School of Government

Essay, Tutorial and Referencing Guide

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1. Introduction: what is an essay?

The major form of assessment in undergraduate social science and humanities units is the essay. In broader terms, clear written communication is a skill well worth developing. Accordingly, this essay guide aims to present basic tips and guidelines for preparing undergraduate essays.

What is an essay? Definitions vary, but essentially an essay is a written piece of work that presents a structured and coherent ***argument*** to answer a question or set of questions. These questions will generally be set by your lecturer, along with a reading list of relevant sources available from the library. Evidence of further reading and research beyond the set reading list will impress the reader and can ultimately boost your grade.

When writing an essay for the School of Government you are expected to show mastery in a relevant topic area by using theories, opinions, ideas and past research findings to deliver a well-justified argument. This means that essays in Government must be ***analytical*** rather than descriptive.

It is imperative, when writing your essay, that you ***answer the essay question.*** To do this you must be clear on what the question requires (that is, what the question is really asking). If you are not entirely clear, consult your tutor or lecturer. Remember that essays that do not answer the question will probably receive a failing grade. Moreover, those parts of your essay that do **not** ***clearly and explicitly answer the question,*** or at least establish the grounds for doing so, are wasted space.

There are no ‘correct’ essays in the social sciences. Instead, an effective essay displays skill in analysing the relevant literature and in fashioning a well thought through argument that answers the essay question. It is not enough to passively summarise the work of other writers. You must ***critically analyse*** the material and bring the elements of the argument together for an explicit purpose. Thus, there must be evidence of your intellectual input in the essay. Being critical can mean different things: if, for instance, you are examining an issue pertaining to the politics of specific countries or peoples, you are expected to be critical in determining whether the evidence justifies conclusions that have been drawn about it. On the other hand, if you are studying political ideas, you are expected to question the most basic assumptions that are derived from those ideas. It is not sufficient merely to recite the views of others or to make assertions that lack accompanying evidence and reasoning. The marker is primarily interested in how well you bring together evidence, data and reasoned argument to establish a case. A definition of an essay argument in these terms is a series of generalisations and propositions, supported by evidence or reasoning, and connected in a logical manner that leads to a justified conclusion.

The whole essay, then, should have one task: to present a coherent answer to the question in the form of a clearly demonstrated argument. Coherence in essays means that all of the parts of the essay are logically connected to the central argument. This concept of coherence is closely related to the notion of ‘essay structure’. In this sense, coherence is essentially a structural concept. All parts of the essay should clearly and *explicitly* contribute to building the central argument developed in the essay. Markers will quickly notice any material in the essay that does not contribute directly to your central argument and may penalise you for wasting space.

A good way to think about coherence in essay structure is to imagine your essay argument as the backbone of a dinosaur. The backbone (argument) is the central structural feature of the essay. All parts of the skeleton (essay) are clearly and directly related to the backbone (central argument). Thus, when reading your essay, markers will expect to find all parts of the essay clearly and explicitly related to the central argument of the essay. Mediocre essays, almost invariably, have little explicit structure; the various bits of the essay are not logically related; the essay rambles on in an ad hoc and confusing way; and it is usually tedious to read because the writer is only describing the subject material rather than making a clear case of his/her own.

The only way to present a clear argument, and the only way to be able to present an essay that is explicitly structured around a central argument, is to have a clear view in your own mind of what the essay *as a whole* is trying to argue. Try to see the forest and not just the trees in assessing exactly what argument you are trying to demonstrate in relation to the essay question.

2. Analysing the question

A common problem in undergraduate essays is an inadequate understanding of what the topic or question requires you to do. Before starting any essay it is vital to spend some time identifying exactly what needs to be achieved in order to answer the question. Ask yourself what relationship the question has to the topic. Try to identify key words and concepts in the question as a guide to what is required. In fact, essay topics often ask you to do different things: to compare, evaluate, analyse, contrast and discuss. The following list can serve as a general guide to what type of answer is required according to the key word that appears in the question. Remember, though, that you still need to construct an argument that is substantiated and has a clear and logical structure in order to answer the question.

Compare requires you to examine characteristics of objects in question to determine their similarities and differences.

Contrast requires you to examine the characteristics of objects in order to demonstrate their differences.

Analyse requires you to consider various components/factors of an issue and explain the relationships between them.

Discuss requires you to present different aspects/interpretations of a question and problem.

Evaluate requires you to examine various sides of a question/debate in order to reach a judgment of your own.

3. The components of an essay

Once you have identified what the question requires, and have done some research, it is time to start thinking about how to order your response. Think of essays as composed of building blocks ordered in a logical structure. They have a beginning, an end and a body. If you prefer, you can use headings and subheadings as markers to signify the components of your essay.

This is not mandatory since some people write well without using them. To some extent, whether or not you use headings will depend on the context and purpose of your essay. As a rule, though, it is useful to keep the following in mind.

Introduction

An ***introduction*** prepares the reader for what is to follow. Be concise and informative, and limit contextual material to issues/factors that are specifically linked to your response. Try to summarise your overall argument, and indicate briefly how you plan to demonstrate your case. Thus, if you are adopting a particular interpretation to the question, say so, and defend or explain your choice of approach to the reader/marker. It is important in this sense to explain what you are doing (or what you think you are doing) at key points in the essay. A clear introduction might look like this:

> This essay will firstly outline Smith's theory of regulatory administration. This will then be applied to aspects of administrative practice in Tasmania, particularly in the area of land use planning. Following this, the third major part of the essay will argue that Smith's theory cannot explain all aspects of regulatory behaviour in relation to land use practices in Tasmania . . .

Notice that this introduction tells the reader what the essay is about and how it will unfold. Thus, the bare skeleton of the essay is sketched and the rest of the essay adds the 'meat'. Introductions are usually written in the future tense, that is, 'This essay will argue . . . '. Phrases such as 'This essay will argue . . . ' or 'The purpose of this essay . . . ' are appropriate for introductions. Writing a clear introduction is also a useful exercise because it forces you to directly confront what argument/s your essay will present.

Body

The ***body*** of the essay is where you make your argument and show why it should be viewed as a persuasive answer to the question. The body represents a coherent treatment of the topic as stated in the introduction and consists of a series of major paragraphs/sections that develop in a logical sequence. Support your arguments with evidence that might include data/statistics, opinions, references and reasoning.

Imagine you are asked to write an essay answering the following question: 'To what extent has economic rationalism shaped Australian economic policy in the last decade?'. To structure an essay that builds an argument in response to this question, you may want to use sections and an essay structure such as the following.

