



# GRADUATE STUDIES in APPLIED LINGUISTICS HANDBOOK 2009

Discipline of Linguistics  
School of Humanities

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## Introduction

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The postgraduate programs in Applied Linguistics at the University of Adelaide are designed as career qualifications for the development of professional expertise in many areas. These include:

- Language in education (TESOL, LOTE, Literacies)
- Workplace communication
- ESL, EFL curriculum design
- Language learning and teaching (first, second and foreign language pedagogies)
- Language, communication and technologies (CALL)
- Language planning, language maintenance and language revival
- Communication and language in the media
- Indigenous languages study
- Project management.

The program combines research and coursework with a strong focus on fieldwork, classroom research and workplace documentation. The subjects are work-related and inquiry based, and students are encouraged and supported to do assignments on their own experiences, including data from current teaching or non-teaching settings. The work-related nature of these assignments and the networks and contacts generated through the research process gives students an advantage in applying for work in related areas.

The teachers of Applied Linguistics postgraduate courses are engaged in research and publications, and are up-to-date with theoretical and practical developments within their field. They are engaged in research with schools, TAFE, education departments, language institutes and testing agencies, which enriches their teaching practices. Their enthusiasm for teaching and working with students has won them awards for teaching and supervising.

Current areas of research include: socialisation and language learning; assessment of language proficiency (IELTS); discourse analysis of language use in classrooms and workplaces; multiliteracies and communication technologies; ecolinguistics and workplace communication; academic literacies and text analyses.

All courses are offered face-to-face which links students to a community of scholars from around the world. The contact provides support, opportunities for collaboration with other students and access to our leading researchers doing dissertations and PhDs on a various aspects of language, language teaching and language maintenance.

You can also view further information on conferences and other news at our website:

<http://www.arts.adelaide.edu.au/humanities/linguistics/pg/>

## What is Applied Linguistics?

Applied Linguistics is the study of language use in human affairs. Applied linguists study many areas of language use and how these are applied in everyday life, including learning and teaching languages; communication practices in workplaces and in the media; language and technology; literacy practices; and language-related learning and communication difficulties. At the University of Adelaide our research and teaching are informed by the social nature of language and by systemic functional linguistics.

## Careers

Applied Linguistics is recognised internationally as the academic TESOL qualification. Studying Applied Linguistics opens up a wide range of career and professional development opportunities. A graduate Applied Linguistics qualification is recognised in the field of language teaching, including Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching Languages Other Than English (LOTE). They are also internationally recognised for professional work in the fields of media, journalism, advertising, translating and interpreting, language documentation, language policy and workplace communication.

## Program Structure

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While programs ultimately lead to a Master of Arts (Applied Linguistics), a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma can be awarded at various stages of study. For example, some students initially enrol in the Graduate Diploma and on completion upgrade and continue their enrolment to the MA.

- **Graduate Certificate in Applied Linguistics:** 12 units / two 6 unit courses (1 semester full time)
- **Graduate Diploma in Applied Linguistics:** 24 units / four 6 unit courses (2 semesters full time)
- **Master of Arts Applied Linguistics:** 36 units / four 6 unit courses plus research project/minor dissertation (3 semesters full-time).

Students can apply to enrol full-time or part-time in any of the awards. Students who have successfully completed the Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma can proceed to a higher award in Applied Linguistics. Students wishing to upgrade to the Masters program must obtain a credit average for their Graduate Diploma courses in order to continue with the award of MA. Students will need to apply to be admitted to the higher program. Domestic students should contact the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Office for information on how to upgrade their program. International students will need to contact the International Student Centre.

## Lectures

Lectures are offered after hours at the North Terrace Campus of the University of Adelaide. Each course is taught over one semester (12 weeks), with three contact hours per week. The contact hours are normally organised after hours as one teaching block, for the convenience of students and to accommodate those who are working.

## Postgraduate Seminars

In addition to accredited courses, Applied Linguistics students are encouraged to attend the Linguistics Postgraduate Seminar held on Monday afternoons from 4-6pm during the semester. At these seminars visiting academics report on research, students present research in progress and staff provide support for students undertaking their dissertation. The seminars are also a good opportunity to discuss ideas and engage with other students.

## Masters and PhD Research Programs

The Discipline of Linguistics has a strong research group of Masters and PhD scholars studying topics including teaching languages (English as a second language, bilingual programs, literacy education), language acquisition, Indigenous languages, language policy, communication in workplaces,

technoliteracies, language planning, language and environment, language assessment, computers and language learning. Students who have demonstrated outstanding work may be eligible for a full or part scholarship.

Visit <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/graduatecentre/scholarships/postgrad/> for more information about scholarships available to research students.

## Entry Requirements and Credit Transfer

Applicants to graduate programs (Certificate, Diploma and Masters) in Applied Linguistics shall have qualified for a degree from the University or another accepted equivalent institution. Selection to the program is based on previous academic achievement and/or relevant experience in the field of Applied Linguistics. Applicants to the PhD research program must have also completed a significant dissertation or research project equivalent to an Honors dissertation of approx. 18,000 - 20,000 words.

Credit may be awarded to students who have completed the following courses:

- Cambridge Certificate in Teaching English to Adults [CELTA] – 3 units
- Department of Education and Children's Services [DECS] in-service ESL courses, including the following courses:
  - > Teaching ESL New Arrivals – 3 units
  - > Language and Literacy: classroom applications of functional grammar – 3 units
  - > Teaching ESL students in mainstream classrooms: language in learning across the curriculum – 3 units
  - > ESL in the mainstream for the Early Learner – 3 units
  - > ESL in the mainstream Online – 3 units
  - > ESL in the mainstream – 3 units

However if teachers have done any of the above courses more than five years before enrolling for a graduate program, and are seeking credit transfer, they are required to present the Discipline Head with a 1,000 word essay as to how the course has and is influencing their teaching or related practice.

Credit may also be awarded for equivalent postgraduate Applied Linguistics subjects undertaken at other internationally recognised universities. Contact the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences for more information about status and credit transfer.

## Applications

Applications for domestic students are made through the South Australian Tertiary Admissions Centre (SATAC) on [www.satac.edu.au](http://www.satac.edu.au). The SATAC guide is available from major newsagencies in Australia for \$10.00. You can also order one directly from SATAC by contacting them on: (08) 8224 4000. They are located at: Ground Floor, 104 Frome Street, Adelaide. SATAC's opening hours are 9am - 5pm Monday to Friday.

International students can apply directly to the university or through an official International Representative. Visit <http://www.international.adelaide.edu.au/apply/> for more information.

## Program Fees and Financial Assistance

Postgraduate programs are available on a fee-paying basis. For domestic students fees can also be covered by FEE-HELP (Higher Education Loan Program). More information about FEE-HELP can be found at: <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/faq/view.pl?qid=319>

Postgraduate students may also be eligible for Centrelink study allowances (Austudy or Youth Allowance). Contact your nearest Centrelink office or ring 13 2490 for more details.

The fees for domestic and international students in 2009 are as follows.

Graduate Certificate 2 courses (half year F/T)	\$6,576 (domestic)	\$10,500 (international)
Graduate Diploma 4 courses (1 year F/T)	\$13,152 (domestic)	\$21,000 (international)
Masters of Arts 4 courses plus dissertation (1.5 years F/T)	\$19,656 (domestic)	\$31,500 (international)

## Postgraduate Services

The university offers various services for postgraduates including: financial assistance, international student support, the Higher Education Loan Programme, postgraduate support and advocacy, the Research Training Scheme, scholarships, the Student Centre, and for research students the Graduate Centre. More information about these services can be found at: <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/student/postgrad/>

Students can also contact Alan Kieg, the Research Librarian for Linguistics, for assistance in library and online higher degree and archival research at <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/library/guide/hum/ling/>

It is recommended that all University of Adelaide postgraduate students obtain a copy of the 2008 Research Student Handbook, which is available at the Graduate Centre or online at <http://www.adelaide.edu.au/graduatecentre/forms/handbook.pdf>

## Course Information

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### Semester 1, 2009

#### Computer Assisted Language Learning – CALL: LING 5001

6 units - Semester 1

A practical introduction to the use of information technologies, this course develops skills in the creation and use of electronic environments for communication and educational purposes. Students have the opportunity to develop projects with applications to workplaces, including media, TESOL and education.

#### Language and Learning: LING 5011

6 units - Semester 1

In this course students analyse leading-edge developments in language and literacy education. The course combines practical teaching strategies with theoretical analyses of language and language learning. The course has applications to teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) as well as to literacy and language education.

#### Language and Meaning: LING 5004

6 units - Semester 1

Language is embedded in everyday actions as it is used to carry out different functions. The purpose of this course is to investigate the linguistic choices which differentiate uses of language, for example the differences between spoken and written language, between academic discourse and informal language. Students are introduced to the analysis of texts using functional grammar with applications in TESOL, education, media and other workplaces.

### Additional Courses:

#### Postgraduate Seminar

Presentations given by visiting academics, staff and PhD and Masters research students will also present their work.

## Semester 2, 2009

### Language Teaching in Specific Settings: LING 5009

6 units - Semester 2

For this course students study contemporary examples of curriculum design for different purposes and contexts. The contexts include teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), first language education, academic disciplines and adult literacy. There is a particular focus on curriculum in action together with a critical review of various approaches to curriculum design.

### English for Academic Purposes: LING 5010

6 units - Semester 2

The aim of this course is to extend students' understanding of the features of different academic texts, including their own, in order to develop an awareness of language and visual resources we use for communication. Of special interest is the practical analysis of how subject specific knowledge is constituted by discourse features and visual systems of meaning. Students document and analyse characteristic features of academic texts from different disciplines. The study of texts is applicable across disciplines, from science to humanities and education, including TESOL.

### Language Teaching Methods: TESOL/LOTE/Literacy: LING 5017

6 units - semester 2

The course is designed to prepare students for teaching language in different settings. It introduces a theoretical framework for language pedagogy which conceptualises language learning and teaching as processes of socialisation. Students review instructional techniques, plan lessons, develop teaching resources, and construct assessment procedures. The course includes a Practicum, in which students systematically document lesson observations, prepare instructional materials and teach under supervision. Students who are practicing teachers negotiate a classroom study topic as an alternative to the practicum.

### Special Topic in Linguistics: LING 5059

6 units - Semester 1 or Semester 2

This course is a research option, which involves researching a topic negotiated with the program coordinator and related to a student's specific interests. The topic may be based on the areas of expertise of a Visiting Scholar.

### Dissertation in Linguistics F/T: LING 5501

12 units - Semester 1 or Semester 2

Eligibility: M.A. (Applied Linguistics) students

Assessment: Dissertation of 18000 words

[Dissertation in Linguistics P/T: Part 1: LING 5502A; Part 2: LING 5502B]

### Additional Courses:

#### Postgraduate Seminar

Reports on current research projects in linguistics will be presented by University staff and research students.

#### New courses in 2010 [subject to approval]

A new postgraduate program and new course are currently planned for 2010, subject to approval. The new program will be a Masters of Arts in Applied Linguistics – TESOL, which will comprise of 3 semesters of coursework, including 3 compulsory core subjects. These core subjects will be Language and Learning, Language Teaching Methods and the new course Research in Applied Linguistics. Research in Applied Linguistics will include a minor research project of approx 9,000 words.

