by using more than one search engine you can widen your search
- searching Google Scholar (<http://scholar.google.com/>) for academic quality material can be a useful adjunct to searching the databases
- be especially rigorous in evaluating the quality of material found on the internet. As a guide, refer to Step 5 of the research process, *Evaluate the information*
- when you have found a useful site, check for links from that site to related sites, which are likely to provide information of a similar quality to the original site
- beware of inadvertently wasting time while searching the internet. Sticking to a systematic search strategy will help you to be focused and time efficient

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Academic writing skills

In your studies in business and economics disciplines, you will do substantial amounts of writing in assignment work. Writing is a significant part of assessment and develops your ability to communicate clearly and appropriately in a range of settings. This is an important skill that meets the university and faculty's learning aims, and is needed for the workplace. Your Unit Guides and tutors will provide information about writing requirements specific to your particular units.

In your writing, you must demonstrate your ability to integrate ideas and information and think critically about the topic or issue. This means much more than just retelling or describing information. Integrating ideas and information means appreciating that there is a range of views on any topic, and carefully considering these views as you form your own response to a task. Being analytical means that you examine the details of the topic, and the information that you read, rather than simply accepting the information. Critical thinking means, for example, that you evaluate the writer's points and evidence, and judge the value of material you read for the purposes of your assignment task. You do this by assessing the material or data's contribution to your point of view on the issue. For example, in everyday life, people have different opinions for different reasons about a film; you also have an opinion about the film based on your own reasons; and you judge other people's reasons. Similarly, regarding an academic topic, each writer will have a position (a position is an opinion) plus reasons and evidence supporting their position. As you read you must work out your own position among all these others and collect supporting evidence. Which ideas and data do you think are valuable, or not, and why?

Characteristics of successful academic writing

Successful academic writing communicates your message clearly. The following questions will help you prepare a successful assignment response. Ask yourself the following questions:

- Does my assignment answer the question/respond to the task?
- Is my assignment clearly structured?
- Does my assignment express my position on the topic and is my assignment structured to support my position?
- Does my assignment provide evidence for my position – with references?
- Is my assignment coherent and does it present my position consistently and logically?
- Is my assignment expressed clearly in sentences and paragraphs?

In the following sections of this chapter, we discuss how to fulfil these requirements by working through a set of steps:

- task analysis
- collecting sources
- reading, taking notes and planning
- drafting
- editing and proofreading

Task analysis

You must address the assignment question. You need to be able to see the hidden details of the task. University assignment tasks are rarely simple or straightforward. A ‘quick read’ of the assignment task is not enough. This will not reveal to you the complexities and subtleties *implicit* (that is, expected but not stated) in the task. Task analysis is crucial because it provides a direction for your research and development of a relevant response. Your ability to write critically is based on your analytical understanding of the assignment task. The following sample task demonstrates the steps for analysing a task.

Sample assignment task for management

The impact of the external environment on a manager's actions and behaviours cannot be overemphasised. However, there are forces in the internal environment that continue to play a major role in shaping managers' endeavours. Use the interaction between some of the factors in both environments to explain how business organisations and managers are facing the challenges of the new global environment. Support your answer with examples.

Step 1: Identify all the parts of the task

An initial analysis will indicate to you that the task above has two major sections. The *context* is the setting or situation and is given in the first two sentences. *The directions in the third and fourth sentences of the task tell you what you must do.* It is vital that you take note of the direction words and phrases. You must do what these ask.

Step 2: Identify the key terms, directions and limits

You need to identify the key terms, the directions and any limits.

- the key terms: impact, external environment, internal environment, interaction, business organisations, managers, challenges, new global environment
- the directions: use the interaction; explain; support your answer with examples
- the limits: some, both, business organisations and managers, challenges, new

As you can see, the task is actually quite complex and you need to address all the aspects implied by the key words, directions and limits.

Step 3: Summarise the task

You can see that our response should have two major parts:

- describe the *interaction* of external and internal environment factors in the new global environment
 - explain how this interaction *impacts* on what a manager does in the new global environment
- Descriptive writing would merely explain what external and internal environmental factors are in the global business environment. This task requires us to discuss the more complex issues of how the external and internal environment factors *influence* each other, and how this interaction *affects* a manager's role. Task analysis allows us to determine what research jobs are required. Figure 5 tabulates the research jobs for this Management assignment.

Figure 5: Research jobs

Key words (what you must know)	Research jobs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ business organisations ■ managers ■ internal environment factors ■ external environment factors ■ the challenges of the global environment ■ interaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ find sources defining business organisations ■ find sources defining managers ■ find sources explaining internal factors ■ find sources explaining external factors ■ find sources explaining the challenges of the global context ■ find sources explaining how the internal and external factors interact/influence each other in the global environment
Limits <i>(what you must choose)</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ challenges in the global environment ■ some factors ■ business organisations and managers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ choose which challenge/s you wish to discuss ■ choose which factors you wish to discuss ■ write about business organisations and managers generally but choose specific examples to support your points
Directions <i>(what you must write about)</i>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ describe the interaction of internal and external factors in the global environment ■ explain how this interaction impacts on what a manager does 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ read and take notes about the <i>interaction</i> (not just separately) between internal and external factors ■ read and take notes about how the <i>interaction</i> between these factors <i>impacts</i> on managers in the global environment

Collecting sources

You should try to form a succinct summary of your task as we have done above. This directs you to the type of information you require and provides you with key terms for your library search.

Figure 6: Collecting sources

Where to search
<p><i>Background reading</i> (this is not your own research as it has been provided for you):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ textbook ■ lecture notes ■ reading list
<p><i>Reading specific to your assignment</i> (your own research):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ library Search catalogue ■ online databases ■ Internet sources of academic value

If you are not sure how to do library searches, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact a librarian for advice or register online through your *my.monash* portal for a library class. Searching for relevant and academically acceptable sources is a required skill which you will need throughout your studies.

Reading, note taking and planning your writing

At the same time as you do your reading, you need to synthesise your note taking. The notes you take as you read should be in skeleton form; that is, use symbols, abbreviations, key words, synonyms, diagrams and short phrases as much as possible but do not copy from the original sources unless absolutely necessary (for example, if you plan to analyse the quote itself in detail). Use your own words to record information and to make your own comments on

the information as you go. Your notes and comments are your interpretation of what you read. Remember to record the author and page number beside *every* note you take. This becomes really important as you add ideas or data from different sources to your notes. Synthesising your notes from different sources requires combining and grouping notes about particular ideas or data to suit the different sections of your response to the assignment task.

You develop your own position for your assignment through reading, integrating and thinking about other views in the literature, or from analysing data. To do this, keep your task in mind as you are reading, taking notes or interpreting data. At the back of your mind, ask yourself what the information means for *your* response to the task. How does the information shape *your* viewpoint on the topic or issue? That is, what is *your* position?

Argument: What is a 'position'?

'Position' is an academic word for 'opinion'. However, there is a significant difference between a personal opinion and an academic position. You may have a personal opinion on any topic with or without evidence, and your opinion may be logical and rational or not. An academic position is the considered result of research. Brick (2006, p.16) identifies several features of an academic position. It is:

- logical (part of a formal system such as an argument – see Chapter 5 Essay for further details regarding argument)
- rational (carefully reasoned and can be verified via evidence)
- impersonal (not subjective)
- precise (not a wild generalisation)
- qualified (scope is limited appropriately)

When you have completed your reading, notetaking, analysis and thinking on the topic, try to express your position in a single sentence. Your position provides a focus for your response to the task or question.

Argument: Supporting your position with reasons

Your position statement functions as a signal for your reader. The body of the assignment then provides an *argument* which defends the position in detail. Major supporting claims (reasons for the position) are developed as the major stages of the argument. If you are using headings, the reasons form the headings. Each reason is the focus of one paragraph. Evidence from your reading or data is used to support *every* reason. You should also comment on the evidence you include, focussing on the value of the evidence for the particular reason the evidence supports.

Argument: Evidence

In the same way that you need to support your position with convincing reasons, each of those reasons also needs support. This is the evidence you collect during your research. You may choose from various types of evidence. For example, evidence could be in the form of statistics or other data; examples; research findings from experts in the field; or quotes from experts in the field. However, to be convincing in an academic text, evidence needs to be:

- *relevant* to the particular reason it is supporting. Your evidence should clearly support your reasons for your position
- *specific*, not general. Avoid general statements. For example, in Economics, numbers, data or statistics provide precise information; while in Marketing, concrete examples provide specific evidence of the application of theory to the real world
- *academically acceptable*. Although you might utilise non-academic sources such as government documents, business reports or company documents, the majority of your evidence should come from academic texts and academic research
- *evaluated*. You should always comment on the value (or otherwise; for example, if rebutting another writer's argument) of the evidence you have selected

Planning your writing

The more carefully you plan your writing, the more logical your writing will be- and the easier it is to control your draft. Planning may occur gradually at the same time as reading and note taking, or as a separate stage. It will help you to organise the reasons for your position as well as organise the evidence to support the reasons for your position.

Sample plan

Study the following plan for the Management essay. Note how the major part of the body of the essay discusses the *interaction of external and internal environmental factors* and the *manager's role*. Rather than merely describing the environments, the essay is responding to the complexity embedded in the task, which is the *interaction* of the internal and external environments in a manager's role.

Introduction

one or two sentences each:

- global environment and organisations (background)
- external and internal environments and managers (scope)
- analyse impact of global situation on managers (purpose)
- managers not responding effectively to global situation (position)

Body

brief paragraph (setting the scene):

- nature of global environment
- purpose of organisations and role of managers
- nature of external and internal environments

argument paragraphs:

- interaction of relevant external and internal environment factors
- effects on managers' endeavours
- examples integrated into the argument

Conclusion

- complexity of global crisis preventing effective managerial decision-making (reformulate position)
- effects/implications for the future (significance/implications/impact).

Drafting

Structure

You need to communicate your response clearly to your reader. Clear organisation of your ideas will facilitate this. In general terms, many forms of communication are structured along the following lines. While there are differences in some structural aspects of an essay, a report, a response to a case study or a Masters or PhD thesis, generally speaking, the following basic structure applies to all: introduction, body and conclusion.

Introduction

- provides some background sentences on the topic
- introduces the purpose of the written piece
- states the writer's position on the topic

Body

- may include headings for different sections in the body
- if necessary, defines the terms, or provides brief background paragraphs on the key aspects of the issue or topic

- presents the argument in logical steps
- clearly states the main point of each paragraph
- presents supporting sentences in logical order
- supports each point with specific evidence

Conclusion

- restates the writer's position in light of the material discussed in the body
- provides a sentence or two about the implications of the argument presented and/or future directions

Sample introduction

Study the Introduction below from a report for the unit, Econometrics and Business Statistics. Note how the ideas are organised and compare this with the suggestions for an introduction that we have provided above. The introduction:

- begins with background sentences on the topic (underlined)
- explains the purpose of the report (*italics*)
- presents the student's position on the issues, derived from analysis of the data which is presented in the body of the report. (**bold**)

The Millennium Development Goals aim to focus the efforts of the world community on achieving significant, measurable improvement in people's lives. Some of the goals are to combat HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis. *The purpose of this report is to analyse the following three variables: female prevalence of HIV, children orphaned by HIV/AIDS, and incidence of TB. These are investigated in countries of the three regions across the world: Latin America and Caribbean (R 1), South Asia (R 2) and Sub-Saharan Africa (R 3). The analysis indicates that the infectious disease situation in Sub-Saharan Africa is much worse than that of the other two regions.*

The position is usually stated in the last sentence of the introduction.

Presenting a consistent and logical response in the body

The body of a text is where the reasons for a position are detailed, along with supporting evidence for the reasons plus comments on the significance of the evidence. Each paragraph in the body should deal with one reason. In longer texts, a single reason may require several paragraphs to develop.

It is important that your response to your assignment task flows coherently, and that your reader can follow the argument you are presenting. Your ideas need to be organised logically through the body; for example, your ideas can begin from a general perspective and move to that of a more specific view, or in order of significance, or positive points and negative points. There are many patterns of organisation; you need to choose the pattern which best suits your assignment.

In some cases you may be required to use subheadings through the body section; consult your unit guide or tutor.

Paragraph structure

Generally speaking, a paragraph includes a major reason stated in a topic sentence, followed by *supporting sentences* with discussion and explanation of the major reason. The literature or data is brought in by the writer as evidence supporting the major reason. Comments on the evidence and evaluation of the ideas in the paragraph are also part of a good academic paragraph. In a *concluding sentence*, you may evaluate the role of the paragraph in providing convincing support for your argument; or provide a transition to the next paragraph (or both).

A less successful paragraph does not have a main point. It merely gathers evidence from the literature or data, but does not explain explicitly to the reader the overall significance of the evidence. There is no writer comment or perspective.

Example paragraph

Topic sentence giving a reason supporting the writer's position.

Use of supporting evidence from sources

Student writer's evaluation

One of the most essential parts of the internal environment of an organisation is the organisational culture. Robbins, Bergman, Stagg & Coulter (2000, p. 92) claim that strong organisational cultures correlate positively with high business performance. However, Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman (1991, p. 528) argue that the type of culture may be regarded more important than the strength of the culture in terms of organisational performance. Numerous definitions of corporate culture have been formulated over time. Typically, these definitions encompass several key components such as "corporate vision" and "shared values" (Sadri and Lees, 2000, p. 853) as well as "shared behaviours" and "cultural symbols" (Hellriegel, Slocum & Woodman, 2001, p. 513). Many organisations have a "dominant culture" (Sadri & Lees, 2001, p. 853) as well as many "subcultures" (p. 853) that are inconsistent with the dominant culture, but nevertheless ought to identify with the dominant corporate values. It is important to clarify the relationship between national culture and organisational culture as well. Wood (2001, p. 391) argues that "organisational culture frequently derives from national culture" (p. 391), but it is nevertheless unique in its own way. From the above, it may be deduced that the national culture and the organisational culture strongly interact through employees and that understanding national cultures is essential in understanding specific organisational cultures.

Writer's voice or comment

Supporting evidence

In summary in the above paragraph:

- the writer's voice, or comments run(s) through the paragraph above
 - the writer has expressed a perspective at the beginning of the paragraph
 - the writer comments on the references and their contribution to the discussion
- This is an indication of critical and analytical thinking.

Referencing

If you take ideas or data from a text, you must reference the source. This principle applies even if you express the ideas in your own words. See Chapter 10 Referencing for details about the APA referencing system you are required to use. Failure to acknowledge your sources of information is plagiarism, and is a serious offence in the university. See Chapter 9 Academic Integrity for an explanation of plagiarism.

Direct quotes may be used in your writing, but should be limited to less than ten per cent of the total word count. Your examiners want to read your interpretation of, and comments on, the literature you have read.

Framing intext referencing

There is a range of ways that writers can integrate references in their writing, and we explain some of these below. In the examples below, note how the author of the information cited is given prominence, followed by the writer's paraphrase (own words) of the source.

Author prominent (first) intext referencing

Examples

Robbins, Bergman, Stagg and Coulter (2000, p. 92) claim that strong organisational cultures correlate positively with high business performance.

However, Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1991, p. 528) argue that the type of culture may be regarded more important than the strength of the culture in terms of organisational performance.

In the two examples above, the author is cited first APA style followed by the information. When citing the author first, try to vary the reporting verbs, and choose verbs that convey meaning; for example, 'claim' distances the writer from the source; 'argue' indicates that this idea is part of a considered argument developed by the source. See Appendix B for a list of reporting verbs and when to use them. All intext references also need to be recorded in full in a Reference List at the end of the text. See Chapter 10 for details.

Information prominent intext referencing

Note the way the references are used in the following excerpts in which the writer has paraphrased in their own words the information from the references. The information itself is given prominence (by putting it first) in this type of referencing, with the source cited APA style after the information. The writer chooses whether the author or the information is more important and should therefore be presented first.

For example, IKEA uses door-to-door distribution of its catalogue to target particular market segments on the basis of information acquired from credit card data (Gray, 1999).

It also has a web site that strikes a balance between being an advertising/marketing showpiece and one that is functional where customers can view products, take a virtual tour through display rooms and buy online (Mower, 2001).

As a result, IKEA has become extremely well known in Australia, despite its small number of outlets (Lloyd, 2003).

IKEA'S most important means of communicating with its customers, however, is its stores (Marsh, 2002).

All intext references also need to be recorded in full in a Reference List at the end of the text. See Chapter 10 for details.

Academic writing style

Academic writing has various features which make it different from everyday language. Academic writing is:

- formal
- impersonal
- uses selected grammar patterns
- formal signalling and connectors
- formal cohesion techniques

Writing style is developed over time with practice. If you are new to academic writing style, factor time into your schedule to learn. Find, highlight and learn language patterns and expressions used widely in academic sources in your field and gradually improve your own writing by incorporating such language patterns. As with all skills, it is better to begin improving your writing in your first year rather than still being a beginner later. Ensure you allow several weeks for drafting assignments so that you can focus on making your ideas clear through careful attention to grammar and vocabulary and to mechanics such as spelling and punctuation. Visit the online resources via the library home page at <http://lib.monash.edu/> or contact a learning skills adviser for advice.

Formal academic language

The writing style (or register) in university studies is formal, rather than informal. While you may use colloquial or idiomatic expressions in your casual speech, this is not appropriate in assignment writing. You need to use precise, formal vocabulary at all times. Have a good dictionary and thesaurus available whenever you are writing. Learn to use them effectively. Do not rely exclusively on the synonyms option available with your word processor, as it is designed for everyday English, not academic English.

Study the examples below of informal and formal register

Figure 7: Informal and formal register

Informal	Formal
Around you, you can see lots of kinds of communication of businesses, eg., ads <i>on TV</i> , internet, newspapers, radio, catalogues and <i>promos</i> in shops.	<i>There are various modes of communication that an organisation can utilise; for example, advertising through television, internet, newspapers, magazines, radio, catalogues and promotion in stores themselves.</i>
The organisational culture would have to be <i>the top bit</i> of the internal environment of an organisation.	One of the most essential parts of the internal environment of an organisation is the organisational culture.
<i>Precise terms should be used. This vocabulary is too informal and too vague.</i>	

Impersonal style

The tone of your writing should be objective. This means that you rarely use first person pronouns, such as "I" and "we".

For instance:

Figure 8: Personalised and objective expression

Personalised expression	Objective expression
<i>I found that there were several views in the literature on the topic.</i> <i>I think that ...</i>	<i>Several views on the topic are postulated in the literature.</i> <i>It seems that ...</i> <i>Evidence suggests that ...</i> <i>The situation appears to be that ...</i>

Academic grammar

Verb tenses

There are conventions regarding which verb tense to use where in academic writing. Although other tenses occur, the three most common tenses in academic writing are present simple, past simple and present perfect. Use verb tenses consistently to ensure smooth flow of expression. Briefly, use **present simple** for:

- referring to a source text (e.g. "Smith (2011) *states* that..."; "Ling (2004) *explores* the nature of..."; "As Northingham and West *suggest*, there is...")
- stating facts (e.g. "The rate of increase *is* significant.")
- implications of results (e.g. "The results *indicate* that...")
- conclusions (e.g. "Further research *is required*")

Use **past simple** for an action or event at a specific, definite time in the past, or when discussing another researcher's work (Literature review) or when reporting your method or results:

- literature review (e.g. "Smith *argued*...")
- reporting methods (e.g. "347 managers *were interviewed*...."; "Smith statistically *modelled* the frequency of...")
- reporting results (e.g. "Levels of productivity *increased*...")
- history (e.g. "In 2005, the Accounting Standards *were altered*.)

Use **present perfect** for an action or event in the past at no specific point; for a past action or event with current consequences; for change; or to indicate importance or controversy:

- a past action or event with current consequences (e.g. "The organisation *has managed* the crisis successfully")
- change (e.g. "Revenue *has increased* substantially")
- emphasising current relevance or continuing debate (e.g. "Godfrey et..al. *have emphasised* that modern financial theory ..."; "Samson *has modified* the concept of ...")