1. Introduction
2. What is economic rationalism?
3. Australian economic policy in the 1980s and 1990s: how rationalist?
4. The consequences of Australian economic rationalism
5. Conclusion

In this kind of essay structure it is quite logical to have a short section after the introduction that unpacks the concept of economic rationalism and highlights key arguments you intend to make. After that, the essay argument is built in the next two sections: one that assesses how prevalent economic rationalism has been in Australian economic policy; the other arguing whether its contribution has been good or bad. Note the way these essay sections are logically related; the way they unfold through the essay; and the way, particularly, in sections 3 and 4, that the meat of the essay argument is generated: an argument that provides a clear answer to the question.

Throughout the main body of your essay you should use ***signposts*** to add clarity and help the reader understand more clearly what you are attempting to do. If you look at essays produced in scholarly journals you will see that most have an explicit structure, whether or not they use subheads. You should also use ‘signpost sentences’ at key turning points in the essay. For example: ‘The essay has so far set out the theory of XYZ, but now it is time to see whether this theory can help to explain why ABC occurred’. In this sentence you are telling the reader what you have just done and what you intend to do. Particularly in less carefully constructed essays, such ‘glimmers of clarity’ can help the marker understand what you might be trying to achieve.

Conclusion

The ***conclusion*** briefly restates the key argument(s) or themes and their implications. Try to show how your analysis has allowed you to make specific conclusions about the topic.

4. Questions of style

Essays should be written in correct English prose, with due regard to spelling, grammar and punctuation.

You should endeavour to be *precise* in your expression. Your meaning should be clearly and explicitly set out. It is not the marker’s role to guess the point you are trying to make. You should also aim to be *concise* in your expression. Stick to the point, and avoid unnecessary detail, superfluous words and long descriptions. Many students’ essays could easily be edited down to two-thirds of their original length. Padding will not impress your marker.

Paragraphs should be constructed on the basis of content, with each one being a logical unit. All the sentences in a paragraph should relate to the same purpose. Avoid using single sentence paragraphs.

5. What to avoid

- *Note form* (such as this section) is unacceptable in essays. Numbering of points is acceptable in some other forms of written expression (such as some reports in the public service, or this guide) but it is not appropriate in formal essays.
- Do not use *contracted words* such as ‘can’t’ and ‘don’t’.
- Avoid unnecessary *qualifiers* and *intensifiers.* That is, do not unnecessarily preface statements with expression such as ‘very’, ‘mostly’, ‘it seems’, ‘frequently’, ‘quite’, ‘it is obvious that’, ‘somewhat’, ‘perhaps’ and so on.
- Phrases such as ‘I feel . . . ’ and ‘in my opinion . . . ’ are unnecessary.
- Do not use *abbreviations* such as ‘Tas.’, ‘Govt’, ‘etc.’, ‘i.e.’ or ‘&’.
- Do not begin or finish with a quote.
- Avoid *lengthy quotes.* They invariably raise new questions that need to be resolved (remember that if you introduce material you need to substantiate it); they detract from the consistency and coherence of your argument; and they can lead the reader to suspect that you are relying on the words of others to make your point.

- Take care to note the differences between homonyms (words that sound the same but are spelled differently and have different meanings); for instance: their, there and they're; to, too and two; and the most common one: it's and its. 'It's' is the contraction of 'it is' (the latter form should be used) and 'its' is a pronoun.
- Try to avoid *bias* in your essay. Bias refers to prejudices or preconceptions that distort your capacity to examine and assess material in an objective manner. Using only writers who agree with your own perspective, ignoring or suppressing contradictory views and/or data, and presenting dogmatic views or opinions without substantiating them all qualify as bias.
- Do not use *slang, clichés* or *colloquialisms* in essays.
- Avoid *metaphors, journalistic prose* and *poetry.* An essay is not an invitation to engage in creative writing. Rather, it is an explicit test of your ability to argue and analyse the subject material.
- Try to avoid emotional prose and waffle. Most of your examiners may well be appalled that 'thousands of women and children were crying as the sun rose over Darfur', but such references probably do not help you to demonstrate your case in as objective a manner as possible.
- Do not use sources that are only tangentially related to the subject material. Unless you are studying a subject on religion and politics, or literature and politics, it is rare that the Bible, Koran or Talmud will be a useful reference in a Government essay. Likewise, Shakespeare and Orwell are usually regarded as having limited relevance in the field.
- Avoid using *dictionaries* for definitions of terms that have specific meanings in the literature. For instance, you are unlikely to find the *Oxford English Dictionary* useful for defining 'security'.
- Remember that *encyclopedias* are not scholarly sources and should not be cited.
- *Acronyms* for organisations (for example, UN, NATO, APEC, ABC, ACTU, OPEC) are acceptable. In the first reference to an organisation, the acronym should be expanded in parentheses after the full name. In subsequent references the acronym is sufficient. Acronyms should be in uppercase with no full stops.

6. Gender-neutral and non-racist language

Avoid unnecessary use of gender-specific language.

- Do not use 'man' in a generic sense to refer to male and female human beings. Some alternatives are 'men and women,' 'person(s),' 'humankind,' 'people' and 'individuals.'
- Try to avoid words and phrases in which 'man' is used as a prefix or a suffix. For example, instead of 'manpower', use 'labour,' 'staff,' 'workforce' or 'human resources.' Instead of 'layman', use 'layperson,' 'layman/laywoman,' 'non-expert,' 'non-professional' or 'non-specialist.'
- Avoid the use of 'man' as a verb. For example, instead of writing 'to man the desk,' you could write 'to staff the desk'.
- Avoid the use of sex-specific pronouns ('he/him/her') as generic pronouns. For example, instead of using 'he,' use 'he/she,' 'she/he' or 'he or she.' In many instances, it is possible to recast the sentence in the plural (so that a generic pronoun such as 'they' can be used), or to use 'you' or 'one' as the pronoun. It may be possible to eliminate the pronoun altogether.

It is equally unacceptable to use terms that are discriminatory or prejudicial to ethnic or racial groups:

- Avoid the pejorative use of words such as ‘Asians’, ‘blacks’ or ‘ethnics’. Instead use the term ‘ethnic minority’ or ‘racial minority’.
- When referring to Australia’s indigenous peoples the terms Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders should be used. It is best to avoid using the terms ‘Murri’ or ‘Koori’ because regional and community specificities are too complex.
- ‘Non-English–speaking background’ is used generally to denote someone whose cultural background is derived from a non-English–speaking tradition, or whose first language is not English.

