## CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The University of Adelaide</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to University learning</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Support within the University</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 1 Assignment Tasks / Types Of Text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Short Answers</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Academic Essays</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Summary Writing</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Literature Review</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Critical Review</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Professional Reports</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Executive Summaries</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 Case Study Reports</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 Oral Presentations</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.10 Power point slides</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 2 Component skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Differences in Learning Styles</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Academic Expectations</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Independent Learning</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Group Work Skills</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Project Management</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Aiming High for Assignments</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Academic Argument</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Analytical and Critical Thinking</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Academic Style</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10 Presentation</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11 Instructional Words</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12 Plagiarism and Using your Own Words</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13 Referencing: The Harvard System</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Preface

Communicating effectively in your degree and in the world of Business.

Effective communication is central to your future success in business. Through your own experiences in the workplace I’m sure many of you are keenly aware that a strong ability to communicate your ideas in a concise, meaningful, engaging and influential way is critical to your success in organisational life.

In our postgraduate programs we naturally expect you to demonstrate that you can think, write, and speak effectively. For many of you, the method and mode of communication here in the academic setting might be starkly different to what happens in your organisation. Many of you might well ask - how do you write assignments, analyse case studies, provide executive summaries, reference appropriately and avoid plagiarism in each course? How do you give concise, interesting and valuable oral presentations? This Communication Skills Guide shows you how.

It is specifically produced to assist and inform you as a postgraduate student at The University of Adelaide Business School. It tells you what our lecturers expect of you and how you can meet their requirements.

As you know, we live in a global environment that can be complex and unpredictable, and we can be sure that it will be increasingly so.

It is essential for current and future managers and leaders to be equipped to deal with complex problems in a systematic, integrated and collaborative fashion. We all must not only respond to, but embrace the complexity and interconnectedness of this century.

Effective and appropriate communication practices are pivotal to your future success. This document is a key resource for communicating effectively, in writing and orally. You should refer to it whenever you begin to prepare an assignment or a presentation. The Guide is designed for each and every one of you.

Refer to it often, it will be your road map to communicating effectively and appropriately - we know you will find it invaluable.

Damian Scanlon

MBA Program Director

Acknowledgements


Published by The University of Adelaide Business School

The University of Adelaide, Australia, 5005

The University of Adelaide and the Business School

Established in 1874, The University of Adelaide is one of Australia’s oldest and most prestigious universities.

As a modern, leading edge university, it maintains its long and proud tradition of excellence in education and liberal values of enquiry – qualities that characterise great institutes of learning.

It is widely recognised as a leader in research and teaching in South Australia and has a strong international reputation.

Delivering world-class, relevant programs in the undergraduate, postgraduate, and post-experience arenas, The University of Adelaide Business School is the premier provider of tertiary business programs in South Australia.

Formed in 2008 as a merger between the former School of Commerce and the Adelaide Graduate School of Business, the Business School brings together 'the best of both worlds'.

The school brings together a powerful team of over 70 talented academics with a wealth of experience in teaching, researching, consulting and business practice. They are at the forefront of global business research and have truly international perspectives.

The University believes the best teaching is conducted within an environment of active, world-class research. Courses at The University of Adelaide Business School are constantly revised to keep pace in the rapidly changing world of technology and business practice.

The School's teaching staff includes highly qualified academics and practitioners who provide a cross section of areas of expertise and a balanced perspective on the business education issues within our programs.

High technology, state-of-the-art laboratories and classrooms contain modern computing equipment and international data networks. These facilities are complemented by an outstanding teaching and research library of over 2 million print volumes, and hundreds of thousands of electronic books, journals and databases that are remotely accessible.

The University of Adelaide graduates possess qualifications recognised around the world and achieve stimulating, sought after positions in organisations all around the globe.
Any educational situation has particular expectations and ways of doing things. At university, students are expected to be independent learners. It is up to you to find out what you need to know and to organise your time for classes, for reading outside of classes and for handing in assignments on time. Section 2.3 in this Guide lists some strategies for becoming more independent in your learning. This doesn’t mean you are on your own. Your lecturers, administrative staff and various resources available in the University are there to support you. However, it is up to you to use these resources effectively.

Your lecturers will provide you with a written Course Outline and specific expectations about the course assignments, as well as information about the content of the course. They are your first point of call if you are not clear about the content or the course expectations. Use the discussion component of your lectures to clarify any aspects that are confusing.

Visit the MBA website www.adelaide.edu.au/professions/hub/pg/mba/ for information relating to:

> Course Offerings
> Enrolment
> Student Resources

Your Course Outlines and assignment handouts tell you exactly what is expected for each of your assignments. These must be read very carefully, alongside the Communication Skills Guide, to ensure your assignments meet the assessment criteria against which you are graded. The Communication Skills Guide is a useful resource to consult whenever you are preparing an assignment. It is in two parts:

Part 1 gives detailed information about how to structure particular assignments, such as research essays and oral presentations, and what to include in those types of assignments. Part 1 also gives guidance on professional writing.

Part 2 examines aspects of university assignment work, such as academic argument, good style, and referencing. It also has a section on differences in learning and teaching styles (see 2.1) and information regarding academic expectations (see 2.2).
Learning Support within the University

Professions Learning Centre (PLC)
The PLC offers assistance to students of the Faculty of the Professions. Support is available free of charge to Adelaide-based students in award programs.

Academic Skills Workshops
Workshops are held each trimester in Fundamentals of Leadership for commencing students. One focus is on research skills, including familiarity with the library online catalogue and using databases to search for resources. Workshops also develop an awareness of the importance of critical reading skills in academic study. In terms of writing reports in an academic context, students will gain a better understanding of expectations regarding demonstrated skills and be able to structure their assignment based on the analysis of task requirements. In relation to course assignments, students will develop skills in writing a data commentary, synthesising theory to support claims and presenting a logical and coherent argument in an appropriately formal register.
For dates, times and venues, please refer to your course outline.

Writing Centre
The Writing Centre, located on level 3 of the Central Hub, provides a range of services to both undergraduate and postgraduate students across all faculties at the university. A drop-in service is available 10:00 am - 4:00 pm during semester teaching weeks. Additional resources and information can be found by visiting their website at: www.adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre/

Maths Learning Centre (MLC)
The MLC, also located on level 3 of the Central Hub, offers a drop-in service from 10:00 am - 4:00 pm during semester teaching weeks. Students encountering challenges with maths and/or statistics in their studies can drop in for help. For more information, visit www.adelaide.edu.au/mathslearning

Barr Smith Library
If you need research assistance beyond the initial orientation to the library catalogue and database systems, contact the MBA specialist librarian, Qing Liang at: qing.liang@adelaide.edu.au
Part 1:
Assignment Tasks/Types of Text

All call outs in boxes refer to a section in the guide where the task is explained in detail.
1.1 Short Answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analyse the question</td>
<td>The question is answered completely and appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select relevant information</td>
<td>The content is all relevant to the question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think critically and analytically</td>
<td>The answer shows understanding of how key aspects relate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information is questioned and a point of view argued</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin with a proposition</td>
<td>The proposition shows understanding of the question and indicates the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>points to be covered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The final sentence summarises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present an argument</td>
<td>The argument is logical and concise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Purpose**

To write a concise and logical answer to a question.

**Audience**

Usually your assessor but you may be directed to address another audience, e.g. a board of directors or a CEO. This format is valuable practice for presenting persuasive answers to issues or problems for business colleagues or senior management.

**Structure**

**Introduction**

An establishing sentence shows the reader you understand the question and indicates the position you will take (see example below). In other words, the core answer to the question is in this sentence.

**Argument**

This part of the answer defines the key terms in the question and provides justification for the argument with the ‘What’ and the ‘Why’.

What: Provide the relevant information to answer the question. You may include brief examples.

Why: Most questions require an explanation section where you show the relationships, consequences or reasons for the answer you give.

**Conclusion**

A concluding sentence is only needed if the argument is long and complex.

**Style**

The answer may have only one paragraph. If longer than half a page, consider more paragraphs. The writing should be impersonal to give the answer generality and suggest impartiality. However, in some instances the nature of the assignment task may require a personal style of response where students are asked to relate personal business experience to concepts and theories.

**Steps**

1. Underline the key terms in the question.
2. Decide whether the question asks for a simple description (Describe... or What is...?) or some analysis and explanation (Discuss, Comment, Explain or Analyse).
3. Establish the meanings of the key terms and identify information that will answer the question.
4. Write an establishing sentence that shows you understand the question and indicates your position.
5. Present information and justification for your answer. Include brief examples if they will help to make your point(s) clear.
6. Check that all the information included is necessary to your answer – no padding.
Tip
Rote learning is not sufficient for short answers. You will need to think about how the different facts relate, their purposes and their consequences, and answer the question. See the example below.

Example
Question: Discuss the conditions under which cash accounting provides useful financial information.

Answer
Introduction
Establishing sentence (including point of view)
Cash accounting provides useful financial information only under restrictive conditions.

Argument
What (explanation)
Pure cash accounting maintains records of an entity’s cash flow. It ignores all liabilities and only recognises one asset – cash. Modified cash accounting methods keep the daily records on a cash basis, but augment the end-of-period results for a few significant non-cash items such as inventories or equipment.