Passive and active sentence constructions

While you should use a combination of active and passive sentence structures in your writing, active constructions are preferred. Note the difference between active and passive sentence structures below:

Figure 9: Passive and active construction

Passive sentence construction	Active sentence construction
The financial process was controlled by the accountant.	The accountant controlled the financial process.

Start the sentence with the more important information. If the important information is who did something put the subject first (e.g. 'the accountant') and use active construction. If the important information is the *idea or event* (e.g. 'the financial process'), put it first and use passive construction. Passive construction focusses on the concept ('The financial process') or event, not who was involved; while active constructions emphasise the agent ('The accountant'). Use passive sentence construction if the subject is not relevant (e.g. in the methods section of a report) or is unknown.

Formal signalling and connectors

An important part of your writing is the use of signalling or sign-posts, and connective words and phrases. Signalling explains briefly to the reader the direction and purpose of pieces of information. For instance, signalling or sign-posting may include statements such as:

- before discussing, it is necessary to define the terms
- following the explanation above of the nature of and its effects on ... , discussion can now focus on ...

Connective words and phrases can help your reader to understand the thinking that underpins your writing. For instance:

- then, next, after, while, since (time connectors)
- therefore, consequently, as a result (cause/effect connectors)
- in addition, moreover, furthermore, similarly (connectors adding ideas)
- but, conversely, nevertheless, however, although (connectors contrasting ideas)

Look at academic articles and books to find examples of connectors, and try to use them in your own writing.

Cohesion

There are various techniques for ensuring your writing is cohesive, or well connected, for example:

- repetition of key words
- use of substitutes such as synonyms, pronouns, summary phrases
- punctuation

Example: repetition of key words

Passive and active sentence constructions

While you should use a combination of active and passive sentence structures in your writing, do not overuse the passive construction. It can lead to blandness in your writing. A majority of active constructions in a text is preferred. Note the difference between active and passive sentence structures below:

Example: use of substitutes and alternative expressions

Target Markets, Positioning, and Segmentation

Not everyone likes the same cereal, restaurant, college, or movie. Therefore, **marketers** start by dividing the market into segments. **They** identify and profile distinct groups of buyers who might prefer or require varying product and service mixes by examining demographic, psychographic, and behavioural differences among buyers.

After identifying market segments, **the marketer** decides which present the greatest opportunities- which are its target markets. For each, *the firm* develops a market offering that it positions in the minds of the target buyers as delivering some central benefit(s).

Source: Kotler & Keller (2011) p.32.

Figure 10: Common errors to avoid

	avoid	do
avoid contractions	won't; can't; didn't; haven't Export figures <i>won't</i> improve until the economy is stronger.	will not; cannot; did not; have not Export figures <i>will not</i> improve until the economy is stronger.
avoid informal negatives	not...any The analysis <i>didn't</i> yield any... 2. not...much The government <i>didn't</i> allocate <i>much</i> finding to the program. 3. not ...many This problem <i>doesn't</i> have <i>many</i> viable solutions.	1. no The analysis yielded <i>no</i> new results. 2. little The government allocated <i>little</i> funding to the program. 3. few This problem has <i>few</i> viable solutions.
avoid multi-word verbs; choose formal verbs	This method will <i>sort out</i> the problems. We need to <i>break down</i> the problem into smaller parts.	This method will <i>solve</i> the problems. We need to <i>analyse</i> the problem.
avoid run-on expressions	'etc'; 'and so on'; 'and so forth' These microchips can be used in robots, CD players, etc.	These microchips can be used in robots, CD players <i>and other electronic devices</i> .
avoid 'you':	You can see the results in Table 2.	The results <i>can be seen</i> in Table 2.
avoid direct questions	What can be done to lower costs?	It is necessary to consider ways to lower costs.
avoid placing adverbs in the wrong position	<i>Actually</i> , very little is known about... This model was developed by Smith <i>originally</i> .	<i>place the adverb within the verb</i> Very little <i>actually</i> is known about... This model was <i>originally</i> developed by Smith.

Editing and proofreading

It is important to understand that writing is a process. Once you have completed a rough draft, you need to check that your ideas are clearly expressed, and that your writing is grammatically accurate. You can check this by having someone read over your piece of work pointing out areas and sentences where your ideas are unclear. You can also read it aloud, and when you are listening to it you can often pick up mistakes, such as incomplete sentences.

Ensure you correct errors in your final draft, that your Word dictionary is set to English (Australia), and that you spell check the final document. However, be aware that computer spelling and grammar checkers are limited because they are designed for basic, not academic, use. If you rely exclusively on computer checkers you will only produce basic, not academic, writing. It is your responsibility to correct all errors; a truly professional document has zero errors. Allow a break of several days so that you see your work more objectively and then spend two or three days editing and proofreading in detail. In particular, this means:

Figure 11: Editing & proofreading

Edit	Check the details
Argument	Your position is clearly stated; reasons for position are given; logical organisation of reasons; convincing evidence
Logical development	One major reason per paragraph; logical pattern or organisation (order of significance, cause-effect; positive-negative; etc)
Structure	<i>Introduction</i> (background, scope, rationale, definitions, position) <i>Body</i> (separate paragraph for each main idea; every paragraph has a topic sentence; supporting sentences relevant to topic sentence, specific evidence e.g. statistic, study, quote, example, evidence is academically acceptable, all sources referenced) <i>Conclusion</i> (relevant to the position; draws argument together effectively; significance or implications of argument)
Proofread	Check the details
Academic style	formal; impersonal style; signals & linking; qualifying & boosting; formal vocabulary; cohesion and connections within and between sentences; substitution (synonyms, reference words, transition signals); quoting; paraphrasing
Grammar	sentence types; no fragments; correct nouns and articles; correct subject verb agreement; correct collocation; verb tenses; word form
Spelling	read backwards word by word to isolate spelling
Punctuation	commas; apostrophes; semicolons; full stops; spacing
Referencing	capitalis; italics; punctuation; spacing
Presentation	margins; body and block text; font; line spacing; title page; consistent headings; graphics and captions; word count (see Appendix C)

Checklist for academic writing skills

- respond to the assignment question/task. Analyse the task so that your response is relevant, effective and creative
- read and synthesise views on the topic so that you develop your own position
- ensure that the reasons for your position are clearly stated in topic sentences for paragraphs. Use data/evidence from the literature to support your reasons
- limit a sentence to a single idea. Use simple sentences for strong claims; compound sentences for ideas of equal value (e.g. adding ideas, sequencing ideas, contrasting ideas); and complex sentences to create a hierarchy with one part of the more important than its supporting parts
- ensure that pronouns are clear
- be aware that different settings have different expectations for written and oral communication. Learn to identify and respond appropriately according to the setting.
- different disciplines in Business and Economics have different preferences for written communication (e.g. essay style, report style, case study style). Learn to identify and respond appropriately
- the writing skills you learn and refine during your degree will be transferrable after graduation

References

- Brick, J. (2006). *Academic culture*. Sydney, Australia: NCELTR.
 Kotler, P. & Keller, K.L. (2011). *Marketing management* (14th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Writing essays

Although the information contained in this chapter is generally accepted practice, you are advised to consult with your tutors and/or Unit Guide regarding any specific expectations for your work.

You will be required to write essays in many of your units. The primary purpose of an academic essay is to present the perspective you have formed from your research or analysis on the issue or topic. Academic writers state their point of view, perspective, or *position*, on a topic and provide evidence to support that position. This needs to be presented as a series of logically linked reasons.

Figure 12: Structure and argument

Structure	elements of structure and argument	argument
Introduction	Introduce the topic <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Background/context■ Rationale■ Scope■ Key terms■ Outline of essay■ Statement of position	Your position
Body	Paragraph 1 Reason 1 [your voice] = Topic Sentence Supporting evidence 1 (reference) +comment [your voice] Supporting evidence 2 (reference) +comment [your voice] Supporting evidence 3 (reference) +comment [your voice] Your evaluation [your voice] Optional transition sentence to next paragraph Paragraph 2 Reason 2 [your voice] = Topic Sentence Supporting evidence (reference) +comment [your voice] Supporting evidence (reference) +comment [your voice] Your evaluation [your voice] Optional transition sentence to next paragraph Repeat as necessary	Your argument (the reasons for your position <i>plus</i> the supporting evidence for each reason <i>plus</i> comments on the evidence)
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Statement of position reformulated in light of findings■ Significance/consequences/impact	Your position

A good statement of position in an essay needs to have certain characteristics. It needs to:

- demonstrate a clear position
- recognise the complexity of the issue or topic under investigation and therefore be 'grey', rather than 'black or white'
- be possible to support

Essay structure

There are two aspects to essay structure. One is the position or argument running through the essay; the other is the structure into introduction, body and conclusion. Each section has a different role.

Introduction

The introduction has two roles:

1. address the circumstances requiring the essay
2. state the position In addressing the circumstances, an introduction offers some or all of the following elements:
 - information about the specific situation (this may require separate paragraph/s)
 - a rationale, or reason why writing about this issue is important
 - research questions where relevant
 - limits to the scope (which time or place or group?)
 - analysis of key terms and the theories about them (this may require separate paragraph/s)
 - a brief outline of the essay to follow

The writer includes the elements as relevant and in a logical order suiting the essay. The most important element of an introduction, and the only element which is not optional, is the statement of your position in response to the assignment question. The rest of the essay supports your position. Your position statement should be presented in a concise manner, preferably in a single sentence, with no explanation or supporting detail – that is the job of the body of the essay.

Body

The body of an essay is the most important part because it presents the perspective, developed logically through as many paragraphs as necessary, as in Figure 12 above. It comprises the majority of your essay.

Each paragraph contains a topic sentence stating one of the reasons for your position; *supporting sentences* containing evidence and comments on the evidence; and a *concluding sentence* containing evaluation of the material and findings presented in the paragraph. Each paragraph should follow the previous in a logical development of the argument and may also require a *transition* sentence guiding the reader from one paragraph to the next.

Conclusion

The conclusion, like the introduction, has two main roles:

1. to bring the argument to a convincing close and to reword (not repeat) your position
2. to consider the significance of the findings in the essay; for example (choose relevant items from the list below to suit your essay)
 - a. the importance of your findings regarding the issue itself
 - b. the importance of your findings for research in the field
 - c. brief recommendations
 - d. the consequences of implementing or not implementing your recommendations
 - e. any limitations of your research
 - f. suggested future directions

The conclusion should not introduce any new material, but reflect on what has already been written. A final comment might refer back to the beginning of essay, or state the most significant consequence, or make a recommendation (for example, for further research).

As with all assignments there are a various stages to work through to produce an essay:

- task analysis
- collecting sources
- reading, synthesising notes and planning your argument
- drafting and redrafting
- editing and proofreading

Each stage requires considerable time. It is wise to begin each assignment 5 to 6 weeks before the submission date.

Task analysis

The most important point is that you analyse your task in detail, so that you understand clearly what you are required to do. You need to identify all the demands of the task. Make sure you know which genre (type of writing) is required; for example, an essay. Also ensure you identify the actual question, especially if it is embedded in a series of sentences or instructions.

Identifying the key words and direction words in an assignment task is crucial because you are expected to independently research and address the relationships and subtleties of the topic. Key words, or important words, are never simple and a general dictionary no longer has enough detail; key words therefore indicate areas of research you need to carry out regarding concepts and theories about those concepts.

Direction words like “discuss”, “compare and contrast”, “explain” and so on tell you what to do about the key concepts; for example, present an argument regarding the relevance of a particular theory to a particular situation. See Appendix A for explanations of common instruction words. If you are not sure how to do a task analysis, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your tutor or a learning skills advisor for advice; task analysis is a required skill which you will need throughout your studies.

Collecting sources

When you are clear about what the task requires, you then need to find relevant information from the literature. You will use your critical thinking skills when you decide which publications, and which sections of these, are both relevant to your task and academically acceptable. You will need to search databases of current information and debates about your topic. If you are not sure how to conduct effective searches for academic literature, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your subject librarian or register for a class through the library class booking system. Go to the Monash library website <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/endnote/> for more details. Classes can be booked on-line through your *my.monash* portal. Searching for and evaluating sources is a required skill which you will need throughout your studies.

Read and synthesise your information

Once you have identified the acceptable sources - or parts of sources - which are relevant to your task, begin to read carefully and to build a set of notes. You will need to read important material several times. The notes you take as you read should be in skeleton form; that is, use symbols, abbreviations, key words, diagrams and short phrases as much as possible but do not copy from the original sources. Use your own words to record information and to make your own comments on the information as you go. Your notes and comments are your interpretation of what you read. Simply highlighting parts of source texts is not suitable. Taking notes from sources and writing an essay *from your argument plan* (see below) *and your notes* will ensure that your voice is strong and that you do not plagiarise other authors' ideas.

Record the sources of information

It is also important to record all your sources when taking notes. Start a new document and keep an alphabetical list of all the sources *as you use them*. This includes sources such as video, sound, pictures or photos, blogs or podcasts, lectures or tutorials – any source of information; no matter what form it is in. Record the full publication details APA style: see Chapter 10 about referencing. This document can later be edited and included as your Reference List for the assignment. Alternatively, learn to use software such as *Endnote*. The software will assist you to prepare an accurate and complete reference list. Monash students can download *Endnote* software

from Monash library and the library also offers *Endnote* classes throughout the year. Go to the Monash library website <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/endnote/> for more details. Classes can be booked on-line through your *my.monash* portal.

Remember to record the author and page number beside every note you take. This becomes really important as you add ideas or data from different sources to your notes. Synthesising your notes from different sources requires combining and grouping notes about particular ideas or data and commenting on how sources agree or otherwise and why. You should try to develop your own viewpoint in each of these mini-debates – do you agree with a particular source and *why*? Or would you combine aspects from various sources and *why*? Or do you have an entirely different opinion, and *why*? Make sure your notes are clear for later use, as you should use them along with your outline, to write your draft. If you are not sure how to build a synthesised set of notes, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your tutor or learning skills advisor for advice as this is a skill which you will need throughout your university studies

Plan your argument

At the same time as reading, interpreting and synthesising the information, plan your **argument**, so that you are presenting your position in response to the assignment task and explaining it clearly, logically and convincingly in the essay. Formulate a single, clear, succinct position statement.

In note form, gradually build a set of reasons for your thesis, each with its own supporting evidence. You might like to map out your claims on a large sheet of paper or in an electronic document, adding new points as you read. You might prefer to record each claim plus its supporting evidence on a separate piece of paper and arrange these in order later. When completed, decide on the order you will present the claims; for example, order of significance (most important to least important or the opposite), similarities and differences, positives and negatives, cause and effect, or other appropriate organisation.

Reading, synthesising your notes and building an outline all happen together over time and take a substantial amount of the time needed for the assignment process. Make sure you factor enough time for the size of your assignment into your schedule- work back from the submission date and begin your assignment early allowing two or three weeks for this stage so that material is comprehensively covered. If you are not sure how to build an argument, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your tutor or a learning skills advisor; this is a skill which you will need throughout your university studies.

Drafting and redrafting

Your first draft should be written *from your notes and the plan of your argument*. You should avoid using your original sources while writing your first draft; check details *after* you have completed your first draft in your own words using your notes and outline. An essay must represent the “writer’s voice”. This occurs through the writer developing their own response to the task, using evidence from the literature to support the writer’s clearly expressed argument.

The first draft is the most difficult, but is rarely good enough for submission. Once the argument has been written, it is important to work through it carefully at least two more times, to improve the draft. Most professional writers redraft several times in order to produce a quality text. Make sure you factor enough time for drafting and redrafting your assignment into your schedule – allow two or three weeks for this stage.

Whenever information is used from a source, whether as a direct quote or rewritten as a paraphrase or a summary, the source *must* be referenced APA style. As well as referencing intext correctly in APA style, ensure that you comment on all supporting evidence – do not just include evidence without comment.

In essays for some units such as some Management and Economics units, it is suitable to use headings, in a similar way to the headings in a report. *It is always necessary to ask your lecturer or tutor if headings can be used.* If so, the headings must relate to and express succinctly the nature of the information that follows. If headings cannot be used, the links throughout the essay will need to be expressed in sentences.

Evidence

The evidence you collect from your sources may be in the form of data, examples, findings from a study, a direct quote from an expert in the field, a case study, an explanation, a definition, a claim from an expert in the field. Evidence should be:

- *relevant* to the reason you give in your topic sentence
- *specific*, that is, it is particular data or details. Avoid general statements
- *sufficient* – ensure that you have enough evidence to support every claim that you make within a paragraph
- *academically acceptable* – make sure you have evaluated the authority of the source before using it, and that the evidence is current, valid, and reliable. If the evidence is from a peer reviewed article or academic book then you can accept that it has been checked before publication

Editing and proofreading

Final editing and proofreading before submission is vital. Once you have redrafted your essay several times, put it away for a few days. This will give you a fresh perspective from which to edit and proofread your work. Edit your essay for argument and logic. Proofread your essay for mechanics.

A common reason for failing an assessment is that students do not answer the set question, so the single most important question to ask is: **have I answered the question?**

Figure 13: Editing and proofreading essays

Editing	Proofreading
Statement of position (clear position, debatable, supportable)	Spelling
Reasons for your position (in topic sentences)	Formal grammar & vocabulary
Logical argument (clear pattern for argument e.g. order of significance)	Punctuation
Evidence (specific, relevant, acceptable, referenced, includes your comments)	Intext referencing and reference list
Coherence (logical pattern for argument, transitions between paragraphs)	Layout and presentation
Cohesion (word chains, connectors showing relationships of ideas to each other within paragraphs)	Word count

Checklist: Does your essay...

- Respond directly to the task?
- Express clearly your own position in response to the task?
- Present your response in a logical and organised manner?
- Convince the reader of the validity of your response through the use of references and data as evidence?
- Highlight your voice?
- Include accurate referencing?
- Demonstrate clear coherence and cohesion?

Writing a literature review

Many assignments require you to review the literature on a particular topic or issue in the process of responding to the major task. For instance, in an essay, report, project or thesis, you review the literature to develop your perspective on a topic or issue. In explaining your perspective, you need to support it with evidence from the literature. Some assignments, however, may purely ask you to present a literature review on a particular topic. This may take the form of a critical review, an annotated bibliography or a literature review. These types of assignment are the focus of this chapter.

Note that this chapter provides guidelines only and you should consult your unit guide and/or tutor with regard to the specific requirements of the literature review you are asked to prepare.

The nature of a literature review

The academic skills that you will develop and use in completing a literature review are important. They prepare you for employment, where you will need to cope with, and negotiate, large amounts of information as the world becomes increasingly globalised and information-rich. For instance, in any workplace where you might access information to inform other staff or to change current protocols, you must exercise skills in critical analysis and sound judgement of the suitability and validity of that information. This ability to critically analyse information and research is also central to the logical and coherent organisation of material in your academic work. Reviewing literature demands the critical evaluation of its contribution to a given topic or field including identification and articulation of its shortcomings, if relevant.

A literature review is based on the understanding that knowledge is not fixed and static. Rather, it evolves as researchers investigate and report on their findings in publications, whether in a book, a chapter in an edited book or a refereed journal article. Material published in these types of publications is seen as authoritative and therefore valid. This particularly applies to refereed journal articles, where the articles have undergone scrutiny from experts in the field before being accepted for publication.

There are two aspects to a review, whether it is an annotated bibliography, critical review or literature review (see Figure 14 below for a comparison):

- to *briefly* describe the contents (what is the text about)
- to evaluate the text (judge the reasoning and the validity of the evidence)

Of these two aspects, evaluation (2 above) is far more important and should account for the majority of your literature review. You need to read and understand the published views in the field of your topic so that you are aware of the state of knowledge; that is, the way knowledge in the field of the topic has developed, the controversies surrounding this knowledge, and the gaps in the knowledge base which require further investigation. The purpose of a literature review may then be summarised as:

- explaining how knowledge has evolved around a particular field or topic
- showing how the topic relates to previous research
- critically evaluating the contribution of the information to this knowledge base
- comparing and contrasting views, and analysing controversies in the knowledge
- identifying gaps in understanding or research which require further investigation

Note: The fifth purpose is a requirement for a research thesis, but for literature reviews prepared for coursework assessment, students are advised to check with their lecturer or tutor.

