ACADEMIC ENGLISH

English Stage 6

for
English (ESL) Module B: Texts and Society
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Introduction

This document replaces the previous English (ESL) document Studying in English, for the Higher School Certificate 2009–2012.

It is designed to assist teachers in the delivery of the Academic English elective in Module B (Texts and Society) of the English (ESL) Stage 6 Syllabus. It contains material to assist students to develop their skills and their understanding of how to effectively use the English language for further study in an academic context.

Included are examples of different kinds of texts and contexts that students engage with as they compose and respond in the key learning areas. The examples reflect authentic learning contexts; some are extracts from texts, while others are writing and speaking tasks typical of those required in a range of subjects.

In the English (ESL) course, Academic English provides the basis for further exploration of the types of texts and contexts that students meet in their study for the HSC and beyond. Students examine and reflect on language forms and features and structures of texts, and the demands of particular learning contexts, to:

- develop their understanding of how texts are structured in particular ways
- improve their ability to locate and use information
- improve their ability to compose and respond for particular purposes of study.

Text features and structures can be applied to subjects other than those from which the texts are drawn.

Context

Module B: Texts and Society

‘This module requires students to explore and analyse texts used in a specific situation. It assists students’ understanding of the ways that texts communicate information, ideas, bodies of knowledge, attitudes and belief systems in ways particular to specific areas of society.’ (Board of Studies NSW, 1999, English Stage 6 Syllabus — English as a Second Language (ESL), page 74)

Elective 2: Academic English

‘In this elective, students explore the kinds of texts that are widely used in formal learning situations. They respond to and compose texts appropriate to particular learning situations relevant to students’ needs and interests. They consider what these texts imply about the construction of knowledge in particular fields of study.’ (Board of Studies NSW, 2007, English Stage 6 Prescriptions: Area of Study, Electives and Texts, page 29)
How to use this material

Academic English should be used to augment resource materials collected by the teacher and students. These materials should be from a range of sources relevant to the needs and interests of students. Students are not required to have knowledge of the content of specific texts.
How this document is organised

ANALYSE
pp 9–26

Analysing questions:
- examinations
- essays

Locating information and reading for information gathering:
- researching online
- reading the internet

Note-taking:
- plagiarism
- paraphrasing
- abbreviations

Reflecting on the process:
- research skills learning log

SYNTHESISE
pp 27–44

Drafting an extended essay:
- synthesising your information

Using appropriate forms and features

Differences between essays, reports and journals

Oral presentations
Persuasive speaking

EVALUATE AND PRESENT
pp 45–53

Editing
Referencing

Reference
Academic English
Board of Studies NSW

7
### Overview: planning and writing an extended response

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyse</th>
<th>Analyse the question/topic – <em>highlight key words</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make a preliminary plan – <em>identify steps to prepare a response</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gather information – <em>locate resources, make notes, record bibliographical information</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Refine your plan – <em>consider possible formats</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synthesise</th>
<th>Draw all the information together – <em>organise according to the chosen format</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Draft the introduction</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Draft the body</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Draft the conclusion</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluate</th>
<th>Review your response:  <em>did you answer the question?</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>did you support your ideas fully?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Revise/rewrite for clarity of expression and depth of response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Edit for accuracy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Compile the appendices, bibliography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type and proofread</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 Analyse

1.1 Analysing questions and planning responses
   – HSC examination questions
   – Essay questions
   – Pathways of key words in assessment tasks
   – ‘Analysing your topic’: Curtin University Library Infotrek

1.2 Locating resources and reading for information gathering
   – Researching online: locating and evaluating websites
   – Checklist for reading the internet

1.3 Note-taking
   – Graphic outlines: main idea, supporting information
   – Plagiarism: Board of Studies ‘All My Own Work’
   – Paraphrasing: Online Writing Lab ‘Write it in your own words’
   – Notemaking abbreviations: Charles Darwin University Learnline

1.4 Reflecting on the process
   – Research skills learning log
1.1 Analysing questions and planning responses

Sample HSC Examination Question

Question:
Stories involve us in a range of experiences.

How is narrative used to involve you in the experiences presented in your prescribed text, and in at least one other related text of your own choosing?

1. What do I write?

Question Focus

Question key words: How … narrative … involve … experiences

Other factors: Prescribed text … other text(s)

2. How do I write it?

Form

Critical response

Purpose/Audience

To explain and argue / Academic audience

Register

Formal academic

Structure

HSC Assessment key words:*  
Identify, Explain/Analyse, Justify

Identify
What are the narrative techniques?

Explain
How are they used?  
– examples from texts.

Justify
How involvement is achieved, through describing the effect of specific examples.

Analyse
Relationships between narrative elements within and across texts.

* Board of Studies key words for examinations and assessment tasks – see http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/syllabus_hsc/glossary_keywords.html

Also, see p 15 in this document for Pathways of Key Words
HSC Examination Question Exercise

Question:
Your local library is conducting a speaking competition called ‘What makes a story great?’
Write the speech you present for the competition on this question.
In your speech, you should refer to your prescribed text, and one text of your own choosing.

CIRCLE KEY WORDS IN THE QUESTION**

1. What do I write?

   Question Focus
   Question key words:
   Other factors:

2. How do I write it?

   Form
   Purpose/Audience
   Register
   Structure
   HSC Assessment key words:

   

** See next page for an example of an analysis.
Example of analysis

Question:

Your local library is conducting a speaking competition called ‘What makes a story great?’

Write the speech you present for the competition on this question.

In your speech, you should refer to your prescribed text, and one text of your own choosing.

1. What do I write?

Question Focus

Question key words: local library … speaking competition … story … great

Other factors: prescribed text … other text(s)

2. How do I write it?

Form

Persuasive speech

Purpose/Audience

To explain and argue / local community

Register

Semi-formal: Can include personal pronouns, humour, colloquial language

Structure

HSC Assessment key words:

Identify, Explain/Analyse, Justify

Identify

What elements make a story great?