What (explanation)
The main aim of accounting is to provide financial information for use in making economic decisions. The accountant normally presents this information in terms of an entity’s financial position and changes therein as represented by assets, liabilities and owner’s equity.

Why (implications of the facts)
When non-cash assets and liabilities are a significant part of an entity’s operation, then the cash accounting method will not provide the information needed for making economic decisions.

Conclusion
(logical conclusion drawn – restates argument given what has been presented)
It follows that the cash accounting method will provide useful financial information when an entity’s operations are conducted mainly in cash terms, with relatively small or constant carry-overs of inventory and equipment from one period to the next.
1.2 Academic Essays

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure the essay</td>
<td>The proposition states your position and is followed by the main points to be covered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The proposition shows understanding of the question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The argument presents your ideas with evidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The conclusion summarises the points made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present an argument</td>
<td>Evidence is provided to support your opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Your position remains clear throughout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opposing views and evidence are considered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implications are stated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference thoroughly</td>
<td>The source of each claim made is acknowledged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Harvard system is used consistently to cite sources and to list references</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write clearly and concisely</td>
<td>Arguments are clear and concise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar and spelling are accurate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definitions
An essay is a formal presentation of an argument.
An academic essay refers to the most recent and significant research and literature in presenting an argument.

Purpose
To persuade an audience of your point of view.

Audience
Your lecturer will assess the clarity of your argument and how well you justify your position and acknowledge your sources.

Structure
Proposition
State your point of view on the topic.

Introduction
Outline the main points you will discuss.

Presentation of Points
Each paragraph should contain one main point, which is proven, developed or illustrated.

Conclusion
Summarise or restate the main issues and the conclusion.

Language and Style
Essays have a formal tone, even when you are writing about personal experience. To indicate impartial analysis, good style is important. Your writing should be clear and concise, using your own words. Acknowledge sources when others’ words or ideas are used. Avoid ‘skimpy’ paragraphs and over-long sentences and paragraphs.

Steps
1. Underline the key words in the assignment question and roughly draft an argument, using what you know. Plan what further information and evidence you need to read.
2. Read analytically and critically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check relevance to the topic. Note your sources, being sure to record the page numbers.
3. Rearrange or redraft your argument as further ideas are found to support or counter your position.
4. With each draft refine your ideas.
5. Check that your argument flows, is introduced in the first paragraph and reiterated in the last.
6. Proof read, and cross-check references in the essay and the reference list.

**Hints**

> It is often best to write (or rewrite) the introduction last, when you know exactly what position you have argued in the essay.
> Use referenced paraphrasing to illustrate key points and avoid excessive use of direct quotations.
> Make sure you have taken a position; not just presented others’ ideas.

**Useful References**

1.3 Summary Writing

**Definition**
A summary reflects the logic, organisation and emphasis of the original text in brief form.

**Purpose**
To capture the essence of a text.

**Audience**
Your assessor and possibly fellow classmates where summaries are shared. This format is also very good practice for cutting through to what a report or article is really saying – an invaluable skill for both study and in the workplace.

**Structure**
Exactly as the original, with the same proportions for each section.

**Style**
As for the original. Use first person (‘I’ or ‘we’) only if it is in the original.

**Steps**
1. Make sure you understand the article.
2. Select the most important points and underline or highlight them.
3. Group these main points and write sentences for them.
4. Arrange your sentences into one paragraph.
5. Check the logical flow of your sentences and that you emphasise main points only.
6. Check that you have introduced no new information or opinion
7. If presenting an oral summary, state how it relates to the issue under discussion.

**Tips**
> Clearly state main points and eliminate illustrations and examples.
> Use your own words. Never copy complete phrases.
> Nothing should be said more than once.

**Useful References**
1.4 Literature Review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selecting and organising information</td>
<td>Compare and contrast different authors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group authors who draw similar conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note areas in which authors are in disagreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highlight gaps in research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclude by summarising what the literature says</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructing your argument</td>
<td>Provide background or context for the issue/argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State the problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Find relevant materials to support the argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Determine which research makes significant contributions to the understanding of the topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyse and interpret pertinent literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing the review</td>
<td>Provide an overview of the subject under consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Divide literature into categories (those supporting, against or providing alternative views)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explain how each work is similar to or varies from others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclude as to which pieces are best considered in the argument and make the greatest contribution towards the understanding and development of the argument</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Purpose**
To present an argument insightfully and critically with regard to existing work in the discipline.

**Audience**
Your lecturer or assessor. You have to convince them that you have read widely, critically evaluated what you have read and synthesised information to support your own argument.

**Structure**

**Introduction**
> Provide background or context of the issue.

**Argument**
> Place each work in the context of its contribution to the understanding of the subject under review.
> Describe the relationship of each work to the others under consideration.
> Identify new ways to interpret and shed light on any gaps in previous research.
> Resolve conflicts amongst seemingly contradictory previous studies.
> Point the way forward for further research.

**Conclusion**
> Restate the arguments that best contribute to the understanding of the issues being discussed.
> Do not introduce new material.

**Style**
A literature review is written in academic language. One of the fundamental qualities of academic language is that it attempts to be objective. Criticisms of other authors’ works need to be fair. It is important to maintain a respectful, scholarly tone when you are discussing the work of other authors. You need to avoid strong or emotive language. This is especially true of the author’s work you criticise.
Steps

1. Read widely, critically and analytically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships and check the relevance.

2. Take all the critical comments you made in your readings and structure an academic opinion.

3. Indicate a clear relationship between your argument and the evidence. Link sentences within the paragraphs to indicate these relationships and connections. Summarise each section to draw conclusions.

4. Support your arguments with facts and theory from the literature. Use examples, citations and quotations where appropriate.

5. Account for differing opinions rather than ignore them. Present evidence and also make some attempt to acknowledge opposing viewpoints. Make your preferences clear rather than ‘sitting on the fence’ or leaving it to the reader to draw conclusions.

6. Make sure that the sections of the review are clearly connected. Write an outline statement in the introduction which makes the order of the arguments clear, and give reasons for ordering the material in that particular manner.

7. Include in-text citations wherever necessary and a reference list at the end of the review.

Useful References


1.5 Critical Review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Read and understand the main points of the article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note the outline of the author’s argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analyse the findings or argument of the article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decide the appropriate criteria to evaluate the article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide a critical evaluation of the article based on the selected criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Is the article recent or still relevant?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who is the intended audience?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does the article make an original contribution?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is the argument logical?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is the evidence valid?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are the findings presented and described clearly?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Could the data be interpreted differently?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are the conclusions reached valid?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there any omissions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing the review</td>
<td>Provide all the publication details that the reader will find useful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide a summary of the article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Describe several points with which you agree or disagree and provide evidence that supports your position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Refer to other aspects of the article that might be worth commenting on such as appropriateness of language, use of illustrations and graphics and organisation of text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Be selective about the information and evidence that you include in your review as there is usually a word limit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Purpose

To read, evaluate and present a critical evaluation of an article so that your reader understands the key content of the article and your response to it.

Audience

With your lecturer or assessor as audience, you have to convince them through your writing that you have critically read and evaluated an article using criteria selected from the table above.

Structure

Introduction

- Provide a context for the article.
- Provide the title of the article and name of the author.
- Identify the author by profession or standing if appropriate. Include some indication as to why the subject is important. Identify the purpose of the article.
- Give an indication of your overall impression of the article in general terms.

Body

- Summarise and analyse the content of the article.
- Make clear by frequent reference to the author of the article when you are presenting the author’s views and not yours.
- Evaluate the article.

Conclusion

- Summarise the previous discussion.
- Make a final judgement on the value of the article.
- Comment on the future of the issue/topic or implications of the views expressed.
Style
A critical review is a summary of an article that you have read; therefore, paraphrase and use quotations sparingly. Do not plagiarise. Be consistent in the use of tense: choice of simple present, simple past or present perfect is preferred.

Steps
1. Take a quick overview of the article.
2. Read the article without taking notes in order to gain an overall idea of its aim and main idea.
3. Read the article again and highlight important ideas and make brief notes in the margin.
4. Check your notes to ensure that they include the main aim of the paper.
5. Evaluate the content (methodological approach as well as findings or conclusions).
6. Begin writing your critical review.

Useful References
Brandt, C 2009, Read, research and write: academic skills for ESL students in higher education, Sage, London.
Virgo, G 2005, Writing an academic assignment: preparing a model essay on globalisation, Pearson Education, Frenchs Forest, NSW.
1.6 Professional Reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan and manage tasks</td>
<td>The report is on schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All relevant aspects are considered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research information</td>
<td>Appropriate sources are consulted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sufficient sources are consulted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sources are referenced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organise information</td>
<td>Appropriate headings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Write clearly and concisely using an integrated structure, ie arguments and conclusions match purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write clearly and concisely</td>
<td>Arguments are easy to understand and succinct</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definition
In the workplace, reports are often required as a formal account of a situation. They are produced after consideration of all relevant factors and analysis using relevant concepts in the field. The recommendations and their implementation are then based on this analysis, using business language appropriate to the audience.