A good literature review contains the following:

- clear statement of the issue/topic, its importance and its dimensions. You need to find published material that discusses the major aspects of the topic
- clear, explicit and logical organisation of the range of views in the literature
- a detailed critical and comparative evaluation of the views in the literature
- clear identification of the main weakness(es) in the knowledge around the topic
- a logical, succinct summary of the current knowledge with an indication of important areas for future research

Be aware: A mere summary of the literature views, presented one after another in an unconnected way, is NOT suitable.

Procedure for completing a literature review

When completing a literature review the following steps can be followed:

- *analyse* the topic to identify its dimensions
- *brainstorm* the range and types of information you will need in order to fully inform your readers about this topic
- *locate* suitable published material on the topic
- *read, understand and critique* the views presented in the published material. Consider the published views in terms of a matrix, or 'jigsaw puzzle' surrounding the topic, identifying links between themes and findings, similarities and differences, agreements and conflicts
- *organise or classify* the range of views you have collected

There are many patterns of organisation for organising or classifying. You should choose the pattern that best suits your purpose:

- from general to specific
- from earliest to most recent
- on the basis of how the ideas have emerged
- on the basis of how the views conflict with other views
- how the views relate to others
- the usefulness of the views

Writing the literature review

- Introduce the topic, its definitions and the dimensions (also called "scope" or "limits") that will be investigated in the review. Convey to the reader why this issue is topical, relevant or important (i.e. why write about this?)
- Explain to the reader the organisation underpinning the presentation of the literature reviews (for example, the evolution of knowledge over time, the existing fields of knowledge and their understandings of the topic).
- Present the literature reviews according to the organisational system that you have previously outlined for the reader. In so doing, you may wish to use headings and subheadings to assist in structuring the work. Remember, as well as briefly summarising the views, it is more important to explain to the reader your evaluation of their strengths or weaknesses, how they conflict or agree with other views, and so on.
- Consider ways of referencing information. You may wish to use:
 - the *information prominent* method (information first method). For example, The major form of management used in the 1950s was the ... approach (Ling, 1998).
 - the *author prominent* method (author first method), for example: Nguyen (2002) has pointed out the management in the 1950s was mainly ...

(It should be pointed out that the author prominent method is best used when presenting work by well known authorities in this field of research.)

- Consider the range of verbs that can be used in the author prominent approach, and the subtle comment that these make about the nature of the author's contribution (e.g. "has pointed out that ..." leaves room to

argue against, whilst “clearly proved that...” indicates you strongly agree). Other useful verbs include: argue; state; put forward; posit; postulate; assert; suggest; introduce; contribute; further explain. See Appendix B Reporting Verbs for more details.

- Consider the tense of the verb that you use to introduce the published view and its subtle comment on the current validity of the view. For example, “argued” (past simple) implies that the view is no longer as valid as previously; “states” (present simple) suggests that the view is strong and still valid, even if it was published some time ago; “has contended” (present perfect) highlights the controversial status of the position. See Appendix B Reporting Verbs for more information.
- At the end of the review, give a clear summary of the extent of the knowledge to date and identify and state any issues or problems that have arisen from the review, or were not investigated in the published material.

Comparison of annotated bibliography, critical review and literature review

There are some differences between these three types of writing, but each includes a description of the source and a (more important) evaluation of how well the source is organised; the strength or otherwise of its arguments and evidence; and its significance to the field.

Figure 14: Comparison of annotated bibliography, critical review and literature review

	Annotated bibliography	Critical review	Literature review
Coverage	Single source or multiple sources in a list	Single source	Multiple sources
Structure	For each source: Reference + annotation (notes or a short paragraph)	reference + review (paragraph or more)	synthesised reviews + intext referencing + Reference List paragraph or more (article) chapter (book or thesis)
Uses	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ publication (subject bibliography)■ research notes■ student assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ publication (journal)■ student assignment	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ publication (academic journal/book)■ masters/PhD research thesis■ student assignment
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ evaluate strengths and otherwise of source■ assess usefulness of a source for a topic or assignment■ may compare with other source/s	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ evaluate strengths and otherwise of source■ assess usefulness of a source for a topic or assignment■ may compare with other source/s■ assess the significance of its contribution to the field/topic	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ analysis of the current debates in a tiny research area■ focus on relevance to your study by showing gaps or deficiencies in the sources related to your study.■ convince reader that certain research needs to be done■ supports your position amongst those in the sources by showing how your position best addresses a particular gap in knowledge■ written as an argumentative essay

If you need practise writing reviews, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your tutor or a learning skills advisor for advice; this is a required skill which you will need throughout your studies.

Checklist for a literature review

- Make sure you analyse the topic, identify its dimensions or sub-themes and significance, and define these in the introduction.
- As well as briefly summarising the views presented in the pieces of literature, make sure that you critique these. This means juxtaposing them against the others, evaluating their similarities, differences, strengths and weaknesses, contribution to the topic, and so on.
- Make sure that you establish a logical system of organising the range of views, and make this clear to the reader.
- Most importantly, do not merely present the different views on the topic as a list, with no classificatory system or critical, evaluative comments.

Report writing

As the type of report required by your Chief Examiner may vary considerably, you are advised to read carefully the instructions given to you in your unit guide and seek clarification before proceeding. Generally, there are two broad types of report used in the Faculty of Business and Economics: business reports and research reports. After a brief comparison of essays and report, this chapter then focuses on the assignment preparation process; and lastly, compares the features of business reports with research reports.

Reports and essays – a comparison

Eunson (2008, p.60) asserts that one of the major complaints levelled at student reports is that they often read like an essay. There are a number of important distinctions between these two types of writing.

Figure 15: Comparison of reports and essays

Reports	Essays
<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ generally, reports aid decision making and problem solving and are, therefore, more problem and action oriented■ a report is divided into sections, with each major section having a specific job and incorporating headings and subheadings■ reports often include graphics: for example, tables or graphs, charts, diagrams, photographs or maps■ business reports use professional writing style■ research reports may employ more academic writing style	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ generally, essays present a position on a topic and defend that position with an argument■ essays usually consist of an uninterrupted flow of prose■ subheadings <i>may</i> be required (<i>consult your Unit guide/tutor</i>)■ essays seldom contain graphics■ essays employ academic writing style

As with all assignments, there are a number of stages to work through to produce a report: task analysis, research, synthesising notes and planning each section; drafting; editing and proofreading. Each stage requires considerable time. It is wise to begin 5 to 6 weeks before the submission date.

The assignment preparation process

Task analysis

Identify the purpose of the report

You may be asked to prepare a business report to assist in decision-making, to solve a problem, or perhaps to persuade the reader to adopt an idea or a particular approach. Unless you are certain about the purpose of your report, it is unlikely that your conclusions and/or recommendations will be relevant. Often, when preparing a business report, you will be required to analyse a situation, identify problem(s), collect relevant information, and then make recommendations to solve those problems. In a sense, you are suggesting that your definition of the problem is correct and that your findings, discussion and recommendations are appropriate. Therefore, the links between the analysis, identification of a problem or problems, method of collecting information and recommendations must be consistent and clear throughout your report.

A research report will require you to take a position about a theory, approach or an issue and to defend your position using an argument well supported with convincing evidence. Therefore, it is important to clearly identify the purpose as being either a business or a

research report. This can be achieved by writing a one-sentence statement about the problem, issue or question being posed, an activity which requires reflective and analytical thinking. Alternatively, it may be useful to write a concise title which clearly indicates the content and scope of the report.

Identify the readers and their needs

Generally speaking, the reader's knowledge of the subject will influence the type of background information and technical language you use in your report. Try to avoid unnecessary explanations and focus on clearly defined arguments that help the reader understand the nature and development of your argument.

Research the topic

In order to produce a high quality report, it is necessary to use relevant and current information from a variety of sources.

Figure 16: Types of sources

	Example academic sources	Example non-academic sources
Primary sources	data from your own or previous research or studies	information from individuals with first-hand knowledge of the situation
Secondary sources	■ academic books ■ academic journal articles ■ theses ■ conference papers	■ newspaper articles ■ professional journal articles ■ company annual reports ■ speeches

Reading a variety of materials may provide useful insights into the nature of the problem or acquaint you with terminology, theory or methods you had not previously considered. Alternatively, it may refer you to other sources of information and generally assist you in formulating a tentative outline. Even if you are familiar with search techniques, finding resources and selecting the relevant texts and documents may take several days. Do not underestimate the amount of time this part of the process takes, and factor the necessary amount of time into your schedule. If you are not sure how to search for relevant resources, factor time into your schedule to learn. You can contact your librarian or register for a workshop through your *my.monash* portal. Effective searching is a required skill which you will need throughout your studies.

Whilst depth and breadth of reading are highly recommended, for practical purposes you should also be selective in what you read. Ignore outdated and irrelevant materials and always keep in mind the purpose of your report.

It is also important to record all your sources. Start a new document and keep an alphabetical list of all the sources as you use them. Record the full publication details. See Chapter 10 about referencing. Alternatively, learn to use software such as Endnote. Go to the Monash library website <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/endnote/> for more details.

Read and synthesise notes

This is an extremely important stage in the process. Once you have identified the sources – or parts of sources – which are relevant to your task, begin to read carefully and to build a set of notes. You will need to read important material several times. The notes you take as you read should be in skeleton form; that is, use key words, symbols, abbreviations, diagrams and short phrases as much as possible but do not copy from the original sources unless absolutely necessary (for example, if you plan to discuss the exact quote). Use your own words to record information and to make your own comments on the information as you go. Your notes and comments are your interpretation of what you read.

Remember to write the author and page number beside every note. This becomes really important as you add ideas or data from different sources to your notes. Synthesising your notes from different sources requires combining and grouping notes about particular ideas or data; for example, under the subheadings in your report.

Make sure your notes are clear for later use, as you should use them along with your outline (see below), to write your draft. You should avoid using your sources while writing your first draft; check details after you have completed your first draft in your own words from your own notes and outline of your major headings and subheadings (business report) or outline of your argument (research report). If you are not sure how to build a synthesised set of notes, factor time into your schedule to learn. Contact your learning skills advisor as this is a skill which you will need throughout your university studies.

Planning the report

At the same time as reading, interpreting and synthesising the information, build a plan or outline. This is done by establishing a framework, or structure, for your writing.

Figure 17: Planning a report

Business report	Research report
<i>Plan based on your major headings and subheadings</i>	<i>Plan based on your position, reasons for your position and supporting evidence</i>
identify the purpose of your report and your main findings	identify the purpose of your report and your position
experiment with four or five major headings as signposts for the parts of your report	experiment with four or five major reasons for your position (this series of reasons becomes your argument)
within these major sections group the facts, explanations and reasoning that will lead to your conclusions and recommendations	group related evidence according to the reasons
arrange these headings into a logical sequence	arrange these reasons into a logical sequence.
each section heading should clearly indicate its content, should promote reader comprehension and be as brief as possible	clearly state each reason as a topic sentence for a paragraph
the planning process usually requires a number of revisions	the planning process usually requires a number of revisions

Summary: reading, synthesising your notes and planning

Reading, synthesising your notes and planning should take place over a considerable amount of time. Make sure you factor in your schedule enough time for the size of your assignment. Work back from the submission date and begin your assignment early. So that material is comprehensively covered, allow two or three weeks for this stage of reading, synthesising your notes and planning. If you are not sure how to do any of these tasks, contact your tutor or a learning skills advisor; these are skills which you will need throughout your university studies.

Write the draft

When you have completed your research and planned the report, the next step is to prepare the first draft. At this stage, it is imperative that you structure the report in such a way as to clearly address the aim of the report. Try to focus on the key ideas you are presenting, the evidence to support them and their logical flow.

Try to form your own line of argument based on your research and your position (research report) or main findings (business report) in response to the task. For every paragraph, write a topic sentence which encapsulates your main idea or reason, then elaborate in supporting sentences with supporting evidence. This means that you are expressing the ideas in your own words and explaining how ideas from elsewhere support your argument. If you find a quotation in your reading that makes a strong contribution to your writing, quote it, and ensure that you reference the source and page number of the quotation. Avoid over-quoting as the reader will soon lose sense of your argument. It is a convention of academic writing that direct quotes (copied exactly) occupy less than ten per cent of the total word count.

Ensure that the information flows logically and that you have guided the reader's understanding by adding linking expressions. In other words, you need to explain your line of thought for the reader, highlighting the relevance and importance of the arguments which lead to the conclusion and/or recommendations (business report) or position (research report).

An important consideration in this drafting stage is impartiality. As a researcher and writer, you need to express your ideas in an objective manner. It is appropriate practice to write the report in third person, past tense, passive voice. For example, instead of 'We did this study...' write 'The purpose of this study was to...'. Also remember to write clearly and concisely without contractions such as 'don't' or 'shouldn't', and avoid using slang. Use formal vocabulary, not everyday vocabulary. Pay attention to the language patterns in your academic reading and use those patterns. This does require effort initially, but you will become a more accomplished writer much more rapidly. If you are not sure about acceptable writing styles, contact your tutor or a learning skills advisor; professional and academic writing styles are required skills which you must develop throughout your university studies.

Edit the draft

Once you have completed a rough draft, you need to check that your ideas are clearly expressed and that your writing makes sense. Allow two or more weeks for drafting and re-drafting to produce your best work. If possible, you should leave the report for several days before editing. Edit your report for consistent argument, convincing evidence and logical development from point to point. Ensure there is clear linking between sections and between ideas. Proofread your report for grammar, spelling, typographical errors, referencing and presentation. Experienced writers prepare several drafts, reading through, correcting and refining ideas and expression with each one. Due to the complex nature of academic writing, it is not normally possible to write a single quality draft - redrafting several times is common.

The finished product

Making your report as comprehensive and professional as possible plays an important role in communicating your ideas to your reader. There are various ways of enhancing the visual appeal of your report. You can also enlarge the font for a title page or reduce it for notations. Use bullet points, italics or boldface for emphasis, but use them consistently throughout the report. Format the report so that it is visually pleasing. Leave plenty of white space in the side margins (particularly the left), and at the top and bottom of each page. In relation to illustrations, tables or graphs make sure you have consulted with your tutor to determine whether these should be included in the body of the report or in the appendices. Make certain that they have been adequately explained in the body of the report. Do not incorporate them unless they are relevant to the point you are making.

Business report and research report presentation and layout

The following section relates to report presentation and layout. These guidelines are not prescriptive, so it is important that you consult the Unit Guide and/or the tutor before proceeding.

Figure 18: Comparison of major sections of business reports and research reports

Business reports	Research reports
Preliminaries Transmittal document (This is a separate document attached to the front of the report. <i>Do not include it unless specifically requested to do so. Please check your Unit Guide.</i>) Title page (see Appendix C for formatting) Table of contents (use automatic function on your word processor) List of figures (use automatic function on your word processor) List of tables or illustrations (use automatic function on your word processor) Executive summary (formatting as for body text – see below)	Preliminaries Transmittal document (This is a separate document attached to the front of the report. <i>Do not include it unless specifically requested to do so. Please check your Unit Guide.</i>) Title page (see Appendix C for formatting) Table of contents (use automatic function on your word processor) List of figures (use automatic function on your word processor) List of tables or illustrations (use automatic function on your word processor) (<i>only if explicitly required – consult your unit guide/tutor</i>) Abstract (see Appendix C for formatting) (<i>an Executive Summary may be preferred – consult your unit guide/tutor</i>)
Introduction Purpose Rationale Problem Scope Background theory/approach Outline	Introduction Position Scope Rationale Research question/s Background Literature review (theory and previous studies) Outline
Body Method/Methodology Results/Findings/Discussion	Body This section is further divided into as many sections as necessary to suit the purpose Subheadings may be used (<i>consult your unit guide/tutor</i>)
Conclusions Conclusions Recommendations	Conclusions Conclusions
Supplementaries Appendices Bibliography/Reference list	Supplementaries Appendices Bibliography/Reference list
Formatting APA style For all text <i>except title and within figures</i> : Font = Times New Roman 12pt; Double line spacing Standard margins; Typing is <i>left justified</i> only (ragged right); <i>Indent</i> first line of every paragraph Begin each new paragraph on the next line (do not leave a blank line between paragraphs); Arabic numerals for page numbers For headings APA style (see Appendix C) Consult your tutor regarding specific requirements, e.g. regarding numbering headings	Formatting: As for business report

Preliminaries

It is the job of the preliminary sections of a business report or a research report to provide administrative material before the report itself.

Transmittal document

A business report often includes a covering letter or email to the person who requested it. Essentially, the writer is saying, “Please find attached the report you requested” or “Please find attached the report you requested on...” The writer may also provide a brief summary of the report or alternatively, the writer may mention items of special interest and acknowledge those who may have contributed to the report. *This is optional and you are only required to submit this on request.*

Title page

Unless otherwise stated the title page of your business report should include the following details APA style:

- occupies a separate page
- number the page 1
- title of the business report is no more than 12 words, centred, on the upper half of the page, with a capital letter for each word. Title font = Times New Roman, choose appropriate font size
- include other details (e.g. course code, lecturer) as required on lower half of page
 - your name and student number
 - due date for the assignment
 - name of the tutor or lecturer for whom the report was written
 - the name of the unit (including the unit code)

Table of contents

This page is used to outline the sections and sub-sections of the report. It reveals the organisation of the report showing the headings and sub-headings and their corresponding page numbers. The table of contents can be inserted into a word document automatically, and should be updated before submission. Use the help information in your word processor to learn how to do this, or check with a learning skills advisor.

List of tables and figures

When there are six or more figures (a figure is any table, chart, photograph, drawing, diagram, illustration or other non-text depiction), these are often listed on a separate page with their corresponding page numbers in the text. If only a few exist, then they are included in the table of contents page. These can also be inserted into a word document automatically, and should be updated before submission. Use the help information in your word processor to learn how to do this, or check with a learning skills advisor.

Executive summary/abstract

Figure 19: Comparison of executive summary and abstract

Business report	Research report
<p>Executive Summary</p> <p>Business reports usually contain an “executive summary”. It was originally designed for busy executives who did not have time to read the entire report. It contains no quotations and is no more than one page in length. The executive summary is placed at the beginning of the report, after the table of contents, but before the introduction. It is given a <i>Roman numeral</i> rather than an Arabic page number.</p> <p>The executive summary should include one or two sentences about each of the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ the purpose of the business report■ background to the report (e.g company information)■ sources of information■ main findings■ conclusions and recommendations	<p>Abstract</p> <p>The abstract is a brief paragraph of about 150–200 words providing a sentence about each of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ the background■ the problem, issue or research question■ the scope and methodology■ an outline of the paper■ the position <p>The position is the most important element, and the other elements are included where relevant and in a suitable order. The abstract is a series of statements without supporting detail.</p>

Introduction of the report

The job of the introduction is to describe the circumstances requiring investigation. You will need to discuss the background or situation, identify and describe the specific problem or problems and relate this case to the associated theory or research done by others.

Figure 20: Comparison of Introduction in business report and research report

Business report	Research report
<p>Introduction</p> <p>The introduction of a business report usually covers some or all of the following points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ purpose or objective of writing the report■ define the problem carefully■ background information (for example a brief history of the organisation, context of topic or problem)■ associated theory■ definition of key terms where necessary■ scope, that is, the size or extent of study, amount of data collected, time frames, focus of data collection or discussion (for example, a department or whole organisation)■ assumptions and limitations, (for example, given the above material, any assumptions that were made and any limitations placed on the material included in the report)■ outline, (for example, the structure adopted for the report). This briefly overviews the argument and the framework or logical structure that the reader should expect to read in the rest of the report	<p>Introduction</p> <p>The introduction of a research report usually covers some or all of the following points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ an analysis of the background or issue, for example the history, status or significance of the issue, including an explanation of why it is an important issue■ a critical evaluation of the key literature already published about this issue■ explanation of and justification for the research question/s and position■ a statement of scope where relevant; that is, any limits on the time, place, group or part of the issue being studied■ statement of position or main findings■ a brief outline of the main parts of the paper to follow <p>The introduction and literature review may be combined or separated as appropriate. A lengthy literature review will require its own section of one or more paragraphs, but this usually applies only in major reports or if the literature review is the purpose of the research report.</p>

Body of the report

It is the job of the body to present the particular research or investigation you have undertaken to analyse a situation, identify problem(s), investigate, then make recommendations to solve those problems. This differs from the Introduction in that it is your study, not studies by other researchers, which is the focus.