Explain

Where are they used?
– examples from texts.

Justify

How reader response is achieved, through describing the effect of specific examples.

Analyse

Relationships between narrative elements within and across texts.
Essay Question Exercise

Question:

Identify the changes we can expect in work patterns in Australia in the 21st century.

Outline the forces producing these changes, and evaluate these changes in terms of the benefits and drawbacks to individuals and society.

** CIRCLE KEY WORDS IN THE QUESTION**
** UNDERLINE ASSESSMENT KEY WORDS**

1. **What do I write?**

   **Question Focus**

   Question key words:

   Other factors:

2. **How do I write it?**

   **Form**

   **Purpose/Audience**

   **Register**

   **Structure**

   HSC Assessment key words

** See next page for an example of an analysis.

Also see p 19 for a graphic outline of this section, p 37 for an annotated final draft of one section and pp 48–50 for unedited and edited drafts.
Example of analysis

Question: **

Identify the changes we can expect in work patterns in Australia in the 21st century. Outline the forces producing these changes, and evaluate these changes in terms of the benefits and drawbacks to individuals and society.

1. What do I write?

Question Focus

Question key words: changes … work patterns … Australia in the 21st century … forces producing … benefits and drawbacks

Other factors: Assessment key words: identify … outline … evaluate

2. How do I write it?

Form

Discussion essay

Purpose/Audience

Academic

Register

Formal academic

Structure

HSC Assessment key words:

Identify, Outline, Discuss, Evaluate

Identify

Changes expected in work patterns.

Outline

Forces producing these changes.

Discuss

Benefits and drawbacks.

Evaluate

Overall impact.

** Also see p 19 for a graphic outline of this section, p 37 for an annotated final draft of one section and pp 48–50 for unedited and edited drafts.
Pathways of key words* in assessment tasks

Third Storey: Why?
   Evaluative
   - Critically evaluate
   - Justify
   - Assess
   - Synthesise
   - Analyse
   - Compare
   - Pros and cons

Second Storey: How?
   Interpretive/Inferential
   - Explain
   - Discuss

First Storey: What?
   Literal
   - Distinguish
   - Outline
   - Identify
   - Contrast

(See Board of Studies Glossary of Key Words; see also Bloom’s Taxonomy)
‘Analysing your topic’ – Curtin University Library Infotrekk

The Curtin University of Technology Library website provides help in approaching an assignment topic through its Infotrekk online resources. **Trek 1** provides strategies for analysing questions, followed by an online quiz.

1.2 Locating resources and reading for information gathering

Researching online: locating and evaluating websites

Locating and Evaluating Websites

Using websites for information: what’s the issue?
According to a recent study on popular search engines such as Google and Yahoo, there are more than 11.5 billion webpages publicly available on the web. For students and teachers trying to locate relevant and valid information, the task can be complex.

A point to remember before starting
It’s important to start out with some basic knowledge of your topic, so you are able to compare information on a website with what you already know. This may give you some clues about its accuracy.

1. DEFINING and LOCATING

Finding information / constructing a search:
- What precisely do you need to know – what search terms will produce the most useful results?
- How can you further refine your search?
  
  Note: Google has useful advanced search tips, including the use of search operators.
  Also see RMIT University Library tutorial on refining a search:
  http://www.rmit.edu.au/browse;ID=bp4kn7db9soez

2. SELECTING

Looking at authority and credibility:
- Who created the site? The domain name can provide clues about this (.com, .gov, .org, .edu).
- Why have they developed the site – is there a hidden purpose? Is there evidence of bias? Does it present both sides of an issue?
- Have the authors cited their sources?

Looking at content:
- How comprehensive is the information? How confident can you be about its accuracy?
- Is the information current enough – does it state when it was published and/or revised?
- Does this site provide information not available from other sources?

See the ‘Checklist for Reading the Internet’ on page 18.
# Checklist for reading the internet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading websites</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Website 1</th>
<th>Website 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognise context</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ site owner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ focus, limit and extent of information provided on the site</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ purpose of the site</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Differentiate between fact and opinion</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Read the components of the text</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ combination of words, graphics, colour, movement, sound, design</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Read the text as a whole</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ to follow the signals provided by the designer to direct you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ to read the text and its emphases critically</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ to recognise the target audience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Read the values and imagery</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Read the links</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ why each link has been included: how it relates to the concerns of the website</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ how the links define the context of the website</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ the extent to which the links are in accord with the user’s expectations of the website</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ the usefulness, reliability and relevance of the links for the user’s purpose</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Respond to the language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ is it personalised language creating a personalised construct in an impersonal context?</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>■ formal language of authority</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ familiar colloquial language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>■ enjoyment offered in a serious context</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Note-taking

Using graphic outlines for main ideas and supporting information*

Essay question:

*Identify the changes we can expect in work patterns in Australia in the 21st century.*

*Outline the forces producing these changes, and evaluate these changes in terms of the benefits and drawbacks to individuals and society.*

One section of the essay will focus on changes to women’s participation in the workforce.

Notes from readings on this topic can be summarised in a graphic outline:

- **CAUSES:**
  - Women are ...
  - ... better educated
  - ... less likely to give up careers
  - ... benefiting from in-service industry

- **CHANGE:**
  - More women in the workforce in 21st century

- **EVIDENCE:**
  - Participation 1976–96
    - Women 44% (up 54%)
    - Men 79% (down 73%)

- **EFFECTS:**

- **BENEFITS:**
  - more demand for childcare
  - more men’s involvement in family life

- **DRAWBACKS:**
  - Many women work part-time, leading to:
    - low pay
    - less security
    - fewer opportunities

* See p 37 for an annotated final draft of this section, and pp 48–50 for unedited and edited drafts.