In the academic context, reports similarly require research and analysis to demonstrate your learning and ability to apply course concepts and theories leading to feasible recommendations.

Purpose
To inform senior management or a client about a particular issue(s) and offer recommendations for future decision-making.

Audience
Your audience may be the CEO of your company, its shareholders, people in a government department or rival firms, or indeed potential clients. Your audience and their needs will influence what you put in your report and how you present it.

Length and Structure
The length of a Professional Report varies according to the problem. Concise reports for managers rarely extend beyond three pages, while reports that have been prepared by consultancies may extend to 30 or 60 pages or more. Thus, two structures are presented. The first is commonly used for full length and consultancy style management reports while the second structure is more suitable for concise reports to management on a specific problem.
Language and Style
Reports are written in appropriate business language. The analysis and discussion in your report should therefore have an objective tone. Your writing should be clear and concise and display appropriate style, based on the report’s purpose and the audience’s needs. Your voice and words should be your own. Use headings to guide the reader.

Steps
1. Identify what information you will need to collect to satisfy the given purpose, and how you can obtain that information.
2. Read analytically and critically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check relevance.
3. Form an argument and organise the evidence for and against. Develop your recommendations.
4. Outline your report sections. (Check whether all sections are required).
5. Write a draft: develop your argument; provide evidence for your argument; present alternative views; justify your argument; build logical links; avoid plagiarism; cite sources correctly; write clearly and concisely; format the report.
6. Check that your argument and recommendations meet the purpose; check structure, language and style; check flow of argument; copy edit; cross-check references in report and reference list.
7. Prepare appendices, place in numbered order of referral from your text.
8. Include table of contents if required.
10. Final preparation: proof read; check that all report elements are present and in the correct order; check grammar and spelling.
Hints

➤ Be clear whether you are stating your opinion or the views of others, e.g. ‘The manager indicated that…’ and ‘The findings suggest that…’

➤ Where appropriate, use direct quotations from research to illustrate key points or to provide definitions. Avoid excessive use of quotations.

Useful References

Allen, J 1998, Writing in the workplace, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.
Silyn-Roberts, H 2005, Professional communications: a handbook for civil engineers, American Society of Civil Engineers, Reston, VA.
1.7 Executive Summaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure the summary</td>
<td>Background information is brief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arguments summarised are the essential ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format as expected</td>
<td>Page headed ‘Executive Summary’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No more than one A4 page in length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Single-spaced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Placed before the table of contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write clearly and concisely</td>
<td>Contains key points and limited detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary reads easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar and spelling are accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No acronyms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definition
An executive summary is a concise and complete summary of the essential content of the report.

Purpose
To provide the most important information about a report so that the reader, perhaps a manager, can gain insight into key findings and recommendations. It may be the only part of the report that is read and may form the basis for managerial decisions.

Audience
An executive summary is for a client, a firm’s senior management, or an academic with an interest in the report.

Structure
Why? Background problem and purpose of the report.
What? Arguments to support the recommendations.
So what? Most important recommendations.

Language and Style
Clear, concise and in a formal tone. The length will vary according to the length of the report, but the preference is for no more than one single-spaced A4 page.

Steps
1. After completing your report, draft an overview of its essentials, using the above structure. Avoid copying and pasting sentences from the report.
2. Check that no new information has been introduced and delete any non-essential information or detail.
3. Read the executive summary aloud to make sure that the meaning is clear and it has a coherent flow. Rewrite awkward sentences.
4. Proofread for spelling and grammar.
5. Title the single page ‘Executive Summary’ and place it before the table of contents.
Hints

> The executive summary is often considered the most important part of a report. The content must therefore be clear, logical and accurate.
> It should be written last when you know exactly what you have discussed and recommended.
> The executive summary should stand alone. Do not refer to an appendix or use acronyms.
> Do not introduce any idea in an executive summary that is not in the report.
> Do not use headings within an executive summary.

Useful References

Silyn-Roberts, H 2005, Professional communications: a handbook for civil engineers, American Society of Civil Engineers, Reston, VA.
1.8 Case Study Reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure the written report</td>
<td>Background information is relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Issues are logically ordered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommendations clearly relate to the issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the main issues</td>
<td>Key issues are identified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interrelationships are clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A full grasp of the situation is shown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse the issues</td>
<td>Each issue is discussed using relevant concepts and principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insight is shown in analysing the information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss alternatives</td>
<td>Possible solutions are considered and the most suitable one(s) chosen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support your recommendations</td>
<td>Recommendations are consistent with situation, well-supported and practicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write clearly and concisely</td>
<td>Arguments are explicit and succinct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appropriate headings are used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar and spelling are accurate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definition
A case study report presents an analysis of the problems and issues facing a particular company, with recommendations of a plan of action and justification of that plan.

Purpose
To persuade an audience that your recommendations are feasible, desirable and the best available.

Audience
A case study report is for a client or a firm’s senior management who are seeking a way forward.

STRUCTURE OF A CASE STUDY REPORT

- **Cover page**
  - Report title, student’s name, course, lecturer’s name, date, word count recorded on declaration form

- **Executive summary**
  - Page headed ‘Executive Summary’; no more than one A4 page in length; single-spaced.
  - State purpose of report, summarise key issues and recommendations to address them

- **Table of contents**
  - List and number all sections; include page numbers

- **Introduction**
  - Give brief background to case to frame current issues
  - Purpose of report
  - Scope of report

- **Issues**
  - Use theory and course concepts to: identify main issues, prioritise choices, justify and prioritise issues chosen

- **Analysis**
  - Use theory and course concepts to: explain the issues in more depth and comment on implications of the issues

- **Possible solutions**
  - Consider all viable short term and long term alternatives to solve each issue
  - Examine the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative

- **Recommendations and Implementation**
  - Select most viable alternative(s)
  - Justify with relevant support from analysis (no new ideas)
  - Explain resources, individuals from the case, time frame and monitoring processes required for the recommendations to be put into practice

- **References**
  - Use Harvard System, as required

- **Appendices**
  - Include additional material relevant to the case and referred to in the report
Language and Style

Case studies should be written in appropriate business language so that your analysis and discussion have an objective tone. Your writing should be clear and concise, and be in your own words. Use headings to guide the reader and include tables or diagrams that make the case clearer.

Steps for Case Study Analysis

1. Gain a feel for the case by skim reading the abstract, introduction and conclusion. Ask:
   > What sort of organisation does the case concern?
   > What is the broad nature of the industry?
   > What is going on in the external environment?
   > What issues does management appear to be facing?
2. Read the case a second time, identifying key facts and clarifying the main issues. You will need to ‘read between the lines’, interpreting and connecting the case facts, and deducing the issues yourself.
3. Consider whether any figures provided can be further analysed for new insights; for example, you might plot data or calculate rate of change.
4. Identify and apply the appropriate analytical tools (e.g. SWOT analysis; PESTEL; Porter’s 5 forces etc.).
5. Identify the concepts and theories that explain the issues or problems.
6. Consider different short term and long term solutions and weigh up their comparative advantages and disadvantages. How practical are the solutions? Think through implications of solutions.
7. Decide on a preferred course of action and consider any possible criticisms, so you can defend your recommendation.
8. Explain how the recommendation will be implemented and what resources will be required.

Steps for Writing Case Reports

1. Write a draft using the structure described previously. Check whether specific guidelines are provided in your course outline.
2. Consider whether there are alternative ways of examining the data provided.
3. Read through the draft and reorganise, rewrite or delete to improve the flow of the arguments and to ensure every recommendation is well supported.
4. Check that your headings are relevant and helpful for the reader.
5. Decide whether diagrams or tables should be included in the report or the appendix.
6. Proofread your final draft; check grammar and spelling.

Hints

> There is generally no single correct solution to a case’s issues. Consider alternative solutions before deciding on one direction.
> Case analysis involves the application of sound principles. Consider which of the concepts and principles already introduced in your course apply in the case.

Useful References

1.9 Oral Presentations

**Purpose**
To present a persuasive argument or report on a topic.

**Audience**
Consider your audience to determine how much and how you will present. Choose vocabulary and information to suit their background.

**Structure**

**Introduction**
> Include the title, context or relevance, and overview of the main points.

**Argument**
> Present your point of view clearly.
> Include evidence and examples.
> Briefly consider alternative arguments and evidence.

**Conclusion**
> Restate the argument, perhaps with summary of counter argument.
> Do not introduce new material.

**Style**
The vocabulary and language used should be appropriate to the oral presentation of content. Avoid an overload of information and new terminology. Use transition phrases and words to communicate shifts in coverage of content and refer back to earlier information to help the audience follow the presentation.
Steps

1. Read analytically and critically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check the relevance.
2. Form an argument and organise the evidence.
3. Structure your talk with an introduction, argument, conclusion.
4. Select your main points and list them as headings on slides. Make sure the print is large enough for your audience (at least 24 pt).
5. Make one key point per visual unless the audience is very familiar with the subject. Organise material into categories and contrasts (before vs. after, problem and solution, advantages vs. disadvantages, beginning to end, etc.). Do not include more than three or four points under one heading.
6. Prepare your main points on cue cards if you need prompts. Do not read from your cue card or from a prepared script. Use the PPT slides to jog your memory.
7. If it is a group presentation, decide who will present which parts, and consider how to make a smooth transition between speakers.
8. Rehearse your presentation several times: both by yourself first and then with your group members.
9. Practice delivery with use of equipment. Keep within the allocated time.

