

COMMUNICATION SKILLS GUIDE

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INTRODUCTION TO UNIVERSITY LEARNING

CONTENTS

Introduction to university learning	ii
Learning Support within the University	01
Part 1: Academic Skills	02
1.1. Differences in Learning Styles	03
1.2. Academic Expectations	04
1.3. Independent Learning	05
1.4. Group Skills	06
1.5. Project Management	07
1.6. Aiming High in Assignments	10
1.7. Academic Argument	11
1.8. Analytical and Critical Thinking	12
1.9. Academic Style	14
1.10. Vocabulary and Grammar	15
1.11. Instructional Words	16
1.12. Presentation	17
1.13. Plagiarism and Using your Own Words	18
1.14. Referencing: The Harvard System	20
Part 2: Assignment Skills	26
2.1. Short Answers	27
2.2. Academic Essays	29
2.3. Reflective Writing	30
2.4. Literature Review	32
2.5. Critical Review	33
2.6. Oral Presentations	34
2.7. PowerPoint Slides	36
Part 3: Professional Communication	37
3.1. Professional Reports	38
3.2. Executive Summaries	40
3.3. Case Study Reports	41
3.4. Conducting Interviews	43
3.5. Formal Letters	44
3.6. Formal Emails	46
3.7 Memos	48

Every 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 submitting assignments on time. Section 1.3 in this Guide lists some strategies for becoming more independent.

This doesn't mean you are on your own. The lecturers, your tutors 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 course outline and specific expectations about the course assignments, as well as information about the content of the course.

Your tutors are your first point of call if you are not clear about the content or the course expectations. Use your tutorial times to clarify any aspects that are confusing.

Use https://www.adelaide.edu.au/professions/current-students/ to find information relating to your study plans, enrolment, withdrawals and course additions as well as services offered by the Professions Hub including mentoring programs, access to Program Advisers and computing facilities.

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.

MyUni is the University of Adelaide's online learning environment. It is used to support lectures, tutorials and workshops at the University. MyUni provides access to various features including announcements, course materials, discussion boards and assessments for each online course of study.

Your Communication Skills Guide is a handbook to use when preparing an assignment or for assessment. It is in three parts:

Part 1: Academic Skills

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

Part 2: Assignment Skills

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, a list of academic skills and where you can get help.

Part 3. Professional Communication.

Professional Communication prepares you for tasks that you may be asked to complete in the workplace, either as part of an internship or as part of your paid employment. Some of these tasks may also be given to you as assessments during your studies.

LEARNING SUPPORT WITHIN THE UNIVERSITY

Writing Centre

The Writing Centre, located on level 3 of Hub Central, provides a range of practical advice on reading, writing, note-taking, and referencing techniques for success at university. The Centre supports both undergraduate and postgraduate students across all faculties at the university. A drop-in service is available during semester teaching weeks.

Additional resources and information can be found by visiting their website at: adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre

Maths Learning Centre (MLC)

The MLC, also located on level 3 of Hub Central, offers a drop-in service during semester teaching weeks, swot vacs and at selected times during mid-semester breaks. Students encountering challenges with maths and/or statistics in their studies can drop in for help.

For more information, please visit adelaide.edu.au/mathslearning/

Faculty Drop-In Centres

The faculty run Drop-In Centres to assist undergraduate and postgraduate coursework students in the understanding of core concepts. There are dedicated Drop-In Centres staffed by postgraduate students in Accounting, Economics and Finance.

For more information, please visit https://www.adelaide.edu.au/professions/ current-students/

Barr Smith Library

If you need research assistance beyond the initial orientation to the library catalogue and database systems you should contact a liaison librarian https://www.adelaide.edu. au/library/about/contacts/res_libs.html



PART 1: ACADEMIC SKILLS

Academic skills are the foundational abilities you're expected to gain during your study at university. These skills will help in your studies but also prepare you to do your own self-directed learning as part of your ongoing professional practice once you graduate.

The following sections demonstrate how to master the main academic skills you'll develop and provide tips to help you succeed in your learning.

11 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 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 your 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 adjust to match academic expectations.

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

It takes time to change from one learning style to another. The following sections (1.2, 1.3 and 1.4) may help you to make the necessary adjustments.

Useful references

Brick, J & Herke, M 2016, *Academic culture: a student's guide to studying at university*, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, South Yarra, Vic.

Gudykunst, WB & Kim, YY 2003, Communicating with strangers: an approach to intercultural communication, 4th edn, McGraw-Hill, Boston.

Jackson, J 2010, Intercultural journeys from study to residence abroad, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.

Ong, DMK 2009, The international student's handbook: living and studying in Australia, UNSW Press, Sydney.

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

1.2 ACADEMIC EXPECTATIONS

Knowing what's expected of you in an academic setting such as university is an important step in becoming a successful student.

This section explains some of the key expectations that university will require you to develop and provides some tips on how to do so.

Text books and reading

Find out in the first week how the lecturer expects the text book(s) to be used and how the texts relate to the lectures, tutorials and assignments. Before reading, refer to the course outline and the learning objectives for the topic and use these to understand what you are reading and help you understand why. Use the text book headings to predict what a section might be about, and check your prediction against what you read. This approach keeps you active in your reading. 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, e.g., 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, tutorials and note taking

Lectures are a unique opportunity to gain knowledge from your lecturers, who are experts in their field. It is important to take good notes so you can refer to them at a later date when you are studying or preparing for your assessments.

Aim to actively process what you hear and use headings and numbered or dot points to note main points and key supporting information. Review, rework and reduce your notes regularly as you learn more about each course topic. Such on-going revision enhances your learning and exam preparation.

Check availability of PowerPoint slides on MyUni as a supplement to your own note-taking. Tutorials provide you with an opportunity to learn in a smaller class environment than a lecture with a group of your fellow students.

The tutors have been carefully selected and trained to help you develop your knowledge and analytical skills. Your tutor is the person to approach with any content questions.

Class discussion

The purpose of class discussion is to develop knowledge and analytical skills, and to raise any questions you may have. The objective is also to learn from the knowledge and experience of your classmates.

There is rarely one 'right answer' to any question, and lecturers will expect you to give your viewpoint and to question what you read and hear. They do not want you to simply reproduce what you have heard or read. Many students, particularly international students, find this new and difficult at first. You will need courage to speak up with a different point of view at first, but the more you do it, the easier it will become.

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 faceto-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 which set out clearly what your marker 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 2.13 of this Guide shows how seriously plagiarism is regarded in Australian universities 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 a source.

1.3 INDEPENDENT LEARNING

As a student at the University of Adelaide, you are expected to develop independent learning skills.

While lecturers and tutors 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 check your note-taking in lectures against that of your fellow students and to ensure you pick up the most important points.
- Use topic notes in the course material and the key points in lectures and tutorials as a guide to what you need to learn and to follow up in your text books and assigned readings.
- Work through any problems with your group first before you make a time to see your tutor.

- When you are having problems understanding content, be specific; tell your tutor what you do understand, as well as what you don't.
- If you are having problems understanding concepts in first year Business and Economics courses, visit the First Year Learning Centre and talk to a Study Coach.
- Find out more about Peer Networking and Peer Assisted Study Sessions (PASS) from adelaide.edu.au/professions/hub/ profconnect/
- Use other sections of this Communication Skills Guide. It is written especially to help business students develop their academic skills.
- Attend transition workshops on academic skills; some workshops may also be offered within your courses.

• The Writing Centre in Hub Central offers a drop-in service (adelaide.edu.au/ writingcentre/) as well as Learning Guides (adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre/ learning_guides/).

Useful references

Cottrell, S 2013, *The study skills handbook*, 4th edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, Hampshire.

Marshall, LA & Rowland, F 2014, *A guide* to learning independently, 5th edn, Pearson Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW.



1.4 GROUP SKILLS

Group work (sometimes referred to at University of Adelaide as a small group discovery experience) assists you to develop the skills that employers are looking for.

In your work life, you will be expected to be flexible, be able to compromise, have the ability to negotiate and have organisational skills. Group work in your study program enables you to develop these abilities.

Here are some strategies to help you develop good group skills:

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.

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.

Begin the 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 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 a section of the 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. The assignment needs to read well as a whole.
- Proofread and check all parts of the assignment the week before it's due.

Note

If you're unsure about the task, topic, or assessment, or if the group isn't working, don't just hope for the best. Go as a group to your tutor or lecturer immediately.

Useful references

Brick, J & Herke, M 2016, *Academic culture: a student's guide to studying at university*, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, South Yarra, Vic.