The organisation of the main body of the business report or research report will vary considerably according to factors such as the type of problem posed, nature of the topic and the length of the report. However, as a general rule, the findings are divided into logical sections and sub-sections with appropriate headings and sub-headings.

Method/methodology

In some reports, the method may be set out in a separate section prior to the body of the report so it is important that you consult the Unit Guide and/or the tutor before proceeding.

This section discusses the chosen method in detail and justifies the chosen method. It is important to demonstrate that your method is reliable and verifiable. The purpose of this section is to describe precisely the method with enough detail so someone else could repeat the study.

Figure 21: Comparison of method section in business report and research report

Business report	Research report
<p>Method</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ describe the kind of data used (for example, participants, procedures) ■ describe what was done to collect information e.g. case studies; surveys; observations; tests. In other words, how was this study done? ■ justify why this method is being used <u>to understand and/or solve the problem</u>. Why this particular way? Why is the chosen method preferable to other method/s? ■ if relevant, add any extra information or observations, such as changes to the method generated via the results of a pilot run ■ use subheadings if necessary ■ use the past tense since you are describing what was done; and, as the focus in this section is on what was done rather than who did it, the passive voice is used to foreground the action, rather than the doer of the action 	<p>Introduction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ describe the kind of data used (for example, what type of material was referred to; which theories or approaches are used) ■ describe what was done to collect information e.g. select sources and collate them in a literature review; case studies; surveys; observations; tests ■ justify why this method is being used to achieve the purpose of the report ■ use the past tense since you are describing what was done; and, as the focus in this section is on what was done rather than who did it, the passive voice is used to foreground the action, rather than the doer of the action

Results/findings

This is a significant part of the body of your business report or research report. This section should state the basic facts you found supported by illustration (if relevant) such as examples, charts, or diagrams. In other words, what did you find out?

Figure 22: Results/findings

Business report	Research report
<p>Results/findings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ readers must have an opportunity to examine the findings ■ Hay emphasises that this section describes but does not explain your results; it provides the reader with a factual account of your findings (2006, p.42) ■ it is conventional to clarify the information by focussing on the most important data, trends or relationships 	<p>Results/findings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ as for business reports

Tables and figures

The results of a study may be illustrated by tables, graphs, charts, diagrams, maps, sketches, photographs etc which present information visually and can help explain complex information or data. These are referred to collectively as ‘figures’. See the APA Publication manual (6th ed.) Chapter 5 for details on formatting different types of figures.

Figure 23: Tables and figures

Business report	Research report
<p>Tables and figures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ number each figure consecutively and ensure each figure has a title ■ figures should be included only if relevant ■ each figure must be discussed in the body text 	<p>Tables and figures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ if figures are relevant, as for business reports

Discussion/conclusions

This is the most important part of the business report or research report. The same set of facts may be interpreted in different ways, so after providing an objective account of the facts in the Results/Findings section, it is necessary discuss and interpret the results, pointing out their significance and showing how they relate to the theory and/or other studies. In other words, what do your findings mean?

In some reports, the results and conclusions are combined. Please consult your Unit Guide and/or tutor before proceeding.

Figure 24: Comparison of discussions/conclusions in business report and research reports

Business report	Research report
<p>Discussion/conclusions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ conclusions are logical deductions drawn from the findings in the previous section■ conclusions must be drawn directly from the results and must not introduce any new material■ emphasise any theoretical or practical consequences of the results■ conclusions should not "gloss over conclusions that are puzzling, unpleasant, incomplete or don't seem to fit into your scheme" (Weaver & Weaver, 1977, p. 98)■ if any questions or issues remain unresolved, mention them in the conclusion■ if relevant, you may also indicate possible future research based on your results■ conclusions may be presented in order of importance; or in the same order as the body section was organised; or as separate positive and negative conclusions	<p>Discussion/conclusions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ begin with a clear statement stating whether the results support or do not support your research question/s■ if the results do not support your research question/s, offer an explanation■ compare your results to other studies■ relate your results to theory■ restate your position in alternative words■ acknowledge the limitations of your research and suggest future directions if relevant■ comment on the importance of your findings to the theory, and/or to practice, and/or to the research field

Recommendations

Having analysed a situation, identified problem(s), and collected information, you then make recommendations to solve those problems. In other words, what specific, concrete actions should be undertaken to solve the problem/s?

Figure 25: Recommendations

Business report	Research report
<p>Recommendations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ recommendations must be drawn directly from the results■ recommendations comprise the suggested course of action to be taken to solve a particular problem or problems■ recommendations are written as imperative statements without justification■ recommendations are expressed in clear, specific language. They should be expressed in order of importance.	<p>Recommendations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ if recommendations are relevant, they are usually part of the conclusions.

As the report itself is now completed, it is the job of this section to provide extra relevant material to assist readers.

Reference list

The reference list should give information about all sources cited in the report. It is customary to arrange the reference list in alphabetical order according to author. Full publication details APA style must be included (See Chapter 10). For formatting of References see Appendix C.

Appendices

This is the final section of a report, and is located after the Reference List. Include in an appendix any relevant supporting evidence, such as lengthy tabulated data or original questionnaires or tests, which is not possible to incorporate in the main body of the business report. For formatting of Appendices see Appendix C.

References

- American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
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Case study analysis

The use of case studies is widely accepted as a means to assess your ability to apply theoretical concepts to realistic, practical situations which you may encounter in the workplace. A written case study outlining a real or realistic situation is an excellent means by which your lecturer can assess your understanding of concepts, analytical skills, and problem solving abilities in preparation for the ‘real’ world.

The approaches presented below provide general guidelines for case analysis. Consult your unit guide or tutor regarding the specifics of the case you are to analyse for assessment purposes.

Types of case analyses

When reading and studying a case, it is possible to take two different approaches:

1. The “analytical approach”

This method requires you to analyse the case to try to determine exactly what has happened, understand the problems which existed in the case, and explain the reasons why events unfolded the way they did. You do not need to develop solutions to improve the situation, and you simply explain the “what and why”.

2. The “problem-oriented approach”

Using this method you must identify the major problems which existed in the case, what caused these problems, understand why the events occurred the way they did, suggest possible solutions to improve the situation, and finally, recommend the best solution for implementation. In a sense, you are now determining the “what, why and how”.

As with many tasks in business situations, there is no ‘one best way’ to analyse or write up a case report. Everyone develops their own methods of sorting and sifting through the information and presenting their findings. Similarly, lecturers have a variety of ways of designing a case study assignment. Some lecturers choose to present a case and ask for an in-depth case analysis. Some may present the case followed by a series of questions related to it, whilst others may present the case and ask you to identify and resolve the problems in a formally structured case report.

This chapter will provide in-depth information about case analysis to facilitate the “analytical approach”, and outline the further steps involved to complete your case study assignment using the “problem-oriented method”. Keep in mind also, that the format required within a unit may vary from what is proposed in this chapter. It is up to you to confirm with your lecturer or tutor which approach is required, and the appropriate format to use for your assignment.

In a case study, *it is crucial that you integrate relevant theory from your unit of study with evidence from the case*. Failure to attempt to integrate theory will lead to severe mark reduction or failure. As with all your assignments, *referencing of all non-original material is essential* to uphold academic integrity, to avoid penalty, and abide by Monash University’s Plagiarism policy.

Analytical approach case study

1. First, skim-read the case to get a general overview of the situation.
2. Carefully read the assignment task and any questions associated with the case. Identify key words and concepts which will help to guide your analysis and response. Pay particular attention to instruction verbs and make sure you understand exactly what you are being asked to do (see Appendix A on Instruction words for more information).
3. Read closely and make clear notes on the case including: the organisation(s) or stakeholders involved, key terms, conflicts or issues, strategies which were implemented (if any), sequence of events, outcomes and so on.
4. Use the key words identified from the assessment task and the case to locate the relevant sections of your prescribed text and any additional readings containing theory or background information, to help you understand the case and identify problems. You may also use these key words as search terms to find additional literature.
5. Read and make notes in your own words on the theoretical aspects involved in the case. Make sure you record the bibliographical details of the sources you read for easy reference when responding to the case.
6. Re-read the case again, with your greater knowledge of the theory. To analyse the case and identify its problems and their potential causes, you need to question the information presented to you. Here are some examples:
 - What is the organisational environment or structure? Are there any inherent problems with this environment or structure?
 - Who is the decision maker? Is this the appropriate person or group who should be making the decisions?
 - What were the financial constraints of this organisation? What difficulties could arise from such constraints? Are these difficulties relevant to the problems arising in this case?
 - What strategies were implemented here? Was this based upon any particular theory or concept? What problems were caused as a result of this action?
 - It is important to realise that every case is different, and it is likely that the above questions will not be relevant to the case you are analysing. You must determine your own unique set of questions to analyse each individual case.

Problem solving case study

If you have been asked to prepare a full case report, then it is likely that you are expected to apply the "problem solving approach" to the case analysis. Regardless, you should still work through the case analysis steps outlined above. Once you have analysed the case and identified the key problem(s), you need to prepare a report which also identifies *potential solutions* to the problem(s), then *recommend a solution* which achieves the most favourable outcome, and *justify your decision*.

Following is an outline of the typical structure of a case report, and the components of each section.

1. Title page

2. Table of contents

3. Executive summary

This section should comprise a brief overview of the case, giving a brief background and noting any important assumptions made. (You will not have all the information you would like – so you may need to make some assumptions). As well as this, you should give a synopsis of your case report, noting very briefly the major problems identified and the recommended solutions.

4. Problem identification and analysis

In this section, you should identify all the major problems in the case. Try to identify the underlying causes of problems, not just the symptoms. Seek advice from your tutor on the layout of this information. You should link each problem identified to relevant theory and also to actual evidence from the case. Remember, you *MUST* integrate theory and reference all non-original work.

5. Statement of major problems

In most case studies, you will identify a number of problems. Most likely, there will be too many to actually ‘solve’ in the number of words allowed. Hence, it is crucial to state very clearly which are the major two or three problems, or key issues, which must be solved first. Therefore, this section is just a concise statement of what problems you are going to solve in the remainder of the case. Half a page is adequate. Having once identified the key problems you can continually check back to ensure that you are actually attempting to solve them, and not some other minor problems you identified. This section is crucial to a good case report.

6. Generation and evaluation of alternative solutions

While most problems will have many possible solutions, it is your task to identify and evaluate a number of the more appropriate (at least 2–3 for each major problem identified).

Each alternative solution should be briefly outlined and then evaluated in terms of its advantages and disadvantages (strong and weak points). Note: *You must evaluate alternatives*. It is not necessary to make a statement in this section as to which alternative is considered best – this occurs in the next section. Do not integrate theory in this section and do not recommend theory. Practical solutions to the problems are required.

7. Recommendations

This section should state which of the alternative solutions (either singularly or in combination) identified in Section 6 are recommended for implementation. You should briefly justify your choice, explaining how it will solve the major problems identified in Section 6. Integration of relevant theory is essential in this section.

8. Implementation

In this section, you should specifically explain how you will implement the recommended solutions. Theory cannot be implemented; you must translate it into actions. This includes explaining what should be done, by whom, when, in what sequence, what will it cost (rough estimates only), and other such issues. *Remember*, if a recommended solution cannot be realistically implemented, then it is no solution at all.

9. Reference list

10. Appendices (if any)

This will contain an alphabetical list of *all the references you have cited* in the body of the report. Do not include details of any sources you have not cited. Ensure the style used is correct and consistent with the APA guidelines outlined in Chapter 10 of this manual.

General checklist

- make sure you have confirmed the required approach and case study structure with your lecturer or tutor
- check that you have adequately identified the key problems involved in the case, and that you have included the relevant theory in your case study response
- confirm that you have completed all the required questions (if asked) or included all the necessary sections in your assignment
- avoid repeating what the text book, or case information, has stated. Remember that you are trying to identify, analyse and (possibly) resolve the problems of the case using the relevant theories from the literature
- check your completed work for internal consistency. If required to apply the “problem solving approach”, make sure that you attempt to solve the key issues you have identified. For example, do not say ‘X’ is the major problem, and then recommend a solution to ‘Y’
- make sure you have referenced all non-original material, and that you have used a variety of reliable and reputable sources. Even if your referencing style is faultless, the range and validity of your sources of information may also be assessed

Key elements of a case report

1. Executive summary

- summary of report and recommendations
- brief background to the company and an outline of its problems, your recommendations and any assumptions noted

2. Problem identification and analysis

- identification and analysis of management problems including causes
- integration of theory and case evidence

3. Statement of 'key' problems/issues

- clear, concise statement of major problem/s that the remainder of the case is going to solve

4. Generation and evaluation of a range of alternative solutions

- potential solutions outlined, linked to the key problems
- evaluation of each alternative

5. Decisions/recommendations

- clear statement of which of the alternative/s suggested (in 4) is/are recommended, and why
- justification for the above using theory and/or course concepts. This solution should solve the key problem/s noted

6. Implementation

- action steps involved in actually introducing the recommended solutions: *Who/When/How/Cost?*

Academic integrity and honesty: avoiding plagiarism in written work

Researching ideas, data, graphics, audio-visual media and perspectives of other authors is integral to university and faculty studies. As in Chapter 4, you form your own response to your assignment task by reading and thinking about the research, ideas and findings from the experts in the field, which are published in journal articles and books.

The ideas and viewpoints presented by these authors are the evidence and support that you require in your written response. Without the evidence and support from the ‘experts’, your response would not be acceptable academically. Therefore, you need to acknowledge and provide reference details for these supporting ideas in your writing. Failure to acknowledge and reference the source of others’ ideas is plagiarism, and this is treated seriously in academic studies. Avoiding plagiarism is an integral part of the respect for learning and research that the university fosters and depends upon for academic work to be worthwhile. As a student, you have an important role in maintaining the highest possible standards of academic honesty by avoiding plagiarism in all its forms. This is a learning process requiring work and diligence throughout your career as a student.

This chapter, read in conjunction with Chapters 4, 5 and 10, will provide a clear guide to ensuring you develop and maintain your academic honesty and integrity. Chapter 10 provides guidance on referencing techniques. Learning how to summarise and paraphrase appropriately will help you avoid plagiarism in your written work.

You should practise these processes, and seek help from tutors, learning support services, Chief Examiners and the faculty’s website, if you are unclear about plagiarism.

What is plagiarism?

In any academic text there are many ‘voices’; the voice of the writer and the voices of the other sources used by the writer. In your academic writing you may reproduce the exact voice of another source in a direct quotation, or you may rewrite the source voice in your own words by summarising or paraphrasing. In every case, whether quoting, summarising or paraphrasing, or when including data, audiovisual media or graphics, you must provide a reference. The only voice that is not referenced is the voice of the writer – you. Any part of the text that is not referenced is therefore your claim that it is your own idea or perspective.

Plagiarism occurs when writers claim ownership of written words or ideas that are not their own. It is ‘stealing’ the intellectual property of other writers and is not allowed in the university. If you copy text without acknowledging the source of information, disciplinary action may result and you could be suspended or be excluded from the university.

It is important to point out that simply copying slabs of information or sentences from texts, even if the source of the information is referenced, is not acceptable. Your voice and your interpretation of the material for the purpose of responding to a specific task should be highlighted in your writing. Examples of plagiarism include:

- copying another person’s work without correct referencing. This includes copying from a book, a journal article, a web site or another student’s assignment/s
- copying from notes distributed by the tutor or from slide without correct referencing
- paraphrasing another person’s work with minor word changes, but keeping the meaning, flow of argument or ideas the same as the original even with correct referencing
- cutting and pasting another person’s work into a new document and pretending it is your own
- submitting an assignment which has already been submitted for assessment in another unit

- presenting an assignment as independent work when it has been produced in collusion with other students (where this was not specified as a group project)

Plagiarism also relates to students copying or basing their written work on that of other students. Of course, students often work together in order to clarify understandings and test their ideas before they establish their individual responses to topics; this is acceptable practice. If you are not clear about how collaborative work should be presented, talk to your lecturer or tutor. However, unless indicated otherwise in the unit outline, the piece of work submitted for assessment must be your own response and must be your own work.

Monash University Statute 4.1 and Policy regarding plagiarism

Statute 4.1 – Student Discipline and the Policy regarding plagiarism govern the penalties and procedures when a piece of work is identified as suspected plagiarism.

Statute 4.1 – Student Discipline can be found at:

<http://www.monash.edu/legal/legislation/chapter-four.html>

Plagiarism Policy can be found at:

<http://www.policy.monash.edu/policy-bank/academic/education/conduct/plagiarism-policy.html>

Definitions as set out by Monash University Policy

Plagiarism – means “to take and use another person’s ideas and or manner of expressing them and to pass them off as one’s own by failing to give appropriate acknowledgement.”

Cheating – means “seeking to obtain an unfair advantage in an examination or in other written or practical work required to be submitted or completed by a student for assessment.”

Collusion – means the “unauthorised collaboration on assessable work with another person or persons” which constitutes cheating.

Re-submission of work – where “work submitted for assessment, which has previously been submitted in another unit without disclosure of the fact”, is considered as cheating.

“Plagiarism occurs when students fail to acknowledge that the ideas of others are being used.” Specifically it occurs when:

- other people’s work and/or ideas are paraphrased and presented without a reference
- other students’ work is copied or partly copied
- other people’s designs, codes or images are presented as the student’s own work
- phrases and passages are used verbatim without quotation marks and/or without a reference to the author or a web page
- lecture notes are reproduced without due acknowledgment

If the plagiarism is:

- Intentional, that is, the student knew that he/she should have cited the source and deliberately failed to do so, the student has cheated
- Not intentional, the only offence the student has committed is the academic misdemeanour of failing to reference a source correctly. The matter should, therefore, be treated in the normal manner i.e. as a case of poor referencing and poor academic work, and be marked accordingly and an academic penalty may be applied

What happens when plagiarism is suspected?

An assignment that is suspected of plagiarism will be reported to the Chief Examiner for the unit. The Chief Examiner must decide whether the plagiarism was intentional. A student who is suspected of plagiarising will be provided with the opportunity to respond.

If the Chief Examiner decides the plagiarism was not intentional, the assessment may be marked appropriately. In some cases, the Chief Examiner may require the student to attend a meeting to discuss the issue of plagiarism, and a warning letter may be issued to the student.

If the Chief Examiner determines there is evidence to support a finding of intentional plagiarism, the student will be given an opportunity to respond to the allegation and discuss the matter with the Chief Examiner before a decision is made.

Where the Chief Examiner decides that intentional plagiarism has occurred, he or she must either

- take disciplinary action; or
- report the matter to the Associate Dean Learning and Teaching who will then review the documentation and decide whether or not to refer the matter to the Faculty Discipline Panel.

The Chief Examiner can also make a request to check the Plagiarism register to see if a student has received any prior warnings or an outcome that has resulted from disciplinary action for plagiarism.

If the Chief Examiner decides to take action, he or she must:

- disallow the work concerned by prohibiting assessment (that piece of assessment is not to be marked and must receive zero marks); and
- inform the student in writing that the marks have been disallowed and that he/she has the right to appeal the disallowance; and
- inform the Associate Dean Learning and Teaching and the Academic Governance Unit of the disallowance.

The record of the disciplinary action will be recorded on the Plagiarism Register. A record of an accusation on the Plagiarism Register will be retained while the student is enrolled or intermittent in any course and academic staff will have access to this information when considering any subsequent allegations of plagiarism.