Tips

> You may like to memorise your opening and other transition phrases to improve flow.
> Avoid reading notes; scripted speech sounds unnatural and stops you from making eye contact.
> Practise so you need only refer to headings and dot points.
> Don’t worry if your language expression varies a little from your original notes.
> More detailed notes can be on the table but only for reassurance and emergency.
> Don’t block the audience’s vision. Limit the time your back is to the audience.

Useful References

1.10 Powerpoint Slides

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Select and organise information</td>
<td>Slides summarise key points only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose a clear, uncluttered layout</td>
<td>Plenty of space around print; slides centred on the screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At least 24 point font</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Upper and lower case font style used appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consistent style; avoid distractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present effectively</td>
<td>Text and illustrations are well-designed and effectively used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text and illustrations effectively assist audience understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly effective use of equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pointer used without fuss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eye contact with audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Steady pace</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definition
Powerpoint slides are visual summaries that support an oral presentation.

Purpose
To assist an audience in understanding an argument, a report or other information.

Audience
Classmates and assessor or, in the workplace, clients or a committee.

Structure
Introduction
Focus attention and state what the presentation is about. Present key information to be covered.

Main Points
Present the key points on one or more slides, depending on the time available. Transitions from one topic to another, or one member to another, must be effective and without disruption.

Conclusion
Briefly summarise what has been covered and comment on broader implications.

Style
Language
Choose simple language. The main points should be headings, with support as dot points. Keep the points consistent in their grammar (e.g. all noun phrases).

Font size
Use 24 point or bigger, if it’s in a large venue.

Font choice
Use a font that is clear and ‘sans serif’, for example Arial, to lead the eye on. Upper and lower case are easier to read than all capitals.

Colour
Choose contrasting colours for print and background, such as black or blue on white. Avoid red and pale colours.
Steps

1. Identify the essential points of your presentation.
2. Choose an appropriate font, size and colours. Type your first slide to introduce your topic (centre it on the page). This may be a question, a title or a brief statement.
3. Prepare a single slide as an overview. Create a slide for each of the main points, listing the sub points under each. Avoid crowding the slide with too much information.
4. Your final slide should restate your position or conclusion.
5. Include a simple graph, table or concise quote if it supports your point.
6. Check well before your presentation that your equipment is working and placed so that you can face the audience without blocking the screen.
7. Practise using your slides to support your delivery of content.
8. Direct attention to points on slides, either by using a laser pointer or appropriate custom animation to emphasise and reinforce particular information.

Tips

➤ Check the spelling and grammar of your slides before you finalise them.
➤ Check your timing. Have a practice run through your slides. Use the points as a prompt for what you say and to give you confidence in speaking to the points. Don’t rush.
➤ It is tempting to look at the slides, not at the people! Practise looking at the audience and keep a steady pace.
➤ If you run out of time, don’t speed up in an effort to cover everything. Simply summarise your remaining points and go to the conclusion.

Useful References

Part 2: Component Skills

All call outs in boxes refer to a section in the guide where the task is explained in detail.
2.1 Differences in Learning Styles

Attitudes to knowledge and learning depend on context. This context can vary in a number of ways ranging from different levels within an education system to different cultures.

In some contexts students are expected to conserve knowledge by reproducing information and ideas. Memorisation and imitation are suitable learning strategies in such ‘correctness’ oriented contexts.

In other contexts, while some degree of memorisation or basic comprehension may still be required, there is also the aim to critically analyse and reshape information into an argument that represents a student’s evaluation of knowledge.

When a student with experience in one academic context begins to study in another academic context, a different style of learning is required.

In other words, if you are more familiar with aiming to simply comprehend and remember what you learn, you will have to make adjustments to match academic expectations.

International students often face major changes in academic expectations. The table below summarises some of these changes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From: Dependent</th>
<th>To: Independent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Viewing a teacher as an instructor of content</td>
<td>Seeing a teacher as a facilitator to your interaction with content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not speaking up out of respect</td>
<td>Taking the initiative in discussion and asking questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepting information to be true</td>
<td>Critically analysing information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Useful References


It takes time to change from one learning style to another. The following sections (2.2, 2.3 and 2.4) may help you make the necessary adjustments.
2.2 Academic Expectations

Text books and reading

Find out in the first week how the lecturer expects the textbook and course folder readings to be used and how the texts relate to the lectures and assignments. It is important that you complete required readings before lectures. Use an active approach to reading. For example, look at the text book headings to predict what a section might be about, and check your prediction against what you read or stop and orally summarise each section in your own words. When reading journal articles, use the abstract to get a summary of the entire article.

The terms used in business often have a different meaning to everyday English usage, eg event, equity and balance or market, selling and advertising. Be aware of terms that have a technical meaning and refer to definitions in text book glossaries.

Lectures and Note Taking

Check availability of powerpoint slides on MyUni as a supplement to your own note-taking.

Aim to actively process what you hear to extract the main points and key supporting information. Consider the format of your notes, use headings and numbers or dot points. Develop abbreviations and use symbols. Review, rework and reduce your notes regularly as you learn more about each course topic. Such on-going revision enhances your learning and creates a useful resource for open-book exams.

Class Discussion

The purpose of class discussion is to develop knowledge and analytical skills and to raise any questions. The objective is also to learn from the knowledge and experience of classmates and not only that of the lecturer.

There is rarely one ‘right answer’ to any question and lecturers will expect you to give your opinions and to question what you read and hear. They do not want you to simply reproduce what you have heard or read.

MyUni

MyUni is the University of Adelaide’s online learning environment. Every enrolled course of study has an online presence in the form of a MyUni course. Most commonly used are the Announcement and Send Email features. Many lecturers also upload course information and assessment requirements, as well as lecture notes. Some lecturers also use the quiz, discussion board and group features. In most cases MyUni does not replace face-to-face lectures, tutorials and workshops, but is used to enhance your learning by allowing you to access information and course materials online at a time and place that suits you.

Assignments and plagiarism

To achieve a high grade you must focus on what is important in assignments; work out exactly what a question means and be careful to answer the core question, without including extra information. Many assignments include the marking criteria that set out clearly what your lecturer will be looking for. Refer to these criteria often as you prepare your assignment.

It is essential that you acknowledge the sources of the ideas you use in assignments and that you do not copy from texts without citing the source. Section 2.12 of this Guide shows how seriously plagiarism is regarded and what it means to acknowledge sources, both within your writing and in your list of references. The same section also explains how to use your own words to avoid copying the source.
2.3 Independent Learning

As a student at The University of Adelaide, you are expected to develop independent learning skills. While lecturers are available to help you, their time is limited and they will not be able to give you all the help you might want. Here are some strategies for becoming self-reliant:

> Form small study groups to discuss readings and check your note-taking in lectures and to ensure you pick up the most important points.

> Use the topic notes in the course materials and the key points in lectures and class discussions as a guide to what you need to learn and to follow up in your text books and assigned readings.

> Work through any problems on your own or with your group first before you make a time to see your lecturer.

> If you are having problems understanding content, be specific; tell your lecturer what you do understand, as well as what you don’t.

> Take advantage of workshops offered to further develop academic skills, increase confidence in completing your assignments and enhance your learning.

> Use other sections of this Guide. It is written especially to help students develop their academic skills.

Useful References


2.4 Group Skills

Group work in your study program assists in the development of these important workplace skills. As in your work life, you will be expected to use organisational and negotiating skills to function as an effective unit and achieve the task goal.

Working Effectively in a Group
> Get to know everyone in the group.
> Ensure that all group members feel comfortable with each other.
> Make sure that everybody knows everyone’s name and contact details.
> Leave no one out of the discussion (involve people who are naturally quiet, include people who do not have English as their first language, consider everyone’s needs and expectations).

Contributing as a Group Member
> Listen carefully to others.
> Show that you are listening by using body language.
> Find ways of encouraging other group members to speak (especially the quiet ones).
> Take responsibility (don’t leave everything to one person).
> Relate your ideas to the ideas of others.
> If you disagree, don’t just reject other people’s ideas, suggest alternatives.
> Be ready to compromise.

Group Assignments – Making the Most of your Group
Groups may operate more effectively with the allocation of roles (chairperson, time keeper, task manager, etc.). Roles can be rotated for each meeting.

Getting organised
At your first meeting:
> Decide who will take notes.
> Decide who will organise meetings.
> Decide who will keep the meetings to a time limit.
> Decide when and where you will meet.
> Decide what to do if someone doesn’t turn up or pull their weight.
> Exchange phone numbers and email addresses.
> Decide who will be responsible for contacting all members.
> Decide who will keep and email notes of decisions made at each meeting.