Also see pp 13–14 for an analysis of the full question.
Plagiarism: ‘All My Own Work’

Plagiarism - screen 3

What strategies can be employed to avoid plagiarism?

Consider this situation

You are really into your Design and Technology project and have another big research assignment due. You decide to copy and paste the information from various websites and join it all up with your own ideas for the assignment. You deliberately didn’t include references for the websites you’ve copied from and only listed some books and an encyclopedia article which you read, but didn’t take any information from.

Now, you’re worried!

You know you’ve plagiarised.

You just hope your teacher doesn’t realise.

What are the issues in this situation?

- Honesty - your academic integrity is at stake. You should be more concerned with this than the risk of being caught.
- Lack of knowledge of plagiarism detection methods - it is much easier for teachers to detect plagiarism than many students realise.
- Wasting time on the whole assignment, instead of learning from it - your learning depends on you doing your own work.
- You are being unfair to other students.

The consequences could be:

- zero marks
- shame and humiliation
- an absence of genuine learning.

Plagiarism can be avoided by acknowledging the sources used by:

- writing in-text references or footnotes in the body of your work to acknowledge quotations, summaries, paraphrases and copies
- writing a reference list
- writing a bibliography.

What’s the difference between quoting, summarising and paraphrasing?

Quoting is using the author’s words exactly. (Enclose the author’s words in quotation marks if it is a direct quote, or set it off as an indented paragraph if it is a long quote.)

A summary selects and condenses the main idea of a text.

Paraphrasing is putting someone else’s idea(s) into your own words. A paraphrase covers the point the author has made, while changing the words.

All three must have citations and must be listed in your reference list.

Consider this situation

Here are the words of the original source:

'Some people cheat because they don’t understand the seriousness of what they are doing and tell themselves it does not matter. Some people cheat accidentally because they do not understand plagiarism.' (Board of Studies NSW, HSC Assessments and Submitted Works, Advice to Students, 2006)

Which of the following paraphrases would be considered plagiarism?

People cheat because they don’t think it is serious or that it matters. Other people cheat accidentally because they don’t understand plagiarism.

Plagiarism?

People cheat because they don’t understand that it is serious or that it matters. Others cheat by accident because they don’t understand plagiarism. (Board of Studies NSW, HSC Assessments and Submitted Works, Advice to Students, 2006)

Plagiarism?

According to the Board of Studies NSW (2006), some people are either unaware that it is a serious matter to cheat or they cheat accidentally because they do not understand plagiarism.

Plagiarism?
Paraphrasing without plagiarising

Paraphrase: Write it in Your Own Words

Learn to borrow from a source without plagiarising.

Anytime you are taking information from a source that is not your own, you need to specify where you got that information.

The information on this page and the following page is from http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/563/02/

A paraphrase is...

■ Your own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form.

■ One legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation*) to borrow from a source.

■ A more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea.

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because...

■ It is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage.

■ It helps you control the temptation to quote too much.

■ The mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original.

Six steps to effective paraphrasing

1. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.

2. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.

3. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.

4. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.

5. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.

6. Record the source (including the page number) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

* An appropriate in-text citation and a detailed footnote, endnote or entry in a reference list.
Some examples to compare

The original passage:
Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. Lester, James D. Writing Research Papers. 2nd ed. (1976): 46–47.

A legitimate paraphrase:
In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimise the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46–47).

An acceptable summary:
Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimise the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester 46–47).

A plagiarised version:
Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

After reviewing this handout, try an exercise on paraphrasing at http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/print/research/r_paraphrEX1.html.

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For more information on paraphrasing, as well as other ways to integrate sources into your paper, see the Purdue University Online Writing Lab resource ‘Quoting, Paraphrasing, and Summarizing’ at http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_quotprsum.html
Common notemaking abbreviations

Adapted from Charles Darwin University Learnline: Study Skills – Notemaking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>About, regarding, concerning</td>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Against, opposite, versus</td>
<td>vs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>😊</td>
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<tr>
<td>And</td>
<td>&amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And others</td>
<td>et al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And so on, and so forth</td>
<td>etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximately, roughly, round about</td>
<td>~</td>
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<td>At</td>
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<td>Because</td>
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<td>Confused, clarify</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confused totally</td>
<td>???!!!</td>
</tr>
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<td>Copyright</td>
<td>©</td>
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<tr>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>defn</td>
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<tr>
<td>Don’t, does not</td>
<td>dx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Down, declining, decreasing</td>
<td>↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each way</td>
<td>↔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal to or greater than</td>
<td>≥</td>
</tr>
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<td>Equal to or less than</td>
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<td>Especially</td>
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<td>Frequency</td>
<td>fr</td>
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<tr>
<td>Greater than</td>
<td>&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>*</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1.4 Reflecting on the process

Research skills learning log

Answer the following questions in your learning log. Remember to use personal examples whenever possible. The purpose of a log is to help you to reflect on your learning experiences and build your understanding of effective learning strategies.

Analysis of a research task
1. Describe, in your own words, the steps involved in analysing a research task.
2. Show how to analyse a research task. Use an assessment task that you have completed in the last twelve months.
3. To what extent do you currently feel that you can understand the Board of Studies key question terms? Choose three terms that you understand and explain them in your own words. Choose three terms that you find difficult to understand and try to explain in your own words what you currently understand them to mean.
4. In what ways has analysing tasks been useful to you in your studies?

Finding resources
1. What is skimming and why do readers skim texts?
2. When do you need to skim-read during research?
3. What is scanning and why do readers scan texts?
4. When do you need to scan during research?
5. How much do you use the skills of skimming and scanning and how has it helped you in your research?

Using the internet
1. Describe how you researched a topic on the internet. (What search engine did you use? How successful was your choice of key words? How did you narrow your search? How did you identify appropriate websites? How useful was the information that you found?)
2. What is your favourite search engine and why?
3. How can you check a website for reliability and currency?
4. Give examples of TWO reliable and TWO unreliable websites and explain how you know they are reliable or unreliable.
5. What is the value of the internet to your study? To what extent has this course helped you to use the internet effectively?