7. Academic referencing

In your written work, you will need to support your ideas by referring to scholarly literature, works of art and/or inventions. It is important that you understand how to correctly refer to the work of others and maintain academic integrity.

Failure to appropriately acknowledge the ideas of others constitutes academic dishonesty (plagiarism), a matter considered by the University of Tasmania as a serious offence. Some basic requirements for scholarly referencing are:

- When directly quoting from another author’s work, the relevant passages must be indicated by the use of quotation marks, or another acceptable method such as indentation of the quoted passage.

- The exact source and page numbers of the material directly quoted *or* paraphrased must be indicated by citation in the assignment text or by footnote (depending on the referencing method used).

- Complete bibliographic details must be provided in an alphabetical reference list attached to the back of the assignment.

Many students have difficulties with the rules regarding the citation of materials. ***The general rule is that all ideas and groups of words that you obtain from other sources must be acknowledged.*** *Quotations must be placed in quotation marks (unless they are set off as block quotations), and the source referenced.* Where you have obtained an idea, fact or opinion from another source, but have expressed it in your own words [paraphrased], this must also be clearly acknowledged with an appropriate and accurate citation or reference.

If in doubt about the appropriate use of references, err on the side of too many rather than too few. Although it is impossible to generalise about the appropriate number, it would not be unusual for a 2,000-word essay to have 20 references or more.

The purpose of these rules is to enable the reader to distinguish easily between your own words and ideas and those that you have obtained from other sources. It also enables the reader to refer to the original source to check whether you have accurately conveyed the writer’s meaning.

Some paraphrasing is inevitable, but should be kept to an absolute minimum and meticulously cited. Again, paraphrased or summarised material from another source that is not acknowledged constitutes plagiarism and is a serious academic offence (see the section on Plagiarism for details).

For further information on presentation of assignments, including referencing methods, see: www.utas.edu.au/library/assist/gpoa/gpoa.html

Please read the statement on plagiarism. Should you require further clarification, please see your tutor or the unit coordinator.

8. Quotations

Short quotations should be incorporated into the body of your essay and enclosed in quotation marks: ‘In the second half of the nineteenth century Australia became a political democracy.’

Long quotations should begin on a new line and should be indented. The School of Government’s style is that quotations three lines or longer qualify as long quotes. That is, the whole quotation should be set off four spaces from the left marginal line. Be careful not to overuse lengthy quotations because they detract from the coherence and originality of your argument (see the section What to avoid). *Essays should not be a collection of quotations strung together with some of your own words in between.* You should not use quotations just to avoid having to think of your own wording. That is, you cannot expect the quotation to ‘do the talking for you’. Indented quotations should not be enclosed in quotation marks and should be single-spaced. An example of an indented quote is as follows:

> In the second half of the nineteenth century Australia became a political democracy. The institutional basis was laid between 1850 and 1858, when the main points of the constitutional program of English radicalism were put into effect in Australia.

Remember that quotations are appropriate only:
- When the writer has made a particularly important (or controversial) idea or claim;
- When the exact meaning of the original source would be lost if the precise form of wording were altered;
- When you wish to give added authority to the writer’s conclusions by using his/her own words; or
- If you wish to criticise a writer’s views, and you think you should set them out exactly to prove that they really are the writer’s views.

Generally, quotations must be *absolutely accurate* reproductions of the original wording, punctuation and spelling. Omissions from the original should be indicated by three dots [. . .]. Alterations or interpolations to the original must be enclosed in square brackets []. In neither case should you alter the writer’s meaning.

If the original text contains a factual, grammatical or spelling error, the word ‘[sic]’ (Latin for ‘so’ or ‘thus’) in square brackets may be placed after the error to indicate that the error was in the original text. You may emphasise words that were not emphasised in the original quotation by italicising them. You must, however, indicate that you, not the original, were the source of the emphasis; for example, by writing ‘emphasis mine’ in square brackets immediately after the italicised words (or in a footnote) like this: ‘[emphasis mine]’. You must not misrepresent or alter the author's intention by *quoting selectively.*

9. Plagiarism

Plagiarism is a form of cheating. It is taking and using someone else's thoughts, writings or inventions and representing them as your own, for example:

- using an author's words without putting them in quotation marks and citing the source;
- using an author's ideas without proper acknowledgment and citation; or
- copying another student's work.

If you have any doubts about how to refer to the work of others in your assignments, please consult your lecturer or tutor for relevant referencing guidelines, and the academic integrity resources on the web at http://www.utas.edu.au/tl/supporting/academicintegrity/index.html

The intentional copying of someone else's work as one's own is a serious offence punishable by penalties that may range from a fine or deduction/cancellation of marks and, in the most serious of cases, to exclusion from a unit, a course or the University. Details of penalties that can be imposed are available in the Ordinance of Student Discipline – Part 3 Academic Misconduct, see http://www.utas.edu.au/universitycouncil/legislation

The University and any persons authorised by the University may submit your assessable works to a plagiarism checking service, to obtain a report on possible instances of plagiarism. Assessable works may also be included in a reference database. It is a condition of this arrangement that the original author's permission is required before a work within the database can be viewed.

The following section (How to reference) outlines the School of Government's requirements for referencing.

10. How to reference: Chicago and Harvard styles

Many styles of referencing exist, and each university department and journal will expect you to use a particular style. The School of Government accepts the use of either the **Chicago** (footnote) method, as described by the *Chicago Manual of Style,* or the **Harvard** (author–date) system. In this essay guide we provide you with versions of these styles that fit the types of documentation you are likely to use in assignments for political science, international relations, public policy and police studies. No matter which style you follow, it is important to be consistent.

Chicago and Harvard are two common conventions for providing information to the reader about sources of quotation and other data. The Chicago system is the note–bibliography (sometimes called the documentary–note or footnote) system; Harvard is the author–date system. The Chicago system is detailed in the *Chicago Manual of Style.* The Harvard system is a general one with many variations. Many organisations in Australia have adopted the *Style manual: for authors, editors and printers* for publications; and the *Style manual* includes detailed information on the Harvard style. The University of Tasmania Library (http://www.utas.edu.au/library/assist/gpoa/gpoa.html) also sets out conventions for the

Harvard system. The *Chicago Manual of Style* recommends the note–bibliography system for those in literature, history and the arts and the author–date system for those in the physical, natural and social sciences.