Getting to work
> Analyse the task so that everyone agrees on what they have to do.
> Work must be allocated fairly so that everyone has the same amount of responsibility.
> During allocation, consider people’s ability and previous experience.
> Work out a timeline that shows each sub-task (the date by which it must be completed and the person or people who are responsible for doing it).
> Although each person is responsible for their sub-task, all group members must meet regularly and discuss the work as a whole.
> The group must produce an assignment that is cohesive and coherent. Often group assignments result in papers that are disjointed as sections written by different people are put together without ensuring that the discussion flows logically. To avoid this, all group members must read the assignment as a whole and identify content that is not relevant, is repetitious, or affects the logic of the argument.
Ensure that the task is completed with plenty of time for revisions and editing. This is best done by one member to maintain flow and consistent style.

> Proofread and check all parts of the assignment the week before it’s due.

Useful References


2.5 Project Management

Project management is a standard workplace skill but also a skill that no student can succeed without. MBA students need to balance personal and work commitments with study. Project management skills allow a person to cope with many and various tasks by focusing on the planning, implementation, control and coordination of the project from beginning to end while also meeting time, quality and budget constraints.

Defining a Project

A project is defined as a specific, finite task to be accomplished (Meredith and Mantel 1995). A project can be identified by a number of attributes:

- **Purpose**: a project is usually developed to achieve a clear goal or objective (e.g. written assignment, consultancy report or marketing plan).
- **Life cycle**: a project has a beginning, middle and end.
- **Interdependencies**: projects nearly always interact and affect other projects.
- **Unique**: a project always incorporates one or more elements that make it unique.
- **Conflict**: as projects compete for resources (time, money, skill, equipment) there is invariably conflict.

Project Stages

Each project has a life cycle with a beginning, middle and an end over a finite time span. Each stage will consume different levels of various resources. A project life cycle generally follows four main phases (see Figure 1).

When multiple projects are operating at one time it becomes clear each needs to be planned, monitored and documented carefully. Obviously, multiple projects place added pressure on timelines, resources and the quality of outcomes. There is a variety of tools and methods that can be used to plan and monitor complex projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>PLANNING</th>
<th>IMPLEMENTATION</th>
<th>FINALISATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Identify the need for the project</td>
<td>4. Define in detail the outcomes, standards and resources requirements</td>
<td>7. Execute work packages</td>
<td>10. Ensure completion of all deliverables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establish the goals and objective</td>
<td>5. Estimate time and cost, sequence activities</td>
<td>8. Establish control mechanisms</td>
<td>11. Document project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Identify the risks associated with the project</td>
<td>6. ‘Chunk’ work into manageable work packages</td>
<td>9. Monitor progress</td>
<td>12. Review and evaluate progress and outcomes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1: Phases of a Project Lifecycle**

Gantt Chart

This planning tool is simple in its construction and very easy to read (see Figure 2). Haynes (1997, p. 31) describes a simple way to create a Gantt Chart:

- List the actions required to complete the project.
- Estimate the amount of time you will need to complete each of the actions.
- List the actions down the left (Y) axis of the chart and the time intervals, perhaps in days, along the bottom (X) axis of the chart.
- Draw a horizontal line across the chart for each of the listed actions, starting at the beginning date and finishing at the completion date.

At any time, place a vertical (date) line through the chart and observe the current progress of tasks (i.e. completed, in-progress, yet to begin). Using this method, one can quickly see the minimum amount of time necessary to complete a total project, the sequence of actions to undertake, and the steps to be carried out simultaneously.
Other simple planning tools that can assist you in your project planning and management include:

- A diary and notebook to record your thoughts, log actions and document your progress.
- Special purpose filing structures such as bibliography files.
- Progress reports or whole project reports.
- Use of an “Action Planning Worksheet”, as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TASK</th>
<th>WHAT</th>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>FINALISATION</th>
<th>PROGRESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assignment 1</td>
<td>Individual Management Skills</td>
<td>1. Results from self-assessment tools</td>
<td>Week 3 of trimester</td>
<td>40% complete as at 1st May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>assignment</td>
<td>2. Notes - text &amp; lecture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Relevant journal articles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personal Time Management

Good project management also relies upon personal management. Time is possibly an individual’s most unique and valuable resource. Being aware of personal time-management issues is a sure way of staying on top!

Here are some hints:

- Understand your energy cycle. Know when you work at your best and, if possible, allocate important actions during this time.
- Set priorities. Attribute one of the following values to each of your daily tasks and actions, (a) must do, (b) should do, and (c) would like to do.
- Understand how you set priorities. Generally, personal value judgements based on timing (i.e. deadlines) and relativity (i.e. comparing one task against another) are the best way to set priorities.
- Apply time management techniques such as:
  - Using an action worksheet, Gantt chart, weekly worksheet, daily plan.
  - Keeping a diary of events/tasks.
- Be aware of ‘time-wasters’ such as:
  - Disorganisation
  - Procrastination
  - The inability to say no or refuse a task
  - Visitors
  - Telephone calls
  - Meetings
  - Junk mail/email.

Useful References

Project management software, e.g. Microsoft Office Project 2010 ©.
2.6 Aiming High for Assignments

The first list includes the minimal requirements that all students must meet to pass assignments. The second list of characteristics is a guide for students aiming for higher grades. Be sure that you have read your course assignment descriptions thoroughly because some of these may be considered requirements for a pass.

Passing assignments requires, at least:

1. Satisfactorily answering the set question.
2. Adequately structuring the answer.
3. Including sufficient relevant references.
4. Using your own words with appropriate referencing as required.
5. Evidence of interpretation and analysis

High grades for assignments require that:

1. All information is relevant to the set question.
2. Claims are consistent with the argument and justified with evidence from published sources.
3. Presentation is as required: type size, line space, margins, headings, referencing, cover page.
4. The argument is clear and developed logically to unify the assignment.
5. The assignment shows depth of critical and analytical thinking.
6. The literature has been interrogated, not just accepted.
7. All references are complete, accurate, and consistent.
8. Topic choice (where applicable) is adventurous but appropriate.
9. A number of credible sources has been consulted.
10. The executive summary summarises the findings and recommendations.
11. There is no repetition in the paper.
12. Alternative arguments are considered.
13. The conclusion does more than repeat the introduction – it synthesises the argument.

Useful References

2.7 Academic Argument

Assignments and Arguments

In tertiary education there are many types of assignments that require an argument. An argument, here, means the logical presentation of a position, or point of view. In other words, highlight ‘your voice’ in the academic debate about a topic. The position must be informed by evidence from the literature, from research, from examples and principles, and be presented with careful reasoning. Opinions without sound evidence and clear justification have little value.

A clearly supported argument is required in an academic essay, a short answer essay, a professional report, and a case analysis. Each of these types of academic assignments require you to gather and analyse information and data to form a point of view about that information, then present that position along with a logical line of reasoning to support it. For reports and case analyses, recommendations are the key outcome of this process.

The amount and type of evidence required for the different types of assignments varies. For example, the argument in short essay answers rests on general principles and illustrative examples; professional reports require arguments based partly on data and information the writer has gathered in the workplace, while the argument in a case study analysis rests on accepted principles, theory and insights into the information provided on the particular case.

Components of an Argument

Well-structured writing is writing that a reader can follow easily. It will provide a context for the reader and include headings and signal words and phrases, like ‘However,’ ‘As a result’ and ‘A further example of this…’, to alert the reader to the way the argument fits together.

Despite their differences in length and types of evidence, all arguments have the same basic structure:

> An orientation that gives the reader the context of the argument.
> An outline of the position taken to prepare the reader for what follows.
> Discussion that sets out the arguments for the position, one by one.
> A conclusion that brings closure to the whole.

The length of the assignment will affect how much is written for each component. A short answer essay can orient the reader and state the position taken in a single sentence, while a case study analysis may use several paragraphs to summarise the context and several pages to set out the main issues. Closure can be achieved in a short answer without an extra sentence, and in a case study analysis or a management report with a listing of the recommendations.

In some assignment answers, the different components of an argument may be combined, particularly in a short answer, where the context and conclusion are obvious or assumed by the reader. In lengthy assignments, the reader needs the expected components in the expected order, and markers (signal words and phrases) to more easily follow the argument.

Criteria for Assessing an Argument

The strength of an argument rests on the logic of the discussion and the quality of the evidence provided in the discussion. It is not enough for the writer to present one side of a case and then the other. The writer must take a position and argue for it. If length permits, as in a professional report or an essay, opposing positions should be discussed, along with reasons why the chosen position is preferred.

The quality of the evidence will be judged by its relevance, the authority of its source, how complete it is and how convincingly it is used. When selecting evidence, a writer must maintain an analytical and critical approach to what is read, to how it is read and to how different evidence fits together. This approach is discussed in the next section (2.8).

An academic essay must have the sources of its evidence thoroughly documented, both within the text and at the end with a reference list. The Harvard reference system is usually preferred in MBA courses. Care must be taken to use the system consistently and to ensure that all references listed are in fact cited in the text.
The following table can be used to check that an argument is well written.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argue logically</td>
<td>Connections are clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The argument is well structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alternatives are covered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide evidence</td>
<td>Evidence and examples are relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The evidence has authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The evidence is convincing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference sources</td>
<td>All sources are acknowledged within the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The reference list is complete and consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All sources cited are in the reference list and all items in the reference list are cited</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Useful References

2.8 Analytical and Critical Thinking

A Questioning Approach

The sign of a good student is the questioning approach taken to the area under investigation. The approach must be both analytical and critical - ‘analytical’ in pulling apart the elements of the ideas and examining how they operate on each other, and ‘critical’ in always looking for what is not obvious or for different points of view.