Students' responsibility

Students are required to submit an Assessment Cover Sheet for every piece of assessment, which should contain:

1. the approved definition of plagiarism
2. a statement on collusion
3. the approved Privacy Statement
4. a certification by the student:
 - that plagiarism or collusion has not occurred
 - that the assignment is original and has not been previously submitted as part of another unit/subject/course
 - that proper safeguarding of their work and all reasonable effort to ensure it could not be copied was taken
 - that the assessor of the assignment may for the purposes of assessment, reproduce the assignment and
 - provide it to another member of faculty; and/or
 - submit it to a plagiarism service (which may then retain a copy of the assignment on its database for the purpose of future plagiarism checking)
 - that they [the student] understand the consequences of engaging in plagiarism as described in Statute 4.1, part III – Academic Misconduct

Using references appropriately in your written work

As we have explained earlier in this chapter, in presenting your response to a topic, you are expected to review the literature in the field and incorporate the views of other authors, as expressed in articles and books. In this sense, the authors' views are used to build your argument. You must formulate your own structure for your writing in response to a topic rather than relying solely on other authors' views. The source of the words or ideas used to support, and as evidence for, your response *must always be acknowledged*.

When you survey the literature concerning your topic and formulate responses to assignment tasks and topics, you are participating in academic enquiry. The views expressed in the literature for a particular area are not fixed and unchanging. Rather, as authors' published views are constantly challenged and disputed by other writers, the knowledge in the field evolves. You must be aware of this process as you structure your response to their topics and incorporate the views from the literature.

Before forming the structure for your response to the topic, you need to thoroughly immerse yourself in the field. You must also frame your response in the context of the topic. In so doing, you can either draw on the literature

to support or substantiate your argument or, if the views expressed in the literature differ, indicate how your argument is valid, despite these differences.

Use of references in writing

Unsuitable use of references

The following sample paragraph for a management topic consists of a string of direct quotations and paraphrases. In this case the writer has failed to demonstrate knowledge of the literature and key concepts beyond the ability to look up relevant texts and journals. That is, there is no comment from the writer, either at the beginning of the paragraph, the end, or throughout the paragraph. The referencing is also inadequate because the dates have not been included. Also, it is inappropriate to refer to lecture notes because there are no records of spoken comments for others to consult and verify.

Example 1

Organisations operating under rational-legal authority are marked by division of labour, hierarchy, rules and regulations and impersonal relationships (Robbing, p.36). This type of authority “allows supervision and control of a large number of individuals engaged in a common objective or task, maximising coordination and organisational efficiency” (MGC Lecture Notes, 2005). “Control is concerned with the methods employed by the organisation to ensure that people perform their tasks in ways which are seen as desirable from the viewpoint of the organisation” (Robbing, p. 569).

However, if direct quotations are incorporated in a way which indicates that the writer has grasped the key concepts in the literature, it is vital that he or she indicates that these are exact words from the text by using quotation marks and then indicating their source. At the same time, direct quotations must be used sparingly – less than 10 per cent of your word count. Also, even if the ideas from the text are written in your own words, the source must still be indicated.

Suitable integration of references

The following sample paragraph for a management topic uses references in an appropriate way. Instead of using direct quotes or paraphrasing, the writer has formulated a summary of the views expressed by the cited authors. That is, the writer has presented comments on the issue and placed the relevant literature in the context of their own response to an assignment task.

Example 2

The different schools of thought concerning organisational structure view employees as a vital feature strongly related to an organisation's survival and growth. However, there are differences amongst the schools in that employees are viewed as either rational or social beings. The significance of employees is evident in the comments of Owen (2002, p. 32) when he states that employees are the best investment for managers; Barnard (2003, p. 39) also acknowledges the input of employees, stating that an organisation is made up of people. Research undertaken through intense observation has led to the view that people (including employees) are rational in that their behaviour is patterned. However, another view is that they are social and this means influenced by non-rational factors such as emotions (Scott 2004, pp. 22–28). Overall, it is clear that employees are integral to organisations and an important consideration for managers in organisations striving for success.

Sentences 1–2 contain the writer's point of view. Sentences 3–5 incorporate references on which the writer's view is based. The final sentence is the writer's comment on the evidence.

Summarising

As you can see in the examples above, you need to use references in a way that reflects your own thoughts and *interpretation* of other authors' work.

A summary provides only the main ideas of the original source (or collection of sources) with no details. Summarising enables you to reduce others' work to its key points, eliminating detail. The process of eliminating detail from the original work forces you to express the material in your own words. You can then include your own comments, demonstrating your interpretation of the work. The following approach will assist you to summarise passages:

- read and understand fully the passage
- take brief notes about the main ideas, without the details; use key words, synonyms and abbreviations – do not write full sentences. Specialised or technical vocabulary does not have to be changed
- re-organise your notes to suit your own writing. For example, it may not be necessary for the points in the summary to follow the same sequence as in the original passage; or you may wish to combine several key points into one
- write the summary from your notes to suit your interpretation and the part of your text you are drafting

Example 3

Original source: Williams, A., Dobson, P. & Walters, M. (1989). *Changing culture: new organisational approaches*. London: The Institute of Personnel Management, p. 14.

Culture is learnt. Individual beliefs, attitudes and values are gained from the individual's environment. The culture of the organisation is therefore gained from the environment common to its members. Both the internal and the external environment of the organisation influence culture.

The internal environment comprises the social and technical systems of the organisation. Thus, in part, culture is the product of these socio-technical systems. They comprise the decision-making, planning and control procedures of the organisation, its technology, the procedures for recruitment, selection and training, and the behaviour of other members – in particular, that of the manager and the work group. Culture has its roots as much in beliefs about the demands of the work environment as it does in the personal attitudes and values of individuals.

Externally, the organisation is embedded in social political, legislative, economic and technological systems. These represent the external environment of the organisation. Those operating in different sectors have different markets, technologies and legal constraints. They have different skill and resource needs. These variations place different demands on organisations and create differing learning environments.

Example 4

In considering an organisation's culture which includes the values, beliefs and attitudes of its members, it is important to recognise that it is shaped by both internal and external environments. Socio-technical systems such as decision-making, planning and controlling constitute the internal environment. The external environment, which can differ across sectors, includes elements such as the social, political and legislative (Williams et al., 1989, p. 14).

The writer has made a clear interpretation of the original passage. The order of the ideas has been changed, probably because the information concerning the role and nature of environments is required as evidence in the written piece, and so this is the focus taken in the

student's interpretation of the original passage. Most of the details included in the original have also been eliminated so that only the key points of the passage are captured.

Paraphrasing

Unlike a summary, paraphrasing is not limited to main ideas. Paraphrasing may be used to rewrite any material from the original needed to support your own arguments whether main ideas, specific details or data. For example, it may be necessary to paraphrase concepts, definitions, statutes or Accounting Standards in your own words. The following steps will assist you with paraphrasing.

After locating the information:

- read the passage several times to understand fully the meaning identify the specific material you need in the passage
- take brief notes about the material; use key words, synonyms, abbreviations, mathematical symbols – do not write full sentences. Specialised or technical vocabulary does not have to be changed
- organise your notes to suit your own writing
- write from your notes to suit your interpretation and the part of your text you are drafting

The following is an original quotation and one of the many possible ways that it could be paraphrased; the material to be included in the paraphrase is displayed in italics in the original. In the example paraphrase, the writer's comment is at the beginning.

Example 5

Original source: Williams, A., Dobson, P. & Walters, M. (1989). *Changing culture: new organisational approaches*. London: The Institute of Personnel Management, p. 14.

Culture is learnt. Individual beliefs, attitudes and values are gained from the individual's environment. The culture of the organisation is therefore gained from the environment common to its members. Both the internal and the external environment of the organisation influence culture.

The internal environment comprises the social and technical systems of the organisation. Thus, in part, culture is the product of these socio-technical systems. They comprise the decision-making, planning and control procedures of the organisation, its technology, the procedures for recruitment, selection and training, and the behaviour of other members – in particular, that of the manager and the work group. Culture has its roots as much in beliefs about the demands of the work environment as it does in the personal attitudes and values of individuals.

Externally, the organisation is embedded in social political, legislative, economic and technological systems. These represent the external environment of the organisation. Those operating in different sectors have different markets, technologies and legal constraints. They have different skill and resource needs. These variations place different demands on organisations and create differing learning environments.

Example 6

Organisational culture is not fixed and unchanging, but differs across organisations. As *Williams et al. (1989) suggest, the interplay of internal procedures and behaviours and external legal and social factors is different in each organisation* (p.14). The three cases considered in this study show significant variation in organisational culture in terms of ...

In Example 6, a particular detail has been adapted to suit a new context. In the new context, factors not only influence (original), but also differ or vary (paraphrase). Even though the author's idea has been expressed in the student's own words, the source of the idea must be referenced.

Conclusion

You must acknowledge other authors' ideas and perspectives in your written work through referencing techniques. It is also very important that your writing is not composed solely of material from texts and articles. Your lecturers and tutors want to see how you have reviewed the literature on the topic and formed your own response, based on the body of knowledge or literature in the field.

Departments within the Faculty of Business and Economics have taken steps to detect plagiarism. This may include the use of electronic plagiarism detection software. Your work may be subject to this type of checking. The penalties are too great to overlook this very important issue.

The university has a number of resources to enhance academic skills, language and approaches to learning. The library provides assistance in assignment research and writing, and the appropriate use and acknowledgement of sources. For further information go to:

<http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/learning-skills/>

<http://www.monash.edu.au/lis/lionline/>

<http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/student/sdo/academic-skills-development/>

On a more positive note, appropriate understanding and use of references in the manner described in this chapter will enhance your written work and improve your learning, perhaps with writing becoming a more meaningful experience and earning higher assessment grades!

Chapter 10

Referencing: APA style

One of the more technical aspects of assignment writing at university relates to referencing. As there are numerous acceptable systems of referencing, you will need to consult the Unit Guide for each unit in order to ascertain the style preferred by your tutor or Chief Examiner. Once the appropriate style has been determined, it is important that all conventions pertaining to that particular style are consistently adopted. The key considerations are therefore, attention to detail and consistency.

This chapter examines the nature and benefits of referencing and provides information pertaining to the particular style of referencing adopted by the Faculty of Business and Economics, the APA style (the American Psychological Association method of citation). The referencing rules detailed in this chapter are based on the following style guide: American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*. (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

As the APA style guide does not include referencing rules for Australian cases or legislation, please refer to Chapter 12 Business Law for details regarding referencing of cases and legislation. The rules for referencing cases and legislation in Chapter 12 and below are based on the following style guide:

Melbourne University Law Review Association, & Melbourne Journal of International Law. (2010). *Australian guide to legal citation*. (3rd ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Law Review Association.

What is referencing?

Referencing or *citing* refers to the acknowledgement of various sources (a ‘source’ is the place where you originally obtained the information – the ‘source’ of the information) you have used in preparing your written assignments. It means acknowledging the authority of an author or proof or evidence in support of your argument.

The works to which you have referred should be acknowledged in two places – “intext” and “end-text”. Intext referencing means that you place a citation (a ‘citation’ is a brief record of where you found the information) directly after you have used the information. This could be at the beginning of a sentence, the end of a paragraph, the end of a sentence, or after a direct quotation.

On the other hand, end-text referencing refers to a reference list or bibliography. A reference list is a complete list of all the sources you have cited in your assignment and is always placed at the end of an assignment. A bibliography is a full list of all sources you have consulted for your assignment, whether or not you have cited them in your text, and is always at the end of the assignment. *Always check with your lecturer or tutor whether a reference list or a bibliography is required for a particular assignment.* A reference list should provide complete publication information concerning each source, including the names of the authors, year of publication, title of the text or journal, and details about the publication (see below for rules regarding different types of sources).

When should you reference?

When you:

- quote an author’s exact words
- copy data, tables, figures, diagrams, or pictures from a source (a form of quoting for visual items)
- use audio/visual/multimedia information from a source
- summarise or paraphrase information from a source in your own words

Why should you reference?

There are numerous benefits of referencing. Referencing appropriately:

- avoids plagiarism and the subsequent failing of the assignment and/or unit
- gives credibility to your position because citing other research substantiates your line of argument
- recognises authors whose research or data you have used
- allows readers to access the sources for themselves

Referencing using the APA style

The referencing style adopted by the Faculty of Business and Economics is the APA Style (6th edition), which is published by the American Psychological Association (APA). This chapter is an introductory guide to using the APA Style to reference information sources most relevant to students of business and economics. Print, electronic and some audio or visual sources are covered. The definitive guide to the APA style, and the key guide to writing this chapter, is:

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Copies are held at Monash University libraries – check Search for details via <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au>. Refer to this publication for further information on the APA style, especially if you are undertaking a thesis or need to reference a type of source not specifically covered in this chapter. Advice on referencing is also available from learning skills advisers in the Library. Further guidance is available at the APA Style website, <http://apastyle.apa.org/>.

The following sections of this chapter focus respectively on creating firstly, intext citations and secondly, a reference list.

Creating intext citations

The term “intext” means that you cite an author or source within the text of your assignment, at the point where his or her idea or argument appears. Every fact or idea which you have used to establish your own line of argument must be accurately and consistently cited. Using the APA style, the intext citation should show:

- the last name of the author or authors (keep author names in the same order as they appear in the source)
- the year of publication
- the page number/s where necessary (e.g. for direct quotes)

The following examples illustrate generally how intext citations can be used in assignments.

Deegan (2002) suggests there are numerous methods which may be adopted.

OR

Few authors have approached the topic in this way (Deegan, 2002).

If you have cited the arguments/ideas from more than one source, the intext citation would show:

Consideration of expatriate adjustment is becoming increasingly important (Mahoney & Trigg, 2001; Stone, 2002).

Note that if you cite several authors as in the above example, (Mahoney & Trigg, 2001; Stone, 2002), these should also be in alphabetical order i.e. Mahoney before Stone. See **Multiple references** below.

One author

...the results were inconclusive (Hawkins, 2003).

Hawkins (2003) reported that the results were inconclusive.

Two authors

...(Bovey & Hede, 2001)

Bovey and Hede (2001) argue...

Three – five authors

First time cited

...(Clegg, Hardy, & Nord, 1996)

Clegg, Hardy, and Nord (1996) assert that...

Thereafter, type only the first author name, then “et al.”

...(Clegg et al., 1996)

Clegg et al. (1996) assert that....

Six or more authors

- use only the family name of the first author, followed by “et al.” the first and subsequent times
- in the reference list entry, include all names and initials for up to and including the first seven authors. If there are more than seven authors, type the first six names, followed by an ellipsis (...), then the last author name (see the example for **Electronic journal articles – more than 7 authors**)

Multiple works by the same author cited at the same time

- enter the years of publication in date order

...(Jones, 2000, 2001)

Jones (2000, 2001) applies the same principles to...

Multiple works by the same author in the same year

- differentiate the citations by adding an a,b,c...suffix to the year
- suffixes also appear in the reference list
- reference list entries for the same author are ordered alphabetically by title
The first entry receives the suffix “a”, the next “b”, etc.

...(Brown, 1998a, 1998b)

Brown (1998a)... later in the text... Brown (1998b)

Unknown author

- if no author is stated in the work, use the first few words of the title in place of the author
- for an article, chapter or web page use double quotation marks
As reported in the business press (“Singapore Profit,” 2007)...
- for a periodical, book, report or brochure, use *italics*
According to the brochure, *Succeeding in Exams* (1979)...
- when the author is given as “Anonymous”, cite as (Anonymous, 1997)

An organisation as the author

(Reserve Bank of Australia, 2007)

- if the organisation has a well recognised abbreviation, it can be cited as follows:

First time cited... (International Monetary Fund [IMF], 1997)

Subsequently... (IMF, 1997)

Multiple references

- list alphabetically, separated by semi-colons

There is considerable support for this view (Allen, 2001; Bryson & Lodge, 1999; Wong, 2003).

Direct quotations

A direct quotation reproduces the exact words of the source. In addition to author name and year, the page number must be stated and double quotation marks must be used around the quote. For a short quotation of less than 40 words, the citation in brackets is inside the sentence punctuation.

"The key to understanding microeconomics is to realise that its overwhelming focus is on the role of prices" (Gittins, 2006, p. 18).

Gittins (2006) suggests that "the key to understanding microeconomics is to realise that its overwhelming focus is on the role of prices" (p. 18).

To format a long quotation (also called a "block quote") of 40 or more words, see Appendix C of the *Q Manual*.

No page numbers

- in the case of an electronic source (e.g. a web site) that has *no page numbers*, if there is paragraph numbering specify the paragraph, e.g. (Perrin, 2006, para. 4)
- if there are *no visible page or paragraph numbers*, use the heading of the relevant section, followed by the number of the paragraph in that section
e.g. (Smith, 2010, Introduction, para. 1).
- long headings can be shortened to the first few words, in quotation marks

Citing a secondary source (i.e. a source referred to in another work)

For example, you read a 2006 article by Friedman in which he refers to an article by Chang, published earlier in 1997. To cite Chang in your writing, the following formats apply:

...(Chang, 1997, as cited in Friedman, 2006).

Chang (1997, as cited in Friedman, 2006) suggests that this is inconsistent...

Friedman (2006) cited Chang (1997) as arguing for....

In the reference list only include an entry for the source that you actually read (i.e. Friedman's article).

Creating a reference list

A reference list is a list of all the sources you have used in the body of your assignment. It is arranged alphabetically according to the authors' last names and is placed at the end of the assignment. The following conventions apply to the reference list:

- begin the list on a new page, with centred title, "Reference List" or "References"
- each entry should have a hanging indent of 5–7 spaces (i.e. the first line of each entry is fully left justified and the following line/s are indented 5–7 spaces)
- entries are in double line spacing as for body text throughout the assignment
- there is no blank line between entries; the hanging indent is sufficient
- list entries in alphabetical order by author name
- where a source has no author, and the title is used instead (as with some newspaper articles), list according to the first significant word in the title (i.e. ignore "The", "A", "An")
- where there are two sources with the same author(s) and date, order them alphabetically by title and assign a suffix (a, b, c...) to each date
- if the same author is cited for works from different years, list the references from the earliest publication date in date order
- give organisation names in full
- ensure that all references cited in the text are listed (except for "unpublished" items, such as correspondence or interviews)
- ensure that all listed items have a corresponding intext citation
- if the place of publication is in the United States, the city and state abbreviation are used (e.g. Englewood Cliffs, NJ)
- for countries other than the United States give the city and country name

A sample reference list demonstrating the application of these rules is provided at the end of this chapter. Be sure to include the exact punctuation and spacing shown in the examples.

Books

General format:

Author surname, Author initial(s). (Year of publication). *Title of book* (edition number if not the 1st edition). Place of publication: Name of publisher.

- in the title of the book, only the first letter of the title, subtitle and any proper nouns are capitalised
- the *title* and *subtitle* are in italics
- for a revised edition of a book, the abbreviation is (Rev. ed.)

Gittins, R. (2006). *Gittins' guide to economics*. Crows Nest, Australia: Allen & Unwin.

Luthans, F. (2002). *Organisational behavior* (9th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Johnson, D., & Turner, C. (2010). *International business: Themes and issues in the modern global economy* (2nd ed.). Abingdon, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Edited book

- follows the book format, with the editor's name followed by (Ed.), or (Eds.) if more than one editor

Clegg, S. R., Hardy, C., & Nord, W. R. (Eds.). (1996). *Handbook of organisation studies*. London, United Kingdom: Sage.

Chapter in an edited book

- type "In" before the editor's name(s)
- the format of the editor's name(s) is: Initial(s). Family name (i.e. the reverse of the author names)
- the page numbers of the chapter are included, i.e. (pp. 192–199)

Macrauley, P., & Green, R. (2007). Supervising publishing from the doctorate. In C. Denholm & T. Evans (Eds.), *Supervising doctorates downunder: Keys to effective supervision in Australia and New Zealand* (pp. 192–199). Camberwell, Australia: ACER.

Journal article

General format:

Author family name, Author initial(s). (Year of publication). Title of the article. *Title of the Journal*, *volume number* (issue number), page numbers of the article.

- only the first letter of the article title, subtitle and any proper nouns are capitalised
- the first letter of each significant word in the journal title is capitalised
- the *journal title* and *volume number* are in italics
- if there are more than seven authors, type the first six author names, followed by an ellipsis (...), then the last author name. See the example for *Electronic journal article – more than 7 authors*

Milner, L.M., & Fodness, D. (1996). Product gender perceptions: The case of China. *International Marketing Review*, 13(4), 40–51.