The Chicago system provides bibliographic information as notes, usually supplemented by a bibliography. The Harvard, or author–date, system cites sources within the text in parentheses: last name, date and page number. Each in-text citation 'points to' fuller information in the references.

Chicago style

Notes

References are made in footnotes, which should be at the bottom of the page on which the ***idea*** or quotation has been used. Footnotes should be numbered consecutively throughout the essay. Generally footnotes are preferred but, in exceptional circumstances (for example, where you have data in tables that you wish to present or have a word processor program that is not designed to produce footnotes), you may be allowed to use endnotes (that is, references numbered consecutively and placed at the end of the text). You must, however, consult your tutor or lecturer first. The style of presentation is the same for both footnotes and endnotes.

The first time a work is mentioned in a footnote, the entry should be in complete form. Once a work has been cited in full, subsequent references to it should be in abbreviated form. Following are some examples of the most common forms of reference you are likely to encounter. For more information, consult the latest edition of the *Chicago Manual of Style* (at the time of writing this was the 15th edition). Note that the *Chicago Manual of Style* shows North American conventions such as punctuation within quotation marks and double quotation marks. You may want to refer to the *Style manual* for Australian conventions.

Books

The ***first time you cite a book*** in a reference the footnote should look like this:

> 1. Jon Simons, *Foucault and the Political* (London: Routledge, 1995), 10.
> 2. Leslie Stephen, *History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,* 2 vols. (New York: Harcourt, 1963) 2: 156.
> 3. Michel Foucault, *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison,* trans. Alan Sheridan (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1979), 26.

It must include, in the following order:

1. Name of the author(s) (first name/initial, followed by surname);
2. Full title of the book (in italics, or underlined if handwritten);
3. Name of editor, compiler or translator, if any;
4. Name of author of preface, introduction or foreword, if any (if these are of particular significance);
5. Number of the edition if other than the first;
6. Total number of volumes, if more than one is referenced;
7. Facts of publication, comprising
    * the place of publication;
    * the name of the publisher;
    * the date of publication;

8. Volume number, if any; and
9. Page number or numbers of specific citation; and
10. URL for Internet sources; for other electronic sources, include the medium consulted (DVD, CD-ROM).

Journal articles

When referring to a journal article for the first time, the following form should be used:

> 4. M. Dodgson, 'Research and technology policy in Australia: legitimacy in intervention', *Science and Public Policy* 16, no. 3 (June 1989): 159.

It must include, in the following order:

1. Name of the author(s);
2. Title of the article (in inverted commas);
3. Name of the journal (in italics, or underlined if handwritten);
4. Volume number of the journal;
5. Number of the journal;
6. Date of volume or issue;
7. Page number of the citation.

Chapters or articles in edited collections

When citing an article/chapter from an edited collection for the first time use the following form:

> 5. M. Beresford and P. Kerr, 'A Turning Point for Australian Capitalism: 1942–52', in *Essays in the Political Economy of Australian Capitalism,* ed. E. L. Wheelwright and K. Buckley, 149 (Sydney: Australia and New Zealand Book Company, 1983) .

Note: In Chicago style, 'edited by' is usually abbreviated 'ed.' regardless of the number of editors; see *CMS* 16.100. For single author books, page numbers are placed at the end; see *CMS* 17.68, but for multi-author books, page numbers are placed as in this example; *CMS* 17.69. In contrast the Harvard style (*Style manual*) shows 'ed.' for one editor and 'eds' for more than one editor; note that 'ed.' takes a full stop and 'eds' does not as it includes the final letter (see the *Style manual,* p. 195).

Subsequent references to works already cited

When a work has been cited in complete form, second or later references to it are made in shortened form. When the references to the same work follow each other without any intervening reference, even though several pages may separate the references, you may use the abbreviation 'ibid.' (meaning 'in the same place'). For example the second immediate reference to:

> 6. Jon Simons, *Foucault and the Political* (London: Routledge, 1995), 9.
>
> would be:
>
> 7. Ibid. (for a reference to the same page) or
>
> 7. Simons, *Foucault and the Political,* 29. (for reference to a different page)

Reference to a work that has already been cited in full but not in the reference immediately preceding is made using the following shortened form: Author, shortened title, page number(s). For example, a shortened form of:

8. Michel Foucault, *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison,* trans. Alan Sheridan (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1979), 26–33.

would be:

8. Foucault, *Discipline and Punish,* 26–33.

For an article/chapter, the following short form is sufficient:

9. Beresford and Kerr, 'A Turning Point', 156.

Secondary sources

When citing the work of one author as found in that of another, both the work in which the reference was found (secondary source) and the title of the work mentioned therein should be given (*CMS* 17.274). For example:

10. Paul Patton, 'Taylor and Foucault on Power and Freedom', *Political Studies* 37 (1989): 261, quoted in Jon Simons, *Foucault and the Political* (London: Routledge, 1995), 79.

Dictionary and encyclopedia references

These should be avoided (see the section on What to avoid), but are cited thus:

11. *The Penguin Macquarie Dictionary of Australian Politics***,** 15th ed., s.v. 'ecology'.
12. *Encyclopedia Americana,* 14th ed., s.v. 'cricket.'

Note that s.v. stands for *sub verbo* or 'under the word' (*CMS* 17.238).

Newspaper articles

These are cited in two ways based on whether the author's name is given. (See *CMS* 17.195 and 8.180 for more information.)

13. *Mercury,* 16 July 1994.
14. F. Carruthers, 'Gibbs opposes Bill of Rights', *Australian,* 19 July 1993: 3.

Notice that the definite article 'the' is omitted from the title of the newspaper; articles such as 'Le' may be used when referring to foreign newspapers such as *Le Monde*).

Note also that it is not necessary to use 'p.' or 'pp.' to denote page numbers in a newspaper. *Editions* or *sections* may also be indicated (see *CMS* 17.188). So, for example:

15. Q. White-Dull, 'Senate Reform on the Agenda', *Washington Post,* 2004, sec. 1A, 4.

Unpublished sources

Sources such as a paper given at a conference or an unpublished university thesis should be cited thus:

16. J. Bell and A. Aird, ‘Science Policy in Practice’ (paper presented to the Science and Society Conference, Australian National University, 7–9 June 1989).

17. R. J. K. Chapman, ‘Political Administrative Relationships’ (Ph.D. diss, University of Tasmania, 1974), 14.

Electronic sources

For electronic sources, usually you need to provide the same information as for hardcopy plus the format (such as CD-ROM) or the URL and in parentheses the date you accessed the source. Some examples are provided following.