Taking notes and summarising
1. Why is it important to have a clear purpose before you start taking notes?
2. Explain how you can identify the main idea and supporting information in a paragraph.
3. What kinds of information or words should you highlight when taking notes or summarising?
4. Why is it important to take notes in your own words and in point form?

5. Demonstrate, briefly, how to take notes using abbreviations.

6. What is a graphic outline? Choose two types of graphic outline that you find useful and explain why they are useful to your study.

7. What other information should you record when taking notes?

8. Explain the value of good notes and summaries to your study.
2 Synthesise

2.1 Drafting an extended essay response: synthesising your information

2.2 Appropriate form and features
   – linking the purpose of the response to an appropriate structure
   – modality
   – nominalisation

2.3 Transition signals in writing

2.4 Annotated essay response: form, structure and features

2.5 Differences between essays, reports and journals

2.6 Oral presentations

2.7 Aristotle’s Principles of Persuasion

2.8 Persuasive speaking – an example
## 2.1 Drafting an extended essay response: synthesising your information

Adapted from B Pillans  
St Ives HS

### TEXT FORM

**Before you begin to write:**
- Make sure you’ve selected an appropriate structure for your essay.
- Draw together your notes from different sources into the plan.

### LANGUAGE

**Use a formal register:**
- Use third person (unless a personal response is called for).
- Avoid colloquialisms and abbreviations.
- Use the technical language of the subject.
- Combine short sentences into a complex sentence to express ideas at a deeper level.
- Be concise by using nominalisation – creating nouns from verbs:
  - ‘The composer describes the setting…’ becomes ‘The description of the setting…’

**Make your essay cohesive:**
- Use appropriate connectives, such as ‘in addition’, ‘for example’, ‘although’.
- Keep referring back to the question – use the words of the question (or synonyms) throughout, not just in the introduction and conclusion.

### TEXT STRUCTURE

**Introduction:**
- Use the words of the question in your first sentence(s) to describe the issue, establish your thesis, or outline the phenomenon.
- Define terms used in the question if necessary.
- Outline the points you are going to make in the essay (these can become the focus sentences of your paragraphs).

**Paragraph structure:**
- Start with a focus sentence to outline what the paragraph is about.
- Next, elaborate on this and provide examples or evidence.
- Then write a concluding sentence that explains the significance of the paragraph.
- Follow the same points that were outlined in the introduction.

**Conclusion:**
- This is as important as the rest of the essay. Clearly summarise your main points, making links back to the question.
- Make some evaluation or concluding remarks that show what you think is most significant, or state a personal judgement or prediction based on your evidence.
## 2.2 Appropriate form and features

### Linking the purpose of the response to an appropriate structure

The social purpose of a factual text may be to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Type of Text</th>
<th>Blended Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DESCRIBE</td>
<td>Descriptions: personal, commonsense, technical</td>
<td>Science experiments • Reviews • Travelogues • Commentaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explanations: how, why, Elaborations</td>
<td>Interviews • Letters • News stories • Articles • Web pages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedural Guides, Manuals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPLAIN</td>
<td>Essays, Expositions, Discussions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUCT</td>
<td>Debates, Evaluations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARGUE</td>
<td>Recounts: personal, historical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUCT</td>
<td>... to state a position on an issue and argue a case for or against</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>... to examine issues for more than one perspective and make a recommendation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOUNT</td>
<td>... to record a series of events in the sequence in which they occurred</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modality

The term ‘modality’ describes a range of grammatical resources used to express probability or obligation. Generally, obligation is used in speech, especially when wanting to get things done such as ‘You should keep your room tidy.’ In writing, modality of probability is used to indicate the degree or qualification of a writer’s position in relation to absolute truth or fact, in order to manipulate a reader’s perspective; for example, ‘It may be necessary to punish those who disobey the rules.’ Modality is expressed through various grammatical devices:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal auxiliaries</th>
<th>eg: can, should, will, might</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal adverbs</td>
<td>eg: possibly (indicating probability, usuality, presumption, inclination, time, degree, intensity)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal nouns</td>
<td>eg: possibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal adjectives</td>
<td>eg: possible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MODAL ADVERBS**

Modal adverbs express the writer’s judgement regarding the ‘truth’ of a proposition. They typically appear just before or just after the finite element. They can, however, appear at the start of the proposition. The following list of modal adverbs classifies them according to their typical use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>certainly surely, probably, perhaps, maybe, possibly, definitely, positively</th>
<th>Probability/obligation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>always, often, usually, regularly, typically, occasionally, seldom, rarely, ever, never, once</td>
<td>Usuality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evidently, apparently, presumably, clearly, no doubt, obviously, of course, personally, honestly</td>
<td>Presumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gladly, willingly, readily</td>
<td>Inclination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yet, still, already, once, soon, just</td>
<td>Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quite, almost, nearly, totally, entirely, utterly, completely, literally, absolutely, scarcely, hardly, on the whole, provisionally</td>
<td>Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>just, simply, ever, only, really, actually, seriously</td>
<td>Intensity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RHETORICAL FUNCTION OF MODALITY

Writing has two important functions: one is representational in that it is telling the reader about something; the other is rhetorical in that it is positioning the reader to accept the truth or importance of what is being said. Modality is an important resource in the latter function. Writers often use adjectives and nouns in this way as an effective persuasive device. For example,

It is necessary to take a first aid kit. adjective

This is a different use of the adjective ‘necessary’ to the following, where it is used to describe a piece of equipment.

A first aid kit is a necessary item to take.

Adapted from Knapp, P. and Watkins, M., Genre, Text, Grammar, 2005, Sydney: UNSW Press
Nominalisation

Nominalisation is the process of forming a noun from a verb or clause.