## Timetable

### Semester 1, 2009

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Honours & Postgraduate Seminar 4 – 6pm Nap 918	LING 5004 Language and Meaning 4 – 7pm Nap LG15	LING 5011 Language and Learning 4 – 7pm Nap 144	LING 5101 Computer Assisted Language Learning 4 – 7pm Computer Lab Nap 107	

### Semester 2, 2009

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Honours & Postgraduate Seminar 4 – 6pm Nap 918	LING 5101 English for Academic Purposes 4 – 7pm Nap LG12	LING 5011 Language Teaching Methods 4 – 7pm Nap LG15	LING 5004 Language Teaching in Specific Settings 4 – 7pm Nap LG15	

## Assessment and Examination

Course assignments are assessed by the course lecturer according to the following assessment scale:

*High Distinction (85-100)* Outstanding or exceptional work in terms of understanding, interpretation, expression and critical thinking. Strong evidence of independent reading beyond core texts and materials. Demonstrates insight and awareness of deeper more subtle aspects of the topic/argument and highly developed analytical and evaluative skills. Ability to consider topic in the broader context of the discipline

*Distinction (75-84)* A very high standard of work which demonstrates understanding of deeper, more subtle aspects of the topic, as well as originality and insight of argument. Clear evidence of reading beyond core texts and materials, as well as demonstration of analytical and evaluative skills.

*Credit (65-74)* Demonstrates a high level of understanding and expression and a degree of originality and insight. Thorough understanding of core texts and materials, and sound knowledge of principals and concepts. Well-reasoned argument based on broad evidence.

*Pass (50-65)* Satisfies the minimum requirements. Evidence of having read core materials and texts, and adequate knowledge of principals and concepts. Sound argument based on evidence.

*Fail (0-49)* Fails to satisfy the minimum requirements. Some basic knowledge and ability to argue coherently, but little evidence of analytical and evaluative skills.

Masters dissertations are examined by two external academic examiners. Where there is a disagreement the Principal Supervisor will be called upon to make a recommendation. Where there is major disagreement, the thesis may be sent to a third examiner.

## Student Study Commitment

To successfully pass courses, students will need to allocate an appropriate time commitment to their study. In addition to the formal contact time required for each of their courses (e.g. lectures, tutorials, practicals), they will need to allocate non-contact time. Non-contact time will be required for a range of activities which may include, but are not limited to, assessment tasks, reading, researching, note-taking, revision, writing,

consultation with staff, and informal discussion with other students. While the relative proportion of contact and non-contact time may vary from course to course, as a guide, a full-time student should expect to spend, on average, a total of 48 hours a week on their studies during teaching periods.

## Submission of Masters Dissertation

For students undertaking their dissertation (F/T LING 5501 or P/T LING 5502A, LING 5502B), it is essential to discuss their dissertation submission due date and submission requirements with their supervisor.

A style guide for dissertations titled 'Producing A Thesis: A Style Guide for Higher Degree Students' By Sandra G. Taylor (2005), can be downloaded from the following web address:  
<http://www.hss.adelaide.edu.au/socialsciences/postgraduate/thesissocialsciences.pdf>

Upon the submission date, students must submit 2 electronic copies (MSWord) on separate CDs, and 2 hard copies (spiral bound) to the School of Humanities, Level 7 Napier.

The dissertation must include:

- Cover page with name and thesis title
- Signed statement
- Table of contents
- Abstract

For further detail on style and structure students are encouraged to refer to previously submitted University of Adelaide MA Applied Linguistics theses, obtainable from their supervisor, and to attend the postgraduate seminars.

## Teaching Staff

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### Dr Peter Mickan

Peter Mickan has previously taught in the Education Department of South Australia, and in the Faculty of Education in the University of South Australia. He has an M.Ed from the Wollongong University and a PhD from Macquarie University. He has published papers on language teaching approaches, on IELTS assessment, on bilingual programs, and on socialisation and language learning. His research interests include socialisation and learning in communities of practice, communication in the workplace, second language acquisition, IELTS assessment and academic discourses.

He is currently directing research projects on refugee immigrants' socialisation in communities of practice, on IELTS preparation programs, on academic English and on teaching endangered languages.

### Dr Rob Amery

Rob Amery's main research focus is Australian Indigenous languages, their maintenance and revival. In 1993 - 1994 he served as Project Officer for the innovative Australian Indigenous Languages Framework (AILF) project which introduced Indigenous languages into senior secondary studies in accredited programs for the first time in Australia's history. Over the last two decades Rob has been working with the Indigenous languages of Adelaide and surrounds, especially Kurna, the language of the Adelaide Plains. He has worked closely with the Kurna community, the Department of Education and Children's Services (DECS), Kurna Plains School and other institutions to implement Kurna language programs to ensure the revival of the language.

### **Prof Peter Mühlhäusler**

Peter Mühlhäusler previously taught at the Technical University of Berlin and in the University of Oxford, and is currently the Foundation Professor of Linguistics at the University of Adelaide. Since 1972 he has been an active researcher in several areas of linguistics, including: the theory of language contact and the contact languages of the Australian-Pacific area, particularly the Pitcairn-Norfolk language of Norfolk Island; typological linguistics; ecolinguistics; language planning and language policy; language endangerment and language maintenance; and missionary linguistics (he is currently working on a book on missionary writing systems and their impact on the languages of the Pacific region).

### **Professor Eija Ventola (visiting Semester 1, 2009)**

Educated in Jyväskylä, Finland and Sydney, Australia, Eija Ventola has held academic and research positions in Australia, Finland, Great Britain, Germany and Austria and guest professorships in the USA, Spain and Brazil. Her published work on systemic functional linguistics, discourse analysis and textlinguistics includes studies on casual conversations, chats and service encounters of various kinds, as well as developing dynamic modelling of interactional discourse. Her current research and teaching interests include theoretical and applied issues of multisemiotics, for example videoconferencing and internetting, the globalised language of marketing, business, museums and tourism in multimodal and multimedial contexts.

### **Johanna Motteram**

Johanna Motteram holds a Masters in Applied Linguistics and has extensive language teaching experience both in Australia and overseas. Johanna has presented at international conferences and published papers on candidate preparation for high stakes tests and student reticence in language classrooms. Her research interests include language testing, particularly IELTS, and the development of descriptors for language assessment. Johanna has worked on externally funded projects investigating both classroom based and independent candidate preparation for IELTS

## **Teaching Contacts**

For further information about postgraduate study in Applied Linguistics contact:

Dr Rob Amery Head Discipline of Linguistics School of Humanities University of Adelaide SA 5005 AUSTRALIA Tel: 61 8 8303 3924 Email: rob.amery@adelaide.edu.au	Dr Peter Mickan Co-ordinator Postgraduate Applied Linguistics Programs School of Humanities University of Adelaide SA 5005 AUSTRALIA Tel: 61 8 8303 3405 Email: peter.mickan@adelaide.edu.au
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Or visit <http://www.arts.adelaide.edu.au/humanities/linguistics/pg/>

## **Other Contacts**

School of Humanities  
Level 7 Napier Building  
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Email: [humss.office@adelaide.edu.au](mailto:humss.office@adelaide.edu.au)

## General Essay Writing Guide

This following guide is adapted from the University of Melbourne 'Department of Political Science Guide to the Writing and Presentation of Essays'.

### 1. Analysis, Argument and Criticism

The study of social sciences requires an analytical, not a descriptive, approach. Essays are generally answers to questions which ask whether or not you agree with a certain statement, or which ask you to discuss something critically, to assess a statement or topic, or to evaluate a method or theory. Your essay should be a series of generalisations or propositions, supported by evidence or reasoning and connected in a logical manner that leads to justified conclusions.

Furthermore, you must support your assertions with good evidence and valid reasoning. What counts as good evidence and valid reasoning you will learn by experience, and by consulting your lecturers. Being critical may mean determining whether or not the evidence available justifies the conclusions that are drawn from it; or it may mean uncovering and questioning the assumptions which underlie linguistic and other theories in the social sciences.

### 2. Essays

Essays give you a chance to show what you can do; that you understand the question asked; that you understand the issues involved; that you have done the appropriate amount of reading. Having got that far, you must then show you can communicate your understanding to others.

Make sure that you actually answer the question. If you are asked to assess, or to choose, or to discuss - do it! Do not write down everything you know about the subject: it may not all be relevant.

Your lecturers and tutors are not looking for 'correct answers'. There is no 'line' for you to follow. They are concerned with how well you make your case. Whether they agree or disagree with your judgment is not essential to your mark. Disagreement does not lead to bad marks; bad essays do.

Your argument should be consistent, and the language used should be clear, grammatical and precise.

Furthermore, an essay is a finished piece of work, not a draft or series of notes although you are encouraged to produce drafts of your essays.

### 3. Planning and Writing

#### *a) Choosing your topic*

Many subjects offer several topics for essays. Choose one carefully and begin working on it early. Fit your preparation and writing into the framework provided by essay deadlines in other subjects. This will avoid frantic, last minute rush. Essays are often best done when the topic interests you.

#### *b) Analysing*

It is vitally important to address directly the essay question or topic at hand. Begin by carefully examining the key words and concepts in the questions. Pay particular attention to the difference between commonly used words. For example:

**compare:** examine the characteristics of the objects in question to demonstrate their similarities and differences;

**contrast:** examine the characteristics of the objects in question to demonstrate their differences;

**analyse:** consider the various components of the whole and explain the relationships among them;  
**discuss:** present the different aspects of a question and problem;  
**evaluate:** examine the various sides of a question to reach a normative judgment.

Once the topic has been clarified, you should break it down into its component parts. This enables you to decide what material is relevant to the topic.

### *c) Outline*

After analysing the question, the components should be organised to form an essay outline (or plan). The outline helps to ensure that your essay has a coherent, logical structure. It also facilitates the preparation of your essay by guiding your reading, note-taking and writing. Outlines also enable you to assign relative weighting to the different components of your answer by differentiating which points are central, and which peripheral. They will thus assist your research effort.

### *d) Researching*

Wide reading is essential if you wish to submit a good essay. Without wide reading you will not have the breadth of knowledge necessary to evaluate the work of the materials and to put their themes into perspectives. Effective research depends on knowing what to look for, so always keep your essay outline in mind. Ensure that you read to answer the specific sections of your outline.

The reading requirements are, of course, related to the nature of the subject and topic. Some topics may require a detailed analysis of a small number of texts; yet it is rarely sufficient to read only one or two books on a particular topic. Reading guides are issued to help students choose material. These are starting points. Further references may be compiled by using bibliographies in textbooks, for example.

### *e) Note-taking*

Use your essay outline as the basis of taking notes from your readings. Try not to photocopy large slabs of reading: it often delays the hard work of reading and thinking; unhappily, it sometimes substitutes for them.

Be organised in your note-taking. Maintain an order that you can follow and that will be of assistance in writing the essay. Such an order might be provided by your essay outline. How you choose to make notes is up to you. Keep an accurate record of the full reference and write down the page from which you obtain each piece of information, even though it may not be a direct quotation.

### *f) Writing and revising*

The essay should be a coherent and logical piece of analytical prose which, in the first place, answers the question set and, in the second place, cogently argues, carefully documents, and clearly expresses your case. Writing an essay is almost always a process of writing and revising.

The structure of the essay has three parts: an introduction, the body of the essay, and a conclusion. The introduction should introduce the topic to be discussed and prepare the reader for what is to follow; be concise. It may be useful to summarise briefly the overall theme or argument of the essay, indicating the main points to be made. The body of the essay is the place to present your argument. Attend to the logical sequence of your presentation, and to considerations about evidence which were discussed above. The conclusion should restate briefly the key arguments and their implications.