For further information refer to *CMS* 17.15; the *Style manual,* pp. 230–232; the University of Tasmania Library at http://www.utas.edu.au/library/assist/gpoa/gpoa.html; or the School’s web page for links to other sites (see the section Using the Internet).

CD-ROMs and DVDs

These works should be treated similarly to printed material (see *CMS* 17.145) and indicate the format (for example, CD-ROM, e-book).

18. Thomas H. Davenport and John C. Beck, *The Attention Economy: Understanding the New Currency of Business* (Harvard Business School Press, 2001), TK3 Reader e-book.

Internet sources

You must provide author, title and/or content description: the URL (Web page address—Site/Path/File), date of publication of the page (if available), and the date you accessed it. See *CMS* 17.237 or the Library’s website.

19. Evandale Public Library Board of Trustees, ‘Evandale Public Library Strategic Plan, 2000–2010: A Decade of Political Science’, Evandale Public Library, http://www.epl.com.au/strategic-plan-04.html (accessed 18 March 2005).

20. R. T. Daniel, email to Political Science mailing list, 10 June 2004,
http://www.sample/issue/83.txt.

21. University of Tasmania Library, ‘Management Subject Guide’, University of Tasmania Library, http://www.utas.edu.au/library/info/subj/management.html (accessed 10 May 2003).

22. Jessica Reaves, ‘A Weight Issue: Ever-Fatter Kids’, interview with James Rosen, *Time,* 14 March 2001, http://www.time.com/time/nation/article/0,8599,102443,00.html

Compiling a bibliography

You must provide a full list of all the references that you have used in your essay. This should be compiled in alphabetical order according to authors’ surnames. The bibliographical form is slightly different to the footnote reference. Thus the footnote:

23. Michel Foucault, *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison,* trans. Alan Sheridan

(Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1979), 26.

would look like this in the reference list:

Foucault, Michel. *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison.* Translated by Alan Sheridan. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1979.

Note that the main differences are that the surname comes first (in alphabetical order) and publishing details do not require bracketing. For an article or chapter in a book, you need to include the page numbers—from beginning to end of article—in the list.

For books with more than one author, the second author's name is not inverted (for example, Foucault, Michael and Rose Friedman).

Harvard (author–date) style

The basic citation in the author–date system consists of the last name of an author and the year of publication of the work, followed (where appropriate) by the page numbers, all of which are included in the text of your essay.

The Harvard system is designed to provide enough information within the body of the text—a citation—to enable the reader to locate the item in a reference list at the end of the essay. Thus you must include a reference list of all sources you have cited in the text of your essay. The format for this is described in the section titled References. For more information, refer to the *Style manual: for authors, editors and printers,* or the University of Tasmania at http://www.utas.edu.au/library/assist/gpoa/gpoa.html.

Generally, no comma separates the author and year. Pages, chapters and so forth follow the date, preceded by a comma. Use 'p.', 'pp.' or 'page' to indicate the page numbers being used or cited. For example:

As Jones (1997, p. 54) has argued . . . or

A wide range of writers agree with these general propositions (Blewett 1989; Jones 1997).

Also:

Doyle (1966) initially developed this idea.
The idea was developed in the United States (Clarke 1968, p. 254).

When more than one study is cited, arrange the references in alphabetical order and use semicolons to separate them:

A number of researchers (Bennett 1967, p. 142; Dent 1969, 1970; Groom 1969) have advanced this argument; however, the opposite view has considerable support (Cummings 1985; Norquest 1984, pp. 256–63).

Use commas to separate two works by the same author. If works by the same author are also published in the same year, add lowercase letters to the dates of publication and repeat these in the reference list.

This theory was advanced in two articles by Dixon (1974, 1975).
This theory was advanced by Lindsey (1981a, 1981b, 1982).

If there are two or three authors, cite all names each time. If there are four or more authors, 'et al.' (meaning 'and others') should follow the first author's name. The reference list, however, should include all names. If two or more authors have the same last name, the first initial should be used to distinguish between them.

The idea was originally advanced by Arndt, Wee and Smart (1955). Independently other scholars (Drew et al. 1967) advanced a similar idea, which was strongly criticised by Irish researchers (Smith, J 1962; Smith, R 1960). Nonetheless, the idea has gained widespread acceptance in Ireland (Dent 1969, ch. 2) and overseas (Eckhart 1972, pp. 131–50).

Some journals and authors use the following version of the Harvard system:

As Walzer (1989:191) puts it . . .

or

It has been suggested that Foucault's analysis of power is incoherent (Taylor 1984: 153; 1985: 177).

Note the use of colons and semicolons in this version. Both forms are acceptable.

Secondary sources

For in-text citations, provide both authors' names (see *Style manual,* p. 198) as follows.

Ngu (cited in Larsen 1991) reported . . . or
(Ngu, cited in Larsen 1991).

According to the *Style manual,* the reference list should list the author 'who has done the citing'. Further, the Harvard style (*Style manual*) shows 'ed.' for one editor and 'eds' for more than one editor; note that 'ed.' takes a full stop and 'eds' does not as it includes the final letter (see the *Style manual,* p. 195).

Electronic sources

The *Style manual* and the University of Tasmania Library provide various examples, such as the following.

McDougall, KL, Summerell, BA, Coburn, D & Newton, M 2003, '*Phytophthora cinnamomi* causing disease in subalpine vegetation in New South Wales', *Australasian Plant Pathology,* vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 113–5, viewed 20 November, 2003, <http://www.publish.csiro.au/?act=view_file&file_id=AP02074.pdf>.

Rathbun, AH, West, J & Hausken, EG 2003, *Young children's access to computers in the home and at school in 1999 and 2000,* NCES-2003–036, National Center for Education Statistics, Washington, DC, viewed 4 November 2003, <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2003/2003036.pdf>.

RMIT University Library 2003, *Harvard style,* RMIT University Library, viewed 21 November 2003, <http://www.rmit.edu.au/browse?SIMID=4iyjc0b60eqaz>.

University of Tasmania 2003, *Plagiarism: University statement on plagiarism and referencing,* University of Tasmania, viewed 20 November 2003, <http://www.utas.edu.au/plagiarism/>.

Film, video, CD-ROM, DVD, TV, radio programs

Dr Brain thinking games 1998, CD-ROM, Knowledge Adventure Inc., Torrance, California.

Man with the movie camera 1998, video recording, Chatsworth, California. Distributed by Image Entertainment. Directed by Dziga Vertov.