Johnson, DW & Johnson, FP 2017, Joining together: group theory and group skills, 12th edn, Pearson New York, NY.

Turner, K & Krenus, B & Ireland, L & Pointon, L 2012, *Essential academic skills*, 2nd edn, Oxford University Press, South Melbourne, Vic.

1.5 PROJECT MANAGEMENT

Project management is a necessary skill for all students. Most university students need to balance personal commitments and possibly part-time work with multiple assessments and study.

Project management is a necessary skill for all students. Most university students need to balance personal commitments and possibly part-time work with multiple assessments and study.

On entering the workplace, graduates from all disciplines find that they need to manage many projects at the same time and often with limited resources. Thus, project management has become a standard work skill.

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.

Figure 1: Phases of a Project Lifecycle

Definition	Planning
 Identify the need for the project. Establish the goals and objective. Identify the risks associated with the project. 	 4. Define in detail the outcomes, standards and resource requirements. 5. Estimate time and cost, sequence activities. 6. Separate work into manageable work packages.
Implementation	Finalisation
 7. Execute work packages. 8. Establish control mechanisms. 9. Monitor progress. 	 Ensure completion of all deliverables. Document project. Review and evaluate progress and outcomes.



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 planning tools

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 such as phone calls 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.

Personal time management

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

Here are some tips:

- 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

Cleland, DI & Ireland, LR 2006, Project management: strategic design and implementation, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Haynes, ME 2001, *Project management*, LearnKey, Inc, St. George, Utah.

Kerzner, H 2017, Project management: a systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling, 12th edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc, Hoboken, New Jersey.

Meredith, JR & Mantel, SJ 2016, *Project* management: a managerial approach, 9th edn, Hoboken Wiley, Hoboken, New Jersey.

Project management software, e.g. Microsoft Office Project 2016 ©.

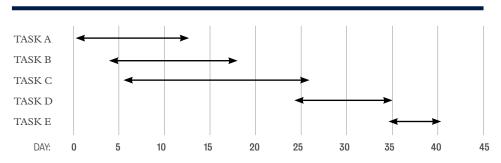


Figure 2: GANTT chart

Figure 3: Action planning worksheet

Task	What	Resources	Finalisation	Progress
Assignment 1	Business report	 Task instructions Marking rubric Textbook chapters 3-7 Additional sources from library 	Semester 1 Week 9	40% complete as at 28 April



1.6 AIMING HIGH IN ASSIGNMENTS

There are varying degrees of success that can be achieved in your university assignment. At the very least you will want to pass, but once you have mastered the basics of assignment writing, you should try and achieve higher grades.

The minimal requirements you will need to meet to pass assignments include the following:

- 1. satisfactorily answering the set question
- 2. adequately structuring the answer SEE 1.7
- 3. including sufficient relevant references
- 4. using your own words with appropriate referencing as required **SEE 1.13**
- 5. evidence of interpretation and analysis. **SEE 1.8**

The following list 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:

1. all information is relevant to the set question SEE 1.7

2. claims are consistent with the argument and justified with references and logic

3. presentation is as required: type size, line space, margins, headings, referencing, cover page **SEE 1.12**

4. the argument is clear and developed logically to unify the assignment **SEE 1.7**

5. the assignment shows depth of critical and analytical thinking **SEE 1.8**

6. the literature has been interrogated, not just accepted **SEE 1.8**

7. all references are complete, accurate, and consistent **SEE 1.14**

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 SEE 1.7

13. the conclusion does more than repeat the introduction – it synthesises the argument.

Useful references

Shields, ML 2010, Essay writing: a student's guide, Sage, London.



17 ACADEMIC ARGUMENT

In tertiary education there are many types of assignments that require an argument.

Assignments and arguments

An argument in the context of a university assignment means the logical presentation of a position, or point of view; in other words, an argument highlights 'your voice' in the academic debate about a topic. The position must be informed by evidence from the literature, from research, and from examples and concepts, and must 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 is based on general concepts and examples; professional reports require arguments based partly on data and information the writer has gathered in the workplace; while the argument in a case analysis is based on accepted concepts, theory and insights related to 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:

Skills	Criteria
Argue logically	Connections are clear The argument is well structured Alternatives are covered
Provide evidence	Evidence and examples are relevant Evidence has authority Evidence is convincing
Reference sources	All sources are acknowledged within the text Reference list is complete and consistent All sources cited are in the reference list and all items in the reference list are cited

- 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 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 with one sentence, and in a case 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 (for students this will be the marker) needs the expected components in the expected order, and 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 (1.8).

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. Care must be taken to use the system consistently and to ensure that all references listed are actually cited in the text. **SEE 113**

The table above can be used to check that an argument is well written.

Useful references

Greetham, B 2013, *How to write better essays*, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

Shand, J 2000, *Arguing well*, Routledge, New York.

Virgo, G 2005, Writing an academic assignment: preparing a model essay on globalisation, Pearson Education, Frenchs Forest, NSW.

1.8 ANALYTICAL AND CRITICAL THINKING

Analytical and critical thinking are the basis of all academic endeavour. They require you to interrogate questions and problems objectively and logically, and to form judgements based on factual evidence.

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. Being analytical involves pulling apart the elements of the ideas and examining how they operate on each other. Being critical involves 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 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 and articles?

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

A questioning 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 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 analytical and critical 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



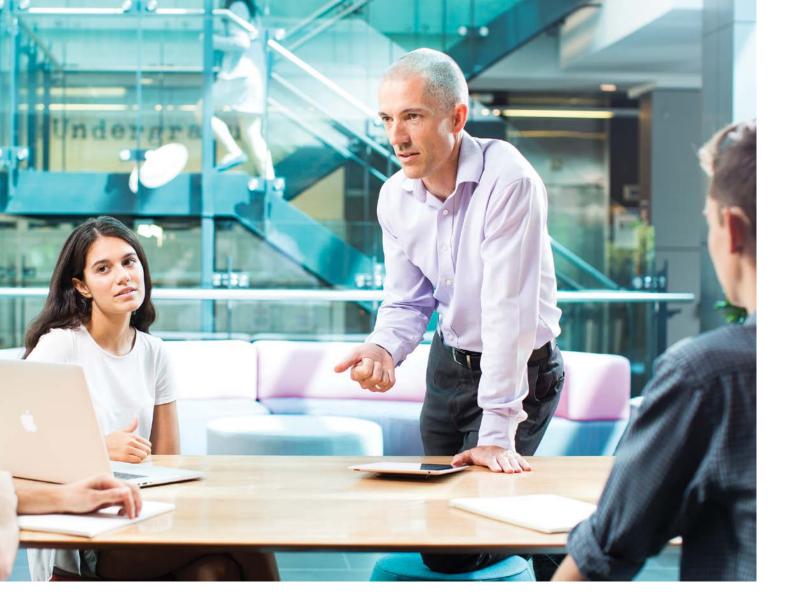
to what you already know. This approach will help you to remember what you have just encountered, and also help you to organise and integrate it into your existing knowledge.

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 SEE 1.7

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. A student 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.

Useful references

Bowell, T & Kemp, G 2015, *Critical thinking: a concise guide*, 4th edn, Routledge, London.

Paul, R & Elder, L 2014, *Critical thinking: tools for taking charge of your learning and your life*, 3rd edn, Pearson, Harlow, Essex.

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

1.9 ACADEMIC STYLE

Writing in an academic style is different to other forms of writing. This section explains some of the characteristics of 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 marker 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. SEE 1.7
- 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. **SEE 1.14**

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. Using 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 SEE 1.7

The importance of argument in academic writing and its characteristics are spelt out in Section 1.7.

The clarity of your argument is based primarily on clear thinking, which can be assisted by representing the argument in a diagram. 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 writing.

At all times, the writer must consider the reader. Clear, direct first and last paragraphs help the reader, first by 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

Using impersonal, formal language implies that your analysis and presentation of an argument or content is impartial and objective. It involves avoiding words and phrases like '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 conveys to a management group, a client or a course marker 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, you should put in place practices that reduce the errors in your work. Habits developed as a student will not only earn marks at university, but continue to impress in the workplace.

The most important habit that you 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 time, 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.

Proofreading should always be done with a dictionary and a thesaurus on the desk. If any sentence sounds ungrammatical, try rewriting the sentence in another way or as two sentences. It is helpful to ask a friend to read awkward sentences. You may need help from the Writing Centre to identify the type of errors you make and how to correct them.

Useful references

Butler, L 2010, *Fundamentals of academic writing*, Pearson Education, Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Morais, E 2006, *Academic writing for beginners*, Beacon Press, Malaysia.