An analytical investigator, whether a student or a professional, is always asking questions of the ideas and writing being considered:

- Are there other concepts and principles that I should consider?
- Are the terms being used appropriately and consistently?
- Are the examples given consistent with the points being made?
- Is there another way I can think about the data and the issues presented?
- Is the conclusion drawn the only one possible from the data presented?
- How do these ideas relate to the ideas I have already encountered in lectures, texts, articles and my own experience?

To be analytical you need to examine the relationships between what is in a text or a situation. To be critical you need to identify what your source takes for granted or leaves out. Ask yourself:

- Who is writing this? Is this source reliable? (accurate and balanced)
- When was this written? Is the information up to date?
- What areas does this source cover? What does it leave out or dismiss?
- Why is this being written? For whom? How is this information biased?

Developing a Questioning Approach

This approach is fostered in some learning environments, but is discouraged in others. Where students have been expected to accept everything they read in their texts and hear from their teachers, the skill of questioning has not been developed. In fact, students who have studied in such environments have been rewarded in exams and assignments by remembering and reproducing exactly what the texts and teachers have stated. They are likely to feel that they will receive poor grades if they present alternative views; they may feel they have no right to question the sources and information provided and to explore other ways of viewing a situation, or they may feel insecure about not having the ‘right’ answer. It is important for students to realise that at university, as in the workplace, success will only be achieved if this questioning approach is developed.

It takes practice to develop a questioning approach to study. At first, you will need time to practise posing the two sets of questions listed above. The time taken to use the questions can lead you to being more selective in what you read and more incisive in developing your arguments.

The analytical questions involve the listener or reader in relating what has just been read or heard with what has already been understood. How does the information or view presented relate to what you already know? The critical questions should be considered before reading a particular source and when choosing to use a source for evidence. Knowing that a source has limitations does not mean that you have to leave it out. It may be the best source available or widely used, in which case, you will include it but state its limitations. It is worth developing the habit of thinking about how what you have just read or heard relates to what you already know. This approach will help you to remember what you have just encountered, and also help you to organise and integrate it into your existing knowledge.

It may be helpful to jot down in the margin of lecture or reading notes a question mark or the actual questions you have when you notice inconsistencies or weaknesses in arguments. It is often these questions that your lecturer is seeking in class discussions.
Checking your Approach

All good assignments are clear and logical in their arguments. Each section will move easily to the next, and the reader will be in no doubt about what the writer’s point of view is. There will be a balance of long and short sentences. The ideas will be in the writer’s own words; evidence will be given to support the writer’s claims and the sources of this evidence acknowledged.

If the writer has been analytical and critical in his or her approach, the assignment, unless it is a short essay answer, will contain original ideas and will give some consideration to alternatives to the writer’s own views. An investigator who has been questioning what has been read and understood will see new connections between concepts and data, will identify weaknesses in others’ arguments and the evidence provided, and will recognise fresh possibilities in familiar situations. These original ideas will be firmly based in the accepted concepts, models and ways of operating in the commercial world. You can check your questioning approach using the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being analytical</td>
<td>Have I identified considerations that have been left out?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I seen how other writers use words differently?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I found some weaknesses in arguments?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I recognised inappropriate examples or illustrations?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I seen new connections between ideas and sources?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning critically</td>
<td>Have I recognised the writer’s particular interests and purposes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I considered how the place and date of the ideas influence what has been said?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have I seen whose points of view were not considered? (e.g. of producers, women, the environment)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Useful References

2.9 Academic Style

What is Academic Style?

The overriding characteristic of a good writing style is that it is easy for the reader to understand. What is easy for one reader to understand, however, may not be easy for another. The writer therefore needs to know who the audience is and be aware of their background and expectations. The vocabulary and language structures that are easy for your assessor or a manager to understand will be those with which they are familiar – those of your text books, the literature, and the commercial workplace. As you become more familiar with this vocabulary and ways of structuring texts, you will find it easier to use these terms and forms. While you are learning, it is helpful to refer to the literature in the area for examples and models.

Apart from the particular structures and vocabulary of your particular field, there are several characteristics of good style that are common to all formal writing, in whatever field.

> The writing is clear
> The argument is easy to follow
> The language is impersonal
> There are few errors

Several techniques to achieve each of these are described below.

Clear Expression

Contrary to what many students believe, good writing is not complicated. The writer’s aim should be to express, rather than impress. That means short sentences rather than long convoluted ones, and familiar words rather than obscure words used simply to impress. The best writers are those who get their message across directly and concisely.

Another aspect of direct, concise writing is the writer’s use of their own words so that the writing flows effortlessly and feels authentic. Only use a quotation instead of your own words if the quote states an idea in a way that captures the meaning in a special or precise way. Always acknowledge a quote or use of another’s idea with quotation marks and by citing the source.

Punctuation is the third element of writing. The purpose of punctuation is to make the meaning clear: a full stop ends a complete idea; a comma divides up a list or separates out a part of a sentence; a colon (:) signals that elaboration will follow; a semicolon (;) divides two ideas that the writer wants connected. Too much punctuation halts the flow of the ideas and confuses the reader.

Finally, paragraphs and headings assist the reader by dividing up chunks of meaning, signaling that the writer is moving on to a new idea. Too many headings or very short paragraphs interfere with the reader’s efforts to tie ideas together; too few can cause an overload. A long paragraph needs to develop a single main idea to be easily understood. Signal words and phrases (words that signal relationships, such as “However” and “As a result”), and using synonyms and summary phrases help to build cohesion within and across paragraphs.

Clarity of Argument

The centrality of argument in academic writing and its characteristics are spelt out in Section 2.7. The clarity of the argument rests primarily on clear thinking, which can be assisted by representing the argument diagrammatically.

Representing the main proposition in the centre or top of a diagram, then labelling subsidiary boxes with titles for each supporting argument can help to conceptualise how your ideas fit together and how they might be organised as paragraphs. Then under each box title, list the points to be made for that idea. Counter arguments can be noted in smaller subsidiary boxes. This diagram can be a valuable reference point in organising the whole assignment and in staying on track during the writing stage.

At all times the writer must consider the reader. Clear, direct first and last paragraphs help the reader by first setting up a clear expectation as to what is to follow, and at the end consolidating all that has gone before. Language markers that signal how the different ideas and illustrations link together are also valuable guides to the argument for the reader.
Impersonal Language

Impersonal, formal language is used to imply impartiality in the analysis and presentation of an argument or of events. It involves avoiding ‘I’, ‘we’, ‘this author’ and ‘this writer’. Instead, wording such as the following can be used:

- An analysis of the existing costing system of the company shows that …
- The following discussion presents …
- This paper explores the relationship between …

Without Errors

The first impressions that a report or an assignment convey to a management group, a client or a course assessor will influence their approach to the argument and the ideas contained in it. Errors encountered in the first few pages give the impression of carelessness. While it is very difficult to produce a piece of writing that is completely error free, students should put in place practices that reduce the errors in their work.

The most important habit that a student can foster is to proofread final drafts at least twice: the first time to ensure that the argument flows smoothly from sentence to sentence and between paragraphs; and the second, to check spelling. Reading for fluency of argument can lead to the reordering, deleting and rewriting of sections and the insertion of signal words and phrases. Most writers find they need to proofread a hard copy rather than on screen, as thorough proofreading requires word by word reading to ensure that the correct word (e.g. ‘there’ instead of ‘their’, ‘product’ instead of ‘produce’) has been used. Spell checkers do not identify these as errors.

Useful References

Rose, J 2007, The mature student’s guide to writing, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York
2.10 Presentation

All lecturers and markers look for writing that is easy to understand. They therefore want writing that has all the characteristics of academic style as described in 2.9: writing that is clear, impersonal and without errors.

For all major assignments, both formative and summative, the preferred layout is in 12 point Times Roman, with 1.5 line spacing, 5 centimetres left-hand margins and headings. Where an Executive Summary is required, it is to be single-spaced and no more than one A4 page in length.

All assignments must be submitted with a completed and signed cover sheet, which can be downloaded from: www.adelaide.edu.au/professions/hub

Referencing Style

There are several different author-date referencing styles. The preferred style is the Harvard referencing style. Check to ensure you know which style your lecturer requires.

When using a referencing style the main concern is to be consistent. When using the Harvard system you will sometimes need to include further depth or explanation to your main text. This extra information should be included as an appendix and appropriately referred to within the main text.