**NOMINALISATION OF A CLAUSE**

We need to keep the park so children have somewhere to play.

➔ We need to keep the park for children’s recreation.

**NOMINALISTRATION OF A VERB**

Because the President failed to remove the troops, many deaths occurred.

➔ The failure to remove the troops resulted in many deaths.

Nominalisations are a feature of particular types of writing, such as essays and technical writing that need to use abstract ideas and concepts. Arguments often use nominalisations as they can effectively remove agency and time from statements and therefore render the propositions more difficult to refute. Narrative writing, on the other hand, generally makes less use of nominalisations.

Nominalising clauses and verbs enable the removal of agency and time from processes, as in the President example above where the process of *failing* has become *failure*, a timeless, agentless phenomenon.

Nominalisations can be formed by simply using the present participle of the verb, such as singing, running or killing, or by adding suffixes as in the following examples:

- frustrate – frustration; nominalise – nominalisation – tion
- argue – argument; govern – government – ment
- refuse – refusal; propose – proposal – al

2.3 Transition signals in writing

Transition Signals in Writing

What are Transition Signals?

Transition signals are connecting words or phrases that act like bridges between parts of your writing. They link your sentences and paragraphs together smoothly so that there are no abrupt jumps or breaks between ideas.

Transition signals act like signposts to indicate to the reader the order and flow of your writing and ideas. They strengthen the internal cohesion of your writing. Using transitions makes it easier for the reader to follow your ideas. They help carry over a thought from one sentence to another, from one paragraph to another, or from one idea to another.

There are several types of transition signals. Some lead your reader forward and imply the building of an idea or thought, while others make your reader compare ideas or draw conclusions from the preceding thoughts.

Sample Paragraphs

During the early twentieth century, Australian society experienced a transformation of the domestic ideal. At this time families were subject to an increasing array of government and 'professional' programs and advice aiming to manage and regulate family life. Some of these programs were designed to counter social changes, others were designed to engineer them; ultimately, each heralded a growing expert encroachment into the private sphere.

Intervention and influence took three forms. Firstly, techniques designed to maximise efficiency were introduced into the home and scientific principles were applied to its design. In addition, housework and parenting methods were scrutinised and subject to unprecedented standards. Secondly, all aspects of reproduction attracted increasing intervention from government and the medical profession. Thirdly, state, professional and philanthropic groups began to usurp the parental role within the family through instruction and policy. As a result, the development of 'modern' social ideals brought regulation, intervention and ever-increasing unrealistic standards.
## List of Transition Signals

**To indicate sequence or to order information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First, second etc.</th>
<th>Followed by</th>
<th>At this point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Next, last, finally</td>
<td>Previously, subsequently</td>
<td>After that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initially</td>
<td>And then</td>
<td>Next, before, after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concurrently</td>
<td>Simultaneously</td>
<td>Meanwhile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To introduce an example**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In this case</th>
<th>For example</th>
<th>For instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On this occasion</td>
<td>To illustrate</td>
<td>To demonstrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This can be seen</td>
<td>When/where...</td>
<td>Take the case of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To indicate time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Immediately</th>
<th>Thereafter</th>
<th>Formerly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finally</td>
<td>Prior to</td>
<td>Previously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Then</td>
<td>Soon</td>
<td>During</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At that time</td>
<td>Before, after</td>
<td>At this point</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To logically divide an idea**

| First, next, finally | Firstly, secondly, thirdly | Initially, subsequently, ultimately |

*Synthesise*
### Synthesise

#### To compare

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarly</th>
<th>by comparison</th>
<th>similar to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>like, just like</td>
<td>whereas</td>
<td>balanced against</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### To contrast

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in contrast</th>
<th>on the other hand</th>
<th>balanced against</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>however</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
<td>unlike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differing from</td>
<td>a different view is</td>
<td>despite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### To introduce an additional idea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in addition</th>
<th>also</th>
<th>finally</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moreover</td>
<td>furthermore</td>
<td>one can also say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and then</td>
<td>further</td>
<td>another</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### To introduce an opposite idea or show exception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>however</th>
<th>on the other hand</th>
<th>whereas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instead</td>
<td>while</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>despite</td>
<td>in spite of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nevertheless</td>
<td>even though</td>
<td>in contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it could also be said that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Synthesise

**To give an example**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>for example</th>
<th>to illustrate</th>
<th>for instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in this case</td>
<td>to demonstrate</td>
<td>take the case of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To indicate a result/ cause of something**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>therefore</th>
<th>thus</th>
<th>consequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as a consequence</td>
<td>as a result</td>
<td>hence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**To summarise or conclude**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in summary</th>
<th>in conclusion</th>
<th>in brief</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as a result</td>
<td>on the whole</td>
<td>summing up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as shown</td>
<td>ultimately</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>thus</td>
<td>in other words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to conclude</td>
<td>to summarise</td>
<td>finally</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Links**

- Transition Signals in Engineering, Monash University Learning Online
- Connective words, UniLearning, The University of Wollongong
- Transition Cues, LEO: Literacy Education Online, St. Cloud State University
A greater representation of women in the workforce will be a significant feature of the employment scene as we move into the next century. Of course, this is not a new development. Between 1976 and 1996, participation rates of women in the workforce have increased from 44% to 54%, while the participation rates for men have declined from 79% to 73% for the same period. This trend is expected to continue, so that by 2011, the participation rate for women should rise to 57% while the rate of men will fall to 69%.

This growing tendency for women to participate in the workforce can be explained by a complex array of factors. Not only are women typically better educated now, and therefore more employable than was previously the case, but also they are less inclined to give up careers for child-rearing. Furthermore, women have benefited from the boom in the services industries, which comprise 51% of the workforce, while they have not been as adversely affected as men by the decline in the production industries.