Rose, J 2012, *The mature student's guide* to writing, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

Writing Centre 2014, *Objective Language*, University of Adelaide, viewed 4 April 2018, <https://www.adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre/ docs/learningguide-objectivelanguage.pdf>

1.10 VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR

Correct grammar and spelling in writing make a good impression. Poor grammar and spelling can not only interfere with the message, but also suggest gaps in the writer's background and a careless attitude to detail.

There are many paths to producing correct writing:

- Self improvement spelling: Be professional! Know the correct spelling of the names and vocabulary related to your courses.
- Self improvement grammar: Deal with your grammar problems one at a time.

- Careful proofreading: One of the most effective ways to do this is to place a ruler under each line as you read for meaning and correct spelling.
- Spell checkers: Remember that these are useful but not foolproof.
- Grammar checkers: These invite you to check a sentence for meaning.
- Feedback: Take note of the comments on your assignments and prioritise language areas for improvement.

Useful references

Butler, L 2010, *Fundamentals of academic writing*, Pearson Education, Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Jackson, H 2003, Grammar and vocabulary: a resource book for students, Routledge, London.

Leech, GN & Hoogenraad, R & Deuchar, M 2006, *English grammar for today: a new introduction*, 2nd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

111 INSTRUCTIONAL WORDS

The following terms frequently appear in assignment and exam questions. It is important to familiarise yourself with this terminology so that you can better understand what is being asked of you in your assessments:

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: Brief, but as comprehensive as possible

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 (Note: '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 support your answer

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: Give 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

Greetham, B 2013, How to write better essays, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

Hunter, I 2012, Write that essay: a practical guide to writing better essays and achieving higher grades, 3rd edn, Hunter Pub, Auckland, NZ.

Murphy, E 2007, *Essay writing made simple*, Pearson Education Australia, Sydney, NSW.

1.12 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 1.9: writing that is clear, impersonal and without errors. **SEE 19**

For major assignments, both formative and summative, the preferred formatting is normally 12 point Times New 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.

However, for some assignments your lecturers and teachers will require different formatting. Always follow the formatting instructions provided for your assignments and, if in doubt, ask your teachers how they would like the assignment formatted.

All assignments must be submitted with a completed and signed cover sheet, which can be downloaded from: https://www.adelaide. edu.au/professions/current-students/ downloads-forms/

Referencing style

There are several different author-date referencing styles. The preferred style is the Harvard referencing style (see Section 1.14). Check to ensure you know which style your lecturer requires. **SEE 1.11**

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.

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.

1.13 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/

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 The Academic Honesty Policy. First, you must not hand in any work that is written for you by another person. Second, you must not submit work that you have copied from another student. Third, 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, no matter what the 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, but it does include individually-assessed assignments that you might have worked on together. It is quite acceptable for you to work together on assignments; for example, you may want to discuss interpretation of the question, problems, possible solutions and so on with your fellow students. However, 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 or tutor.

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 it 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 showing 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 that 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 always cite your references.

Useful references

Lipson, C 2008, Doing honest work in college: how to prepare citations, avoid plagiarism, and achieve real academic success, 2nd edn, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Pecorari, D 2015, Academic writing and plagiarism: a linguistic analysis, Bloomsbury, London.

University of Adelaide 2017, *Academic Honesty Policy*, viewed 4 April 2018, <http:// www.adelaide.edu.au/policies/230/>

Writing Centre 2014, Avoiding plagiarism, University of Adelaide, viewed 4 April 2018, <https://www.adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre/ resources/plagiarism/>

1.14 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 purpose of using references is to show the reader where the evidence comes from, to give your argument credibility and provide an opportunity for interested readers to verify that 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 writing essays, reports and short answers. One of the advantages of this system is that the reader can immediately see the source and date in the text.

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 number(s) (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

Carlopio 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

Carlopio 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) 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 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, you will need to focus on what authors have said. This allows you to integrate the ideas of others as evidence to support your own argument and line of reasoning and to retain your 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, use alphabetical order, separate the authors' surnames with semicolons 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 lowercase letter (a, b, c) should follow the date to make a distinction between the publications. The order of letters used follows the alphabetical order of the titles of the publications.

Example 6

Under such conditions, prescriptions for organisational and management effectiveness call for a flexible, autonomous, entrepreneurial workforce (Peters 1992; Drucker 1988, 2003a, 2003b).

Secondary references

When you read a source by one 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 Author 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

Books example	In-text reference	Reference list entry	
Book with single author	Porter (1980) argues that	Porter, M 1980, <i>Competitive strategy</i> , Free Press, New York. Where more than one place of publication is given, use the first.	
Book with two or three authors	According to Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008),	Carlopio, J & Andrewartha, G 2008, <i>Developing management skills</i> , 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW.	
Book with four or more authors/editors	As research indicates, The management of human assets involves (Beer et al. 1984, p. 52),	Beer, M, Spector, B, Lawrence, PR, Quinn, MD & Walton, RE 1984, Managing human assets, Free Press, New York.	
Book by an organisation/ government department or institute	Environmental sustainability is also a key challenge (WCED 1987).	World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) 1987, Our common future, Oxford University Press, Oxford.	
Second or subsequent edition of a book	According to Carlopio and Andrewartha (2008),	Carlopio, J & Andrewartha, G 2008, <i>Developing management skills</i> , 4th edn, Pearson Education Australia, Frenchs Forest, NSW.	
Chapter in an edited book	Such a strategic approach is key in a global context (Hitt, Keats, & Yucel 2003).	Hitt, MA, Keats, BW & Yucel, E 2003, 'Strategic leadership in global business organisations: building trust and social capital', in WH Mobley and PW Dorfman (eds), <i>Advances in global leadership</i> , Elesevier Science Ltd, Oxford, pp. 9-36.	
Encyclopaedia or dictionary with author	Sustainability refers to (Regan 1990, p. 408).	Regan, M 1990, <i>Australian business dictionary</i> , Australian Business Library, Melbourne.	
Encyclopaedia or dictionary without author	The Macquarie Dictionary (2004, p. 399) defines stress as 'a disturbing physiological or	No entry is required in the reference list because the name and date have been provided in the in-text citation.	

Author's surname, Initial(s) year, Title of book, Publisher, Place of Publication

BASIC FORMAT FOR JOURNAL ARTICLES

Author's surname, Initial(s) year , 'Title of article,' Title of Journal, vol and issue number, page range.

Journal/magazine/ newspaper articles example	In-text reference	Reference list entry
Journal article with a single author	It is clear there is a marked difference in the way males and females (Fletcher 1999).	Fletcher, C 1999 'The implication of research on gender differences in self-assessment and 360 degree appraisals', <i>Human Resource Management Journal</i> , vol. 9, no. 1, p. 39.
Journal article with two or three authors	Gosling and Mintzberg (2003, p. 54) warn that 'the separation of management from leadership is dangerous'.	Gosling, J & Mintzberg, H 2003, 'The five minds of a manager', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , November, pp. 54-63.
Journal article with four or more authors	Research indicates that networks operate on and between three levels (Brass et al. 2004).	Brass, D, Galaskiewicz, J, Greve, H & Wenpin, T 2004, 'Taking stock of networks and organisations: a multilevel perspective', <i>Academy of</i> <i>Management Journal</i> , vol. 47, no.6, pp. 795-817.
Journal/magazine article with no author	The CPA (2003) cites	CPA Australia 2003, 'Fast forward to your future', <i>Real Busines</i> s, spring/ summer, pp.12-18.