The Harvard system always includes a reference list at the end of the document to provide full details of all sources cited within the text. If using EndNote through the University of Adelaide, ensure you select the ‘Harvard UoA’ option. It is the only acceptable form.
2.11 Instructional Words

The following terms frequently appear in assignment and exam questions:

- **Account for**: Give reasons for
- **Give an account of**: Describe
- **Take into account**: Consider; think about
- **Analyse**: Divide into parts and discuss each part and how they relate
- **Argue**: Systematically support or reject a position by presenting reasons and give evidence for acceptance or rejection
- **Assess**: Decide how important something is and give your reasons
- **Assume**: First accept that something is true
- **Classify**: Arrange into groups or classes
- **Comment on**: Explain why something is important
- **Compare**: Describe the ways two things are alike
- **Concept**: An important idea
- **Concise**: Short, brief
- **In the context of**: Referring to; inside the subject of
- **Contrast**: Describe the ways two things are different
- **Criteria**: The standards, the questions you would expect to be answered
- **Criticise**: Discuss, pointing out faults and advantages
- **Deduction**: The conclusion or generalisation you come to after looking carefully at all the facts
- **Define**: Provide clear, concise, authoritative meanings
- **Describe**: Relate; tell; give an account of
- **Determine**: Find out; ascertain; establish; identify
- **Discuss**: Give both sides of an argument and then your own opinion (A word of warning: ‘Discuss’ is often used loosely by lecturers when they actually mean ‘Describe’, so ask your lecturer which is intended)
- **Distinguish between**: Describe the difference between two things
- **Elaborate**: Yes or no is not enough; answer fully with reasons and examples
- **Evaluate**: Decide and explain the significance or importance of something.
- **Explain**: Analyse in order to show reasons, causes and effects; clarify by the use of models and examples
- **Examine**: Look at closely and carefully; thoroughly inspect
- **To what extent is x true?**: Explain in what ways x is true and in what ways x is not true
- **Factors**: The circumstances bringing about a result
- **Function**: What something does; its purpose or activities
- **Identify**: Point out and describe
- **Indicate**: Show; explain
- **Illustrate**: Give examples or diagrams that prove your answer is correct
- **Implications**: Results which are not obvious; long term, suggested results
- **Limitations**: The shortcomings, what is not useful or relevant in something
- **Integrate**: Incorporate into; draw upon
- **Interpret**: Develop your own explanation of what something means or represents
- **List**: Provide an itemised series of points (often expressed in point form)
- **Outline**: Give an organised description in which you state the main points but omit detail
- **Prove**: Confirm or verify by stating and evaluating evidence, or by logical reasoning
- **With/by reference to**: Base discussion on required input or focus
- **Reflect on**: Same as consider/discuss
- **Relate**: To make or show a connection between things
- **Review**: Re-examine, analyse and comment briefly on the major points
- **Role**: The part something plays, how it works, especially in conjunction with other things
- **State**: Formally set out a position
- **Summarise**: Choose the main points of detailed information
- **Support**: Provide information and evidence to strengthen an argument
- **Synthesise**: Draw together ideas from different sources into a cohesive whole
- **Validate**: Give the evidence and facts to prove a statement or point of view

**Useful References**


2.12 Plagiarism and Using your Own Words

Plagiarism is the use of another author’s words or ideas without acknowledgement. Avoiding plagiarism is important to good writing, and essential at University. This section explains the common misunderstandings and behaviours that can lead to plagiarism. However, the issue of plagiarism is also a matter of being a careful writer, so take special note of the last part of this section.

Plagiarism Defined

The University states that ‘Plagiarism is a serious act of academic misconduct’. The University’s Academic Honesty Policy provides more detail at www.adelaide.edu.au/policies/230/

Section 2.1a of the policy highlights two examples of plagiarism. The first is presenting work that is not your own without appropriate acknowledgement or reference to the original source. This means that you have used someone else’s words, phrases and passages in a way which is very similar to their original form, and have presented them as your own without acknowledging this with an in-text reference. If you copy down phrases and passages straight out of your source material, you might think that it is easier than the more difficult task of writing your own words. After all, paraphrasing requires time and effort. Or you might think that the author has used language in a way that expresses the idea better than you could. However, lecturers want to know if you have understood the task and what you have read. You can only show this by using your own words and using references to support what you are saying.

The second form of plagiarism is directly copying phrases and passages without using quotation marks, an in-text reference and a page number.

If you take notes from your reading in the form of copying word for word phrases, sentences or paragraphs, and don’t properly record that these were in fact someone else’s words (with quotation marks and a reference), then you might forget their source when you write up your assignment and present them as your own ideas.

Related Forms of Cheating

These are explained in a straightforward manner in Sections 2.1a and 2.1b of The Academic Honesty Policy. Firstly, you must not hand in any work that is written for you by another person. Secondly, you must not submit work that you have copied from another student. Thirdly, two students must not hand in the same piece of work for individual assessment.

Copying the work of another student can occur deliberately or through misunderstanding what is considered to be plagiarism. However, for whatever reason, copying the work of another student is considered cheating and both students can be penalised.

Students must not hand in the same piece of work that someone else is also handing in, for separate assessment. This does not include group work that is assessable as a group; this includes assignments that you might have worked on together. It is quite acceptable for you to work together discussing assignments; for example, interpretation of the question, problems, possible solutions and so on, but you must not prepare your spreadsheets or your written work together and hand it up as independent work. Make sure your writing is your own.

If you are in doubt about what is expected for an assignment, please ask your lecturer.

Assignments are routinely submitted to Turnitin, which is a plagiarism detection database connected to MyUni. The penalties for plagiarism can be severe. You can fail an assignment, which might cause you to fail the whole course. Further disciplinary action may be taken by the Board of Conduct under Academic Dishonesty procedures.

Avoiding Plagiarism

The following examples of how to use your own words when writing assignments are based on pages 18 and 19 of Carlopio, J & Andrewartha, G 2008, Developing management skills: A comprehensive guide for leaders, 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW. Please note that an actual assignment would include analysis and comment by the student writer as well as draw on other sources.
Original passage
This book takes the view that a core feature of excellent management skills across all cultures is honest, transparent, ethical behavior. Ethical behavior involves the development of a principle-based knowledge of what is right and wrong and doing what is right.

Formulating and following a clear set of ethical values is considered a prerequisite for developing management skills. It is not sufficient to have a commitment to a set of ethical values. It is also necessary to have a level of self-awareness that can identify your own unconscious and subtle prejudices and biases in management practice.

What Not to Do!
This paragraph just strings together quotations and does not use the student’s own words sufficiently.

According to Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008, p. 18), ‘a core feature of excellent management skills across all cultures is honest, transparent, ethical behaviour’. This requires ‘formulating and following a clear set of ethical values’; in other words, knowing ‘what is right and wrong, and doing what is right’. However, ‘commitment to a set of ethical values’ is not enough without ‘a level of self awareness that can identify your own unconscious and subtle prejudices and biases in management practice’ (Carlopio & Andrewartha 2008, p. 19)

This next paragraph includes examples of plagiarism because it rearranges chunks of the original sentence structure and does not use quotation marks – see above for where they should be.

It is the view of Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008, p. 18) that honest, transparent, ethical behaviour is a core feature of excellent management skills across all cultures. A good manager needs to know what is right and wrong so that they can formulate a clear set of ethical guidelines. In order to follow these guidelines, they must have a level of self awareness that helps them to know any unconscious and subtle prejudices and biases that they may have (Carlopio & Andrewartha 2008, p. 19).

Good Examples
This next paragraph uses a good combination of quoting and putting things in the student’s words.

Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008, p. 18) believe that ‘honest, transparent, ethical behaviour’ is not only essential for quality management but that is also universal across cultures. They maintain that through understanding ‘what is right and wrong, and doing what is right’ one can develop a set of ethical values to underpin one’s management practice (2008, p. 19). They believe that this alone, however, is not enough and that one must also be self-aware in order to prevent any bias or prejudice from creeping into the way one manages.

The following paragraph makes good use of the student’s own words.

Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008, p. 18) believe that in implementing a set of ethical management guidelines, one must not only commit to doing the right thing but also bridge the gap that may exist between knowledge and behaviour. They point out that self-awareness is the key to preventing possible bias or prejudice from influencing one’s management practice. Indeed, ‘honest, transparent, ethical behaviour’ is a cornerstone of quality management that is shared by all cultures (Carlopio & Andrewartha 2008, p. 19).

As you can see in these two examples, Carlopio and Andrewartha are acknowledged right at the beginning as the source of these ideas and the reader is left in no doubt that the ideas continue to be theirs with phrases like, ‘They maintain...’, ‘They believe...’, and ‘They point out...’.

Using Your Own Words
A good strategy for learning to put information from another text into your own words is to write without the other text in front of you. To do this, you will need to have taken relevant notes in your own words, with the appropriate references. You can then write your assignment using your notes rather than the original text.

At all times you need to decide what is relevant to your assignment topic and be aware of where the ideas are coming from. Mapping out your ideas and how they relate by drawing a diagram before you begin to write can keep your ideas separate from those of the writers who are contributing to your argument.

In taking notes from other sources, it is essential that you keep the details of your sources. When you copy directly from your source, make it clear in your notes, along with the page number of the quote. If you are noting rather than quoting fully from a source, you will already be on the path of putting the ideas in your own words when you turn these brief notes back into sentences.
Using the Ideas and Words of Others

There are three ways of using the ideas, research findings and words of others in your writing. They are:

> Quoting
> Paraphrasing
> Summarising

Whether you are quoting, paraphrasing or summarising, you must cite your references.