So, women will play a higher role in the labour force early in the 21st century, especially in the growing service industries. Society stands to benefit considerably as the human resources represented by women are further developed. Demand for childcare will inevitably increase, and men, by choice or necessity, will share more of the responsibilities in raising families, a development which must ultimately benefit all parties involved. It is likely that many women, again by choice or necessity, will work part-time, creating problems such as low pay, lack of job security, and lack of opportunity for advancement. However, overall, the greater participation of women in the workforce will bring clear benefits to individuals and society in general, although inequalities between the sexes are likely to persist into the future.

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2 Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Social Trends, 1997 Cat No. 4102.0, p 94

** Also see pp 13–14 for an analysis of the question, p 19 for a graphic outline of this section and pp 48–50 for unedited and edited drafts.
2.5 Differences between essays, reports and journals

Differences between Essays, Reports and Journals

Essays, reports and reflective journal writing are the most common forms of writing you’re likely to experience as a student, so it’s useful to see how each differs.

In the tables, there are comparisons between each type of writing in the areas of:
- Purpose
- Topic
- Audience
- Format
- Style
- Assessment

**Purpose**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To write a well argued response to the question or proposition. An essay establishes a proposition (thesis).</td>
<td>To investigate, present and analyse information thoroughly and logically. Often to recommend action to solve a problem. A report usually makes proposals.</td>
<td>To record the development of your ideas and insights; reflect on the content of the subject and on your own learning process; and analyse and discuss key issues covered by classwork and/or readings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Topic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually a question or proposition. Based on reading, sometimes fieldwork.</td>
<td>Often a problem or case study which sets up a hypothetical situation. Based on reading, fieldwork or practical work.</td>
<td>Often a response to the class content including lectures, tutorials and or set readings; may be broadly based or focus on a particular issue or aspect covered in class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Audience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Written for the lecturer.</td>
<td>Usually written for the audience established in the topic (eg. client, manager), but in reality your lecturer or teacher is also the audience.</td>
<td>As a learning experience, you’re writing for yourself, although when it’s assessed your lecturer is also the audience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually no headings or subheadings. (NOTE: Many lecturers in Business and Nursing require headings – see the relevant Faculty guide. An essay in this format is sometimes called a Research Report. However, apart from the format, all other points relating to essay writing are relevant.)</td>
<td>Always in sections and sub-sections with headings, with their order often shown by numbers or a combination of letters and numbers. It’s important to know what sections are required and what information they should contain.</td>
<td>Frequently no headings or subheadings, but you may choose to use sections if you wish. There are no formal format requirements but it’s usual to date your work so that you can trace the development of your ideas and learning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May be a little subjective, but needs the impersonality suited to an academic study.</td>
<td>Must be objective. Point form is sometimes used.</td>
<td>Can be subjective and informal to reflect your own thinking.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay</th>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success depends on the argument, how one point is related to the next and how well it establishes the proposition.</td>
<td>Success depends on the demonstration of good research skills and the objective presentation and analysis of relevant information.</td>
<td>Success depends on development of your insights into the topic. Your ideas may change during the semester as you gain new understanding of the inter-relationships between different aspects of the content.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These materials were produced by the RMIT University Study and Learning Centre.
### 2.6 Oral presentations

A successful oral presentation ...

whether a persuasive speech, a report or other oral text, will use the conventions of public speaking. Although specific language choices will depend on the purpose, audience and context, there are some elements that apply to all effective oral presentations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan your introduction to capture attention as well as to cue your audience to your topic or viewpoint.</td>
<td>Techniques to capture attention include rhetorical questions, a quote, an anecdote, an interesting fact, a commanding use of voice, pace and stance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make sure the content is organised clearly and cohesively.</td>
<td>Use of repetition, synonyms and stage markers (eg ‘on the other hand…’, ‘a further example is…’) guide the listener.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select appropriate terms of address.</td>
<td>These can be inclusive, using the first or second person plural pronouns, or impersonal, using third person. For example: ‘Have you ever considered…?’ or ‘Careful consideration of…’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use language at an appropriate level for your audience; use examples they can relate to.</td>
<td>Use of slang, colloquial or formal language will appeal to different audiences and age groups. Choice of content should reflect the interests and understanding of the audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use your body language, including stance, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact and personal presentation to help communicate your message and relate to the audience.</td>
<td>Consider how you will stand, what gestures you will use, whether you can present with drama and flair or require more restrained use of face, gesture and voice. Consider your choice of clothing – suit or jeans, your personal grooming – polished or casual? Use palm cards or other notes unobtrusively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use voice to emphasise your key points and evoke a response from the audience.</td>
<td>Consider the way your volume, pace, pitch and tone of voice can convey your message and help achieve your purpose for the particular audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use visuals to add interest, or to illustrate a complex idea.</td>
<td>Make sure visuals are large and clear and directly connect to the spoken presentation. A range of visuals, from well-prepared Powerpoint slides to digital photographs and data tables, can effectively support a talk.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The form and language structures and features of an oral presentation will be determined by the purpose, audience, context and subject matter.

A persuasive oral presentation is likely to include a range of rhetorical devices and may be presented using objective or subjective language depending on the context.

A factual oral report will draw on more objective language, concrete evidence, data and descriptions. Purpose, audience and context along with the subject matter must always be considered in order to make effective choices when composing oral presentations.


2.7 Aristotle’s Principles of Persuasion

Aristotle was a great Greek philosopher and orator who lived 2300 years ago. During the time of Aristotle, oral language had a central role in learning, study and applications of the law. Students listened to their teachers, discussed ideas and presented their arguments orally. The art of oratory or public speaking was highly valued and refined at this point in history and has had a great influence on debating and the art of persuasion in present times in Western society.

Aristotle outlined four principles of persuasion that continue to be used today by political speechwriters and in the practice of law.

1. Aristotle’s first principle:

‘Well dispose your audience to yourself and ill dispose them to your enemy.’