BASIC FORMAT FOR ELECTRONIC PUBLICATIONS

Author's surname, Initial(s) year date, Title, date viewed, online location of source. (page numbers included where available)

Electronic publications example	In-text reference	Reference list entry	
Website	This approach is recommended as best practice (DMITRE 2012).	Department for Manufacturing, Innovation, Trade, Resources and Energy 2012, <i>Trade</i> , DIMTRE, Adelaide, viewed 5 November 2012,	
		<http: 28="" page="" view_by_id="" www.dmitre.sa.gov.au="">.</http:>	
Document or page within a company's website	The aim is for 'long-term shareholder value through the discovery, acquisition, development and marketing of natural	BHP Billiton 2012, <i>We value sustainability</i> , viewed 5 November 2012, http://www.bhpbilliton.com/home/aboutus/sustainability/reports/ Documents/2012/BHPBillitonSustainabilityReport2012_interactive.pdf>.	
	resources' (BHP Billiton 2012).		
Journal article from full text database	Stevenson (2012, p. 71) argues that a paradigm shift is required as social forces and rapid technological advancement in communication combine to challenge long-	Stevenson, BW 2012, 'Developing an awareness and understanding of self- organization as it relates to organizational development and leadership issues', <i>Emergence: Complexity & Organization</i> , vol. 14, no. 2, pp. 69-85, viewed 5 November 2012, (Electronic Business Source Complete, EBSCOhost),	
	held notions of social hierarchy.	<http: login?url="http://search.ebscohost.com/<br" proxy.library.adelaide.edu.au="">login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&An=77846955&site=ehost-live&scope=site>.</http:>	
Online journal article	Ent, Baumeister and Vonasch (2012, p. 622) observe that	Ent, MR, Baumeister, RF & Vonasch, AJ 2012, 'Power, leadership and self-regulation', <i>Social and Personality Psychology Compass</i> , vol. 6, no. 8, pp. 619-630, viewed 17 December 2013,	
		http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com.proxy.library.adelaide.edu.au/doi/10.1111/j.17.51-9004.2012.00446.x/pdf	
E-book access via library catalogue	Gandellini, Pezzi and Venanzi (2012) explain the complexity underlying	Gandellini, G, Pezzi, A & Venanzi, D 2012, Strategy for Action - I: the logic and context of strategic management, Springer, New York, viewed 5 November 2012,	
		http://link.springer.com.proxy.library.adelaide.edu . au/book/10.1007/978-88-470-2487-8/page/1>.	
Newspaper article from online database	The impact resulting from (Bassanese 2012).	Bassanese, D 2012, 'Effect of past action starting to show', <i>Australian Financial Review</i> , viewed 5 November 2012,	
		<http: default.aspx="" global.factiva.com.proxy.library.adelaide.edu.au="" ha="">.</http:>	
Online newspaper article	It has been reported that (Murdoch 2012).	Murdoch, S 2012, 'CBA cautious on pickup in credit demand as economy remains weak', <i>Australian</i> , 30 October, viewed 30 October 2012,	
		<http: business="" cba-cautious-<br="" financial-services="" www.theaustralian.com.au="">on-pickup-in-credit-demand-says-turner/story- fn91wd6x-1226506515830></http:>	
Online conference paper	Illicic and Webster (2011, p.1) state that 'celebrities aid in enhancing brand awareness and facilitate the transfer of strong, unique and favourable associations.'	Ilicic, J & Webster, CM 2011, 'Celebrity brand value: using the MECCAS model to evaluate celebrity endorsement advertising strategy', <i>Proceedings of Australia & New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference: marketing in the age of consumerism</i> , Edith Cowan University, Perth, WA, viewed 17 December 2013, pp. 1-8,	
		<http: 2011="" anzmac.org="" conference="" papers%20by%20presenting%20<br="">Author/ Ilicic,%20Jasmina%20Paper%20029.pdf>.</http:>	
Webcast/Podcast	In reviewing the stellar past performance (Business 2012),	The Business 2012, <i>Look back: 2007's record high</i> , podcast, ABC online, viewed 5 November 2012, http://www.abc.net.au/news/2012-11-01/2007s-record-high/4348520 >.	
Web video	Proponents of this approach note that (Greenpeace 2011).	Greenpeace Australia 2011, <i>The polluter must pay</i> , video, 8 June, viewed 5 November 2012, http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U8MbMAvYH8Y&feature=related >.	
Media release	The downturn is due to (RBA 2012).	Reserve Bank Australia (RBA) 2012, <i>Report on the Australian OTC derivatives market</i> , media release, October 2012, viewed 5 November 2012, http://www.rba.gov.au/media-releases/2012/jmr-12-32.html >.	
Online Statistics	This is statistically supported by (ABS 2012).	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2012, Australian National Accounts: National Income, Expenditure and Product, June 2012, cat. no. 5206.0, ABS, viewed 5 November 2012, <http: 5206.0="" abs@.nsf="" ausstats="" mf="" www.abs.gov.au=""></http:>	

BASIC FORMAT FOR ELECTRONIC PUBLICATIONS

Author's surname, Initial(s) year date, Title, date viewed, online location of source. (page numbers included where available)

Books example In-text reference		Reference list entry		
Emails/Interviews (personal communication)	Allegations of wrong-doing made by Johnson (2012, pers. Comm. 5 May) demonstrate how	The in-text citation is provided but no reference list entry is made. Permission must be sought from the person referred to.		
Online Survey	The results obtained from the online ID survey (McPhee & Andrewartha 1999- 2002) largely concur with the results from the other tools.	McPhee & Andrewartha Pty Ltd 1999-2002, <i>Influence dimensions online survey</i> , viewed 30 August 2008, http://www.mcpheeandrewartha.com.au/prod_ID.html .		
Blog	The impact on stock prices remains to be seen (Herper 2012). Herper, M 2012, 'Obamacare question for stocks: do you pref you know?', <i>Forbes blog</i> , viewed 17 December 2013, <http: 06="" 2012="" 28="" matthewherper="" oba<br="" sites="" www.forbes.com="">question-for-stocks-do-you-prefer-the-devil-you-know/>.</http:>			
Specialist accounting publications	In-text reference	Reference list entry		
Australian Accounting Standards from AASB website	A finance lease is a lease that transfers to the lessee substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership (AASB 2009, AASB 117, para. 4).	Australian Accounting Standards Board (AASB) 2009, AASB 117 leases, AASB, Melbourne, viewed 7 February 2010, <http: com.au="" www.aasb.="">.</http:>		
Statements of Accounting Concepts from AASB website	It is intended that '[g]eneral purpose financial reports shall provide information [that is] useful to users for making and evaluating decisions about the allocation of scarce resources' (AASB & PSASB 1990, SAC 2, para. 43).Australian Accounting Standards Board and Public Sector A Standards Board (AASB & PSASB) 1990, SAC 2 objective of purpose financial reporting, AASB, Melbourne, viewed 7 July <ht>Key Standards Board (AASB & PSASB 1990, SAC 2, para. 43).Australian Accounting Standards Board and Public Sector A Standards Board (AASB & PSASB) 1990, SAC 2 objective of purpose financial reporting, AASB, Melbourne, viewed 7 July <ht></ht></ht>			
Australian Accounting Standards from ICAA Financial Reporting Handbook 2010				
Statements of Accounting Concepts from ICAA Financial Reporting Handbook 2010It is intended that '[g]eneral purpose financial reports shall provide information [that is] useful to users for making and evaluating decisions about the allocation of scarce resources' (AASB & PSASB 1990, SAC 2, para. 43).		Australian Accounting Standards Board and Public Sector Accounting Standards Board (AASB & PSASB) 1990, 'SAC 2 objective of general purpose financial reporting', AASB, Melbourne, in C Locke, Institute of Chartered Accountants in Australia (ed.), <i>Financial reporting handbook 2010</i> , vol. 1, John Wiley & Sons, Milton, Qld, pp. 10-20.		

TABLES, GRAPHS & DIAGRAMS

In-text reference

An example of referencing a table:

TABLE 1: IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BY MAJOR COUNTRIES AND REGIONS AND THE GROWTH RATES IN 2006

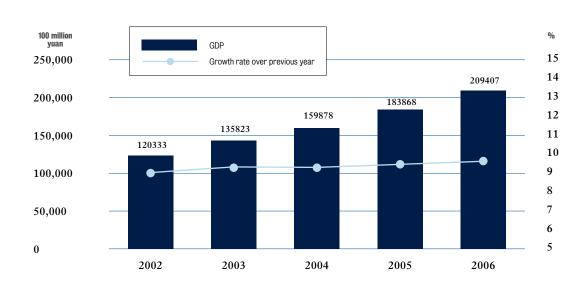
Country or region	Exports	Increase over 2005 (%)	Imports	Increase over 2005 (%)
United States	2035	24.9	592	21.8
European Union	1820	26.6	903	22.7
Hong Kong, China	1554	24.8	108	-11.8
Japan	916	9.1	1157	15.2
ASEAN	713	28.8	895	19.4
Republic of Korea	445	26.8	898	16.9
Taiwan, China	207	25.3	871	16.6
Russia	158	19.8	176	10.5

Unit: 100million USD

(Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China 2008)

An example of referencing a diagram:

FIGURE 2: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT AND ITS GROWTH, 2002–2006



(Source: National Bureau of Statistics of China 2008)

PART 2: ASSIGNMENT SKILLS

Assignment skills are those needed to complete your assessments at university.