Magazine

- if there is a volume number, it follows the magazine title, in italics. In the example below, 159 is the volume number, and the page number is 46

MacLeod, S. (2002, April 8). An olive branch or stick? *Time*, 159, 46.

Guilliat, S. (2005, March 26). Leap of faith. *Good Weekend: The Age Magazine*, 24–31.

Newspaper article – print and microfiche

- precede the page number with “p.” or if more than one page, “pp.”
(For an article starting on page 1, then continuing and ending on page 3, the format would be pp. 1, 3.)

Hopkins, P. (2004, January 7). Parmalat cooked the books worldwide: Police. *The Age*, p. 2.

Newspaper article – no author

- the article title takes the place of an author
 - Singapore profit soars despite cost hit. (2007, November 2). *The Australian*, p. 37.
- for the intext citation, use the first few words of the title, in double quotation marks, followed by the year (“Singapore Profit,” 2007)

Reports from organisations

- includes, but not limited to, company annual reports and reports from government bodies
- where the author is the publisher, type “Author” after the location
 - Sumitomo Mitsui Banking Corporation. (2001). *Annual report 2001*. Tokyo, Japan: Author.
 - if a report has an identifying number, include it in brackets, as follows:
 - Productivity Commission. (2002). *Review of automotive assistance* (Inquiry Report No. 25). Canberra, Australia: Author.
 - Department of Industry Science and Technology. (2004). *Australian business innovation: A strategic analysis*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Government Publishing Service.
 - House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs. (1992). *Half way to equal: Report of the inquiry into equal opportunity and equal status for women in Australia*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Working paper/research report

- include the working paper/report number, in brackets
- in the location details, omit the state or country name if part of the university name e.g. San Diego: University of California
- include the university name and the name of the publishing entity (e.g. faculty, department, school, research centre) in that order
 - Allen, D. E. (1993). *Competitive advantage and approaches to investment appraisal: Procedures in Australia, Britain and Japan* (Working Paper 93.23). Perth, Australia: Curtin University of Technology, School of Economics and Finance.

Thesis – unpublished

- city and country details are required for non-U.S. unpublished theses
 - Waddell, D. (1995). *Using resistance positively to implement new manufacturing methods in industry*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Monash University, Melbourne, Australia.

Encyclopaedia or dictionary

- reference works, such as dictionaries and encyclopaedias are not normally cited unless you are using them to make precise definitions of terminology
 - Warner, M. (Ed.). (2002). *International encyclopedia of business and management* (2nd ed., Vols. 1–8). London, United Kingdom: Thomson Learning.

Accounting handbooks

Pozzi, C., & Shying, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Accounting handbook*. Frenchs Forest, Australia: Prentice Hall.

Locke, C. (Ed.). (2010). *Financial reporting handbook 2010: Incorporating all the standards as at 1 December 2009*. Milton, Australia: Wiley.

Images

- the type of image is given in square brackets, e.g. [Photograph]
- the following example refers to an advertisement in the print magazine, *The Australian Wish* Singapore Airlines [Advertisement]. (2011, June). *The Australian Wish*. p. 11.

Brochure

Whittlesea & Plenty Valley Tourism Association Inc. (2010, May). *Whittlesea tourist guide* [Brochure]. Whittlesea, Australia.

Interviews, personal e-mail and other personal communications

Personal communications are not included in the reference list as they are inaccessible to the reader, but are cited in the text in the following ways:

R. Smith (personal communication, August 15, 2007)...
...(R. Smith, personal communication, August 15, 2007)

Electronic sources

In general, the basic formats that apply to referencing the various types of print sources also apply to their electronic equivalents, except that the publisher details are often omitted, and generally either a Digital Object Identifier (DOI) or Uniform Resource Locator (URL) is included.

- be sure to include the exact punctuation as shown in the examples. Where a URL or DOI is part of a reference, do not end the reference with a full stop
- it is not necessary to include a retrieval date in references unless the source material is likely to change in the future. See examples under Web sites

The following examples demonstrate the application of the APA style for common electronic information sources encountered by Business and Economics students. After familiarising yourself with the contents of this section, if you require further details, or information on citing electronic sources not covered in this section (e.g. blogs), consult the Publication Manual. Advice on referencing is also available from learning skills advisers in the Library.

The use of Digital Object Identifiers in referencing

It is now usual practice for published electronic journal articles and e-books to be allocated a unique identifying number, the Digital Object Identifier (DOI). Where a DOI exists for an item, it should be included in the reference for that item.

- the DOI is usually displayed on the first page of the article, and in the database record for that item
- they vary in length but always begin with "10."
e.g. 10.1111/j.1540-6261.2007.01272.x; and 10.1037/a0023220
- when constructing a reference, precede the number with "doi:"
i.e. doi: 10.1037/a0023220
- to avoid error, copy and paste the number into the reference

If an item does not have a DOI, provide the URL for the journal, or the publisher of the e-book or report.

Bhattacharya, C.B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, 47(1), 9–24. Retrieved from <http://cmr.berkeley.edu>

The following examples demonstrate how to reference both items which have a DOI, and those without.

Electronic journal article – with a Digital Object Identifier (DOI)

Menkveld, A. J. (2008). Splitting orders in overlapping markets: A study of cross-listed stocks. *Journal of Financial Intermediation*, 17(2), 145–174. doi: 016/j.jfi.2007.05.004

Electronic journal article – more than 7 authors

- type the first six author names, followed by an elipsis (...), then the last author name. The following example is for an article with eight authors. The first six, and then the eighth author, are listed in the citation.

Swim, J.K., Stern, P.C., Doherty, T.J., Clayton, S., Reser, J.P., Weber, E. U., ...Howard, G.S. (2011). Psychology's contributions to understanding and addressing global climate change. *American Psychologist*, 66(4), 241–250. doi: 10.1037/a0023220

Electronic journal article – without a Digital Object Identifier (DOI), from a database (e.g. Business Source Complete)

- include the *journal home page URL*, after “Retrieved from”
- to find the journal home page, search the web for, in this case, “California Management Review”. This reveals that the URL is <http://cmr.berkeley.edu/>
- note the URL takes the reader only to the home page of the journal

Bhattacharya, C.B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, 47(1), 9–24. Retrieved from <http://cmr.berkeley.edu>

Electronic journal article without a DOI – from a free journal on the web

- the URL is for the journal home page

Taylor, S., & Wagland, S. (2011). Financial literacy: A review of government policy and initiatives. *Australasian Accounting Business and Finance Journal*, 5(2), 101–125. Retrieved from <http://ro.uow.edu.au/aabfj>

Electronic newspaper article from a database (e.g. from Factiva)

- follows the basic format for a print newspaper, followed by “Retrieved from newspaper home page URL”
- to find the URL, search on the web, in this case, for “*The Age*”. This reveals that the URL is: <http://www.theage.com.au>

Chong, J. (2011, May 26). Airlines back biofuels. *The Age*, p. 8. Retrieved from <http://www.theage.com.au>

Electronic newspaper article – from the web, open access

- the following reference is to an html document, so there are often no page numbers to record
 - use the home page URL of the newspaper
- Kaneko, M. (2007, October 16). Investment funds focused on ‘womentomics’ gaining attention. *The Japan Times Online*. Retrieved from <http://www.japantimes.co.jp>

Reports from databases

A wide range of reports is available from databases to which the Library subscribes, including company, industry, market and country reports and profiles. Both PDF and HTML formats are used. When referencing any report or profile include the URL of the report publisher, according to the format in the next examples. As such reports are updated periodically, include the published date of the report.

Company report or profile – from a database (e.g. DatAnalysis)

- reports from the DatAnalysis database are generated on demand (click the Full Report link) in html format. The date given is the date the report was printed or downloaded – it appears at the top of the report.

Morningstar. (2011, June 11). Qantas Airways Limited. Retrieved from
<http://datanalysis.morningstar.com.au>

Industry report – from a database (e.g. IBISWorld)

- if a report has an identifying number, as in this case, include it in brackets after the title
- IBISWorld. (2011, February 11). *Biscuit manufacturing in Australia* (C2163). Retrieved from
<http://www.ibisworld.com.au>

Country report – from a database (e.g. ViewsWire)

- ViewsWire is produced by the Economist Intelligence Unit
- Economist Intelligence Unit. (2011, June 13). *ViewsWire Vietnam*. Retrieved from <http://viewswire.eiu.com>

Market report – from a database (e.g Passport GMID)

- Passport GMID is produced by Euromonitor International
- Euromonitor International. (2011, January 11). *Wine in China: Category briefing*. Retrieved from <http://www.portal.euromonitor.com>

Electronic book

The Library provides access to increasing numbers of electronic books, via the Search interface, from the Library home page.

- the format follows that for a print book, but instead of including the publisher details, give the DOI if the book has been allocated one
- Mitsopoulos, M., & Pelagidis, T. (2011). *Understanding the crisis in Greece*. doi: 10.1057/9780230294752
- where the book does not have a DOI, add “Retrieved from publisher’s home page URL” n to find the URL, search on the web for the publisher’s name
- Meyers, R. A. (Ed.). (2011). *Complex systems in finance and econometrics*. Retrieved from <http://www.springerlink.com>
- de Chernatony, L., McDonald, M., & Wallace, E. (2010). *Creating powerful brands* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from <http://www.elsevierdirect.com/imprint.jsp?id=30>

A chapter or conference proceedings – in an electronic book

- in this case the book has a DOI
- Hoefer, M. (2010). Strategic cooperation in cost sharing games. In A. Saberi (Ed.), *Lecture Notes in Computer Science: Vol. 6484. Internet and Network Economics* (pp. 258–269). doi: 10.1007/978-3-642-17572-5

Online encyclopaedia (e.g. Blackwell Reference Online)

- the following example refers to the entry for the term “contingencies”
- Schattke, R.W. (2005). Contingencies. In C.L. Cooper (Ed.), *The Blackwell encyclopedia of management* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from <http://www.blackwellreference.com>

Lecture notes, from Monash University Studies Online (MUSO)

- only minor reference to lecture notes, if at all necessary, should be made in a piece of student writing. Lecturers expect students to provide references that show evidence of their own research

- the format of the notes is included, in square brackets

Luca, E. (2007). *Week 6: Interpersonal communication in context* [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from MGF1100/2100, Monash University Studies Online: <https://my.monash.edu.au/muso/blackboard/login/>

Research report or working paper – on the web

- if the report/paper has an identifying number, include it in parentheses after the title
- include the name of the publishing organisation before the URL if that organisation is not the author, in the form, Retrieved from Organisation website: URL

Cockerell, L., & Pennings, S. (2007). *Private business investment in Australia* (Research Discussion Paper RDP 2007–09). Retrieved from Reserve Bank of Australia website: <http://www.rba.gov.au/rdp/RDP2007-09.pdf>

- in the case of a university working paper, include the university name, and the name of the publishing entity (e.g. faculty, department, school, research centre) in that order
- Bardoel, E.A., De Cieri, H., & Tepe, S. (2006). *A framework for developing a work/life strategy in a multinational enterprise* (MNE) (Department of Management Working Paper Series 1/06). Retrieved from Monash University, Faculty of Business and Economics website: <http://www.buseco.monash.edu.au/mgt/research/working-papers/2006/wp1-06.pdf>

Electronic thesis – on the web

Watters, R. (2004). *The organisational and global environments relationship: An investigation of the key factors* (Doctoral thesis, Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia). Retrieved from <http://wallaby.vu.edu.au/adt-VVUT/public/adt-VVUT/public/adt-VVUT20041214.155232/>

Thesis from the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database

- in the United States, theses are often referred to as “dissertations”, hence the description “Doctoral dissertation”
 - the AAT number is a unique identifier for each thesis in the database, and appears in each database record
- Fioranvante, P. L. (2011). *Corporate philanthropy and its effect on an organisation: A qualitative study* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (AAT 3445222)

Annual report – from an organisation web site

- in the following example, as the author is also the publisher, it is not necessary to include the publisher name after “Retrieved from”

Ford Motor Company. (2007). *Fast forward: 2006 annual report*. Retrieved from http://www.ford.com/doc/2006_AR.pdf

Government report – on the web

Department of Health and Aging. (2000). *National medicines policy*. Retrieved from [http://www.health.gov.au/internet/wcms/Publishing.nsf/Content/nmp-objectives-policy.htm/\\$FILE/nmp2000.pdf](http://www.health.gov.au/internet/wcms/Publishing.nsf/Content/nmp-objectives-policy.htm/$FILE/nmp2000.pdf)

Web sites

General format:

Author/editor surname, Author/editor initial(s). (Year, month day of last update, or copyright year). *Title of the page/document*. Retrieved Month day, year, from URL

- if an author/editor cannot be identified, use the name of the organisation that publishes the site. If an organisation name is lacking too, the title of the document or page takes the place of author/ editor details at the beginning of the reference
- note the order of date i.e. Month first
- if the publisher of the site is not clear from the author name, include the publisher's name before the URL (See the Cockerell and Pennings example under *Research report or working paper – on the web*)
- include a retrieval date in references for a source only if it is likely that the content of the source may change

Business Victoria. (2009, October 30). *Starting and managing a business*. Retrieved June 30, 2011, from <http://www.business.vic.gov.au/BUSVIC/LANDING//SEC01.html>

- where no date is given on the site, type “n.d.” in place of a date

Shell. (n.d.). *The energy challenge*. Retrieved October 31, 2007, from http://www.shell.com/home/content/envirosoc/en/energy_challenge/the_challenge_000407.html

ABS statistical publication- online

- the URL is for the ABS home page

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2011, March). *Business indicators, Australia* (Catalogue no. 5676.0). Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au>

Numerical data files available on the web

- the description “Data file” is included in square brackets, as shown

Reserve Bank of Australia. (2009). *Exchange rate data-monthly, July 1969 – December 2009* [Data file]. Retrieved from <http://www.rba.gov.au/statistics/hist-exchange-rates/index.html>

Image from the web

- there is no publication date for this image, indicated by “n.d.”

Coca-Cola Company. (n.d.). *Evolution of the contour bottle* [Image]. Retrieved from http://www.thecoca-colacompany.com/dynamic/press_center/imagegallery.html

Film, DVD, video

- in the author position, type the name of the producer or director
- the location is the country of origin of the work

Achbar, M. (Producer), & Simpson, B. (Producer). (2003). *The corporation* [DVD]. Canada: BigPicture Media Corporation.

Radio, TV

- in the author position, give the name of the producer or director

Smith, R. (Director). (2007, May 24). *Crude* [Television broadcast]. Sydney: ABC-TV.

Podcast (of a radio program)

- the podcast is an episode from the weekly program, *Future tense*

Funnel, A. (Presenter). (2011, June 23). Techno optimism and techno realism [Audio podcast]. In A. Davies (Producer), *Future tense*. Retrieved from <http://www.abc.net.au/m/futuretense/>

Video blog post

The date given is the date the file was uploaded.

Google. (2011, May 25). Why are merchants excited about Google wallet? [Video file]. Retrieved from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gZGoXvzW4WU&feature=relmfu>

E-mail and other personal communications

- personal communications are not included in the reference list as they are inaccessible to the reader, but are cited in the text in the following ways:

R. Smith (personal communication, August 15, 2007)...

...(R. Smith personal communication, August 15, 2007)

Legal materials

If you are referring to legal sources extensively in your writing, you are advised to consult your unit guide or tutor regarding using the *Australian Guide to Legal Citations* (3rd. ed). Chapter 12 Business Law deals with referencing AGLC style in more detail.

As the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* does not cover Australian cases and laws, the examples below are based on Australian Guide to Legal Citations. In a reference list, cases and legislation are listed separately under their own headings (see Chapter 12 Business Law).

Legal case

- the following example is a case from the Commonwealth Law Reports, commencing on page 401 of Volume 28

London Bank of Australia Ltd v Kendall(1920) 28 CLR 401

Legislation

- use the Short Title of the Act, in italics, followed by the jurisdiction abbreviation in parentheses

Corporations Act 2001 (Cth)

Monash University Act 2009 (Vic)

Sample reference list in APA style

References

- Bhattacharya, C.B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, 47(1), 9–24. Retrieved from <http://cmr.berkeley.edu>
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Presentation skills

Students are often asked to deliver individual or group presentations as part of their units of study. A survey conducted by Crosling and Ward (2002) identified presentations as one of the most common forms of oral communication expected of business graduates.

What is a presentation?

A presentation is a carefully planned visual and aural event, delivered orally for the purpose of gaining understanding, agreement or action. As with all assessed assignments, the first thing to do is to check your Unit Guide to examine the presentation task, the criteria to be adopted for assessing the presentation, the length of time allowed for the presentation, and any other requirements. Check with your tutor or Chief Examiner for specific details. For a presentation to be effective:

- the speaker must have a clear aim
 - the material must be organised in such a way that the aim is supported
 - the presentation should be engaging for both speaker and audience
- Similar to written assignments, all oral presentations have the same basic three-part structure consisting of
- an introduction
 - a body
 - a conclusion

Planning the presentation

Know your audience

For a class presentation to be effective, you need to engage the audience that you are addressing. In order to do this, you should attempt to understand the needs and expectations of the audience. The following questions may be useful for this purpose:

- What are the needs and expectations of the students?
- What are the needs and expectations of the lecturer?
- What exactly does the Unit Guide specify in relation to the presentation?
- What do they know already? (for instance, are you merely repeating what has already been said during lectures and tutorials?)
- What do they need to know in order to understand your presentation?
- What are their likes/dislikes in presentation style, use of technology, format, if any?

Aim

In a written assignment, the purpose of the task guides the line of argument developed in the response. Similarly, in a presentation, the speaker must state clearly and explicitly the aim of the presentation. For example, in some units the aim may be to persuade the audience to purchase a product or service. In others, the aim may be to inform, i.e. to present the findings of a particular company's marketing strategy or to present a case study analysis and to link this analysis to management theory.

Content

An important consideration before preparing the content of a presentation is the time you have to present. In some units there may be a penalty for presentations which go over the allocated time. Therefore, it is important that the content fits within the time available. It is also important that you rehearse several times before delivering the final presentation. This will allow you to check your timing, so that you are able to deliver the presentation within the specified time frame.

In terms of content, the first step is to decide on the ideas which are most suitable for the presentation, bearing in mind the Unit Guide specifications, and the purpose of the presentation, as well as your 'needs analysis' of the audience. Each idea should be assessed against these requirements. The material you use to support these ideas can mean the difference between a dull presentation and one which is engaging and vivid. This material can also make the difference between a presentation that lacks logic and clarity and one which is valid and convincing.

Typically, the types of content used to explain, illustrate or quantify your ideas, and ultimately strengthen the presentation, include: examples, evidence from theory, statistics and testimony. It is also very important that having researched a topic, you make sure that appropriate citations are given, either orally or on a slide or handout.

Structure

Having decided upon the aim and the content, the next step is to structure the presentation. The structure provides the framework for your presentation and should therefore be simple, clear and logical. The basic structure of most presentations includes an introduction, discussion and conclusion. Each section of this basic structure performs a function that ties the material of your presentation into a coherent whole. The following structure demonstrates how the introduction, discussion, and conclusion function to make a complete presentation.

The functions of the introduction are to:

- introduce team members (in a group presentation)
- capture the attention of the audience and draw them into the topic (agenda)
- establish rapport with the audience and motivate them to listen
- segue smoothly into the body of the presentation

The functions of the body are to:

- provide a logical framework which addresses the aim of the presentation
- break the content into understandable parts (usually no more than five)
- develop these main points through appropriate supporting material

The functions of the conclusion are to:

- summarise the main points
- examine implications
- end on a positive and engaging note

Try to break the topic into its component parts with 3 to 5 main ideas. Any more may lead to information overload and you may lose the interest of the audience. These main themes or ideas should also be developed through supporting materials and evidence. Remember to cite your sources, particularly with regard to direct quotations, statistical data, charts, diagrams and so forth. There are many ways to structure a presentation and some of the more common types of structures include:

Informative presentations

Introduction:

- greet audience
- attention-gaining statement
- aim
- preview or outline

Body:

- main point 1
 - sub-point supporting main point
 - material/evidence supporting sub-point
 - sub-point supporting main point
 - material/evidence supporting sub-point
- (repeat for as many sub-points as necessary)

Repeat this pattern for as many main points as necessary.