Useful References


2.13 Referencing: The Harvard System

Whenever you use the ideas and arguments of other writers, you are obliged to make reference to the writers and their work. You need to make clear which words and ideas you have “borrowed” from others, and which are your own. By acknowledging the work of others, you avoid plagiarism.

The other main purposes of using references are to show the reader where the evidence comes from so that more credibility is added to your argument, or so an interested reader may verify information and consult the source independently. It is therefore important to give all the necessary information, and present it in a clear and concise way.

The Harvard system

This method is widely used in the Social Sciences and is the style used in the Business School for the writing of essays, reports and short answers. One of the advantages of this system is that the reader can immediately see the source and date.

In-text References

In the Harvard system all references, regardless of the type of source material used, appear in brackets in the text each time you use ideas that are not your own. Only the author's surname(s), the year of publication and page numbers (if necessary) are stated:

Example 1
Position power is eroding in many organisations; therefore, leaders must derive their influence from values (Huey 1994).

A reference must be included every time you quote (use exact words), paraphrase (use your own words) or summarise (refer to main points) someone else’s theory, point of view or data. If you are in doubt as to what should be referenced and what can be considered common knowledge, be cautious and reference.

Direct Quotations

Direct quotations of less than 40 words use quotation marks and are written as part of your sentence or paragraph.

Example 2a
Carpio and Andrewartha (2008, p.18) believe that ethical management is ‘the core foundation of the development of management skills.’

Quotations longer than 40 words should be introduced with your own words and then indented and written in single spacing.

Example 2b
Carpio and Andrewartha (2008, pp. 18-19) believe that,
A core feature of excellent management skills across all cultures is honest, transparent, ethical behaviour. Ethical behaviour involves the development of a principle-based knowledge of what is right and wrong and doing what is right. Formulating and following a clear set of ethical values is considered a prerequisite for developing management skills.

Use of ‘and’ or ‘&’

Use ‘and’ when author names are part of the sentence (as in examples 2a and 2b). Use ‘&’ when names are in brackets (as in example 3 below) or in the reference list.
Page Numbers

It is necessary to include page numbers when you are quoting or paraphrasing a particular passage, list or figure from your source. You must also include the page number if you are summarising ideas found on a particular page.

Example 3
Besides failing to give recognition to others, analysers typically ‘find it hard to accept positive recognition’ themselves (Carlopio & Andrewartha 2008, p. 86).

When you are summarising main ideas, general views or general areas of research that do not come from one page only, the page number is not included in the citation.

Example 4
Goleman (2001) and Gosling and Mintzberg (2003) emphasise the importance of self-awareness as the starting point for effective change.

Author’s Name as Part of the Sentence

Sometimes who you are citing is as important as what you are citing. If an author’s name is mentioned as part of your sentence, you do not need to repeat it in the in-text citation. Only the date (plus the page number, if relevant) appears in brackets as Example 4 also illustrates.

More often, however, a student will need to focus on what authors have said. This allows the student to integrate the ideas of others as evidence to support their own argument and line of reasoning and to retain their own voice. The author name is included in brackets in the citation made immediately after the idea.

Citing Several References at the Same Point in the Text

When citing several sources at the same point in the text, separate the authors’ surnames with semicolons putting them in alphabetical order, and put the complete set of references in brackets.

Example 5
Leaders must clarify and understand their own belief systems in order to transmit good organisational values to others (Anderson 1997; Bennis 1989; Kouze & Posner 1999).

Two or More Publications in the Same Year by the Same Author

If your sources include more than one publication in the same year by the same author(s), then a lower case letter (a, b, c) should follow the date to make a distinction between the publications.

Example 6

Secondary References

When you read a source by one author (Author 1) who refers to an idea by a second author (Author 2) and you want to use Author 2’s idea, you are making a secondary reference. You must mention both authors in your in-text citation but will only list Author 1 in your reference list because it is the primary source you consulted.

Example 7
This is consistent with the external value dimension that characterises most Asian cultures (Trompenaars 1999 cited in Carlopio & Andrewartha 2008).
(In this example, Carlopio and Andrewartha are Authors 1 and Trompenaars is Author 2. Carlopio and Andrewartha will appear in the reference list but Trompenaars will not).

No date/ No Place of Publication

Use ‘c.’ if you can determine an approximate date, ‘?’ after a possible date, and ‘n.d.’ when no date can be determined.

Use ‘n.p.’ where a place of publication is not provided.
Reference List

The Harvard system requires a reference list at the end of your assignment. It is arranged in alphabetical order by author surname. For every different source cited in the assignment there must be a corresponding detailed entry in the reference list at the end of the assignment. If using EndNote through the University of Adelaide, ensure you select the ‘Harvard UoA’ option. It is the only acceptable form.

The basic elements of a reference list entry include name, date, title, publisher and place of publication. Slight variations apply depending on the type of source used.

The following index provides examples of different types of sources.

### Basic format for books: Author’s surname, Initial(s) year, Title of book, Publisher, Place of Publication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOOKS Example</th>
<th>IN-TEXT REFERENCE</th>
<th>REFERENCE LIST ENTRY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book with 2 or 3 authors</td>
<td>According to Carlpio and Andrewartha (2008), …</td>
<td>Carlpio, J, &amp; Andrewartha, G 2008, Developing management skills, 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book with 4 or more authors/ editors</td>
<td>As research indicates, the management of human assets involves… (Beer et al. 1984)</td>
<td>Beer, M, Specter, B, Lawrence, F, Quinn, M &amp; Walton, R 1984, Managing human assets, Free Press, New York.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book by an organisation/ government department or institute</td>
<td>Environmental sustainability is also a key challenge (WCED 1987).</td>
<td>World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) 1987, Our common future, Oxford University Press, Oxford.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encyclopaedia or dictionary without author</td>
<td>The Macquarie Dictionary (2004, p. 399) defines stress as ‘a disturbing physiological or …</td>
<td>No entry is required in the reference list because the name and date have been provided in the in-text citation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Basic format for journal articles: Author’s surname, Initial(s) year, “Title of article,” Title of Journal, vol and issue number, page range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JOURNAL/MAGAZINE/NEWSPAPER ARTICLES Example</th>
<th>IN-TEXT REFERENCE</th>
<th>REFERENCE LIST ENTRY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Journal article with a single author</td>
<td>It is clear there is a marked difference in the way males and females… (Fletcher 1999).</td>
<td>Fletcher, C 1999 “The implication of research on gender differences in self-assessment and 360 degree appraisals”, Human Resource Management Journal, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 39.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic format for electronic publications: Author's surname, initial(s) year date, Title, date viewed, online location of source. (page numbers included where available)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Electronic publications</strong></td>
<td><strong>In-text reference</strong></td>
<td><strong>Reference list entry</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emails/Interviews (personal communication)</td>
<td>Allegations of wrongdoing made by Johnson (2012, pers. Comm, 5 May) demonstrate how...</td>
<td>The in-text citation is provided but no reference list entry is made. Permission must be sought from the person referred to.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLES AND GRAPHS

An example of referencing a table:

Table 1: Influence Dimension Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION</th>
<th>COMMUNICATION BEHAVIOUR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Timing</td>
<td>Rapid/gradual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis</td>
<td>Understate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>Linear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Concept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Respond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual</td>
<td>Visual/Experiential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Analyser</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from The McPhee Andrewartha Influence Dimensions in Carlopio and Andrewartha 2008, p. 55 (in-text)
Carlopio, J & Andrewartha, G 2008, Developing management skills, 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW. (reference list)

An example of referencing a diagram:

Figure 1: Summary of PAMS Results

Source: Adapted from The Personal Assessment of Management Skills in Carlopio and Andrewartha 2008, p. 4 (in-text)
Carlopio, J & Andrewartha, G 2008, Developing management skills, 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW. (reference list)
Punctuation

Every reference list or bibliography you consult will have different styles of punctuation. The only rule that does not seem to vary is that the titles of books or other major works (not essays or journal articles) and the names of journals should be italicised.

Whichever style of punctuation you choose to adopt probably doesn’t matter as long as you are consistent throughout.

What about footnotes?

In the Harvard system of referencing the use of footnotes is limited to further explanations or extensions, comments or sub-arguments that the writer wishes to include. If they were included in the text, they might disrupt the continuity or distract the reader. Footnotes should be numbered consecutively throughout the essay with superscript Arabic numerals, and placed at the bottom of each page or at the end of the text. Generally, the rule is to avoid footnotes and endnotes when using the Harvard system and to use appendices instead.

The Final Analysis

Referencing may seem overwhelming at first. Remember that the primary reason for referencing is to tell your reader where the evidence you used came from and to provide all the publication details available to make it as easy as possible for them to find the source. Presenting it in a consistent bibliographic format will be something that you will become more confident about with practice. Be sure to keep this index system to hand so that you can check accuracy of referencing when finalising your assignment.

Acknowledgments

The material for these sections on referencing was compiled with the assistance of Barr-Smith librarians, Qing Liang and Lucy Zuzolo, and from several sources:


Learning connection learning guide 2004, University of South Australia, Adelaide.