This means that it is not enough to make your own arguments about an issue. You also need to attack your opponent’s position. You need to show that your opponent’s main arguments are wrong.

Examples:

‘I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a state sweltering with the heat of injustice, sweltering with the heat of oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice.’

Martin Luther King, *I Have a Dream*, 1963

‘This is no time to engage in the luxury of cooling off or to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism. Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy.’

Martin Luther King, *I Have a Dream*, 1963

2. Aristotle’s second principle:

‘Maximise your main points and minimise your weaknesses.’

This means that you should choose your strongest arguments, develop a theme around these arguments and use simple, straightforward and memorable language to effectively communicate your themes. It is also important that you acknowledge and deal with any weaknesses in your argument. This means either dismissing the weaknesses as unimportant or playing down their importance. Your opponents do not have the opportunity to use these weaknesses against you if you have already dealt with them.

Example:

‘There are those who are asking the devotees of civil rights, “When will you be satisfied?” We can never be satisfied as long as the Negro is the victim of the unspeakable horrors of police brutality. We can never be satisfied as long as our bodies, heavy with the fatigue of travel, cannot gain lodging in the motels of the highways and the hotels of cities …’

Martin Luther King, *I Have a Dream*, 1963
3. Aristotle’s third principle:

‘Refresh the memory of your audience frequently.’

This principle highlights the idea that to communicate your main point, you should make it many times in many different ways. It raises the importance of repetition of key words and ideas, as well as the use of synonyms to present your main argument in a memorable and cohesive way.

Example:

‘Five score years ago, a great American, in whose symbolic shadow we stand today, signed the Emancipation Proclamation …

‘But 100 years later, the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation, and the chains of discrimination. One hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty…’  Martin Luther King, I Have a Dream, 1963

4. Aristotle’s fourth principle:

‘Execute the required level of emotion.’

Remember the important role that emotion plays in persuasion. Involve the audience personally in the importance of your argument. Appeal to their emotions. Remember that emotive appeals need to serve a logical well-evidenced argument and should not evoke emotion for the sake of emotion.

Example:

‘But we refuse to believe that the bank of justice is bankrupt. We refuse to believe that there are insufficient funds in the great vaults of opportunity of this nation.’  Martin Luther King, I Have a Dream, 1963

Adapted from: http://howardnations.com/persuasivejuryarguments/i-a-b.html
See also: http://richeast.org/htwm/Greeks/porter/Rhetdos.html
Hello, I’m Severn Suzuki speaking for E.C.O. - The Environmental Children’s Organization. We are a group of twelve- and thirteen-year-olds from Canada trying to make a difference: Vanessa Suttie, Morgan Geisler, Michelle Quigg and me.

We raised all the money ourselves to come six thousand miles to tell you adults you must change your ways. Coming here today, I have no hidden agenda. I am fighting for my future. Losing my future is not like losing an election or a few points on the stock market. I am here to speak for all generations to come.

I am here to speak on behalf of the starving children around the world whose cries go unheard. I am here to speak for the countless animals dying across this planet because they have nowhere left to go. We cannot afford to be not heard.

I am afraid to go out in the sun now because of the holes in the ozone. I am afraid to breathe the air because I don’t know what chemicals are in it.

I used to go fishing in Vancouver with my dad until just a few years ago we found the fish full of cancers. And now we hear about animals and plants going extinct every day – vanishing forever.

In my life, I have dreamt of seeing the great herds of wild animals, jungles and rainforests full of birds and butterflies, but now I wonder if they will even exist for my children to see.

Did you have to worry about these little things when you were my age? All this is happening before our eyes and yet we act as if we have all the time we want and all the solutions.

I’m only a child and I don’t have all the solutions, but I want you to realise, neither do you!

You don’t know how to fix the holes in our ozone layer.

You don’t know how to bring salmon back up a dead stream.

You don’t know how to bring back an animal now extinct.

And you can’t bring back forests that once grew where there is now desert.

If you don’t know how to fix it, please stop breaking it!

3 Evaluate and Present

3.1 Editing checklist

3.2 Example of editing: first draft and edited version

3.3 APA-style referencing
3.1 Editing checklist

Evaluate and Present

Have I fully referenced my sources of information?

- Have I referenced all the words, ideas and information sources I have used in my assignment?
- Have I used a consistent referencing style?
- Is there a clear distinction between my thoughts and words and those of the author(s) I’ve read and cited?
- Are quotations properly introduced? Are they accurate? Are they formatted correctly?
- Do the quotations add evidence or provide an authoritative voice, or am I letting the author(s) speak for me? Would writing it in my own words be more effective?

Have I remained within or exceeded the set word limit?

- I don’t have enough words:
  - Have I fully answered the question or task?
  - Do I need to read more? Should I include more information or discussion?
  - Have I provided enough evidence to support my argument/s?
- I have too many words:
  - Have I included only relevant information?
  - Is there any unnecessary repetition in my assignment?
  - Is my written expression as clear and concise as possible, or is it too ‘wordy’?

Have I proofread and revised my assignment for errors?

- Have I checked my spelling? Have I read through my assignment and not just relied on a computer spellchecker?
- Is all my bibliographical information correct?
- Have I used correct punctuation? Have I ended every sentence with a full stop?

Is my assignment well presented?

- Does the presentation follow any guidelines set by my lecturer or school?
- Have I included a cover sheet? (Assignment cover sheets are available from your school office)
- Have I made sure my assignment is legible? Is it typed or written neatly?
- Have I used double-line spacing?
- Have I numbered pages and used wide margins?
- Have I kept an extra copy?