The following sections provide an overview of some of the common assignment types you'll encounter during your studies. They outline the steps you should take to complete different types of assignment successfully and provide tips on the correct structure and style to apply.

2.1 SHORT ANSWERS

Short-answer questions require you to write an answer to a question that is usually open-ended – i.e. not a 'yes or no' question. These types of questions are used to assess your basic knowledge and understanding.

Purpose

To write a concise and logical answer to a question.

Audience

Your assessor. However, this format is also practice for presenting persuasive answers to issues or problems for business colleagues or superiors.

Structure

Introduction

An establishing sentence shows the reader you understand the question and indicates the position you will take (see example). 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.

Skills	Criteria
Analyse the question SEE 1.11	The question is answered completely and appropriately
Select relevant information	The content is all relevant to the question
Think critically and analytically SEE 1.8	The answer shows understanding of how key aspects relate Information is questioned and a point of view argued
Begin with a proposition	The proposition shows understanding of the question and indicates the points to be covered
Present an argument SEE 1.7	The argument is logical and concise



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 more specific response where you are asked to relate elements of a scenario to concepts and theories. **SEE 1.9**

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). **SEE 1.8**

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.

See 1.18

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 endof-period results for a few significant noncash 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 based on 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.





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.

Skills	Criteria
Structure the essay See 1.7	The proposition states your position and is followed by the main points to be covered The proposition shows understanding of the question The argument presents your ideas with evidence The conclusion summarises the points made
Present an argument	Evidence is provided to support your opinion Your position remains clear throughout Opposing views and evidence are considered
Reference thoroughly See 1.14	The source of each claim made is acknowledged The Harvard system is used consistently to cite sources and to list references
Write clearly and concisely	Arguments are clear and concise Grammar and spelling are accurate

Purpose

To persuade an audience of your point of view.

Audience

Your lecturer or tutor 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 to indicate impartial analysis, and 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 overlong sentences and paragraphs. **SEE 1.9**

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 critically and analytically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check relevance to the topic. Note your sources, being sure to record the page numbers. **SEE 1.8**

3. Rearrange or redraft your argument as further ideas are found to support or counter your position. With each draft refine your ideas.

4. Check that your argument flows well, is introduced in the first paragraph and reiterated in the last

5. Proofread, and cross-check references in the essay and the reference list. **SEE 1.14**

Tips

- It is often best to write (or rewrite) the introduction last, when you know exactly what position you have argued in the essay.
- Use direct quotations for concise definitions but otherwise paraphrase to show your understanding. **SEE 118**
- Make sure you have taken a position, not just presented others' ideas. **SEE 1.7**

Useful references

Clanchy, J & Ballard, B 1997, *Essay writing* for students: a practical guide, 3rd edn, Addison Wesley Longman, Melbourne.

Craswell, G 2005, Writing for academic success: a postgraduate guide, Sage, London.

Shields, ML 2010, Essay writing: a student's guide, Sage, London.

2.3 REFLECTIVE WRITING

Reflective writing is a form of critical writing in which the writer reflects on a particular experience, generally a group assessment, or an industry placement or internship.

Skills	Criteria
Reflection and evaluation SEE 1.8	 What were the challenges and difficulties you encountered during the experience? How did challenges and difficulties come about? How did you deal with them and what might you do differently next time? How could you improve what you have learnt? How has the experience enhanced your ability to deal with specific situations or issues?
Structure the critical reflection	The introduction provides a general overview of your experience The body discusses both the positive and negative aspects of the experience The conclusion gives personal comments on the experience and recommends some areas for improvement
Reference thoroughly SEE 1.14	Where possible, connect the events to academic theory or knowledge The source of each claim made is acknowledged The Harvard system is used consistently to cite sources and to list references

Purpose

Reflective writing is intended to give you an opportunity to reflect upon a particular experience or activity, in particular a piece of assessment that involves group work, a research project or study, an internship, fieldwork, a study trip, or an industry placement. It provides an opportunity to explore your own learning and develop self-knowledge.

Audience

Your lecturer or tutor will assess your ability to reflect on the experience critically, by identifying difficulties you may have had and connecting your experience with other knowledge gained throughout the course, such as academic theory.

Structure

Introduction

Provide a general overview of your experience.

Positive and negative reflections

Discuss both the positive and negative aspects of the experience in the body of the assignment, showing that you are able to reflect upon your experience in a critical and comprehensive manner.

Conclusion

Give personal comments on the experience and recommend some brief areas of improvement.

Language and style

Reflective writing can be written in first person (i.e. using pronouns such as 'I' and 'we'). However, it is still an academic exercise, so you should take care not to use overly informal language or tone. For example, slang and colloquial language is not appropriate, and nor are improper or rude comments about the experience or other people involved.

Tips

1. Draw on specific instances of the events and describe these in detail.

2. Write about challenges or difficulties that you faced when completing your work. Consider how these came about, how you dealt with them, and what you might do differently next time. 3. Connect the events of this experience with other knowledge you have learnt throughout your courses or your degree. Use academic theories or knowledge to explain, analyse and contextualise the causes and the development of those events.

4. Provide a general overview of your overall experience and describe if it has been successful and fruitful, or challenging and demanding.

5. Suggest ways to improve what you have learnt and how you have enhanced your ability to deal with the situations or issues as a result of the experience.

Useful references

Williams, K & Woolliams, M & Spiro, J 2012, *Reflective writing*, Palgrave Macmillan, Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire.

Writing Centre 2017, *Reflective Writing Guide*, University of Adelaide, viewed 23 April 2018, <<u>https://www.adelaide.edu.</u> au/writingcentre/docs/learningGuide_ reflectiveWriting.pdf>



2.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review is a type of academic paper that gathers together the current knowledge on a particular topic.

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 the 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

Skills	Criteria
Selecting and organising information SEE 1.8	Compare and contrast different authors Group authors who draw similar conclusions Note areas in which authors are in disagreement Highlight gaps in research Conclude by summarising what the literature says
Constructing your argument SEE 1.7	Provide background or context for the issue/argument State the problem Find relevant materials to support the argument Determine which research makes significant contributions to the understanding of the topic Analyse and interpret pertinent literature
Writing the review	Provide an overview of the subject under consideration Divide literature into categories (those supporting, agains or providing alternative views) Explain how each work is similar to or varies from others Conclude as to which pieces are best considered in the argument and make the greatest contribution towards the understanding and development of the argument

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 criticises. **SEE 1.9**

Steps

1. Read widely, critically and analytically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships and check the relevance. **SEE 1.8**

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, citation 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. **SEE 1.8**

Useful references

Cooper, HM 1998, *Synthesizing research a guide for literature reviews*, 3rd edn, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.

Galvan, JL & Galvan, M 2017, Writing literature reviews: a guide for students of the social and behavioral sciences, 7th edn, Routledge, New York.

Macauley, P 2001, *The literature review*, Deakin University, Geelong, Victoria, Australia.

Machi, LA & McEvoy, BT 2016, *The literature review: six steps to success*, 3rd edn, Corwin Press, Thousand Oaks, California.

2.5 CRITICAL REVIEW

A critical review is an analysis of a particular academic text – such as an essay, report, article or book – that normally summarises and evaluates that text.

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

Your lecturer or assessor. You have to convince them through your writing that you have critically read and evaluated an article using the criteria indicated in the table above.

Structure

Introduction

- Provide a context for the article.
- Provide the title of the article and name of 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 contents 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

Skills	Criteria
Reading SEE 1.8	Read and understand the main points of the article Note the outline of the author's argument Analyse the findings or argument of the article Decide the appropriate criteria to evaluate the article Provide a critical evaluation of the article based on the selected criteria
Evaluation SEE 1.8	Is the article recent or still relevant? Who is the intended audience? Does the article make an original contribution? Is the argument logical? Is the evidence vaild? Are the findings presented and described clearly? Could the data be interpreted differently? Are the conclusions reached valid? Are there any omissions?
Writing the review	Provide all the publication details that the reader will find useful Provide a summary of the article Describe several points with which you agree or disagree and provide evidence that supports your position Refer to other aspects of the article that might be worth commenting on such as appropriateness of language, us of illustrations and graphics and organisation of text Be selective about the information and evidence that you include in your review as there is usually a word limit

simple present, simple past or present perfect is preferred. **SEE 1.9**

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 (analyse, evaluate, argue, criticise, etc.), its methodological approach as well as findings or conclusions. 5. Evaluate the content and begin writing your critical review.

Useful references

Brandt, C 2009, Read, research and write: academic skills for ESL students in higher education, Sage, London.