Conclusion:

- cue to close (e.g. 'In conclusion...')
- summary of key arguments
- implications
- memorable closing statement (optional)
- thank audience

Persuasive presentations

There are various persuasive formats that students can adopt in order to encourage the audience to alter its thinking (e.g. change their viewpoint on an issue), do something (e.g. buy a product or service) or refrain from doing something (e.g. give up smoking). Here are two formats for persuasive presentations:

Monroe's Motivated Sequence (Comeaux, 1996)**Attention**

- attention-getting statement/visual (stimulating the audience's interest through the use of surprising statistics, rhetorical questions, quotations, humour or anecdote. Whatever the choice, it must be relevant to the topic.)
- introductions (in a group presentation)
- agenda

Need

- state the problem
- describe and illustrate the need
- evidence

Satisfaction

- state the solution
- evidence
- demonstrate how it meets need
- evidence

Visualisation

- benefits of solution

Action

- call the audience to act

The AIDA: Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (Eunson, 2005)

Attention

- attention-getting statement/visual
- introductions (in a group presentation)
- agenda

Interest

- create interest in and a desire for the product, service or idea
- characteristics
- evidence

Desire

- benefits of the product, service or idea based on the audience's needs and desires

Action

- call the audience to act
- make the response easy (e.g. give web address or toll free phone number)

Summary

The keys to a successful persuasive presentation are:

- knowing exactly what you want the audience to do
- knowing that the solution you offer solves the problem (Monroe's Motivated Sequence)
- knowing that the reasons why the audience should accept the persuasive proposition address the audience's needs and desires
- knowing that the reasons why the audience should accept the persuasive proposition are clear
- knowing that the reasons why the audience should accept the persuasive proposition are well supported by evidence

Visual support

Once you have the basic structure and content of your presentation in place, the next step is to consider the visual and verbal support you need to add credibility to the presentation. Visual and verbal support help the audience to grasp concepts and ideas. It also helps the speaker to clarify and amplify key points.

As well as PowerPoint slide presentations, visual support could include internet downloads, DVD material and demonstrations, or it might include role plays, photographs, illustrations, maps, graphs, diagrams, etc. However, it does not need to be highly technical to be effective. Experiment with what works for your material.

PowerPoint slides

If you use a PowerPoint presentation, there are some basic rules. Each slide should:

- be uncluttered and simple
- be attractive and visually appealing
- use large font
- have no more than six words to a line
- have no more than six lines to a slide (the "6 x 6" rule)
- use graphics, animation and sound effects sparingly

Handouts

Handouts are useful as they reinforce the message by representing the main points of the presentation, as well as providing additional reading in the form of a reference list. Like any form of visual support, they add interest to a presentation. Handouts should:

- be simple
- relate directly to the objective of the presentation
- have high visual impact
- not distract the audience

Delivery

Effective presentations are as much to do with how you say it as what you say.

Methods of delivery

It is important to speak extemporaneously (i.e. in free flowing or natural manner) when delivering a presentation. Extemporaneous speech is the most effective style of delivery since you will be able to maintain eye contact with the audience and behave in an enthusiastic and sincere fashion. It is unnecessary to write a fully prepared script, although some people prefer to do it this way. If you have to, use cue cards to jog the memory. These should only contain key words or phrases.

Rehearsal

Never tell yourself that it will be "OK on the day". Try to give yourself adequate time to run through the material a number of times. Your first few practices will help you to add visuals, examples and anecdotes you had not thought about earlier. Later practices will help you to refine the length of sentences and the choice of words and develop appropriate body language. You will also become more comfortable with the visual support. Always check the facilities at the site where you will be presenting, allowing sufficient time to re-arrange the room, if necessary, and check the equipment. If time permits, try to have at least one last rehearsal in the venue itself.

Nerve control

Everyone suffers from nerves and everyone is frightened of looking foolish. The important point to remember is that you must welcome and harness your anxiety because you need it to be an effective speaker. It energises you. Without it your performance will be dull and lifeless. You can control your nerves in several ways:

- sufficient preparation and planning
- practice
- visualising success
- positive self talk

Your voice

The main delivery instrument in your presentation is your voice, so it is important that you spend time listening to it and improving it where necessary.

- speak naturally (be yourself)
- make sure you can be heard (have a friend check from the back of the room)
- enunciate clearly
- vary the pitch and pace (sometimes pausing is more powerful than speaking)

Non-verbal communication

An audience will interpret your body language. The way you use your body will reinforce the message, weaken or contradict it. Be aware of your personal appearance, your posture, facial expressions and gestures. Audiences are generally impressed with:

- enthusiasm
- energy
- sincerity

You can display these qualities by:

- standing tall
- smiling
- being and looking confident
- establishing eye contact
- gesturing appropriately
- looking as though you are enjoying the experience (a little sincere acting goes a long way!)

Responding to questions

Whenever you give a presentation people will want to ask questions, therefore it is prudent to anticipate how you will handle them. It is a good idea to ask that questions be kept until the end so that they do not disrupt the flow of the presentation. The answers may arise later in the presentation anyway. You should also schedule your questions before your final comment so that you can end on a positive note. Along with your prepared talk, the questions and answer sessions should also be rehearsed. Ask yourself whether the questions may arise because of lack of clarity, too much information, poor logic or simply because there is no room to include everything. Approach question time as a feedback exercise where an informed group gets an opportunity to clarify and exchange views on issues relevant to the topic presented. The main points to remember when responding to questions are:

- listen carefully – make sure you understand the question
- rephrase it in your own words
- answer it concisely
- where possible refer back to any visuals which may provide the answer
- if a question is long and rambling, highlight only part of it and give a short answer

A few things to avoid:

- do not be defensive – use open body language and be as pleasant as possible
- do not lie – if you don't know the answer say so
- do not enter into an argument with an individual
- do not rush an answer – pause and think about what you are going to say

Group presentations

Although you will on occasions be asked to present individually, many of the presentation tasks in the faculty are group-based. The basic principles of effective presentation skills with regard to the aim, the structure, visual support and delivery apply. However, attention is focused here on the roles of team members, transitions between individual members' speeches, and the need to provide team members with effective support and constructive feedback.

Team work and co-operation

It is important to make an assessment of your team's relative strengths and weaknesses with regard to speaking skills. Your stronger speakers should introduce and close the presentation. The speaker who introduces your group should try to capture the attention of the audience, motivate them to listen, establish rapport, preview the main ideas and lead smoothly into the remainder of the presentation.

The final speaker needs to be able to capture the essence of the entire presentation. This is achieved by summarising key arguments and ending the presentation with impact. “Thank you” and “Are there any questions?” or “That’s it” are not appropriate ways of concluding. Again, the final speaker should provide the audience with a strong summary of 3 to 5 key points, as well as a creative and memorable close (e.g. quotation, demonstration, etc.). Then he or she should pause briefly and allow for applause prior to inviting questions.

When responding to questions during question time, it is important that all team members participate in the exercise. This would effectively demonstrate the cohesiveness of the team. It would also ensure that all team members are familiar with the material for the entire presentation and not only the segment they have presented. This means the questions should be evenly spread out among all team members and not just left to one or two key members in the team.

Transitions

Some of the problems which occur in group presentations do so because group members consider their speeches in isolation. Attention needs to be given to the aim of the presentation and how each member’s speech contributes to this purpose. In addition, group members need to “add value” to the work of others in the group.

Instead of saying “I’ll now pass you on to Michael”, it is more effective to summarise your own section, then find words which lend weight to the next speaker’s contribution. Something like “I’ve explored five characteristics of effective groups, and now Michael will take this further by examining the important role of leadership within a group context” is a better way to introduce the next member of your group. It also ties the individual segments of a group presentation seamlessly into a coherent and co-ordinated whole.

Support for the speaker

Support for your group is not only achieved verbally. It is important that your non-verbal communication is also supportive. This means that while a group member is speaking, you should not fiddle with notes, play with pens, or gaze blankly into the distance. Your role is to focus all your attention on what the speaker is saying through your eye contact and the position of your body.

You could also support your team member in more active ways by helping with the visual aids while your team member delivers the presentation material. When your group is presenting, it is not a case of only the team member who is speaking. Everyone is up on stage performing their respective roles.

Your role as coach

Even if you feel you are a very good presenter, it is vital that you consider the performance of the group as a whole. A general rule of thumb is that eight hours of rehearsal is required for every hour of presentation.

It is during these rehearsals that everyone can provide constructive feedback on the group’s performance. Areas to be reviewed should include clarity of aim, content, structure, visual support, vocal delivery, non-verbal communication, transitions and timing. It is also a time to lend support, encourage risk-taking and coach those in your group who need practice in presentation skills.

Evaluating the presentation

It is always worthwhile spending some time reviewing your presentation and learning how to make improvements for the future. Even when the presentation is successful, a review is still a good idea.

Successful presentations are characterised by:

- clear objectives
- meeting the needs of the audience
- having a clear structure which promotes audience understanding
- creative and appropriate visual support
- confident delivery
- good rapport with the audience
- good teamwork in a group presentation

Why do some presentations go wrong?

The most common complaints which cause misunderstanding (and/or boredom) during presentations can be summarised as follows:

- distracting verbals/visuals
- failure to speak to time limits
- equipment failure (with no contingency plan)
- material which is too technical or difficult, or too easy
- poor organisation of material
- pace too fast or too slow
- failure to maintain audience attention
- information overload
- lack of enthusiasm
- lack of rapport

References

- Comeaux, P. (1996). *Workbook for public speaking*, Dubuque, IA: McGraw-Hill.
- Comfort, J. (1996). *Effective presentations*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Crosling, G., & Ward, I. (2002). Oral communication: The workplace needs and uses of business graduate employees. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(1), pp. 41–757.
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Chapter 12

Business law

This chapter provides basic guidance in writing and referencing business law subjects. Business law subjects use two referencing styles based on the following two style guides. You may be required to use both styles in a single assignment.

Referencing for cases and legislation

Melbourne University Law Review Association & Melbourne Journal of International Law. (2010). *Australian guide to legal citation*. (3rd ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Law Review Association.

Referencing for general texts

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*. (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

You are also advised to consult with your Unit Guide and/or tutors regarding any specific expectations for your work.

Although there are some aspects unique to writing and referencing for business law subjects (such as using precedent cases and legislation), the basic fundamentals are the same as other academic writing; that is, a well-structured text that leads the reader through a discussion of a particular problem or issue.

Primary and secondary sources

Business law studies require you to read and understand both primary and secondary sources of law. Primary sources of law are authoritative publications of law produced by law-making bodies:

- legislation is enacted by Parliament: e.g. *Wrongs Act 1958* (Vic)
- cases are decided by courts: e.g. *Donoghue v Stevenson* [1932] AC 562
- delegated legislation is made by government departments and other statutory authorities: e.g. Road Safety Road Rules 2009 (Vic)

For referencing of international sources refer to the full *Australian Guide to Legal Citations* 3rd edition (2010) available at <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/tutorials/citing/lawcit.html>

Secondary sources of law are materials that comment on the primary sources of law, such as:

- textbooks
- journal articles
- legal dictionaries and encyclopaedias

Note taking

It is not appropriate to simply rewrite lectures or the prescribed text. You need to condense the ideas presented in the content of each of these, and summarise the relevant legal principles contained in the primary sources for quick reference.

Prior to your lecture, it is expected that you have read and taken notes from the set readings. During your lectures you will also take notes. Notes are taken to:

- become familiar with the principles of law
- understand the legal issues relevant to each topic
- learn how to apply legal principles to address the legal issues

There are a range of note taking approaches. Some of the more appropriate ones for legal study are described below:

Cornell note taking method

The Cornell note taking method was devised in the 1950s at Cornell University for students taking notes in university lectures or when reading. Information about this system, including videos, is widely accessible online or in study skills texts available at the Monash library. The word program on your computer may also contain a template. Cornell style notes are divided into sections for key concepts/main ideas/questions; notes; and a summary. The following image is from Microsoft Office templates at <http://office.microsoft.com/en-us/templates/CT010144012.aspx?tl=2#pg:2|ai:TC030003450>

Figure 26: Cornell note taking template

Topic	Name: Teacher: Class: Date:
Questions/Main Ideas:	Notes
Summary:	

The Cornell note taking method serves multiple purposes:

- the actual notes from the lecture or reading so that you have a record of information you may have forgotten (Notes section)
- a summary of what was covered in the lecture or reading which you can easily search (Summary section)
- a set of key points and/or questions that serve as a mini study guide (Questions/main ideas section)

Linear note taking

Notes which follow the order of the points made in the topic or lecture are called linear or sequential notes. If you use a precise structure and take care to identify main points clearly, leaving plenty of space for examples, references and definitions, this method is very convenient.

Example Notes

Negligence

Has the defendant breached their duty of care?

Determining if there has been a breach of duty of care involves 2-stage test:

1. determine if risk was reasonably foreseeable – a person is not negligent in failing to take precautions against a risk of harm unless:

- there was foreseeable risk
- the risk was not insignificant
- in the circumstances, a reasonable person in the position of the defendant would have taken precautions

All 3 requirements must be satisfied for negligence to be established.

2. court should consider a number of factors, among other relevant things, in determining whether a reasonable person would have taken precautions against a risk of harm including:

- the probability that the harm would have occurred if care had been taken
 - considered objectively
 - *Bolton v Stone* [1951] AC 850
- the likely seriousness of the harm
 - considered objectively
 - *Paris v Stepney Borough Council* [1951] AC 367
- the burden of taking precautions to avoid the risk of harm
 - onus on plaintiff to identify precautions defendant should have taken, and then to show that burden of cost, difficulty and inconvenience involved was not unreasonable
 - *Woods v Multi-Sport Holdings* (2002) 208 CLR 460
- the social utility of the activity that caused the harm
 - some activities are more worth taking risks for than others, e.g. playing sports has health benefits for the individual and for the community in terms of a healthier population, but sports also carry a higher risk of injury to a participant than to someone who does not play sport
 - *Wyong Shire Council v Shirt* (1980) 146 CLR 40

The example could be taken further by considering:

- brief summaries of the key cases
- a list of prompts to respond to when considering this area of law
- an example of a response to a legal problem where these legal concepts have been applied to a specific set of facts

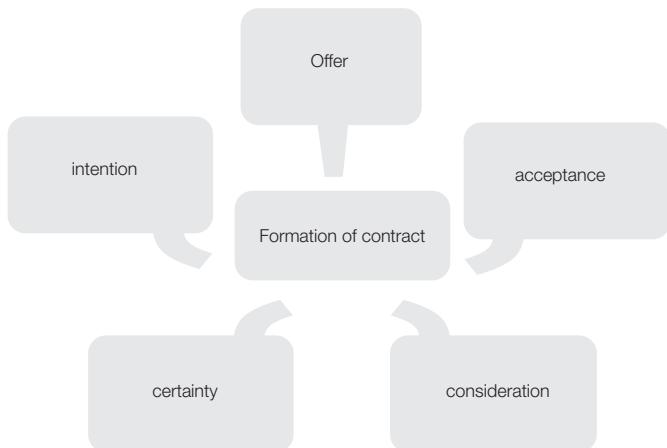
Concept maps/mind maps

In a concept/mind map, the lecture theme is written in the centre of the page, with the different topics of the lecture branching out. The advantage of this method is that it forces you to focus on the key issues/areas.

The example below employs the following strategies:

- key definitions have been reduced to point form and placed in the centre of the page
- aspects of the law have been placed around the key definitions and can be further detailed

Figure 27: Example concept map



This method is beneficial as it does not have a rigid hierarchy of ideas; it allows you to note down concepts and issues during a lecture or when you are reading and consider their relative importance when you review the notes.

Cases

In business law subjects, you are required to find and apply legal principles in your writing. Therefore, once you have identified important cases you must summarise them. Case summaries can be prepared in linear form, or you may choose to present them in tables for easy reference. The example below summarises the key facts and outcome of the case. Further information on the case can be sought via the textbook reference at the bottom of the summary.

Example case notes

Entores Ltd v Miles Far East Corp [1955] 2 QB 327

Facts

- the plaintiffs in London were negotiating by telex with the Holland agents of the defendant, a New York corporation.
- the plaintiffs made an offer to the defendant's agents to buy goods from them, and this offer was accepted by a communication received on the plaintiff's telex in London.

Issue

Was the contract made in London?

Decision

The Court held that with instantaneous communications, the parties were in the same position as if they had negotiated in each other's presence. The contract was complete when the offeror received the acceptance in London and so English law applied to the contract.

Instantaneous communication – acceptance effective when received.

(Source: Gibson, A. & Fraser, D. (2009). *Business law*. (4th ed.). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.)

The case could be reduced by:

- further reducing the case to a brief description
- grouping this case with other cases from the same area of law

Generally, business law exams are open-book, that is, you can take notes, texts and resource materials into the exam room. The emphasis of law exams is on your ability not only to understand the law, but also to *apply it*. Therefore, having useful summaries will allow you to effectively address legal issues in an exam situation.

The key aspects of a summary are the issues and rules relevant to a particular topic. There are many ways of including these in your summaries for each topic. Some of you will prefer to use a linear style, which is closely connected to your notes. Others will aim to make their summaries more focused on solving legal problem type questions. Such a summary may use the following structure and include some of the following examples:

Linear style

Example

The initial questions that must be asked

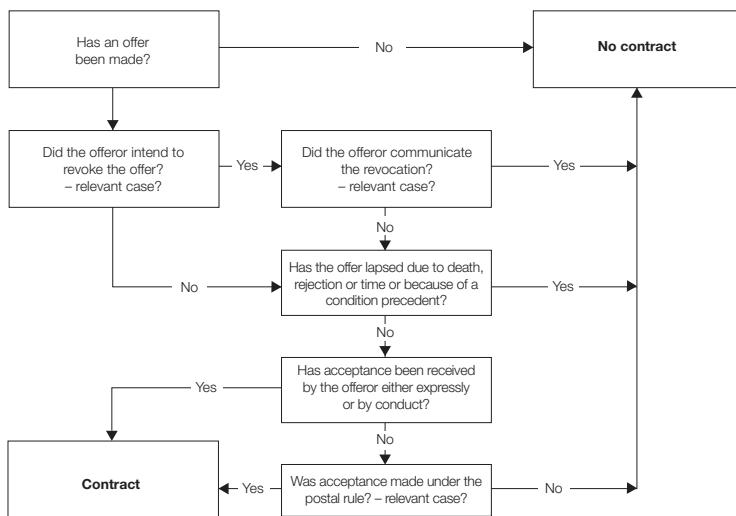
- e.g. for liability for negligence, you must ask if a duty of care existed and if a duty of care is owed
- the legal principles that you must apply
 - e.g. test for duty of care (reasonable foreseeability of injury and proximity or neighbour principle)
- relevant cases
 - e.g. Australian Safeway Stores Pty Ltd v Zaluzna [1887] – property owners owe a duty of care to their visitors or customer and must protect them from foreseeable injury
- defences
 - e.g. Did the plaintiff's conduct show a lack of care for their own safety? If so, did such conduct materially contribute to the occurrence of the accident?
- the legal principles that you must apply
 - e.g. you must establish 3 points to prove the defence – the plaintiff knew the danger, the plaintiff appreciated the risk of injury created by the danger and the plaintiff voluntarily agreed to accept the risk
- relevant cases
 - e.g. March v Stramare Pty Ltd [1991] – held that March contributed to the accident and damages were therefore reduced.

Flow charts

You may consider representing the application of law through a flowchart that can act as a prompt for each stage of application.

Figure 28: Example flow chart

Principal rules of offer and acceptance



Managing your summary notes

- consider using a folder or binder note book with clearly distinguishable sections
- use tags, notes and/or colour schemes to arrange major sections
- number your pages
- in addition to outlining the major sections of your summaries, ensure that your contents page outlines smaller integral elements of business law for easy location
- test and improve the usability of your summary notes by answering practise questions from past exam papers

Assessment tasks

There are at least two different styles of legal questions: legal problem solving tasks and essays. It is worthwhile reading about how to research and write before you start your academic papers. The following texts are very useful and are available from the Monash library.