The search for meaning 1998, radio program, ABC Radio, Sydney, 24 March.

In-text citation would be (*Man with the movie camera* 1998).

Email

Savieri, S 1999, email, 24 April, savieri@rockets.com.au.

Database

AGRIS database, United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, SilverPlatter (vendor), annual updating.

Website

International Narcotics Control Board 1999, United Nations, Vienna, viewed 1 October 1999, <http://www.incb.org>.

See the *Style manual,* pp. 230–31, for further information and examples of citing electronic materials, including websites, mail lists, emails and CD-ROMs. Other information may be found at http://www.utas.edu.au/library/assist/gpoa/gpoa.html.

Notes

Footnotes or endnotes have a role in the Harvard system, but they are *not* used for the purpose of citations. Rather, they can be used to expand on points in the text, or to provide information on citations of newspaper articles, interviews and personal communications. But they should be used sparingly. The material in a lengthy, discursive footnote may be better placed in the body of the text, or left out altogether. Notes should be numbered consecutively and placed at the end of the essay (‘endnotes’) or at the bottom of the page (‘footnotes’). The corresponding note number in the text should be superscript.

Whenever possible cite actual page numbers—reference to Marx (1883) or Weber (1920) is generally not sufficiently specific.

References

If you use the Harvard system of referencing you should include at the end of your essay a list of all the works actually cited in your essay (a reference list). The list should be in alphabetical order giving the surname first followed by the author’s initials and the date of publication and so on. In this respect the Harvard reference list is slightly different from the Chicago style. If two or more works of an author have been used they should be listed chronologically. Include page numbers for journal articles or when the work you have used is part of a book. For example:

Bell, J & Aird, A 1989, ‘Science policy in practice’, paper presented to the Science and Society Conference, Australian National University, 7–9 June.

Chapman, RJK 1974, ‘Political administrative relationships’, PhD diss., University of Tasmania, p. 14.

Dodgson, M 1989, ‘Research and technology policy in Australia: legitimacy in intervention’, *Science and Public Policy,* 16, no. 3, p. 159.

Foucault, M 1979, *Discipline and punish: the birth of the prison,* trans. A Sheridan, Penguin, Harrowsmith, 2: 156.

Norris, C 1993, *The Truth About Postmodernism,* Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

Taylor, C 1984, ‘Foucault on Freedom and Truth’, *Political Theory* 12 (2 May): 152–83.

Government publications

These are referenced in the following way, based on the Harvard system (the list is by no means exhaustive of the types of documents you may use but it should give you some idea of the format).

Australia, House of Representatives 1989, *Debates,* vol. HR169, pp. 2463–2473.

Australia, House of Representatives Standing Committee on Industry, Science and Technology 1998, *Superconductivity and related new materials,* AGPS, Canberra, 1988, ix.

(Note: AGPS stands for Australian Government Publishing Service)

Australia, Cabinet *Handbook,* AGPS, 4, s.2.3

Australia, Joint Committee of Public Accounts 1991, *Activities 1990–91,* Report 311, AGPS, Canberra, 2.

Australia, Senate 1991, *Journals,* no. 139, pp. 65–67.

Australia, Parliament 1968, *Australian Industrial Research and Development Grants Board Annual Report 1968–69,* Parl. Paper no. 142, 1, Canberra.

Australian Bureau of Statistics 1982, *Australian National Accounts,* cat. no. 5206.0, March Quarter, 61AGPS, Canberra.

Bureau of Industry Economics 1991, *The National Teaching Company Scheme,* AGPS, Canberra, VII.

Department of Employment, Education and Training 1988, *Higher Education: A Policy Statement,* AGPS, p. 3.

For more information on Australian sources and matters, you may want to refer to the *Style Manual,* pp. 222–32.

11. Presentation: a checklist

- Assignments must be word-processed and should be well spaced (double or 1.5

spacing) on blank A4 paper. You should use a 12–point font.

- If, in exceptional cases, you must handwrite your assignments, you should take great care to ensure that they are neat and legible. Handwritten assignments must be written on lined A4 paper, using every line.
- Word-process or write on only one side of the page.
- The School of Government 'Assignment Cover Sheet' (available from the School Office or downloadable from the School's website) must be attached to the front of all assignments, containing the following information:
    * your name and student number;
    * unit code and unit title;
    * tutorial day and tutorial time;
    * the name of your tutor;
    * title of paper;
    * date essay is submitted;
    * word count;
    * a signed declaration.
- Number each page, except the title page, in the bottom centre or top right-hand corner.
- Be sure to ***proofread your final draft*** before submission to check for spelling errors and careless construction. If you do not possess a good dictionary, buy one immediately. Make use of the spell-check facility on your computer, but note that spell-checkers can miss errors; for instance: 'the Golf War' as opposed to 'the Gulf War'.
- Keep a hardcopy or electronic copy, or make a photocopy, of your essay before submitting it for assessment, in case the original is lost.
- Staple the pages of your essay together.
- Do not use plastic, or other, covers.

Further reading on study skills

If you want to read further on the matters raised in this guide, the following works are recommended:

Dunleavy, P. *Studying for a Degree in the Humanities and Social Sciences.* London: Macmillan, 1986.

Bell, J. *Doing Your Research Project,* Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1987.

Northedge, A. *The Good Study Guide,* Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1982.

You will probably find Dunleavy's book the most useful as it is by a political scientist, is pitched at degree level, and discusses how to deal with concepts and theories, as well as taking notes and writing essays.

See also:

Booth, Wayne, Gregory G. Colomb and Joseph M. Williams, *The Craft of Research.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995.

12. Preparing for verbal tutorial presentations

It is becoming increasingly common for courses in political science as well as public policy to require students to prepare and conduct formal presentations in tutorials, and for these presentations to contribute to students' final assessment. The following notes are designed to assist you to prepare for such presentations, to indicate the sorts of criteria by which the presentations will be assessed, and to explain what you may obtain from them.

The purposes of tutorial presentations

Lecturers include verbal presentations in their units for a variety of reasons:

- To improve students' skills in distilling the essence, or concisely summarising the key points of a complex essay, and their ability to present that distillation to others;
- To improve students' ability to defend and justify a position or argument;
- To enable students to improve their essays from contributions from their colleagues and the tutor; and
- To improve students' verbal communication skills.