Rose, J 2012, *The mature student's guide to writing*, 3rd edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

Virgo, G 2005, Writing an academic assignment: preparing a model essay on globalisation, Pearson Education, Frenchs Forest, NSW.

2.6 ORAL PRESENTATIONS

An oral presentation is an informative speech performed in front of an audience, often with the purpose of pursuading them with an argument.

Skills	Criteria
Select and organise information SEE 1.7	Relevance of information and coverage appropriate to the time available Brief introduction Introduce group members and overview of content Smooth transitions (from topic to topic and from one group member to another) Argument is well-organised, using transition words Short conclusion or link
Project confidence and enthusiasm	Good posture, calm appearance, eye contact with entire audience Minimal reference to notes
Speak clearly	Clear speech Steady pace Appropriate intonation and emphasis Explanation or definition of new terms No jargon or complex sentences
Use audio-visuals effectively SEE 1.6	Powerpoint slides should not be crowded Equipment should be used with ease Information selected should assist audience understanding
Respond to the audience	Counter arguments explained Own argument summarised Active listening and focused response

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

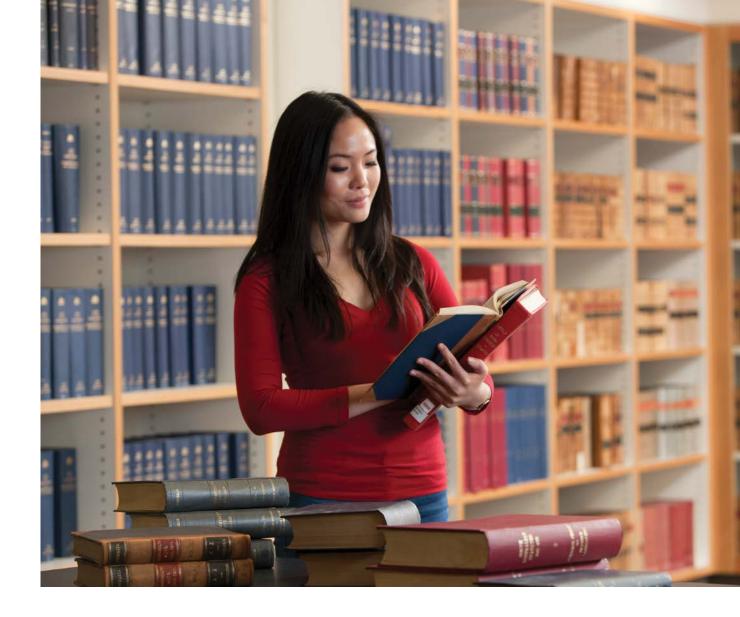
- Present your point of view clearly.
- Include evidence and examples.
- Briefly consider alternative arguments and evidence.

Conclusion

- Restate the argument, perhaps with summary of counter argument.
- Do not introduce new material.

Style

The vocabulary and language used should match that used by the audience in similar settings. 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 critically and analytically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check the relevance. **SEE 1.8**

2.Form an argument and organise the evidence.

3.Structure your talk with an introduction, argument and 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 how.

8.Go through your presentation together to see how long it takes and to make a smooth changeover between each person.

9.Rehearse your presentation several times: both by yourself and with your group members. 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.
- Make sure you know how to operate the equipment; practise operating it ahead of time; have back-up files saved.

Useful references

Huff, WAK 2008, Public speaking: a concise overview for the twenty-first century, Peter Lang, New York.

Valentine, N 1993, Speaking in public, Penguin Pocket Series, Australia.

Van Emden, J & Becker, LM 2016, *Presentation skills for students*, 3rd edn, Palgrave, London.

2.7 POWERPOINT SLIDES

PowerPoint slides are visual summaries created using Microsoft's presentation program to 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 text or larger if the presentation is being made in a large venue.

Font choice

Use a font that is clear and 'sans serif', for example Arial, to lead the eye on. Uppercase and lowercase 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.

Skills	Criteria
Select and organise information	Slides summarise key points only
Choose a clear, uncluttered layout	Plenty of space around print Slides centred on the screen At least 24-point font Upper and lowercase font style used appropriately Consistent style; avoiding distractions
Present effectively	Text and illustrations are well-designed and effectively used Text and illustrations effectively assist audience understanding Highly effective use of equipment Pointer used without fuss Eye contact with audience Steady pace

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

1.Check the spelling and grammar of your slides before you finalise them.

2. 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.

3.It is tempting to look at the slides, not at the people! Practise looking at the audience and keep a steady pace.

4.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

Bretag, T, Crossman, J & Bordia, S 2009, Communication skills, McGraw-Hill Australia, North Ryde, NSW.

Summers, J & Smith, B 2014, *Communication skills handbook*, 4th edn, John Wiley and Sons, Milton, Qld.

Writing Centre 2014, *PowerPoint* presentations, University of Adelaide, viewed 4 April 2018, <https://www.adelaide.edu. au/writingcentre/docs/learningGuide_ powerpointPresentations.pdf>

PART 3: PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION

Professional Communication prepares you for tasks that you may be asked to complete in the workplace, either as part of an internship or as part of your paid employment.

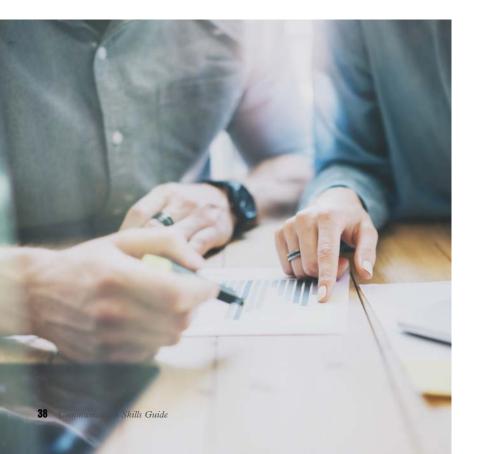
Some of these tasks may also be given to you as assessments during your studies.

The following sections cover some of the common styles of written communication applied in the workplace. They provide tips on the correct structure and style to use and outline the steps you should take to complete them successfully.

3.1 PROFESSIONAL REPORTS

Professional reports are often written in the workplace when a formal account of a project or situation is required.

Skills	Criteria
Plan and manage tasks	The report is on schedule All relevant aspects are considered
Research information	Appropriate sources are consulted Sufficient sources are consulted Sources of data are well-documented
Organise information SEE 1.9	Appropriate headings Integrated structure, i.e., arguments and conclusions match purpose Alternative views are considered
Writing the review SEE 1.7	Arguments are easy to understand and succinct



To write a report, you'll need to research and analyse the project or situation using concepts from your field of study. A report includes recommendations based on this analysis, which are then to be taken into consideration by relevant staff in your organisation before being implemented.

You may also be asked to write a professional report as an assignment during your studies. Similarly, these require research and analysis to demonstrate your learning and ability to apply course concepts and theories that lead 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 managing director 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.

STRUCTURE OF A LONG REPORT

Title page	Report title, author name, course and tutorial (if prepared for assessment), tutor's name, date
Executive summary	Brief statement of purpose, argument and recommendations
Table of contents	All sections and appendices listed and numbered; page numbers provided
List of illustrations, tables, figures	Lists of these, numbered correctly, with page numbers provided
Introduction	Context, background; purpose and scope of report; explanation of report organisation
Body of report	Analysis and discussion under headings
Conclusion SEE 1.9	Summary or restatement of main issues. Basis for recommendations. May indicate 'next steps'. May comment on the limitations of the research (such as generalisability, availability of data)
Recommendations	Most important first; based on conclusions; specific; practical
References SEE 1.13, 1.14	Harvard System with in-text citations related to reference list
Appendices	Additional information such as interview schedule used, relevant company documents, spreadsheets and statistics

STRUCTURE OF A CONCISE REPORT

Cover page	Report title, author name, course and tutorial (if prepared for assessment), tutor's name, date
Executive summary	Brief statement of purpose; summary of discussion; recommendations
Table of contents	All sections and appendices listed and numbered; page numbers provided
Body of report	Background information; analysis and discussion; recommendations
Conclusions	Summary or restatement of main issues
Appendices	Additional information, e.g. spreadsheets, statistics

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 the data you will need to collect to satisfy the given purpose, and how you can obtain that information.

2. Read critically and analytically about the topic: interpret, compare information, work out relationships, check relevance. **SEE 1.8**

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 order of referral from your text and also number in that order.

8. Final preparation: proofread; check that all report elements are present and in the correct order; check grammar and spelling.