Crosling, G. M., & Murphy, H. M. (2009). *How to study business law: reading, writing and exams*. (4th ed.). Chatswood, Australia: LexisNexis Butterworths.

Keyzer, P. (2003). *Legal problem solving: a guide for law students*. (2nd ed.). Chatswood, Australia: LexisNexis Butterworths.

There is no one correct way of responding to an assessment task. As the writer, you may decide to follow the method judges use in case reports, i.e. work out the legal problem, describe the law, discuss the law in relation to the facts and decide who has the strongest argument. The method you use to organise your response must address the set task, which always involves a discussion of the law in relation to the facts – i.e. link the law to the facts.

You need to be guided by your assessment task instructions and criteria about what type of research is required. It is beneficial to refer back to the task instructions a number of times during your research and writing, so that you remain clear about the set task.

Often there will be facts missing and you should identify missing facts; make reasonable assumptions about

what those missing facts are and apply the law to any missing facts you identify. You should also discuss the varying outcomes for different missing facts.

Even though you might think some information is obvious, it may still be necessary to state that information. For example, if you are asked whether a contract exists, you should explain each element that is required to exist before a contract exists and then discuss in more detail the ones that are uncertain in this set of facts. If you are asked whether there has been a breach of a section of an Act, and you think it is ‘obviously yes’ – you still need to explain why it has been breached. You might be surprised once you start to think of the issue from both parties’ point of view – it may be less obvious than you first thought.

Do not give a summary of the facts in your response – you have limited words. The facts will become evident as you use them in discussing how the law applies to them. Writing in business law subjects is very formal and structured. The use of subheadings can be beneficial with regard to logical sequencing of your answer. *Consult your Unit Guide and/or tutor regarding specific requirements for your work including the use of headings.*

Legal problem solving tasks

Legal problem solving tasks are set around hypothetical sets of facts such as this example taken from Keyzer (2002):

C Ltd was a manufacturer of cosmetics. A, who was allergic to certain face creams, contracted dermatitis after using a cream manufactured by C Ltd. It had previously been widely published in a pharmaceutical journal that an ingredient in this cream was causing allergic reactions of the kind suffered by A on an increasing scale. Advise C Ltd whether it is liable to pay damages to A. (p. 77)

The purpose of these legal problem solving tasks is to engage you in identifying issues and solving problems. When answering legal problem solving tasks, we recommend that you use the following framework/checklist, which has the acronym, IRAC (Identify, Rules, Application Conclusion).

Identify the issue

When you are presented with a hypothetical set of facts your first task is to identify and state the legal issues involved in the question. For example, is contract law involved (if so, what aspect)?; is it a trade practices issue? (e.g. misleading conduct); a company law issue? (e.g. breach of director's duty); negligence?

Let us consider Keyzer's example above. You need to ask some fundamental questions, such as:

- What is the overall area of law that this problem raises?
- What is the problem? Who has the problem?
- Who may have caused the problem?
- What may have caused the problem?
- What outcome does the party with the problem ideally want?

The simple answers to these questions are:

- contract law, implied terms
- the problem is dermatitis – A has the problem
- C may have caused the problem
- the cream may have caused the problem
- A wants compensation in the monetary form of damages; and the dermatitis to be healed

Rules/principles

Now that you have identified the issues you need to find the correct law/ principles that will help you solve the problem and determine who is liable for the harm caused. The law will be either a section of legislation or a principle from a case.

Let us return to Keyzer's example. From your case summaries you will notice that this example is similar to a previous case e.g. *Levi v Colgate Palmolive Pty Ltd* (1941) 41 SR (NSW) 48, so you will need to write out the rule from this case.

Application/argument

The next step is to argue for each party's position using both the law and the facts of your scenario. This involves explaining the relevance of the law to the scenario.

- understand each party's perspective, i.e. what each would argue to 'win' (i.e. achieve a 'fair' outcome) either as a plaintiff bringing a claim or as a defendant defending itself against the plaintiff's claim
- you need to consider the law from each party's point of view. This will support their arguments

e.g. Plaintiff presents their case first and presents specific arguments...

Defendant responds to the plaintiff's arguments...

Conclusion

Decide which argument is stronger. Consider the ways in which the parties could have acted to better manage their risks in order to avoid this legal problem. Arrive at a conclusion based on your preceding explanation, analysis and argument. Note that there is usually not one correct answer, although there may be one answer that is stronger than the others. Ensure you have explored the law in relation to the facts, and have put forward what you think the outcome/answer is.

Essays

Essay questions also require you to discuss and apply precedent cases and legislation, as appropriate, to a specific question. See Chapter 5 Essays for further details on essay structure and on developing an argument. *Consult your Unit Guide and/or tutor regarding specific requirements for your work including the use of headings.*

Researching for business law assessment tasks

Assessment tasks are set around the work that you have done in class or will do in class. You are expected to explore the content of your unit in greater depth. This means that you will need to do further research on relevant cases and laws. Consult your tutor or a librarian if you need assistance with finding this information.

When you are collecting information, make sure you record full publication details so that you reference correctly.

Referencing

In legal academic tasks, you will use both primary and secondary legal resources. Primary legal resources include cases and legislation, while secondary legal resources include journal articles and parliamentary second reading speeches.

For primary resources, use the *Australian Guide to Legal Citations* (AGLC) 3rd edition (2010) available online at <http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/tutorials/citing/lawcit.html>

For all secondary sources, use the APA style recommended by the Faculty of Business and Economics (see Chapter 10 Referencing).

In addition, we recommend you review the following resource:

Stuhmcke, A. (2005). *Legal referencing*. (3rd ed.). Chatswood, Australia: LexisNexis Butterworths.

Citing cases

When using cases, you must give the full citation of the case in the body of the assessment task (that is, an intext citation). By full citation it is meant that both of the primary parties' names must first be stated (in italics), then the year, the case reports' volume number, the abbreviated name of the report series and then the page number. There are no commas or full stops.

Figure 29: Citing cases

<i>R v Tang</i>	(2003)	237	CLR	1
<i>Bakker v Stewart</i>	[1980]		VR	17
Case Name ■ italics ■ R = "Rex" (for the government)	Year (round brackets if volume organised by volume number) [square brackets if volume organised by year]	Volume If relevant	Law Report Series ■ CAPITALS ■ initials only	Starting page

Examples

Hedley Byrne & Co Ltd v Heller & Partners [1963] 2 All ER 575

R v Tang (2003) 237 CLR 1, 7

Bakker v Stewart [1980] VR 17

Some cases may have a medium neutral citation (meaning that it is an unreported case and has no publisher or medium – consult your tutor for further details about this type of source). In this situation, the case is cited as follows: names of parties (in italics), then the year of publication, court abbreviation, judgement number assigned by the court and full date. There are no commas or full stops.

Figure 30: Citing medium neutral cases

<i>Quarmby v Keating</i>	(2009)	TASSC	80	(9 September 2009)
Case Name	[Year]	UNIQUE COURT IDENTIFIER	Judgement number	(Full Date)

Examples

Quarmby v Keating [2009] TASSC 80 (9 September 2009)

Strong v The Queen [2005] HCA 30 (3 August 2005)

Citing legislation

The usual method of statute citation is citation by short title: the short title of the Act is cited first, then the year it was passed by parliament (both should be in italics), and these are followed by the accepted abbreviated form of that parliament in brackets.

Figure 31: Citing legislation

<i>Crimes Act</i>	1958	(Vic.)
<i>Law and Justice Legislation Amendment Act (No 2)</i>	1992	(Cth.)
Title ■ italics	Year ■ italics	Jurisdiction ■ abbreviated ■ in brackets ■ followed by full stop

Examples

Crimes Act 1958 (Vic). *Social Welfare Ordinance 1964 (NT).*

Competition and Consumer Act 2010 (Cth).

Law and Justice Legislation Amendment Act (No 2) 1992 (Cth).

Law and Justice Legislation Amendment Act (No 4) 1992 (Cth).

Intext citation of cases and legislation

The following sample has been written in relation to the sample question: What is an ‘offer’ in contract law? It demonstrates intext referencing of text (Sweeney & O'Reilly, 2001, p. 70); cases *Harvey v Facey* [1893] AC 552; and law *Pharmacy and Poisons Act 1953* (UK).

“An offer may be described as the indication by one person to another of his willingness to enter into a contract with him on certain terms” (Sweeney & O'Reilly, 2001, p. 70). In *Harvey v Facey* [1893] AC 552, it was held that there was no offer because Facey was merely supplying information and a reasonable person would not interpret the telegram wording as showing an intention to be bound by the price.

An offer needs to be distinguished from an ‘invitation to treat’. “An invitation to treat may also be called an invitation to negotiate. It is an invitation to others to make an offer” (Sweeney & O'Reilly, 2001, p. 72). An example of this occurred in *Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain v Boots Cash Chemists (Southern) Ltd* [1953] 1 QB 401. Section 18 of the *Pharmacy and Poisons Act 1953* (UK) required registered pharmacists to supervise the sale of certain drugs. Boots set up a self-service chemist with a pharmacist supervising at the checkout (Sweeney & O'Reilly, 2001). “The English Court of Appeal unanimously decided that the offer was made by the customer when presenting the items at the checkout counter” (Sweeney & O'Reilly, 2001, p. 73). Thus, there was no breach of s 18 as the presentation of items on the shelves was an invitation to treat, and the ‘sale’ of the drugs occurred at the checkout where a registered pharmacist was supervising the sale (Latimer, 2001).

Figure 32: Quick guide to intext referencing of cases and legislation

Australian Guide to Legal Citation – Quick Reference Guide

Full citation	Subsequent references
Australian Cases	
<i>Tame v New South Wales</i> (2002) 211 CLR 317.	<i>Tame</i> (2002) 211 CLR 317.
<i>Andrew Shelton & Co Pty Ltd v Alpha Healthcare Ltd</i> (2002) 5 VR 577	<i>Alpha Healthcare Ltd</i> (2002) 5 VR 577.
<i>Nydam v The Queen</i> [1977] VR 430.	<i>Nydam</i> [1977] VR 430.
<i>DPP (Vic) v Finn</i> (2008) 186 A Crim R 235.	<i>Finn</i> (2008) 186 A Crim R 235
<i>Minister for Immigration and Citizenship v SZIAI</i> [2009] HCA 39 (23 September 2009).	<i>SZIAI</i> [2009] HCA 39 (23 September 2009).
<i>Barton v Chibber</i> (Unreported, Supreme Court of Victoria, Hampel J, 29 June 1989).	<i>Barton</i> (Unreported, Supreme Court of Victoria, Hampel J, 29 June 1989).
Australian Legislation	
<i>Australian Constitution</i> s 19.	
<i>Corporations Act 2001</i> (Cth).	<i>Corporations Act</i> s 9.
<i>Charter of Human Rights and Responsibilities Act 2006</i> (Vic)	<i>Charter</i> s 7
<i>Police Regulations 2003</i> (Vic)	<i>Police Regulations</i> reg 6.
Australian Securities Exchange, <i>Listing Rules</i> (at 11 January 2010).	<i>Listing Rules</i> r 1.3.1
Carbon Pollution Reduction Scheme Bill 2009 (Cth).	CPRS Bill 2009 cl 83.

Original Source: Melbourne University Law Review Association & Melbourne Journal of International Law. (2010). *Australian guide to legal citation*. (3rd ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Melbourne University Law Review Association. Supplement.

List of references

It is important to note that in a reference list, texts, cases and legislation are included under separate headings. There is no heading for general texts, but there are headings for Cases and Legislation. Under each heading, sources are in alphabetical order. The example below demonstrates the layout of a reference list. The first section is for general texts and is APA style. The second section is for cases and is AGCL style. The third section is for legislation and is AGCL style. The reference list is formatted APA style (see Q Manual Appendix C for further details):

- title, centred
- alphabetical order under each heading
- the first line of each reference flush left and subsequent line/s indented
- no blank line space between references
- reference, lines double spaced

Figure 33: Example reference list

References
Latimer, P. S. (2001). <i>Australian business law</i> . (21st ed.). North Ryde, Australia: CCH Australia.
Sweeney, B. & O'Reilly, J. (2001). <i>Law in commerce</i> . Chatswood, Australia: LexisNexis Butterworths.
Cases
<i>Harvey v Facey</i> [1893] AC 552
<i>Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain v Boots Cash Chemists (Southern) Ltd</i> [1953] 1 QB 401
Legislation
<i>Pharmacy and Poisons Act 1953 (UK)</i>

Appendix A

Instruction words

The following list contains some of the more common instruction words for assignments. Synonyms for instruction words include 'direction words', 'command words', 'task words' and 'function words'. Use this list as a reference resource.

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| account for | explain something by giving reasons why it happens or why it is the way it is. |
| analyse | consider the nature of something by identifying the elements/parts and showing how they are related. Describe, discuss and give reasons for what you find. Analysing must be done in a methodical and logical way. |
| argue | present a case defending a position. Make sure you state your position and provide reasons for your position plus evidence for each of your reasons. |
| assess | use criteria to measure the value or success of something. Be sure of your facts and make your argument strong. |
| classify | carefully consider the items that you have to discuss and group them together logically. You do this to (and justify) show your understanding of the similarities and differences between the items. You usually need to explain your reasons for grouping the items in a particular way. |
| comment on | identify the important points and write about them. Neglecting crucial points in favour of minor points loses marks. |
| compare | identify characteristics or qualities that resemble each other. Emphasise similarities and mention differences where appropriate. |
| contrast | stress the dissimilarities and differences between things, events, problems or qualities. |
| consider | think very carefully about the issue and present your argument logically. Avoid putting ideas randomly into your writing. |
| criticise | write about the strengths and weaknesses of something. Make a judgement about whether there are more strengths or weaknesses. |
| define | refer to how experts in the field use the term (not a simple dictionary definition). Say whether you are using one definition (and why you chose it over others) or whether you are combining features from two or more definitions. Give the limits of the definition and show how it differs from items in other classes. |
| describe | Write about the features of something in a logical manner. Do not give your opinion or explain why it is the way it is. |

differentiate between	focus on the fine differences between two or more things. You may mention similarities briefly, but this or distinguish is about what makes things different from each other and why the difference is important.
discuss	write about an issue from two or more viewpoints and give balanced support and examples for each viewpoint. Then make a judgement about how satisfactory each viewpoint is based on the evidence you gave.
outline	present the main features and any important subordinate points- omit minor details. Stress the arrangement or classification.
review	examine critically, analysing and commenting on important or controversial statements.
state	present the point without explanation, examples or details.
summarise	give the main points in condensed form. Omit details, examples or explanations.
to what extent?	discuss an issue and evaluate what you find. You will almost certainly favour one side of the issue and must give reasons why. Total agreement or disagreement – or balancing both (or all) sides equally- is highly unlikely.
trace	this implies writing about the main points of the history/chronology of something. Your selection of the main points is crucial.

Appendix B

Reporting verbs

Reporting verbs used in author prominent (i.e. author before information) citing can do a lot of work for you. Brick (2006, pp.113–116) identifies three categories of reporting verbs, modified below:

1. neutral research reporting verbs such as *study*, *investigate*, *research*, *explore* used simply to introduce the topic studied by the source, e.g.
 - Smith (2009) *investigated* the effect of natural disasters on small business
 - Jones (2010) *studied* changes in SES organisational structure over a five year period
2. discourse reporting verbs used to comment on what the source is doing with the information, e.g.

Reporting verb	Aspect or job
state	to indicate your source presents something as a fact
claim	to indicate your source has presented something as fact/is advancing an argument
point out	to indicate your source emphasises something
explain	to indicate your source gives details of how or why
discuss	to indicate your source examines in something in detail
mention	to indicate your source deals with the issue very briefly
note	to indicate your source deals with the issue very briefly
conclude	to indicate the conclusion the source reaches
argue	to present your source's position
posit/postulate	to present your source's position
reject	to indicate your source does not support a position
evaluate	to indicate your source is making a judgement
suggest	to indicate your source thinks something is possibly important but needs further investigation
emphasise	to indicate your source's most important point

3. evaluating reporting verbs used to show your judgement of the source, e.g.

Reporting verb	Aspect or job
contend	you disagree with your source's position
assert	you distance yourself from the source's position
assume	you think the source has treated something a fact but you believe it is not
reveal	you think the source gives information previously hidden or not widely known
allege	you think the source makes a claim without proof
imply	you think the source says something indirectly (knowingly or unknowingly)
exaggerate	you think the source places too much emphasis on something

Find, highlight and learn how reporting verbs are used in academic sources. Choose reporting verbs to clarify and strengthen your position.

Appendix C

Assignment presentation guidelines

The information contained in this appendix is based on American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual* (6th ed.); all page numbers below refer to this edition. If in doubt, refer to the APA Publication manual. You are also advised to consult with your tutors and/or Unit Guide regarding any specific expectations for your work.

For detailed layout and presentation guidelines relating to Reports, see Chapter 7.

Title (p.23)	Occupies a separate page Number the page 1 Title: is no more than 12 words Font = Times New Roman, choose font size Capital letter for each word Centred On upper half of page Include other details (e.g. course code, lecturer) as required on lower half of page Record title (abbreviated where necessary) and page number (top left) in the header so that it appears on every page (p.230)
Abstract (p.229)	Occupies a separate page Number the page 2 Title: centred, Times New Roman 12pt (use Heading 1-see below) Text: Times New Roman 12pt, Left justified (no indent) Double line spacing Standard margins Type as a single paragraph 150–200 words Leave the remainder of the page blank
Text (p.27–36; p.229)	Begin on a new page Number the page 3 Font = Times New Roman 12 Double line spacing Standard margins Typing is left justified only (ragged right) Indent first line of every paragraph Begin each new paragraph on the next line (do not leave a blank line between paragraphs) Continue sections immediately after previous (do not begin each section on a new page), separated by headings if required Number every page Double spacing after full stops is preferred (p.88)
Headings (p.62)	Level of Heading 1 Centred, bold , UPPERCASE and lowercase, 14pt 2 Flush left, bold , UPPERCASE and lowercase, 12 pt 3 Indented, bold , lowercase, end with a full stop. 12 pt 4 Indented, bold , <i>italicise</i> , lowercase, end with a full stop.12 pt 5 Indented, italicise , lowercase, end with a full stop.12 pt The first letter of all headings is UPPERCASE. Do not number headings (p.63) – the heading style is sufficient. There is no heading for an introduction – its position at the beginning of the text is sufficient. (p.63)

	<p>Figures (p.125–167) You may use single or one-and-a-half line spacing within tables or figures See the APA Publication manual Chapter 5 for details regarding different types of figures.</p>
	<p>Block quotations (p.171) Used for direct quotes of 40 + words Body text ends with a colon Begin block quote on new line The text for the whole quote is indented The first line of each paragraph in a block quote is further indented Font = Times New Roman 12 Double line spacing Reference after final punctuation <i>Sample block quote</i> Others have contradicted this view: Co-presence does not ensure intimate interaction among all group members. Consider large-scale social gatherings in which hundreds or thousands of people gather in a location to perform a ritual or celebrate an event. In these instances, participants are able to see the visible manifestation of the group, the physical gathering, yet their ability to make direct, intimate connections with those around them is limited by the sheer magnitude of the assembly. (Purcell, 1997, pp. 111–112) Despite these contradictory views....</p>
References (p.37; p.230)	<p>Begin on a new page Title: centred, Uppercase and lowercase letters, Times New Roman 12 (use Heading 1 – see above) Entries: In alphabetical order by first surname Times New Roman 12 Double line spacing Hanging indent (for each entry, first line flush left, subsequent line/s indented)</p>
Appendices (p.39; p.230)	<p>Begin each appendix on a new page Title: Centre the title for each appendix, Uppercase and lowercase letters, Times New Roman 12 (use Heading 1 – see above) Label each appendix alphabetically e.g. Appendix A, Appendix B, etc in order according to when they are mentioned in the text. Text: first line flush left, followed by indented paragraphs Figures: see details for different types of figures (rules are the same as for figures in the body text)</p>

References

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