You will find it helpful to write more than one draft. Use the first draft to map out your ideas within the framework of your essay outline. Second and subsequent drafts must pay more attention to working and style. Always assess your own work by imagining that you are writing for the average intelligent reader: have you included enough information and evidence, in the right order, to allow such a reader to follow your argument? Would such a reader be convinced by your argument?

Try to confront your own assumptions and prejudices as you write. Your task is to convince by argument, not by appeal to the prejudices of others. If you are aware of the presuppositions of others through wide reading, you are prepared to be more conscious of your own presuppositions.

#### 4. Style

##### a) Grammar

Sloppy grammar distracts the reader's attention from your ideas. A social science essay is not the place for literary experiments.

##### b) Spelling, hyphens

The standard spelling reference for Australian writing is the *Macquarie Dictionary*. In general, English spelling is preferred to American. The *Macquarie* is also useful as an up-to-date guide to current hyphenation of words. The tendency in recent years has been to use fewer hyphens, and many words which formerly consisted of two components have now become one.

##### c) Abbreviations

Use full names of states in the text, though abbreviations may be used in footnotes. Use a full-stop after an abbreviation (Vic.; ed.), but not after a contraction (Qld, eds). For abbreviations that consist of capitals, do not use full stops: NSW, ADFA; also BA, PhD and MA. Symbols for currency and units of measurement have no full stop (5 km, 25 lb, 6s). Plurals of abbreviations do not need an apostrophe: MPs, Revs.

##### d) Capitalisation

The rules of capitalisation are complicated and the decision whether or not capitalise is still frequently left to the discretion of the writer. For the sake of consistency, and of appearance, we advise authors to err on the side of lower case usage, except in the case of organisations and institutions and with certain titles (eg. 'President Bush', but 'the prime minister, Mr. Howard'). If in doubt, opt for the lower case.

##### e) Quotations

Use single quotation marks; for quotations within a quotation, use double quotation marks. Indent quotations of more than forty words and double space. Use the spelling and punctuation of the original. Use [sic] (without a full stop) only to indicate that the spelling or turn of phrase derives from the original. Put any interpolations in square brackets. If omitting material from a quotation, use three ellipsis points (...). Do not use ellipsis points at the beginning of a quotation.

##### f) Numbers

Spell out the numbers one to nine and spell out even hundreds, thousands and millions, except if they include a decimal point or fraction (eg. 4.25, 41/4), or where they refer to page numbers, or where there are sets of numerals, some of which are higher than ten (eg. 14, 9 and 6). Use arabic numerals (11, 12, 13...) for other numbers. Percentages are expressed as figures followed by % even if the number is less than 10. Always write out a number or year if it begins a sentence.

Large numbers should be written with a comma rather than a space (eg. 50,000).

Dates should be written thus: 9 January 1956.

Periods of time should be written thus: 1970s (not 1970's); 1984-85 (not 1984-1985, or 1984-5).

Avoid Roman numerals wherever possible.

##### g) Dates

These are shown as 15 January 1970. Months should be spelled out in full. No apostrophe is used in 1870s, 1900s. Show a span of years as 1845-50, not 1845-1850.

##### h) Underlining/italics

In most books and journal articles, emphasis is added to words by *italicising* them. Foreign language words which are often used in English, but are not yet fully naturalised, are italicised. This does not apply to terms such as *vis-a-vis*, or *laissez faire*. If in doubt, check the *Macquarie Dictionary*.

## 5. Referencing

Authors must acknowledge the sources of their information and ideas. Become familiar with the conventions for documenting intellectual debts, or you run the risk of being accused of plagiarism. This is easily avoided if you provide references in your work. References enable your readers to know the source of your information, so they can judge whether or not to accept the claims. They also allow readers to follow up any interesting notions that they read about in your essay. Also, the person marking your essay will easily be able to judge whether you have read and understood the relevant references and whether or not you are up to date on the current thinking in the topic you are writing about. Whether you actually quote the writers, or just rephrase their ideas in your own words, you must still provide a reference. Therefore by correct referencing (or citation), you correctly attribute ideas to the person who wrote them in the first place

For a detailed guide to the APA style of referencing, see the section on page 31 .

### The core communicative purpose: arguing

The core purpose of the vast majority of language studies essays/papers is to present an argument, and to present that argument clearly, convincingly, systematically, and with reference to appropriate evidence and supporting analysis. The argumentation may be of two broad types:

1. **text/data analysis** -- you argue for the conclusions you reach about the linguistic properties and features of the data under consideration,
2. **'literature'<sup>1</sup> critique** – you present arguments which support, question or challenge the claims, findings, theorising etc of other researchers (or groups of researchers).

In some essays, the argumentation will exclusively be either one or other of the two types. It is common, however, for both types to be present in the one paper. Thus in an essay which is primarily concerned with critiquing the claims and conclusions of published research, we might nevertheless choose to do our own analysis of new data and thereby reach conclusions which either support or challenge the established literature. Likewise, in an essay primarily concerned with original text or data analysis, we may make reference to published research which has considered similar texts or data.

The key, then, to writing a language studies essay is being clear in your own mind about your central argument, where that argument will consist of a set of primary findings and the conclusions which follow from these. In your preparatory research and planning (and possibly your early drafts), you must work towards clarifying and articulating these primary findings and conclusions. Then, of course, you must be clear about the basis of these findings. What is the evidence, analysis and/or supporting argumentation upon which they are based and by which they can be justified and demonstrated to the reader? That is to say, your work will almost certainly be confused and unconvincing unless you are able to be clear about what you are arguing and are able to back that argument up with systematically and convincingly presented evidence or supporting analysis. (It is useful to bear in mind that not all of us necessarily reach this clarity by the time we sit down to write our first draft. For some, the first draft is an important means by which they think through the issue and work out just what their primary conclusions are and how they may be supported. If you are one such person, it is vital that you don't hand in this first, necessarily exploratory, first draft. You must give yourself time to re-work and re-draft.)

I've said, then, that language-studies argumentation is conducted either in the context of text/data analysis or of 'literature' critique. Let me briefly clarify what each of these entails.

### *Literature critique*

Literature critique is essentially the same in all academic contexts, be these of the arts, the humanities, the social sciences or the 'hard' sciences. Here of course, previously published research findings and theorising are analysed in terms of whether the evidence provided is appropriate, sufficient and reliable, whether potential counter evidence or interpretation has been given due consideration and whether the reasoning by which conclusions are derived is logical, well-motivated, consistent and explicit. Thus the task is usually to acquaint yourself with the relevant literature and weigh up the merits of various counter positions. In the essay you indicate your stance with respect to those positions, arguing, perhaps, in favour of one, or indicating a qualified preference for one position over the others, or indicating problems with all positions, or even developing your own original explanations and conclusions based on a fresh synthesis of the existing writings.

Below are some sample essay questions which might be tackled by means of a critique of the literature (though of course, there would be no reason why original data and analysis might not be included):

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<sup>1</sup> I use the term 'literature' to refer to the published research/writings etc which are currently available in any academic field. Thus to state, for example, that 'there is no reference to this phenomenon in the literature' is to indicate that the question has not been examined, to your knowledge, anywhere in the published writings on that subject.

- To what degree do the systems of terms for naming colours in the world's languages support the so-called 'Sapir-Whorf' hypothesis that language determines thought and that the diverse grammatical frameworks of different languages represent different modes of thought?
- Lakoff (1975) has argued that it is possible to identify a specific sub-register of 'women's language' which distinguishes the speech and/or writing of women from that of men. Discuss.
- To what degree does the research into 'motherese' or 'child-directed language' support claims that core aspects of grammatical knowledge are innately and genetically endowed?

### *Text/data analysis arguments*

Here I will focus on analyses which are essentially concerned with exploring the grammatical, phonological, stylistic, communicative, rhetorical, text organisational or ideological properties of texts. In such, you might be interested, for example,

- in what is distinctive or characteristic about the grammar, style or structural organisation of a text (or group of texts),
- in how two or more texts differ in their style or communicative effects,
- in what the text reveals about the age, linguistic development or social background of the speaker/writer or the social context in which the text was produced
- in how a text or group of texts achieve particular communicative effects (e.g. persuading, arguing, selling, supporting value systems, forming alliances, entertaining, informing, inciting, alarming)
- in how a particular text manages to make certain values and assumptions seem natural and 'objective',
- in how texts construct different relationships between the communicative participants (for example different degrees of intimacy and shared knowledge between writer/speaker and reader/listener, different degrees of authority, expertise, power or social status); in the social roles and identities of those involved in the communication; in how those involved are achieving (or failing to achieve) their communicative objectives, and so on.
- in unexpected similarities between texts which come from significantly different fields or institutional contexts
- in the way a particular text extends, challenges or transforms established communicative conventions,
- in why some texts are so highly valued and others are seen as defective or debauched,
- and so on.

Here the primary task is to reach conclusions about the relationships between the presence (or absence) of certain significant linguistic features (sounds, types of words and meanings, grammatical structures, patterns of textual organisation, patterns of turn taking and turn management, etc) and the social, stylistic, communicative, rhetorical etc properties and objectives we see as associated with the text. That is to say, the task is to develop an argument about how the presence of particular linguistic features, combinations of linguistic features or orderings of linguistic features

- can be indicative of the social identity or background of the text's speaker(s)/writer(s),
- can reflect the text's social context and the relationship between those involved,
- can lend the text various stylistic properties,
- can enable those involved in the communication to achieve various communicative effects and rhetorical outcomes.

Consider for example, the following question.

Essay Question. The following text is an extract from a newspaper report and is purportedly a transcript of a spontaneous, autobiographical account by a 13-year-old street kid. To what degree does the text as presented appear to be consistent with the properties of spontaneous, spoken language as these have been identified in the literature?

(The text under consideration is provided in the Appendix below)

The primary conclusions, based on a close analysis of various linguistic aspects of the text, might run along the following lines.

This paper demonstrates that, far from being a linguistically accurate transcript of an actual conversational exchange, the transcript displays numerous lexical, grammatical and text organisational features indicative of an editing process by which the girl's language has been made to conform to some key conventions of written language. It is argued that, as a consequence, the transcript lacks many of the features which the literature (see, for example, Halliday 1985 or Langford 1994) has shown are typically present in spoken language of this type. It also contends, though with less certainty, that the transcript is possibly anomalous in lacking much by way of the casual or slang vocabulary we might expect to find in the informal spoken language of young woman from this social background.

In this type of essay, you may well make reference to the published literature though usually not to critique it. Rather you will reference that literature which, for example, provides you with the analytical framework you are currently implementing or which contains findings relevant to the current analysis.

### The structure of argumentation: organising and staging your answer

There are a number of ways by which you can organise the structure of a language-studies essay. The following framework, however, is very widely followed and is certainly recommended as providing a useful template by which you can ensure that your argumentation will be coherent, systematic, easy to follow, logically arranged and appropriately sequenced.