Further Reading


Text prepared by Tracey Lee Downey, Pam Mort and Ian Collinson for The Learning Centre, The University of New South Wales. This guide may be distributed for educational purposes and adapted with proper acknowledgement.
3.2 Drafting and editing: an example

A first draft of one section of an extended essay response

** See following pages for edited draft

Between 1976 and 1996, participation rates of women in the workforce increased from 44% to 54%, while the participation rates for men declined from 79% to 73% for the same period. A higher representation of women in the workforce is a significant feature of the employment scene as we move further into the 21st century. This is not a new development. This trend will continue, by 2011, the participation rate for women will rise to 75% while the rate of men will fall to 69%.1 This growing tendency of women participating in the workforce can be explained by a complex array of factors. Women have more education, and they can get more jobs than was previously the case, and don’t want to give up careers for child-rearing. This is wrong because women belong at home taking care of the family. Yet they are the ones who benefit from the boom in the services industries, who compose 51% of the workforce, while they have not been as badly affected by the decline in the production industries2 as men. So, women will play higher role in the labour force early 21st century, especially in the growing service industries. Society stand to benefit considerably as the human resources represented by women further developed. Demand for childcare will inevitably increase, and men, by choice or necessity, share more of the responsibilities in raising families. It is likely that many women, again by choice or necessary, will work part-time, creating problems such as (1) low pay, (2) lack of job security, (3) lack of opportunity for advancement. Overall, the greater participation of women in the workforce will bring clear benefits to individuals and society in general, although inequalities between sexes is likely to go on into the future.

1 Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1995-2011 Labour Force Projections – Australia, Cat No. 6260.0, p 2 fig 5
2 Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Social Trends, 1997 Cat No. 4102.0, p 94

** Also see pp 13–14 for an analysis of the question, p 19 for a graphic outline of this section and p 37 for an annotated final draft.
An edited version of one section**

Between 1976 and 1996, participation rates of women in the workforce increased from 44% to 54%, while the participation rates for men declined from 79% to 73% for the same period.

A higher representation of women in the workforce is a significant feature of the employment scene as we move further into the 21st century. This is not a new development. This trend will continue. By 2011, the participation rate for women will rise to 75% while the rate of men will fall to 69%.

Growing tendency of women participating in the workforce can be explained by a complex array of factors. Women have more education, therefore more employable but also they are less inclined and can get more jobs than was previously the case, and don’t want to give up careers for child-rearing.

Furthermore, women have benefited at home taking care of the family, which comprise from the boom in the services industries, who compose 51% of the workforce, while they have not been as badly affected by the decline in the production industries as men. So, women will play a higher role in

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2 Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Social Trends, 1997 Cat No. 4102.0, p 94
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** Also see pp 13–14 for an analysis of the question, p 19 for a graphic outline of this section and p 37 for an annotated final draft.
3.3 APA-style referencing

APA

(American Psychological Association) Citation Style

This guide is a brief summary of the APA citation or referencing style.

Introduction

Referencing (or citing sources) is the important process of acknowledging another person’s ideas used in constructing one’s own work, whether quoted directly or when using a specific idea. Any work without proper references makes un-attributed sources appear as your own; this is plagiarism. Referencing correctly gives the reader the opportunity to locate and check sources if required and shows the range and depth of the research. Every scholarly discipline has a preferred format or style of referencing for their publications. APA is widely used by writers and students in psychology and the behavioural and social sciences.

Referencing is composed of two parts: in-text citations (i.e. brief citations in the text of an assignment) and a Reference list (i.e. full citations at the end of an assignment).

Further Readings


In-Text Citations

Citing author, date and page numbers in the text

Where information from another source has been used in an assignment, it is supported with the author’s surname and date of publication, separated by a comma.

(Johnson, 2000)

If the author appears as part of the text, cite the year of publication in brackets.

Johnson (2000) demonstrated the use of ...

If using precise information or a direct quotation, include the page number.

(Johnson, 2000, p. 64)
Evaluate and Present

Citing a work with more than one author

Citing a work with two authors:

(Binstock & George, 1990).

When there are three to five authors:

(Keates, Clarkson, Harrison & Robinson, 2000) for the first time an in-text citation appears and (Keates et al., 2000) for each subsequent in-text citation.

If there are 6 or more authors:

(Jones et al., 1984).

Citing numerous works for one idea

To cite more than one work supporting an idea, separate citations with semicolons:

(Atkinson, 1998; Donnelly, 1995; Fogerty, 2000).

Citing an author who has written more than one work in a year

If more than one work by an author written in the same year is to be cited, distinguish the works by placing ‘a’ ‘b’ or ‘c’ after the publication date:

(Johnson, 1997a) or (Johnson, 1997b). Include the letter with the publication date in the Reference List.

E-mails, Interviews, Telephone Calls & Other Personal Communications

These require in-text citations only and are not included in the Reference List:

(J. Howard, personal communication, January 3, 2004).

Reference List

Any item that has a citation in the text of a paper must be included in the reference list at the end of the paper. Reference list citations are arranged alphabetically by author or by title if there is no specific author. Any reference which exceeds more than one line in length has the subsequent lines indented.

Books and other monographs

Author, initial. (Year of publication). Book title. Place of publication: Publisher.

Book with single author


Book with multiple authors


Book with no author


Edited work

eBook retrieved from a Library database

Chapter in an edited book

Annual report

Government publication

Australian Standard retrieved from a Library database

Conference paper from published proceedings

Articles
Author(s). (Year of publication). Article title. *Journal Title*. Volume (issue), range of pages.

Journal article

Journal article retrieved from a Library database

Newspaper article

Newspaper article retrieved from a Library database

Article from UWA Course Materials Online (CMO)
Other Formats

Web page


Brochure Accessed Online


DVD / Video recording


Thesis (Unpublished)


Thesis retrieved from a UWA database


Lecture notes


Podcast


Image on the Web


Commonly Used Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>chap.</th>
<th>chapter</th>
<th>2nd ed.</th>
<th>second edition</th>
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<tr>
<td>ed.</td>
<td>edition</td>
<td>Rev. ed.</td>
<td>revised edition</td>
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