Types of verbal presentations

The demands and requirements of presentations will vary from unit to unit. Some lecturers will ask you to verbally present a completed essay; others will ask you to present work-in-progress; and so on. 'Verbal' presentations may include other media, such as overheads and whiteboards. This guide offers some suggestions for possible formats, together with some general suggestions on public speaking and verbal presentations in the social sciences. The three formats discussed here are presenting a finished essay, presenting a separate tutorial paper and presenting a summary of prescribed readings. The requirements and expectations for presentations in each unit will differ slightly. It is important that you know precisely what is expected from your presentation, and the criteria by which it will be assessed (if at all). If you are unclear, ask your tutor.

Presenting a finished essay

The most formal format for a presentation is to verbally present, or 'speak to', a completed essay, which you must submit on the same day as your presentation, complete with title page, references and bibliography.

If you were given only a topic, but not a question, you could begin your presentation by justifying the question you have set. Explain why you chose the question you did; what other questions you considered; why you did not pursue them; and what other important aspects or themes on this topic you are *not* dealing with.

Most importantly, you should state and explain the argument you have advanced in your essay. (As noted previously, the argument is the central, organising feature of all essays in the social sciences. It is the backbone of the essay. Essentially, it is your 'answer' to the question.) Then you could outline the evidence you have used in your essay to support your argument; that is, set out the main reasons you have put forward your argument. You could also acknowledge any counterpoints that qualify your argument, and outline the main sources or references you have used.

Presenting a separate 'tutorial paper'

Another common format is the tutorial paper. Like an essay, a tutorial paper is a piece of written work answering a set question. Like an essay, it must present an argument.

A tutorial paper, however, usually goes through two distinct stages and fulfils two functions. It must, in the first place, be the basis for a verbal presentation of an issue within a tutorial. It then becomes a written record of the results of that discussion; this written record must be submitted a week or two later. Only in this last stage must it meet all of the usual essay presentation requirements.

In its first stage, as a basis for discussion, the tutorial paper need not, and perhaps should not, be a finished piece of work—though that is no excuse for lack of preparation and thoroughness. The purpose of the presentation is not simply to inform your colleagues of the issues raised by the question, and the main themes in the literature, but also to ask their advice about matters you do not fully understand, or about which you have had difficulty.

Presenting a summary of prescribed readings

A third, and the least formal, format is to present a verbal summary or commentary on specified tutorial readings. Here, the emphasis is on identifying for your colleagues the key issues in the reading, testing ideas, 'running suggestions up the flag pole' and engendering discussion.

Assessment

In all cases, a verbal presentation should be regarded as a piece of work in its own right. The key to a successful presentation is *preparation.* Confidence in yourself as well as an interesting and rewarding presentation for the audience come from having read the prescribed material and 'knowing your stuff'.

If a tutorial presentation is assessed as part of the requirements of a unit, then it *should be regarded as compulsory.* Failure to attend or give a presentation could be regarded in the same light as failure to submit an essay, or not sitting an exam. Just as importantly, because the presentations are a key element of the tutorial, you will be letting down the rest of the group. You should be prepared to answer questions and discuss the issues raised in your presentation, and possibly defend your approach to the topic from criticism from the tutor and fellow students.

Some suggestions for presentations:

Avoid reading your presentation word for word from a written paper, as this style of presentation can be boring for the audience. Presentations can be more interesting if you have a page or so of notes, or cards, with a written skeleton of the points you wish to discuss, which you can refer to throughout your presentation.

Do not regurgitate or paraphrase the previous week's lecture on the topic.

Many tutors will require you to prepare **a *written one-page summary*** of your presentation, and make sufficient copies to distribute to all the students in the tutorial. This makes it easier for the audience to follow the main points of your presentation.

Overhead projections and other audiovisual aids can sometimes help you get your ideas across. You should arrange this with your tutor in advance.

Keep your presentation as simple as possible. Experts on public speaking say the most common mistake made by beginners is trying to fit in too much information. The experts reckon the maximum number of points that can be effectively conveyed to an audience in a forty-five-minute talk is six or seven (including examples and explanations), and that in a ten- or fifteen-minute presentation, the maximum is one to three points. So be aware that the instructions you have been given for your presentation probably add up to a pretty tall order, and you will need to be concise.

Stick to the time limit. Just because you've spent a couple of days preparing your presentation does not mean you can hog the tutorial by taking half an hour for an allocated ten-minute talk. Keep an eye on the time as you go. It might help if one student is appointed 'timekeeper', with responsibility to knock on the table when there is a minute to go. Equally, don't feel obliged to ***waffle*** just to take up the allotted time. Many public speakers find it helpful to ***practise their presentation out loud*** the day before. This way, you'll iron out any weak points, and you will get some idea of how long it will take to deliver.

Public speakers often use a technique called ***visualisation****,* which is the constructive use of imagination to improve performance and overcome anxiety. In the days leading up to the presentation, imagine yourself doing the presentation successfully. 'See' yourself in control and performing as you would like. When it comes to the real presentation, you simply play out the scene you have created.

Make sure that the entire group can ***see and hear you clearly***. Speak clearly, and try to make eye contact with the audience.

You ***cannot read out footnotes*** in a verbal presentation. Instead, you should try to incorporate important information in your speech: for example, 'As Thomas Hobbes argued in *Leviathan* . . . '.

If you are anxious about speaking in public, remember that you will be presenting to a ***supportive audience****,* and that everybody else will be in the same boat at some stage in the semester.

One of the dangers of rostering students to do presentations on particular topics is that many students not presenting in a particular week assume the role of passive audience, and feel absolved from reading and preparing for the tutorial. ***All students are obliged to read the essential reading material for the tutorial.*** All students not presenting a paper that week should be ready to ask at least one question or make a comment or suggestion at the end of the presentation. All students should be active participants in the tutorial, not just 'free riders'.

More presentation tips

- Plan your presentation—summarise what you think are the most important points before you begin: 'Today I'm going to talk about . . . and the main points to consider are . . . '.
- Everyone feels nervous—use the adrenaline instead of it using you—remember to breathe!
- You are not expected to be an expert or to understand and agree with *everything* in the readings.
- Show enthusiasm and be prepared to offer considered criticism.
- Tell the students what your reactions were when you read the text for the first time.
- Look at everyone in the group—not just the tutor.
- If you go too fast you will lose people's attention.

- Vary your tone and delivery manner.
- Use presentation aids—blackboards, whiteboards, handouts, cartoons, diagrams, overheads.
- Try to think of examples from your audience's experience.
- Invite questions or ask questions.
- Rehearse and time yourself.