#### Stage 1: Thesis (introduction)

- **Orientation** - establishes the topic, clarifies the terms of the debate, discussion or the analytical issues at stake (may not always be necessary if these are well understood, or may be limited to a sentence or two)
- **Primary Position** - presents the paper's primary conclusions/findings/arguments
- **Preview** – brief overview of the matters to be taken up in the body; indicates the overall ordering of matters to be taken up in the body (which are going to support, explicate, develop, justify the position taken in the Thesis)

Please note that what is being recommended here is that you DO announce in this opening stage what your primary findings and conclusions are. This often doesn't come naturally. We tend to be happier leaving this to the conclusion. But by providing the reader with this information at the beginning, rather than the end, it's possible for them to more easily follow the discussion as it unfolds in the body of the essay and to appreciate its significance. The reader is able to determine, as they read the essay, whether or not you have in fact been able to assemble sufficient evidence and argumentation to justify your primary conclusions. As well, it's easier for you, the writer, to construct a coherent discussion because, having announced your primary position (your key findings and conclusions) somewhere in the opening stage, you can more easily organise your essay as a series of argumentative steps designed to convince the reader of the well-foundedness of your conclusions. If the reader doesn't discover what you are actually arguing until the end, then they may have to go back and re-read the essay to determine whether you have in fact made your case, something which many readers (markers) are not prepared to do. And even if they do that, the exact relevance of the material discussed in the body may still not be clear. It's likely that the reader will be left with an impression of the essay as poorly structured and as having failed to make a clear case.

What this means in practice is that, in the opening section, you do not present yourself as about to undertake some investigative procedures which will be described as the essay unfolds. You should get down to actually announcing what you have already discovered and concluded as a result of your past analytical procedures. So the essay is not presented as an account of an exploratory process, organised chronologically from start to finish. Rather it is a report of an exploratory/analytical process which has already been completed and which has already produced findings and conclusions. You are not taking your reader with you on a journey with an as yet unknown outcome. Rather you are reporting to them the outcome of a journey which you yourself have already completed. You know already what the outcome was, so don't leave them in suspense. Tell them right at the outset what you found.

This means that you wouldn't begin in the following manner.

This essay will investigate whether this text is, in fact, likely to be an accurate transcript of what the young woman actually said. In order to do this I will examine a range of lexical, grammatical and text organisational features which might provide pointers to whether or not the text has been edited so as to conform to the conventions of written language...<and so on>.

Instead of presenting yourself as about to undertake analyses, rather present yourself as already having conducted analyses and as having reached conclusions. Thus the following is much preferable,

This paper demonstrates that, far from being a linguistically accurate transcript of an actual conversational exchange, the transcript displays numerous lexical, grammatical and text organisational features indicative of an editing process by which the girl's language has been made to conform to some key conventions of written language. Specifically, it demonstrates that the transcript has none of the interactivity indicators typical of face-to-face conversation, that it has less grammatical complexity (sequencing of clauses in extended clause complexes) than is typically found in spontaneous speech and that it almost entirely lacks the so-called non-fluency features (pauses, reformulations, repetitions, false starts) which are typical of spontaneous discourse. As well the essay will argue that the text is anomalous in lacking the casual or slang vocabulary which we might expect to find in the informal spoken language of young woman from this social background.

So don't say,

In this essay I will examine....

Rather say,

In this essay I demonstrate/argue/provide compelling evidence that.....

Don't say,

The essay will consider linguistic features/issues X, Y and Z.

Rather say,

This essay demonstrates with respect to linguistic feature X that..... and with respect to linguistic feature Y that.... As well, I show that with respect to linguistic feature Z....

*(Of course there will probably more than three linguistic features/issues to be discussed.)*

## Stage 2: Argumentation Support/Development (body)

Provides the material which supports/justifies/provides evidence for etc the position taken in the Thesis. Depending on the nature of the subject matter and the nature of the argumentation, this will take the form of one or more of the following:

- Supporting evidence for the Position derived, for example, from detailed textual analysis, sociolinguistic surveys, statistical analyses, data supplied by secondary sources and so on. In the case of textual analysis of the type discussed above, this evidence will take the form of a detailed description and analysis of the various linguistic features which justify your conclusions about the text's social, stylistic, communicative, rhetorical etc properties.
- Evidence and subsidiary argumentation in support of the primary Position derived from, or provided directly by, the established literature.
- Careful refutation of any literature which could be seen as contradicting or at least challenging your primary Position.

Each argument, piece of evidence, refutation will typically occupy its own section (possibly a paragraph or two) with each of these sections typically consisting of a **Point** (where the argument/evidence/refutation is presented in overview) and an **Elaboration**, where the Point is further specified, elaborated, explained and justified.

### Stage 3: Reinforcement (conclusion)

Returns to and restates of the primary Position, probably in stronger terms, briefly indicating how the Argument section (body) has, in fact, lead you compellingly to this conclusion, finding, interpretation etc. The final stage may sometimes also includes a section which looks forward by indicating,

- which questions remain unresolved,
- where further research/analysis is required
- what new issues have been raised by material addressed in the body.

This structure is exemplified in the following simple, but well organised essay by a primary school student. (Note that it has no Orientation.)

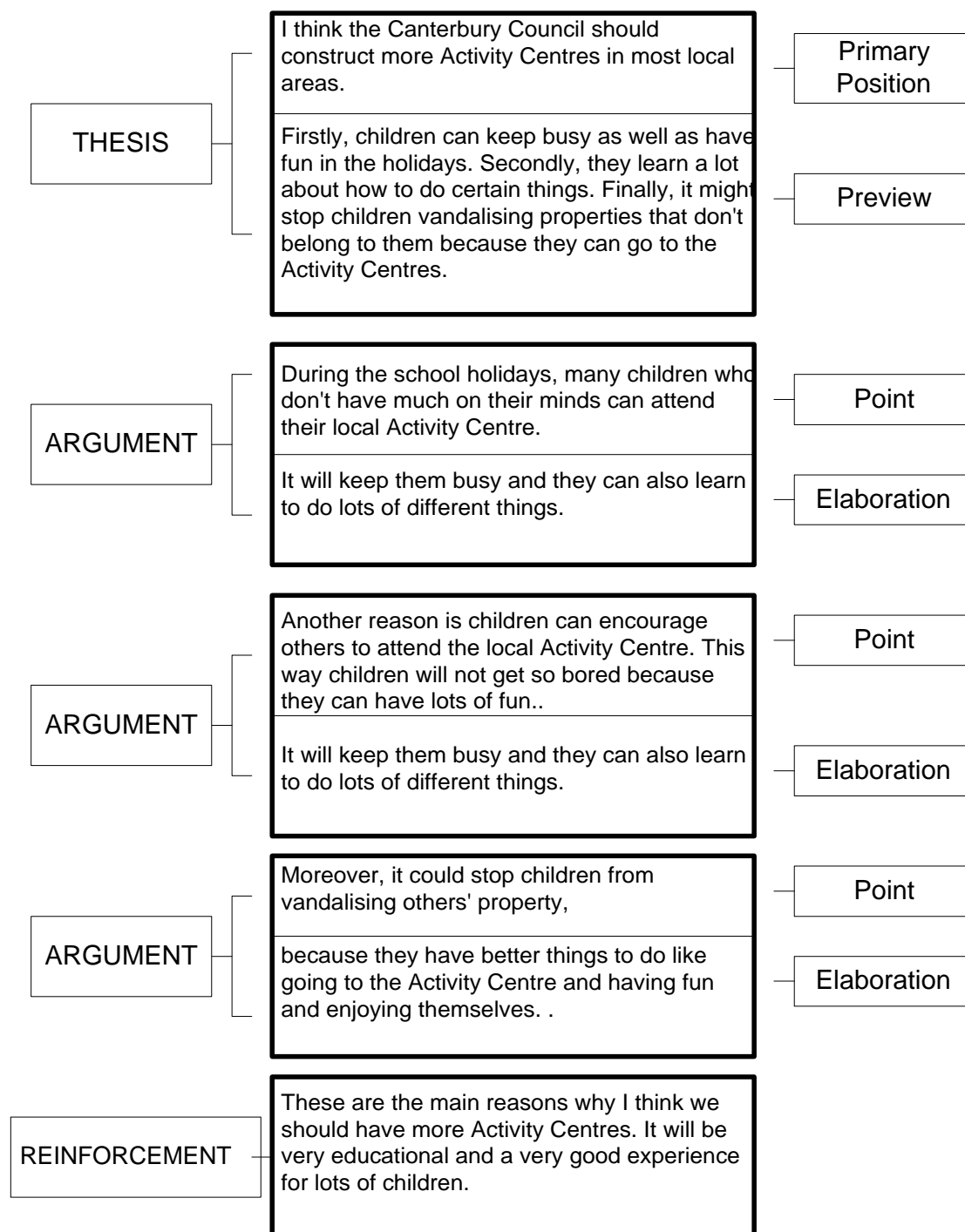


Figure 1: generic structure of a simple argument.

Lets now apply the same template to organising an answer to the question I set out above on the newspaper transcript text. (Repeated here for convenience.)

*Essay Question:* The following text is an extract from a newspaper report and is purportedly a verbatim transcript of a spontaneous, autobiographical account by a 13-year-old street kid. To what degree does the text as presented appear to be consistent with the properties of spontaneous, spoken language as these have been identified in the literature?

### ***To Orient or not to Orient***

Recall that I indicated the opening stage (the Thesis) often has the following sub-elements – Orientation/Background + Primary Position + Preview – but that the Orientation may be omitted or at least limited to a sentence or two. The purpose of the Orientation is to ensure that the reader has sufficient background information to understand what you are arguing in the primary Position and how the evidence or analysis in the Body is relevant and can be seen as, in fact, justifying that Position. The amount of space devote to the Orientation will depend on the following factors:

- The length of the essay – the Orientation will have to be rather brief if you only have limited words overall.
- The degree of knowledge of the subject matter which can reasonably be expected of the reader. Thus Orientations can be kept to an absolute minimum (or omitted completely) if you are writing about an issue which has been fully covered in the lectures or seminars - you shouldn't rehearse or repeat information with which the reader will be too familiar. More extended Orientation may be required if you are exploring a topic of your own choosing (and hence one which may not have been fully covered in lectures or set readings) or if you believe that the Question is expressed in such a way that its terms need to be clarified (if, for example, you believe the Question is ambiguous or relies on assumptions which you think are questionable or misleading.). Remember, provide enough but never too much Orientation – too much may look like you are desperately padding out your answer.

Let's now return to our newspaper transcript question. Does it require an Orientation and if so, how much? Well, it can certainly be assumed that the reader (the marker) will be familiar with what is at stake generally in the difference between spoken and written language, so you wouldn't want to rehearse this at any great length. It could be argued, however, that the wording of the question represents something of an oversimplification – it may just be seen as implying that there are always clear cut distinctions between the language of speech and writing. Accordingly, some clarification of this issue may be in order by way of Orientation. We might begin our answer, therefore, with the following clarificatory Orientation.

#### **Thesis: Orientation**

The now extensive literature on the variation between spoken and written language (see, for example, Halliday 1985, Langford 1994, Carter and McCarthy 1997) has established quite clearly those linguistic features which typically characterise spoken language and distinguish it from writing. It must be born in mind, however, that the literature refers only to tendencies in the occurrence of these features and that we can not in all circumstances establish an absolute stylistic boundary by which all speech can be separated from all writing. With this proviso in mind, however, it is possible to reach reasonably certain conclusions as to the actual 'spokenness' of the provided transcript on account of the presence (and absence) of certain tellingly revealing features.

With the scene set in this way, and the terms of the discussion clarified, we can now proceed with the second sub-section of the opening Thesis – the Primary Position.