Tips

- Be clear whether you are stating your opinion or the views of others, e.g. 'The manager indicated that' ... and 'The findings suggest that'. SEE 1.13
- 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.

Marsen, S 2007, Professional writing: the complete guide for business, industry and IT, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

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

3.2 EXECUTIVE SUMMARIES

An executive summary is a concise and complete summary of the essential content of a report. These are made to provide a brief overview of the content of a report for senior staff.

You may also be asked to prepare an executive summary as an assignment to demonstrate your understanding of a report.

Skills	Criteria
Structure the written report*	Background information is brief Key arguments are summarised Recommendations clearly relate to the arguments
Structure the written report* SEE 1.8	Page headed 'Executive Summary' No more than one A4 page in length Single-spaced Placed before the table of contents
Write clearly and concisely	Summary reads easily Contains key points and limited details Grammar and spelling are accurate No acronyms

*Note: Some academics may use different criteria or format. Always confirm with your lecturer what they require and write your executive summary accordingly.

Purpose

To provide the most important information about a report so that the reader, perhaps a manager, can decide whether the content of the report is relevant. Busy managers and clients may base a decision on reading only the executive summary.

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 and their implications.

Language and style

Clear, concise and in a formal tone. The length will vary according to the scope of the report, but for the Business School, the preference is for no more than one singlespaced 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 words.

3. Check the text is a summary, not a description. Do not write what is in the report, nor about the structure.

4.Read the executive summary aloud to make sure that the meaning is clear and easy to read. Rewrite awkward sentences.

5. Proofread for spelling and grammar.

6. Title the single page 'Executive Summary' and place it before the table of contents.

TIPS SEE 1.8

- 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. The report itself must also stand alone.
- Do not use headings within an executive summary.

Useful references

Bretag, T, Crossman, J & Bordia, S 2009, Communication skills, McGraw-Hill Australia, North Ryde, NSW.

Marsen, S 2007, Professional writing: the complete guide for business, industry and IT, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

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

3.3 CASE STUDY REPORTS

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.

Skills	Criteria
Structure the written report	Background information is relevant Issues are logically ordered Recommendations clearly relate to the issues
Identify the main issues SEE 1.7	Key issues are identified Interrelationships are clear A full grasp of the situation is shown
Analyse the issues SEE 1.8	Each issue is discussed using relevant concepts and principles Insight is shown in analysing the information
Discuss alternatives	Possible solutions are considered and the most suitable one(s) chosen
Support your recommendations	Recommendations are consistent with situation, well-supported and practicable
Write clearly and concisely	Arguments are explicit and succinct Appropriate headings are used Grammar and spelling are accurate

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, your name, course, lecturer's name, date, word count recorded on declaration form
Executive summary SEE 1.8	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 SEE 1.9

Case studies should be written in appropriate business language so that your analysis and discussion have an objective tone. Your writing should be clear, concise and 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 study 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. **SEE 1.9**

Tips

- 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

Cottrell, S 2013, *The study skills* handbook, 4th edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, Hampshire.

Kashani, K 1992, Managing global marketing: cases and text, PWS-Kent Pub., Boston.

Turner, K & Krenus, B & Ireland, L & Pointon, L 2012, *Essential academic skills*, 2nd edn, Oxford University Press, South Melbourne, Vic.

3.4 CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

An interview is a formal meeting where specific information is sought from a person through oral questioning.

Skills	Criteria
Presenting as a professional	Be confident and well prepared Shake hands and introduce yourself Uses interviewee's name Seat interviewee appropriately
	Summarise focus of interview and areas to be covered
Questioning	Make questions open-ended Ensure the order of questions has a clear logic Clarify with follow-up questions as necessary Confirm understanding by paraphrasing
Delivery	Speak clearly Avoid speaking too fast or too slowly Use eye contact effectively
Closure	Ask if interviewee wants to add anything Thank interviewee and confirm the next step

Purpose

To gain specific information or to assess a person's suitability for a position or role.

Audience

The audience is the person being interviewed (the interviewee). The interviewer will want to impress on the interviewee that the organisation for which he or she works is efficient and considerate, and the information given will be treated professionally.

Structure

There are two structures to consider. One is the overall structure of the total interview, which encompasses the arrival and departure of the interviewee or interviewer; the other is the structure of the questions.

Greetings

- Shake hands, introduce yourself.
- Confirm interviewee's name, check preferred name.
- Invite the interviewee to be seated.

Introducing the question

- Summarise what the interview is about.
- Indicate the order of areas to be covered by the questions.
- Outline the expected outcomes and duration of interview.

The questions

- 1. Begin with general questions.
- 2. Make questions gradually more specific.
- 3. Ask follow-up questions as required.

Closure to the questions

1.Inform the interviewee when questions are finished.

2.Ask if the interviewee would like to add or ask anything.

Closure to the interview

• Thank the interviewee and say what the next step will be.

Language and style

Interviews should be formal but friendly so that the interviewee is at ease and prepared to respond openly and honestly to the questions.

Steps

1. Make sure that the interviewee knows the purpose, the time and the place of the interview, and has plenty of time to prepare.

2. Be clear on what you want to find out from the interviewee.

3. Write open-ended questions that will elicit this information. Open-ended questions require more than a yes or no answer. They often begin with 'What', 'How', 'Which', 'When', 'Where' or 'Who'.

4. Put the questions in order, with the more general, background questions at the beginning.

5. Prepare the interview setting so that the chairs are at the same level, at an angle, and not facing the light.

6. Greet the interviewee and follow the structure above. Vary the order of your prepared questions if the answers naturally move into different questions.

7. Note answers, and check that all questions have been covered by the end of the interview.

8. After the interview, fill out your notes so that you have the answers clearly recorded.

Tips

Pace your questions to give yourself and the interviewee time to think, to add information and to ask for clarification.

Useful references

Corfield, R 2009, Successful interview skills: how to prepare, answer tough questions and get your ideal job, 5th edn, Kogan Page, London.

Friesen, BK 2010, *Designing and conducting your first interview project*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

King, N & Horrocks, C 2010, Interviews in qualitative research, Sage, Los Angeles.

3.5 FORMAL LETTERS

A formal letter is generally a letter written by one organisation to another, or to its customers, clients and other stakeholders.

While letters have mostly been replaced by email, they are still used in a number of contexts, such as when an email address is not available or to accompany physical material being sent. Thus, the ability to write a formal letter is still an important skill to have.

Purpose

Is your letter to inform, persuade or seek information? The purpose of your business letter will affect its tone and length.

Audience

Consider carefully to whom your letter is addressed. Your audience will influence the tone and language you use. When you write a business document, you must assume that your audience has limited time in which to read it and is likely to skim. Your readers have an interest in what you say insofar as it affects their working world. They want to know the 'bottom line'; the point you are making about a situation or problem and how they should respond.

Language and style

The purpose and audience will determine the level of formality used. Your writing should be clear and concise, taking account of the letter's purpose and the audience's previous knowledge and needs. Business writing varies from the conversational style often found in email messages to the more formal, legalistic style found in contracts.

Skills	Criteria
Develop message logically	Context in introduction One idea per paragraph
Use correct conventions	Address and date are correct Appropriate greeting and close Left aligned and blank space balanced on page Name/ title/ signature are correct Enclosures/ cc are listed appropriately
Write clearly and concisely SEE 1.9	The point of the letter is obvious All necessary details included Direct and concise use of language Logical development of ideas Appropriate tone: tactful and inclusive

Steps

1. Plan your letter: think about purpose and audience, the main message, how best to convey your message, and the appropriate tone for the purpose.

2. Write a draft: give your reason for writing the letter; present the necessary facts completely and logically; finish the body with any action required, e.g. request, statement of outcome.

3. Revise: check information; consider audience and purpose; check language and style; check flow of argument; copy edit.

4. Final preparation: proof read; check that all letter layout and content elements are correctly presented; check grammar and spelling.

Sample business letter

See following page.

Useful references

Allen, J 1998, *Writing in the workplace*, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Eunson, B 2016, *C21: communicating in the 21st century*, 4th edn, John Wiley and Sons, Milton, Qld.

James, N 2007, Writing at work: how to write clearly, effectively and professionally, Allen & Unwin, Crows Nest, NSW.