13. Tutorial attendance and participation

Tutorial attendance (internal students) and active participation is a key aspect of any unit. Students are expected to read the tutorial material in advance and come to tutorials ready and willing to engage in discussion.

Failure to attend at least two thirds of tutorials or, in the case of external students, to participate in two thirds of online discussions, will result in you being declared ineligible to sit the exam and for further assessment in the unit, irrespective of whether assignments have been submitted and pass marks awarded.

14. Using the Internet

The School of Government's web pages have active links to useful resources for students of political science, public policy, international relations and police studies.

These pages can be accessed from the University of Tasmania's home page through 'Faculties and Schools'. Alternatively the School's home page can be opened by entering the following URL in the address bar: http://www.utas.edu.au/government. From there you can access various pages including Undergrad Pages, and other information, or you can go to 'Links' for these pages:

- **General Resources**—links to a collection of American, European, Asian, Antarctic and other general information sources.
- **Australian Resources**—links to Federal and State Government sites.
- **Media and News**—links to world and Australian media news sources.
- **Journals and Books**—links to electronic journals, journal indexing tools, book publishers and booksellers.
- **Search Tools and Help**—links to main search engines, Internet online help and other useful indexes.

15. Assessment protocol

Essays are an important form of assessment. See the marking criteria provided, which may be seen as a guide to the grades used by the School.

A 'structurally unsound' essay is one that **fails to reflect the guidelines set out in this guide.** An essay will also be deemed unsound if it fails to reflect the content of the unit from which it is set. In the essay guide, the relevant guidelines and principles pertaining to a sound essay are fairly self-evident and easy to follow. Some examples of 'structurally unsound' essays are poorly structured essays that ramble on and lack a logical exposition; essays without an adequate introduction and conclusion; and essays that are poorly referenced or fail to fully comply with an appropriate referencing system. Lecturers take a dim view of 'structurally unsound essays'. At the discretion of the lecturer, structurally unsound essays will either be given a very low mark or be returned for resubmission (usually with a maximum mark of 50%).

All work submitted for assessment must conform to the requirements of the School of Government 'Essay, Tutorial and Referencing Guide'. Hard copies are available from the School (Hobart only) at a cost of $2.00 or can be obtained free of charge from the School's website:
http://www.utas.edu.au/government/undergrad/resources.html

An 'Assignment Cover Sheet', duly completed and signed, **must** be attached to the front of all assignments. The cover sheet is available from the School of Government or from the School's website:
http://www.utas.edu.au/government/undergrad/resources.html

16. Assignment grades and how your final result is determined

To successfully complete a unit students need to achieve at least a pass (i.e. 50% or more) after taking into account all assessment tasks. The final result is determined by adding together the marks for each assessment task, taking into account their weighting. Final results are then moderated to ensure they conform to the Faculty of Arts grade distribution policy.

Grades will be awarded based on University guidelines as follows:

Failure (NN)	0-49%
Pass (PP)	50-59%
Credit (CR)	60-69%
Distinction (DN	70-79%
High distinction (HD)	80%-100%

17. Policy on word limit

Students are given a 10% leeway on word count, that is, 10% above or 10% below the word limit is allowed (excludes footnotes and references). Work outside these limits will be penalised.

18. Policy on late assignments

Should you experience difficulty in completing your assignment by the due date, please contact your tutor or the unit coordinator either in person or by email. A late assignment submitted without an approved extension will incur a penalty. Students will lose 5% for the first day their assignment is overdue plus a further 1% for each day thereafter (maximum penalty is 50%). A medical certificate or other supporting documentation is required where extensions are requested due to illness, bereavement or personal problems. Supporting documentation must be attached to your assignment. After 2 weeks, assignments without an approved extension will not be accepted.

Please Note:

- Students will not receive any feedback or written comments if their assignment is submitted more than one week late without an approved extension.
- Weekends *are included* as overdue days.

19. Review of Assignment Results

Questions and concerns about assignment marks must be discussed with your tutor in the first instance. If you are not satisfied you may refer it to the unit coordinator. The coordinator may choose to review the mark themselves or refer it to another staff member. If a student is not happy with the outcome of this process, then a written application can be made to the Head of School explaining the nature of the concern (a copy of the marked assignment must be provided). The Head of School can then, in consultation with the unit coordinator, appoint a second marker. Requests to the Head of School to review an assignment mark must be made no later than 10 working days after assignments were returned to students. If a student fails to collect their assignment, then the time for review is still calculated from the Friday of the week in which the assignment was available for collection. Requests for reviews will not be accepted after 10 working days.

20. School of Government marking criteria

CRITERIA	FAIL (NN)	PASS (PP)	CREDIT (CR)	DISTINCTION (DN)	HIGH DISTINCTION (HD)
ARGUMENT	Argument not evident; poor writing.	Limited argument, not clearly articulated.	Argument evident but poorly or inconsistently developed.	Clear statement and exposition of a logical argument.	Argument well developed and integrated into essay.
WRITTEN EXPRESSION	Gross spelling, grammatical errors; poor syntax.	Basic understanding of rules of grammar and syntax; sentence and paragraphs; no spelling errors.	Some evidence of fluency in writing; no obvious errors in grammar or syntax.	Clear and fluent writing.	Well constructed and crafted piece of work; a pleasure to read.
STRUCTURE	Completely lacks structure.	Some evidence of structure in essay; introduction, body, conclusion.	Clear evidence of structure; internal problems in structure still evident.	Clear structure and well constructed essay.	Essay structured to emphasise argument; clear introduction and conclusion; logical progression of argument.
ANALYSIS/ SOURCES	Limited sources; high degree of paraphrasing.	Uncritical discussion or assessment of sources; writing close to sources; limited extra reading.	Some evidence of critical analysis; limited sources.	Critical analysis of sources; evidence of reading outside reading list.	Highly developed critical analysis; wide reading and assessment of different approaches.
ORIGINALITY	Cut and paste; direct dependence on source material.	Pedestrian; essay reliant on restating major themes from sources; no evidence of critical analysis of reading; mainstream expository writing.	Writer expresses own opinion; some critical analysis and development of style; shows writer's individuality.	Critical appraisal of evidence from sources; style used to effect; writing style evident.	Evidence of highly developed analysis; opinion expressed; research outside reading list; work displays flair and evidence of mastery in writing.
PRESENTATION	Poorly presented; does not conform to School requirements (as indicated in 'Essay, Tutorial and Referencing Guide').	Average presentation; all required information included.	Well presented.	Very good presentation.	Excellent presentation.