#### **Thesis: Primary Position**

Accordingly, this paper demonstrates that, far from being a linguistically accurate record of an actual conversational exchange, the transcript displays numerous lexical, grammatical and text organisational features indicative of an editing process by which the girl's language has been made to conform to some key conventions of written language. I argue that, as a consequence the transcript lacks many of the features which the literature (see previous references) has shown are typically present in spoken language of this type. While the text does contain elements which are typically associated with speech and especially casual conversation, these

will be shown to be of a frequency which is probably too low to be compatible with genuine spontaneous speech.

Now it is time to provide a Preview of the evidence, analysis and subsidiary argumentation which the Body is going to supply by way of elaboration and justification of the Primary Position. This should be relatively brief – a short outline which indicates both what that supporting analysis/evidence will be, and how it will be sequenced and sectioned. This provides the reader with a map, so to speak, of what is coming (and hence makes the supporting argumentation and evidence easier to work through) as well as demonstrating early on that the writer can, in fact, back up and justify what s/he has claimed in the opening. Thus,

### **Thesis: Preview**

Specifically, the following discussion provides evidence that:

- features associated with the interactional nature of two-party, face-to-face interaction are absent from the transcript,
- it is lacking in features which typically associate with the informality of most casual conversation – for example it is lacking in colloquial lexis and various contractions (see, for example, Poynton 1982: 56), and so called ‘vague language’ (see Channel 1994)
- it is lacking in so-called ‘non-fluency’ features (see for example, Golding 1992: 23) typically associated with spontaneous speech – for example, pauses, repetitions and false starts,
- it has relatively low levels of what Halliday (1985) terms ‘grammatical complexity’ – the stringing together of clauses into extended chains, a feature which has been shown to be typical of spontaneous speech, especially of monologues of the type the transcript purports to represent.

It will be acknowledged, however, that in one area the transcript does appear to be compatible with conventional casual, conversational speech. The lexical density of the text (proportion of content words to total words) is at a level which past research (see for example Jameson 1987) has found to be typical of spontaneous, spoken language.

### ***Headings and Sectioning***

Before I turn to the organisation of the Body, let me clarify one key issue. According to some conventions which hold in other areas of the humanities and the social sciences, it is not usual to explicitly sectionalise answers. That is to say, essays are not broken down into explicit sub-sections with headings. The opposite holds true in English linguistics studies. Here, you are strongly encouraged to sectionalise (and sub-sectionalise) where appropriate, and to supply heading and sub-headings for these sections. Accordingly, the opening sub-sections of the essay we are currently working on might well have been presented in the following sectionalised manner.

#### **1. Introduction**

##### **1.1 Characterising spoken language**

The now extensive literature on the variation between spoken and written language (see, for example, Halliday 1985, Langford 1994, Carter and McCarthy 1997) has established quite clearly those linguistic features which typically characterise spoken language and distinguish it from writing. It must be born in mind, however, that the literature refers only to tendencies in the occurrence of these features and that we can not in all circumstances establish an absolute stylistic boundary by which all speech can be separated from all writing. With this proviso in mind, however, it is possible to reach reasonably certain conclusions as to the actual ‘spokenness’ of the provided transcript on account of the presence (and absence) of certain tellingly revealing features.

##### **1.2 Key conclusions – indications of editing**

Accordingly, this paper demonstrates that, far from being a linguistically accurate record of an actual conversational exchange, the transcript displays numerous lexical, grammatical and text

organisational features indicative of an editing process by which the girl's language has been made to conform to some key conventions of written language. I argue that, as a consequence the transcript lacks many of the features which the literature (see previous references) has shown are typically present in spoken language of this type. While the text does contain elements which are typically associated with speech and especially casual conversation, these are shown to be of a frequency which is probably too low to be compatible with genuine spontaneous speech.

### 1.3 Preview of primary evidence

In order to demonstrate the ways in which the transcript seems more written than spoken, evidence is provided showing that:

- features associated with the interactional nature of two-party, face-to-face interaction are absent from the transcript,
- it is lacking in features which typically associate with the informality of most casual conversation – for example it is lacking in colloquial lexis and various contractions (see, for example, Poynton 1982: 56), and so called 'vague language' (see Channel 1994)
- it is lacking in so-called 'non-fluency' features (see for example, Golding 1992: 23) typically associated with spontaneous speech – for example, pauses, repetitions and false starts,
- it has relatively low levels of what Halliday (1985) terms 'grammatical complexity' – the stringing together of clauses into extended chains, a feature which has been shown to be typical of spontaneous speech, especially of monologues of the type the transcript purports to represent.

It will be acknowledged, however, that in one area the transcript does appear to be compatible with conventional casual, conversational speech. The lexical density of the text (proportion of content words to total words) is at a level which past research (see for example Jameson 1987) has found to be typical of spontaneous, spoken language.

Sectionalising is recommended because it clearly signals to the reader how your argumentation is organised and how the various parts of the essay fit together and are logically inter-related. (It's useful, of course, as well, in that it forces you to carefully consider these issues – to ensure that the essay is logically and coherently organised).

Sectionalisation is especially important in the Body of the essay. It is crucial that the various aspects of your evidence and supporting analysis are logically grouped together (related or similar types of evidence in the same or adjacent sub-sections) and are assembled under appropriate headings (and sub-headings.) This principle has a particular application in text analysis essays. Here it is important that you don't just work in a linear or sequential fashion through the text, sentence by sentence, noting one feature here and a different feature there. Rather, you should step back from the text, and organise your analysis around particular linguistic aspects or issues. Thus if you were analysing, for example, the language of a young child in terms of that child's linguistic development you might, for example, devote one section to

- a discussion of 'Mean Length of Utterance' (the average number of meaning units found in the child's utterances),
- another to vocabulary choices - including sub-sections on the ratio of function words to referring/informational items, the ratio of nouns to verbs, the semantic fields covered by those words, and so on,
- another section to morphology (word formation) - including sub-sections on the presence or absence of plural forms, evidence of knowledge of irregular forms etc
- and another to grammatical structure - including sub-sections, for example, on word order, the use of auxiliaries, the formation of questions, the formation of negatives,
- and so on.

Thus you would step back from the text and observe and analyse, for example, all the instances of pluralisation (or lack of such), wherever they occur, in order to be able to complete the relevant sub-section.

In the context of our example analysis of the 'street kid' transcript, this means that the body of the essay would be likely to have the following sections and sub-sections:

1. Indicators of two-party face-to-face interaction
2. Indicators of informality
3. Indicators of spontaneous production
  - 3.1 Non fluency features
  - 3.2. Grammatical complexity
  - 3.3 Lexical density

Of course, when developing such sections and sub-sections, it's important to consider carefully just what elements or issues are best grouped together and which are best placed in separate sections. You would need, for example, to have seen that pluralisation is better analysed as a matter of morphology (the formation of words) rather than a matter of vocabulary (the types of words used), even though the two can be seen as interconnected.

Similarly, if preparing argumentation about, for example, the communicative properties of a news story, you might well break the Body of your essay down into sections devoted to such issues as,

- the angle and terms of representation adopted by the headline/lead
- the organisation of the body of the story and the way it supports the headline/lead
- the use of metaphor throughout the text
- the use of non-core and evaluative lexis throughout the text
- the functionality of attribution throughout the text
- the role of images and layout in supporting the text's message
- and so on

Of course, as already indicated, the sectionalisation of the Body of the essay should be outlined in the Preview which comes before the Body, as the last sub-section of Stage 1.

### ***The Body***

The body, therefore, should be organised into a logical sequence of sections (and sub-sections).

I'll briefly illustrate how the first of the Body sections of our newspaper transcript analysis essay might go.

#### **2. Analysis of linguistic features**

##### **2.1 Indicators of interactivity (or the lack of it)**

Face-to-face, multi-party conversations are interactive – they involve a process of turn taking by which the interlocutors swap communicative roles, seek information, offer information, provide the other with feedback and support, interrupt each other, and so on. The transcript is remarkable in being totally free of any signs at all of interaction or feedback. Thus it is presented as being provided as a continuous monologue produced without any questioning, prompting, encouragement or interruption by a second party. Similarly, the text contains no examples of the so-called 'floor-holding' devices by which speakers in actual conversational exchanges indicate to other parties that they wish to keep talking, to keep control of the turn, even when pausing for thought. Thus the transcript includes no record of any of the 'umms' and 'errs' by which such 'floor-holding' is typically achieved. This absence is even more remarkable given that Steffi is represented as providing an extended monologue.

##### **2.2 Indicators of informality and personal contact**

etc...

## *The Conclusion*

In the conclusion (or Reinforcement) you should return to your Primary Position, restating it in stronger terms, in the light of the evidence just assembled in the Body. In addition, the Reinforcement may briefly consider new issues or conclusions which emerged in the course of the Body, indicate possible complications to the argument, or outline further areas of research or analysis. Thus

### **3. Conclusion**

The discussion has demonstrated compelling that it is extremely unlikely that the transcript was an accurate, verbatim transcript of the interview subject's actual words. As demonstrated, the transcript was entirely non-interactive and the few indicators of informality (colloquial lexis and vague language) were implausibly infrequent. It could be argued they suggest a writer/editor mechanically seeking to concoct a sense of casual conversation. Similarly, the text was almost entirely free of the non-fluency features which past research has demonstrated would be expected of such an example of purportedly spontaneous speech. The levels of grammatical complexity were much more in keeping with the patterns found in non-spontaneous written language.

It must, of course, be acknowledged that the apparent editing of the transcript was probably not part of any plan by the reporter to mislead the reader or to deliberately misrepresent Steffi. We might speculate, rather, that the editing was deemed necessary to render Steffi's account suitable for publication. Nevertheless, the fact that such a substantial editing has apparently taken place is revealing, I would suggest, of the lack of popular awareness of the true nature of spoken language and the degree to which it differs from typical written texts. The fact that the reporter was able to pass off this essentially written text as a record of speech is indicative of this lack of awareness.

## **Citation, references and plagiarism**

It is crucial that any use you make of the work of other researchers and writers is fully and appropriately referenced and acknowledged. Obviously you must always indicate when you are quoting another's words. But equally you must also indicate when you are relying on, or have been influenced by, the ideas, insights or findings of other researchers. That is to say, you should acknowledge even when you don't directly quote. In the body of your text, you should reference by means of the name of the author and the date of publication – thus (Halliday 1985). This reference should be linked to a listing in a concluding bibliography of the form.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1985. *Spoken and Written Language*, Deakin University, Victoria, Australia, Deakin University Production Unit.

You will often want to include a precise reference to page numbers, especially when you include a direct quotation – thus (Halliday 1985: 56)

The bibliography listings must include the author's name (Halliday, M.A.K), the date of publication (1985), the title (*Spoken and Written Language*), the place of publication (Deakin University, Victoria, Australia) and the name of the publisher (Deakin University Production Unit). Book chapters, additionally, should contain the name of the book (in addition to the chapter title) and the book's editor(s). Journal articles should provide the name of the journal and any volume or edition details.

An example bibliography is provided below.

### **Reference List**

#### ***Book***

Bakhtin, M. 1973. *Problems of Dostoevsky's Poetics*, Michigan, Ann Arbor.

——— 1981. *The Dialogical Imagination*, M. Holquist, (ed.), C. Emerson & M. Holquist, (trans.), Austin, University of Texas Press.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. 1987. *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*, Cambridge, UK.,

Cambridge University Press.