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

SENDER'S DETAILS	Marylin French Senior Consultant Inter-Office Solutions 24 Pirie Street Adelaide, SA 5005 Australia
DATE	20 Mar, 2018
RECIPIENT'S ADDRESS	Mr Rodney Giles Manager, Customer Support CRM Group Inc. 12 Hampstead Road Clearview, SA 5085, Australia
SALUTATION	Dear Mr Giles
SUBJECT	Pilot implementation of the 1 to 1 Customer Relationship Management Program
CONTEXT	Further to our meeting of last week, I am writing to confirm the details of the series of meetings we agreed to hold over the next two months. These meetings are being scheduled to review your experiences with the pilot implementation of the 1 to 1 Customer Relationship Management Program.
CONTEXT	As discussed in the meeting last week, the objective of our review sessions will be to:
BODY	• review and assess the overall effectiveness of the program
	• identify and document the strengths and weaknesses of the program
	• propose customer-focused solutions to address areas of weakness.
	As agreed, meetings will be held every second Tuesday from 9:00am until noon, and the location will alternate between our two offices, the first to be convened at Inter-Office on 10 April 2018. Fred Johnson of your CRM group is to act as the meeting coordinator and recording secretary throughout the process
	As discussed, at the end of the process, Deborah Buxton of Consultek will draft the summary report for review by the steering committee. A copy of her CV has been enclosed as requested.
CLOSING	I trust I have covered all the points that we discussed. If you have any questions or would like to add anything, please give me a call at 8261 2067.
	We look forward to seeing you at the 11 February meeting.
SIGN-OFF	Sincerely,
WRITER'S NAME And Position	Marilyn French Senior Consultant
ENCLOSURES/COPIES	Encl.

Source: Adapted from http://www.writinghelp-central.com/business-letter.html

3.6 FORMAL EMAILS

Skills	Criteria
Develop message logically SEE 1.7	Use the subject line to summarise the message Include enough contextual information so that the recipient knows what the message concerns Keep message brief and to the point Include a request for action if appropriate
Use formal conventions SEE 1.9	 Use a formal font, 12 point (don't use all capital letters/uppercase/oversized fonts) Lay out message for readability (use spaces and breaks between paragraphs and long sentences) Begin with an appropriate greeting and end with a suitable closure Any attachments must be mentioned in the email Do not forget to add attachments Add Cc if others should be informed Use appropriate punctuation and check grammar and spelling Do not use emoticons (,) or acronyms (2L8—too late, AAMOF—as a matter of fact) Do not be over-familiar with the recipient (use a title or form of address)
Write clearly and concisely	Make the point of the email obvious Include all necessary details Include only information relevant to the topic Use direct and precise language Use appropriate tone: tactful and inclusive

Formal emails have largely replaced formal letters, and are sent by organisations to stakeholders such as other organisations, clients and customers. However, the format of the formal email differes slightly to that of the formal letter.

Purpose

The purpose of a formal email is to provide information or to ask a question. The email is an electronic version of a written memorandum and is an accepted form for business, educational, social and personal purposes.

Audience

An email to a professional should maintain formality unless the professional is also a personal friend. When the professional is a friend, it is best to maintain formality for any professional communication.

Language and style

Your writing should be formal, clear and to the point. Use first person. Proofread to avoid errors, as correct communications always impress and errors disrupt the message.

Steps

1. Type in the email address, but leave the subject until the email is completed.

2. Address the recipient by a title: Dr....., Prof....., Mr. Giles, Ms...., Rodney (first name if already familiar), etc.

3. Type your message, mentioning any attachments.

4. Finish with a closing decision, brief reminder, hope or apology.

5. On the next line, type your first and last names unless the receiver knows you well.

6. Proofread your email and ensure any attachments are included.

7. Use two or three words to describe the Subject.

8. Select cc to any others who may be involved, then send.

Tips

• An email already includes the sending date and your contact details. The subject alerts the receiver to the topic.

- For less formal emails, you can begin with 'Dear Fred', or even 'Hi Fred' for a colleague.
- Do not tag the email as 'urgent', unless you know the receiver would agree that it is urgent.
- Be aware that any email can be traced to the sender, so take care in what you send.

Sample formal email

See following page.

Useful references

James, N 2007, Writing at work: how to write clearly, effectively and professionally, Allen & Unwin, Crows Nest, NSW.

Surma, A 2005, *Public and professional writing: ethics, imagination and rhetoric*, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, New York.

EMAIL ADDRESS OF RECIPIENT	To: rodney.giles@crm.inc.au
CC IF THE EMAIL NEEDS TO BE Sent to others	CC:
BCC IF THE IDENTITY OF THE Recipient is to be kept private	BCC:
	Subject: 2nd Customer Relation Management Program Meeting Attachment: CRM_minutes.doc; DBuxton CV.doc
FIRST NAME ONLY IF FAMILIAR With recipient	Dear Rodney,
CONTEXT	I am emailing to inform you that the next meeting for the Pilot Implementation of the CRM Program will be on 11 February. As discussed in the meeting last week, the objective of our review sessions will be to:
	• review and assess the overall effectiveness of the program
CLEAR AND CONCISE MESSAGE	• identify and document the strengths and weaknesses of the program
	• propose customer-focused solutions to address areas of weakness.
	As agreed, meetings will be held every second Tuesday from 9:00am until noon, and the location will alternate between our two offices, the first to be convened at Inter-Office on 10 April 2018. Fred Johnson of your CRM group is to act as the meeting coordinator and recording secretary throughout the process.
CLOSE WITH EXPECTATION/ Instruction	Please find attached the minutes of the last meeting and a copy of Deborah Buxton's CV as requested. If you have anything to add or have any questions, please call me at 8261 2067.
SIGN OFF	Kind regards, Marilyn
CONTACT DETAILS OF SENDER	Marilyn French Senior Consultant Inter-Office Solutions 24 Pirie Street Adelaide, SA 5005 Australia
	Phone: 8261 2067 Email: marilyn.french@inter-officesolutions.au

Source: Adapted from http://www.writinghelp-central.com/business-letter.html

3.7 memos

A memo (short for memorandum) is a formal written text sent as a record within an organisation.

Memos have largely been replaced by emails, but are still used in certain contexts.

Purpose

A memo is to record work-related information, a concern or a query.

Audience

Your audience will be a colleague or colleagues at any level within an organisation.

Language and style

Your writing should be formal, clear and to the point. Use first person. Avoid errors, as correct communication always impresses and errors disrupt the message. Memos are now often sent by email. If by email, the identifying details will be contained in the headings.

Structure

- 'Memo' or 'Memorandum' at the top indicates that this communication is official.
- The memo is headed with the following information: Subject, To, From, Date.
- The content provides all relevant details. Make the focus clear in the first paragraph, then use a paragraph for each of the other main points.
- Sign off with your name.

Steps

- 1. Type in the identifying details.
- 2. Address the recipient(s) by name. If it is to a committee or a division, include its name first, e.g. Marketing Section: Jane, Mike, Stu, Stephanie.

3. State the main point of the memo in the first paragraph.

4. Elaborate, if necessary, one main point to a paragraph.

5. Sign off with the name by which your colleagues know you. Include an initial if you might otherwise be confused with someone else.

Skills	Criteria
Develop message logically SEE 1.7	Subject title clearly indicates the topic Opening paragraph gives main ideas One idea per paragraph
Use memo conventions	To, From, Date, Subject at the top The business's format is used if there is one The memo can be made public so should contain nothing personal
Write clearly and concisely SEE 1.9	The point of the memo is obvious All necessary details are included Only information relevant to the topic is included Direct and precise language Appropriate tone

Tips

- Use as a guide the format and style of memos sent within your organisation.
- Organisations often have paper or templates set up for memos or a format for their employees to use.
- You will need a way to file for later reference the memos you send and those sent to you.

Useful references

Berger, AA 2016, *The academic writer's toolkit: a user's manual*, Taylor and Francis, Walnut Creek, California.

Eunson, B 2016, *C21: communicating in the 21st century*, 4th edn, John Wiley and Sons, Milton, Qld.

Stanton, N 2009, *Mastering communication*, 5th edn, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke.

MEMORANDUM

To: Henry Hopper

From: James Jenks

Date: 24 April, 2018

Subject: The Ampol audit

I spoke on the phone to Allen Aspen, the Financial Manager of Ampol SA, yesterday, 23 January. He said that the deadline...



FOR FURTHER ENQUIRIES

The University of Adelaide SA 5005 Australia		
ENQUIRIES future.ask.adelaide.edu.au		
TELEPHONE +61 8 8313 7335		
FREE-CALL 1800 061 459		
X	adelaide.edu.au	
f	facebook.com/uniofadelaide	
y	twitter.com/uniofadelaide	
	snapchat.com/add/uniofadelaide	
0	instagram.com/uniofadelaide	
%	UniAdelaide_China	
6	weibo.com/uniadelaide	

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