### **Book Chapter**

Chafe, W.L. 1986. 'Evidentiality in English Conversation and Academic Writing', in *Evidentiality: the Linguistic Coding of Epistemology*, Chafe, W.L. & Nichols, J. (eds), Norwood, New Jersey, Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Meyer, P.G. 1997. 'Hedging Strategies in Written Academic Discourse: Strengthening the Argument by Weakening the Claim', in *Hedging and Discourse - Approaches to the Analysis of a Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts*, Markkannen, R. & Schröder, H. (eds), Berlin & New York, Walter de Gruyter.

### **Journal Article**

Curtiss, S.R. & Fromkin, V.A. 1974. 'The Linguistic Development of Genie', *Language* 50: 528-54.

Hyland, K. 1996. 'Writing Without Conviction: Hedging in Science Research Articles', *Applied Linguistics* 17 (4): 433-54.

Lakoff, G. 1973. 'Hedges: A Study in Meaning Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concepts', *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 2: 458-508.

### **Identifying your data**

You should also supply a listing of the sources or publication details of any texts you use as data for your analyses – for example, newspaper or magazine articles, transcripts of conversations, meetings or classroom interactions, radio broadcasts, political speeches, advertisements, soap opera transcripts etc. These, however, should be clearly separated from the bibliography and placed in their own labelled section following the bibliography. What details you supply will depend on the nature of the analysed text. With newspaper/magazine texts, for example, you should supply the name of the publication, the title or headline of the article, the author(s) (if available), the date of publication, the issue number (in the case of magazines), the page number and, if available, the section in which the item appeared.

### **Alternative text organisational frameworks**

In the previous sections I've been setting out a particular framework for the composition of linguistic essays. I perhaps should stress again that there are other patterns of textual organisation which you may choose to adopt. I'm not suggesting that the above structure is an absolute requirement. If you have another framework which you prefer and which you believe is effective, then by all means adopt it. Nevertheless, I do still highly recommend the above format unless you have carefully thought through your text organisational options and have, as a result of careful consideration, decided on another approach. In my experience, many student writers don't really have any clear idea of their own text's informational and argumentative organisation. So it's not so much that they are following a different model from the one outlined above but that they are following no clear model at all.

### **What makes for a good essay**

Now that I've consider this framework for linguistic essay organisation, I turn to considering further aspects of good essay writing. In what follows I will confine myself largely to essays/papers where the primary task is to reach conclusions based on your own analyses of linguistic data, rather than to report on, and evaluate, the relevant linguistics literature (what other linguists and language researchers have claimed, argued or reported in published articles and books.) That is to say, I am here concerned with essays where you will either have collected your own data or will have had data provided for you. By 'data', of course, I mean some spoken or written text or selection of texts, or a collection of instances of the use of a particular set of words, phrases or grammatical structures, or lines drawn from a corpus, and so on. This is not to say that some reference won't be made to the linguistics literature. In fact, in almost all instances it will be

necessary to make at least SOME reference to previous research, and the best essays will usually make quite extensive reference to this literature. It's usually not possible to develop informed and insightful analyses of your own without having (and demonstrating) a good knowledge of the relevant scholarship. It is just that in this instance, the primary purpose is not to evaluate that literature but, rather, to use it for the primary purpose of developing your own, original conclusions about the data being investigated.

The very best essays will display excellence across a range of different aspects or areas. Accordingly I will examine what I, as an evaluator, look for in an essay across a range of headings.

### What's Your Point?

A good essay will have a clear point to make. That is to say, it will very clearly set out conclusions or findings on some question(s) or issue(s) associated with the data under investigation. Clear conclusions, then, are vital, with the quality of the essay depending on the quality of those conclusions.

The very best conclusions will have the following qualities:

- **(asked-and-answered)** The conclusions will be seen to provide a satisfactory answer to all the key aspects of the question/issue being addressed (or they will at least plausibly set out a case that the question itself is unanswerable, or based on false or inappropriate assumptions, or in some other way so problematic as to preclude a satisfactory answer.)
- **(comprehensiveness)** The conclusions will be seen to have taken full account of all relevant aspects or features of the data

**(originality)** In many instances, the very best conclusions will also provide for a sense of discovery, for a sense, for example, that some original insight is being offered or at least that some of the less obvious features or properties of the data under consideration have been revealed. Obviously, there may be less of a requirement for such 'originality' in smaller scale assignment or those which are simply directed at developing basic research skills or checking that you are familiar with the literature in a given area.

### Providing the Evidence

In this type of essay, you will support your central conclusions with often quite detailed analysis of the data in question. The point of this analysis is to justify your central conclusions, to convince the reader that you have adequate evidence in support of your findings, to prove that your conclusions are warranted and well-founded. The analysis which you offer as evidence/justification, then, should have the following qualities:

**(linguistic scholarship)** The analysis will demonstrate a thorough knowledge of the relevant literature and the relevant areas of linguistic knowledge since it is this literature and knowledge which in almost all cases will provide the framework or frameworks under which the analysis is carried out. Adequate scholarship will also mean that you make use of appropriate linguistic concepts and that your descriptions and analyses are couched in appropriate linguistic terms. That is to say, your analyses and descriptions employ and make reference to concepts and categories which have a basis in linguistic theory and therefore are systematic, explicit and clearly defined. (In this context it is wise to ensure that you avoid analyses which rely on concepts, descriptions, explanations or evaluations which are unsystematic, impressionistic or undefined/vaguely defined. This is you want to employ terms such as 'subjective', 'objective', 'dramatic', 'factual', 'human', 'emotive', 'clumsy', 'effective' etc you must ensure that you define them in linguistic terms. That is to say, before you describe a text, an utterance or a word as 'subjective' or 'emotive' you need to have first provided an explicit account of the linguistic features which make for 'subjective' or 'emotive' language.)

- **(accuracy)** The analysis will correctly apply whatever analytical framework is being used. Thus if your analysis relies on identifying a particular linguistic category (for example, 'function' words, or nouns, or modal verbs, or colloquial lexis or words of Latinate origin etc etc) then the identifications will be seen as 'correct' or at least as plausible/arguable (since at least some linguistic categorisations are quite often open to debate).
- **(completeness)** The analysis will have taken into account all relevant aspects of the data, or at least as many aspects as is reasonable in the particular context of the essay. (Thus word-length limitation

may mean that it is acceptable to focus on only some of the relevant aspects of the data, though in such contexts it may be wise to briefly indicate what these additional aspects are and to 'apologise' for not being able to consider them, given the current limitations.)

- **(persuasive adequacy)** The analysis will be up to the job of convincing the reader that the central conclusions are justified and well-founded. Thus the reader must be convinced that the analysis provides sufficient evidence of the right type to support the conclusions. They must be convinced that the reasoning by which the conclusions are derived from the analysis is sound or at least plausible. In some cases it may be necessary to avoid over-stating the case – that is to say, claiming that the analysis provides definitive proof when it is only suggestive. Thus it may be better, in some situations, to say that the a particular analysis is consistent with a particular conclusion, or lends some support for a conclusion while acknowledging that it is not proof positive, that it could also support some alternative conclusion. Also, it may be necessary to acknowledge instances where the amount of data analysed is insufficient to support too generalised conclusions. Here it may be wise to observe that the conclusions apply only to this more limited set of data and more generalised conclusions would require analysis of more extensive or more diverse data.

### Getting Your Message Across

It benefits you not one jot if you have thoroughly, accurately and intelligently analysed your data so as to reach well-founded and insightful conclusions, only to fail to communicate these findings in a clear and easy to follow manner. It is not enough to reach sound conclusions. You must present these properly. This means ensuring that you adopt an appropriate style and mode of expression and, especially, that you structure the essay in such a way that your argumentation is maximally easy to follow. (A detailed discussion of the most effective argumentations structures was supplied in earlier sections.). The very best essays, therefore, will display the following stylistic and structural features.

#### Structure:

- **(scene setting)** Where necessary, the essay will begin by carefully defining terms and/or clarifying the issues at stake, or otherwise providing necessary background. (See previous essay writing notes for a discussion of when such an orientation section may not be necessary)
- **(stating your case)** the primary conclusions/findings/arguments will be clearly presented, in adequate detail at an appropriate point in the essay – typically in the opening section (see previous essay notes for a discussion of where the primary conclusions should be set out)
- **(organising the evidence)** The analysis which supports these conclusions will be organised so that it is broken up into appropriate sub-sections. That is to say, the body of the essay will be subdivided into sections (and possibly sub-section) with each section focussing on a particular linguistic element, feature or pattern, or addressing a particular linguistic issue. Thus it is important to ensure that the discussion that makes up the body doesn't jump back and forth between different issues or linguistic features but rather is organised in sections which concern themselves with a particular issue/linguistic feature (or at least issues and features which are related or interconnected in some way.)
- **(rounding it off)** A clear conclusion section will be provided which gathers together the main strands of the evidence which have just been presented so as to more forcefully state the primary conclusions. In some contexts, this concluding stage may also briefly mention new issues which have emerged in the course of the analysis or consider issues which remain as yet unanswered or require further research or analysis. (Such introduction of new material in the conclusion typically only occurs in longer works, for example in dissertations.)
- **(referencing)** The essay will provide appropriate referencing of the linguistic literature cited or relied upon with an appropriately formatted bibliography.

### Style and expression:

- (**academic style**) The essay will employ a style (e.g. vocabulary, grammatical structures) which is seen as appropriate to the current academic context. (We note that there may be a variety of academic contexts and accordingly a range of appropriate styles.)
- (**expression**) The language used (e.g. choice of vocabulary, the structuring of clauses etc) is such that there are no unnecessary obstacles to the easy understanding of the points being made and the arguments being developed. (Of course, more complex arguments or more original insights may require more complex or more subtly nuanced forms of language.) Unnecessary wordiness, redundancy or repetition is avoided.

### Drafting, revisions and self evaluation

I note that very few writers are able to produce their best work with only one draft. Usually we think through our ideas in this first draft and it's only really in the second and third drafts that we start to shape a coherent, easy to follow, well-founded argument. I certainly find that I'm only able to produce an effective opening section after I've completed at least one draft. I don't actually know what my conclusions are going to be, at least not with any precision, until I've written the first version. I then go back and usually completely rewrite the opening. Then in my second and third drafts I'm able to attend to the structure of the body to ensure that it supplies appropriated sequenced evidence in support of these conclusions. So if you're handing up a first draft then you probably are doing your own work and insights a disservice. You probably aren't getting your thoughts and arguments across as clearly as you might. And I certainly recommend you paying special attention to your opening section. Keep coming back to it as you work through your drafts. Ensure that it does provide a coherent overview of your findings and conclusions which will provide the reader with a guide to the remainder of the essay. In many instances it will be last thing, rather than the first thing, which you write.

In order to assist you with the revision/redrafting process I've provided the following **check list**. You may want to evaluate your own work by reference to it in order to determine whether further work is required. (This is the list I use when doing my marking.)

#### a) Conclusions/Findings

##### *Asked-and-answered*

The conclusions:

1. satisfactorily answer or at least address all relevant issues raised by the question. (Here once again it is necessary to acknowledge that in some instances it may not be reasonable to require that absolutely all aspects of the issue raised by addressed/answered. This will depend, for example, on the length of the essay and other factors)
2. satisfactorily address most of the issues raised by the question
3. satisfactorily address some of the issues raised
4. satisfactorily address only a few of the issues raised
5. don't satisfactorily address the issues raised

##### *Comprehensiveness*

1. take full (or at least entirely adequate) account of the relevant aspects or features of the data.
2. cover most of the relevant features of the data
3. cover some relevant features
4. cover a few of the relevant features
5. Cover none of the relevant features

### ***Originality***

(not relevant in all instances)

It's not really useful to try to set out, or to distinguish between, different levels or degrees of originality. However, it may be useful to note that in the very, very best work, the conclusions will demonstrate outstanding originality of thought, or will offer entirely novel insights, or will indicate that hitherto undetected features, patterns or functionalities etc have been discovered in the data. Good work (for example distinctions of high distinctions) may not offer insights which are, strictly speaking, entirely original but they WILL provide insights and explanations which are intelligent and revealing and which may be inventive. Good work will also typically uncover features of, or patterns in, the data which are not so immediately obvious.

### **b) Analysis as Evidence**

#### ***Linguistic scholarship***

The analysis:

1. demonstrates an extremely thorough knowledge of the relevant literature and the relevant areas of linguistic knowledge and applies this with extreme skill (and possibly inventiveness or subtlety)
2. demonstrates a sound knowledge and applies it effectively
3. demonstrates some knowledge and applies it for the most part effectively
4. demonstrates only a minimal knowledge, or doesn't apply that knowledge consistently
5. demonstrates no knowledge or doesn't apply it at all effectively

#### ***Accuracy***

1. entirely accurate in its application of the relevant linguistic framework(s)
2. mostly accurate
3. accurate but not consistently so
4. only occasionally accurate
5. entirely inaccurate

#### ***Completeness***

1. all relevant aspects/features of the data
2. most of the relevant aspects
3. some of the relevant aspects
4. a few of the relevant aspects
5. none of the relevant aspects

#### ***Persuasive adequacy***

1. is entirely adequate in supplying support/evidence for the primary conclusions
2. is generally adequate
3. offers some support
4. offers only minimal support
5. offers no effective support

### **c) Structure and organization of the argument**

Scene setting. In providing an appropriate amount of background (not too much, not too little) and clearly clarifying the issues, the opening is,

1. extremely effective
2. generally effective
3. could have been more effective

4. ineffective
5. entirely missing

#### **d) Stating Your Case**

1. The primary conclusions are very clearly presented, in an appropriate amount of detail, at an appropriate point.
2. The presentation of the primary conclusions is generally effective, with just some minor area in which improvement is possible (eg clearer expression, more/less detail)
3. The primary conclusions are presented relatively clearly but some improvement possible
4. Some conclusions are presented but not entirely effectively
5. No effective presentation of the primary conclusions

#### ***Organising the evidence***

1. The body is extremely well organised, with the analysis sub-divided into appropriate, logically arranged and sequenced sections.
2. The organisation of the body is generally OK with just some areas which would benefit from re-organisation.
3. The organisation is relatively OK but some significant scope for improvement.
4. Some serious problems with the organisation of the body
5. Body almost entirely lacking a coherent structure

#### ***Rounding it off***

In providing a restatement, in stronger terms, of the primary findings, the concluding section is

1. extremely effective and extremely well composed
2. generally effective
3. OK but could be strengthened
4. generally ineffective
5. doesn't work at all (or not present)

#### ***Referencing***

1. Good
2. Just a few changes required
3. Some major problems
4. Entirely inadequate

#### **e) Style and Expression**

##### ***Academic style***

1. Fine
2. Generally OK, with just a few inappropriate choices or minor slip ups
3. OK overall, but some relatively serious problems
4. Major problems with style

##### ***Expression***

1. Fine
2. Generally OK, with just a few inappropriate choices or minor slip ups
3. OK overall, but some relatively serious problems
4. Major problems with style

## Appendix

(Statement by 'Steffi', from Birmingham *Evening Mail* - 20 Sept 2000, page. 8

"WHEN I was growing up with my mum and dad at home," says Steffi, "I used to hear the rows. My dad and mum are married and we lived with her son and daughter by another chap not married to her.

"They're older than me and living with partners now. They have a baby each and more on the way. My half-brother's girlfriend doesn't work because she didn't like him spending so much time away from her. So he had to give up his job to stay at home with her.

"My half-sister's bloke works in town somewhere though and I spend a lot of time with her and the baby.

"I went to four primary schools when I was a kid because we were always sort of moving. I don't know why we changed houses so often but it meant different schools. One was great though, there was a smashing teacher always there for us and I really missed her later on.

"When I got to comprehensive, the trouble started. I got in with the wrong crowd and I was worried about my mum and dad. Not that they were fighting much but because mum seemed to hate my friends.

"She'd tell them I was grounded at home when I wasn't. That's when I started to play up. I found I could make other kids laugh by standing up in class and getting my friends to chase me round. Some teachers couldn't cope - you can always pick out those who get rattled when you disrupt lessons - and this encouraged me, I suppose.

"I was always in detention because I wouldn't do my homework and then, after getting into lots of trouble for playing up, I was suspended for swearing.

"That lasted four days and I quite enjoyed the break.

"What really got me excluded was when a teacher shouted at me near the school gate, when I wasn't on school premises and I swore at him.

"My dad went mad at the school because he thought they should have got upset with the other kids I was with that day. He backed me and said he'd go and give them a mouthful.

"He did, but it didn't go too well for him.

"Before this, my parents had split up and dad said I had to live with my mum. But I don't like her much. Well, that's not quite right, I like her at times but I prefer my dad.

"Once she and I had a row - this was after dad had left - and she said that she'd like to put me into care because she couldn't cope.

Daddy's girl

"I ran out of the house and went to my dad. Only went back to get my clothes and stuff. I see her now but we don't talk much. I'd hate dad to get back with her because I'm a daddy's girl.

"Living with him is great. I can sort of get him to stick up for me. He's not worked for 18 months.

"What I want is for dad and me to be together, for teachers to leave me alone.

"I never want any kids of my own because they always lead to rows and fights and I'm happy with my soaps and my videos. Sometimes I'm happy but something always goes wrong for me and the happiness goes."

## Referencing Guide

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APA (American Psychological Association) and Cambridge are the preferred styles of referencing for Applied Linguistics. APA is the most commonly used style to cite sources within the social sciences, and is described in detail below. This guide has been taken from the Online Writing Lab at Purdue University (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>) which has been revised according to the 5th edition of the APA manual. It offers examples for the general format of APA in-text citations and the reference page. Refer also to [www.adelaide.edu.au/library/guide/#gen](http://www.adelaide.edu.au/library/guide/#gen) for the Adelaide University Library referencing guide.

When using APA format, follow the author-date method of in-text citation. This means that the author's last name and the year of publication for the source should appear in the text, E.g., (Jones, 1998), and a complete reference should appear in the reference list at the end of the paper.

If you are referring to an idea from another work but NOT directly quoting the material, or making reference to an entire book, article or other work, you only have to make reference to the author and year of publication in your in-text reference.

### 1. Short Quotations

If you are directly quoting from a work, you will need to include the author, year of publication, and the page number for the reference (preceded by "p."). Introduce the quotation with a signal phrase that includes the author's last name followed by the date of publication in parentheses.

According to Jones (1998), "Students often had difficulty using APA style, especially when it was their first time" (p. 199).

Jones (1998) found "students often had difficulty using APA style" (p. 199); what implications does this have for teachers?

If the author is not named in a signal phrase, place the author's last name, the year of publication, and the page number in parentheses after the quotation.

She stated, "Students often had difficulty using APA style," (Jones, 1998, p. 199), but she did not offer an explanation as to why.

### 2. Long Quotations

Place direct quotations longer than 40 words in a free-standing block of typewritten lines, and omit quotation marks. Start the quotation on a new line, indented five spaces from the left margin. Type the entire quotation on the new margin, and indent the first line of any subsequent paragraph within the quotation five spaces from the new margin. Maintain double-spacing throughout. The parenthetical citation should come after closing punctuation mark.

Jones's (1998) study found the following:

Students often had difficulty using APA style, especially when it was their first time citing sources. This difficulty could be attributed to the fact that many students failed to purchase a style manual or to ask their teacher for help. (p. 199)

### 3. Summary or Paraphrase

If you are paraphrasing an idea from another work, you only have to make reference to the author and year of publication in your in-text reference, but APA guidelines encourage you to also provide the page number (although it is not required.)

According to Jones (1998), APA style is a difficult citation format for first-time learners.

or

APA style is a difficult citation format for first-time learners (Jones, 1998, p. 199).

### 4. Citing an Author or Authors

#### *A Work by Two Authors*

Name both authors in the signal phrase or in the parentheses each time you cite the work. Use the word "and" between the authors' names within the text and use "&" in the parentheses.

Research by Wegener and Petty (1994) showed...

or

(Wegener & Petty, 1994)

#### *A Work by Three to Five Authors*

List all the authors in the signal phrase or in parentheses the first time you cite the source.

(Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993)

In subsequent citations, only use the first author's last name followed by "et al." in the signal phrase or in parentheses.

(Kernis et al., 1993)

In et al. et should NOT be followed by a full stop.

#### *Six or More Authors*

Use the first author's name followed by et al. in the signal phrase or in parentheses.

Harris et al. (2001) argued...

(Harris et al., 2001)

#### *Organization as an Author*

If the author is an organization or a government agency, mention the organization in the signal phrase or in the parenthetical citation the first time you cite the source.

According to the American Psychological Association (2000),...

If the organization has a well-known abbreviation, include the abbreviation in brackets the first time the source is cited and then use only the abbreviation in later citations.

First citation: (Mothers Against Drunk Driving [MADD], 2000)

Second citation: (MADD, 2000)

### *Two or More Works in the Same Parentheses*

When your parenthetical citation includes two or more works, order them the same way they appear in the reference list, separated by a semi-colon.

(Berndt, 2002; Harlow, 1983)

### *Authors With the Same Last Name*

To prevent confusion, use first initials with the last names.

(E. Johnson, 2001; L. Johnson, 1998)

### *Two or More Works by the Same Author in the Same Year*

If you have two sources by the same author in the same year, use lower-case letters (a, b, c) with the year to order the entries in the reference list. Use the lower-case letters with the year in the in-text citation.

Research by Berndt (1981a) illustrated that...

## **5. Citing Indirect Sources**

If you use a source that was cited in another source, name the original source in your signal phrase. List the secondary source in your reference list and include the secondary source in the parentheses.

Johnson argued that...(as cited in Smith, 2003, p.102).

## **6. Citing Electronic Sources**

If possible, cite an electronic document the same as any other document by using the author-date style.

Kenneth (2000) explained...

When an electronic source lacks page numbers, you should try to include information that will help readers find the passage being cited. When an electronic document has numbered paragraphs, use the abbreviation "para." followed by the paragraph number (Hall, 2001, para. 5). Note that in many electronic sources, like Web pages, people can use the Find function in their browser to locate any passages you cite.

According to Smith (1997), ... (Mind over Matter section, para. 6).

Note: Never use the page numbers of Web pages you print out; different computers print Web pages with different pagination

## 7. Reference List / Bibliography

Your reference list should appear at the end of your paper. It provides the information necessary for a reader to locate and retrieve any source you cite in the body of the paper. Each source you cite in the paper must appear in your reference list; likewise, each entry in the reference list must be cited in your text.

Your references should begin on a new page separate from the text of the essay; label this page References or Bibliography (with no quotation marks, underlining, etc.), centered at the top of the page. It should be double-spaced just like the rest of your essay.

### Basic Rules

- All lines after the first line of each entry in your reference list should be indented one-half inch from the left margin. This is called hanging indentation.
- Authors' names are inverted (last name first); give the last name and initials for all authors of a particular work unless the work has more than six authors. If the work has more than six authors, list the first six authors and then use et al. after the sixth author's name to indicate the rest of the authors.
- Reference list entries should be alphabetized by the last name of the first author of each work.
- If you have more than one article by the same author, single-author references or multiple-author references with the exact same authors in the exact same order are listed in order by the year of publication, starting with the earliest.
- When referring to any work that is NOT a journal, such as a book, article, or Web page, capitalize only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and proper nouns. Do not capitalize the first letter of the second word in a hyphenated compound word.
- Capitalize all major words in journal titles.
- Italicize titles of longer works such as books and journals.
- Do not italicize, underline, or put quotes around the titles of shorter works such as journal articles or essays in edited collections.

## 8. Referencing Articles in Journals and Periodicals

APA style dictates that authors are named last name followed by initials; publication year goes between parentheses, followed by a period. The title of the article is in sentence-case, meaning only the first word and proper nouns in the title are capitalized. The periodical title is run in title case, and is followed by the volume number which, with the title, is also italicized or underlined, and the issue number in parentheses when relevant (the issue number is not italicized).

Berndt, T. J. (2002). Friendship quality and social development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 11 (4), 7-10.

### *Two Authors*

List by their last names and initials. Use the "&" instead of "and."

Wegener, D. T., & Petty, R. E. (1994). Mood management across affective states: The hedonic contingency hypothesis. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 66, 1034-1048.

### *Three to Six Authors*

List by last names and initials; commas separate author names, while the last author name is preceded again by "&"

Kernis, M. H., Cornell, D. P., Sun, C. R., Berry, A., & Harlow, T. (1993). There's more to self-esteem than whether it is high or low: The importance of stability of self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 1190-1204.

### *More than Six Authors*

If there are more than six authors, list the first six as above and then "et al.," which stands for "and others." Remember not to place a period after "et" in "et al."

Harris, M., Karper, E., Stacks, G., Hoffman, D., DeNiro, R., Cruz, P., et al. (2001). Writing labs and the Hollywood connection. *Journal of Film and Writing*, 44(3), 213-245.

### *Article in a Magazine*

Henry, W. A. (1990, April 9). Making the grade in today's schools. *Time*, 135, 28-31.

### *Article in a Newspaper*

Unlike other periodicals, p. or pp. precedes page numbers for a newspaper reference in APA style. Single pages take p., e.g., p. 2; multiple pages take pp., e.g., pp. 5-6 or pp. 1, 3-4.

Schultz, S. (2005, December 28). Calls made to strengthen state energy policies. *The Country Today*, pp. 1-2.

### *Review*

Baumeister, R. F. (1993). Exposing the self-knowledge myth [Review of the book *The self-knower: A hero under control*]. *Contemporary Psychology*, 38, 466-467.

## 9. Referencing Books

The basic format for books is:

Author, A. A. (Year of publication). *Title of work: Capital letter also for subtitle*. Location: Publisher.

Note: For "Location," you should always list the city, but you should also include the state if the city is unfamiliar or if the city could be confused with one in another state. Such as:

Calfee, R. C., & Valencia, R. R. (1991). *APA guide to preparing manuscripts for journal publication*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

### *Edited Book, No Author*

Duncan, G.J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Consequences of growing up poor*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

### ***Edited Book with an Author or Authors***

Plath, S. (2000). *The unabridged journals* (K.V. Kukil, Ed.). New York: Anchor.

### ***A Translation***

Laplace, P. S. (1951). *A philosophical essay on probabilities*. (F. W. Truscott & F. L. Emory, Trans.). New York: Dover. (Original work published 1814).

Note: When you cite a republished work, like the one above, in your text, it should appear with both dates: Laplace (1814/1951).

### ***Edition Other Than the First***

Helper, M.E., Keme, R.S., & Drugman, R.D. (1997). *The battered child* (5th ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

### ***Article or Chapter in an Edited Book***

O'Neil, J. M., & Egan, J. (1992). Men's and women's gender role journeys: Metaphor for healing, transition, and transformation. In B. R. Wainrib (Ed.), *Gender issues across the life cycle* (pp. 107-123). New York: Springer.

Note: When you list the pages of the chapter or essay in parentheses after the book title, use "pp." before the numbers: (pp. 1-21). This abbreviation, however, does not appear before the page numbers in periodical references, except for newspapers.

### ***Multivolume Work***

Wiener, P. (Ed.). (1973). *Dictionary of the history of ideas* (Vols. 1-4). New York: Scribner's.

### ***Unknown Author***

*Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary* (10th ed.).(1993). Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.

Note: When your essay includes parenthetical citations of sources with no author named, use a shortened version of the source's title instead of an author's name. Use quotation marks and italics as appropriate. For example (*Merriam-Webster's*, 1993)

## **10. Referencing Other Print Sources**

### ***An Entry in an Encyclopedia***

Bergmann, P. G. (1993). Relativity. In *The new encyclopedia britannica* (Vol. 26, pp. 501-508). Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica.

### *Work Discussed in a Secondary Source*

List the source the work was discussed in:

Coltheart, M., Curtis, B., Atkins, P., & Haller, M. (1993). Models of reading aloud: Dual-route and parallel-distributed-processing approaches. *Psychological Review*, *100*, 589-608.

Note: Give the secondary source in the references list; in the text, name the original work, and give a citation for the secondary source. For example, if Seidenberg and McClelland's work is cited in Coltheart et al. and you did not read the original work, list the Coltheart et al. reference in the References. In the text, use the following citation:

In Seidenberg and McClelland's study (as cited in Coltheart, Curtis, Atkins, & Haller, 1993),

### *Dissertation*

Lucas, K. (2006). Language, identity and social practice: African students in the New Arrivals Program. Unpublished Thesis, University of Adelaide.

### *Government Document*

National Institute of Mental Health. (1990). *Clinical training in serious mental illness* (DHHS Publication No. ADM 90-1679). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

### *Report from a Private Organization*

American Psychiatric Association. (2000). *Practice guidelines for the treatment of patients with eating disorders* (2nd ed.). Washington, D.C.: Author.

### *Conference Proceedings*

Schnase, J.L., & Cunnius, E.L. (Eds.). (1995). Proceedings from CSCL '95: *The First International Conference on Computer Support for Collaborative Learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

## 11. Referencing Electronic Sources

### *Article from an Online Periodical*

Online articles follow the same guidelines for printed articles. Include all information the online host makes available, including an issue number in parentheses.

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Date of publication). Title of article. *Title of Online Periodical*, volume number(issue number if available). Retrieved month day, year, from <http://www.someaddress.com/full/url/>

For example:

Bernstein, M. (2002). 10 tips on writing the living Web. *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*, 149. Retrieved May 2, 2006, from <http://www.alistapart.com/articles/writeliving>

### ***Online Scholarly Journal Article***

Kenneth, I. A. (2000). A Buddhist response to the nature of human rights. *Journal of Buddhist Ethics*, 8. Retrieved February 20, 2001, from <http://www.cac.psu.edu/jbe/twocont.html>

If the article appears as a printed version as well, the URL is not required. Use "Electronic version" in brackets after the article's title.

Whitmeyer, J.M. (2000). Power through appointment [Electronic version]. *Social Science Research*, 29, 535-555.

### ***Article from a Database***

When referencing material obtained from an online database (such as a database in the library), provide appropriate print citation information (formatted just like a "normal" print citation would be for that type of work). Then add information that gives the date of retrieval and the proper name of the database. This will allow people to retrieve the print version if they do not have access to the database from which you retrieved the article. You can also include the item number or accession number in parentheses at the end, but the APA manual says that this is not required. (For more about citing articles retrieved from electronic databases, see page 278 of the Publication Manual.)

Smyth, A. M., Parker, A. L., & Pease, D. L. (2002). A study of enjoyment of peas. *Journal of Abnormal Eating*, 8(3). Retrieved February 20, 2003, from PsycARTICLES database.

### ***Nonperiodical Web Document, Web Page, or Report***

List as much of the following information as possible (you sometimes have to hunt around to find the information; don't be lazy. If there is a page like <http://www.somesite.com/somepage.htm>, and [somepage.htm](http://www.somesite.com/somepage.htm) doesn't have the information you're looking for, move up the URL to <http://www.somesite.com/>):

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Date of publication). *Title of document*. Retrieved month day, year, from <http://Web address>.

Note: When an Internet document is more than one Web page, provide a URL that links to the home page or entry page for the document. Also, if there isn't a date available for the document use (n.d.) for no date.

### ***Chapter or Section of a Web document***

Engelshcall, R. S. (1997). Module mod\_rewrite: URL Rewriting Engine. In *Apache HTTP Server Version 1.3 Documentation* (Apache modules.) Retrieved March 10, 2006, from [http://httpd.apache.org/docs/1.3/mod/mod\\_rewrite.html](http://httpd.apache.org/docs/1.3/mod/mod_rewrite.html)

### *Online Forum or Discussion Board Posting*

Message posted to an online newsgroup, forum, or discussion group. Include the title of the message, and the URL of the newsgroup or discussion board.

Frook, B. D. (1999, July 23). New inventions in the cyberworld of toylandia [Msg 25]. Message posted to <http://groups.earthlink.com/forum/messages/00025.html>

Note: If only the screen name is available for the author, then use the screen name; however, if the author provides a real name, use their real name instead. Be sure to provide the exact date of the posting

## Occupational Health & Safety (OH&S) information

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As a student in the School of Humanities we would like to inform you of the current OH&S practices within the university to ensure your safety and that of others. It is in your interest to read the information carefully.

### Evacuation Procedures

There are two types of alarms systems used in the university, as follows:

When Alert Signal Sounds (Beep...Beep...)	When Evacuation Signal Sounds (Whoop...Whoop...)
<p><b>If In No Immediate Danger DO NOT EVACUATE!</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cease inter/across floor movement.</li><li>• Secure classified material (if applicable).</li><li>• Await further instructions via the PA or from the Warden.</li></ul>	<p><b>DO NOT USE LIFTS!</b> Evacuate safely.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Proceed via the safest route to the Assembly Area.</li><li>• Follow the directions of the Warden(s).</li><li>• Do not re-enter the building until instructed to do so by persons in authority.</li></ul>

### Evacuation Procedures posters

You will notice that 'Evacuation Procedures' posters are prominently displayed in all foyer areas in all buildings in the university. The posters include the **designated evacuation area** - you must proceed to this area when you hear the evacuation signal and follow the instructions of Fire Wardens.

### First Aid

#### Emergency Only

For a high-level **medical emergency**, phone **8303 5444** (extension **35444**).

#### First Aid assistance

The School has a number of First Aid Officers that are available to assist you. Please phone **8303 4249** (extension **34249**) and ask to speak to a **First Aid Officer**. First Aid kits are located in the School Office on Level 7 Napier building or in Room 713 of the Hughes building.

### Accident and Incident Reporting

If you are involved in an accident or a near-miss incident whilst on campus it needs to be reported – preferably within 48 hours. Your cooperation is necessary in the reporting of all potential hazards, accidents and near-miss incidents to ensure that the university maintains a high standard of safety. The '**Accident & Incident Reporting**' form is available from the: **School of Humanities Office, Level 7 Napier Building** or from the Health & Safety Officer in Hughes 714.

### Reporting Property Damage

Please report all property damage that is potentially hazardous to **Security**, phone **8303 5990** (extension **35990**).

The information in this handbook was correct at time of publication.