



College of Asia and the Pacific

Crawford School of Public Policy

Academic and Research Skills Handbook

A collection of resources for Crawford coursework students
compiled by
Crawford Academic and Research Skills Advisors

Table of Contents

1.	The critical approach	3
2.	Time management	7
3.	Academic reading	8
4.	Note taking	11
5.	Writing a summary	16
6.	Academic writing	19
7.	Essay writing process	28
8.	Analysing the question	31
9.	Finding and evaluating sources	34
10.	Constructing an academic argument.....	37
11.	Writing paragraphs	41
12.	Writing a critical review	42
13.	Writing a quantitative paper	46
14.	Oral presentations	50
15.	Examinations	54
16.	Academic honesty and plagiarism.....	58
17.	Turnitin	59
	Appendices	60
	Glossary of critical thinking terms	60
	Brainstorm template	64
	Argument mapping	65
	Reporting verbs	66
	Transitions / Signpost expressions	69
	Sample Critical Review	71
	Sample essay	76
	Assignment criteria & checklist	79
	Editing Checklist	81
	ANU Grade Descriptors	83
	Academic Skills resources online.....	84
	English expression and grammar online.....	85

Welcome

Welcome to the Crawford School.

While doing your degree at the Crawford School, you will obtain a great deal of academic knowledge. It is, however, often difficult to make an adjustment to thinking and communicating in an academically effective manner.

This handbook will introduce you to the most important skills required for academic success. In particular, it will focus on:

- critical thinking
- reading and evaluating sources
- analysing assignment topics
- effective planning and writing techniques
- referencing skills
- time management

With a solid grasp of these skills, you can feel confident that you will succeed in an academic environment.

Crawford Academic and Research Skills
January 2015.

Crawford Academic and Research Skills Advisors

Crawford Academic and Research Skills Advisors support Crawford students through:

- Graduate Pre Sessional Program – January and June
- Induction Program – February and July
- Weekly workshops during teaching periods
- Individual consultations

Workshops

An Academic and Research Skills Workshop schedule is posted at the beginning of each semester. We can help with issues including;

- Time management
- Understanding the assignment task
- Making essay plans/outlines
- Constructing arguments and using evidence
- Writing the first draft
- Applying the appropriate referencing style
- Preparing for and performance during examinations
- Preparing oral presentations
- Addressing any other concerns about academic progress

Individual consultations

To discuss your assignment with a Crawford Academic and Research Skills Advisor, book a consultation at: <https://crawfordacademicskills.tymwise.com/#>.

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1. The critical approach

The role of critical evaluation

The work of academics is to:

1. Generate new knowledge in their discipline through original research. This involves analysing problems and synthesising existing findings in relationship to current theories, gathering new evidence through good research methodology, interpreting the results in order to draw conclusions, integrating those conclusions with what is already known about the subject and so contributing to the discipline knowledge. New knowledge is stored as a conclusion based on one or more arguments which link the conclusion to evidence or to other well-accepted conclusions.
2. Test other researchers' contributions to new knowledge for soundness and plausibility (the process of peer review).

Critical evaluation is involved in both processes. Critical evaluation is the core of academic work. While only research students generate new knowledge, all students are expected to critically evaluate sources while reading and writing assignments. Although coursework students are thus involved only in the second phase, critical evaluation is thus still the core skill of their academic work.

The aim of academic work is to create true generalisations — principles, theories, models, and claims - based on arguments that use good evidence.

However, all knowledge is provisional and is constantly revised in the light of new information or clearer thinking. Academics also have different opinions on what is true, usually because they give different weight to the evidence, but sometimes because they have a different ideology or values. You will rarely be set an assignment on a topic where there is no controversy and debate among academic authors.

Therefore, the main question in academic work is 'How do I know whether a particular piece of information is true or valid?'

Testing the truth of each statement is the main critical evaluation of the idea. However, ideas must be more than just accurate to receive much attention in the academic world, they must also be important, so the significance of an idea is also likely to be evaluated.

The attitude of questioning

It takes courage and confidence to question published authors, especially when you are just beginning to study a subject; however, that is what is required. No research is perfect, even the best work will be limited and have weaknesses, and will raise more questions than it answers.

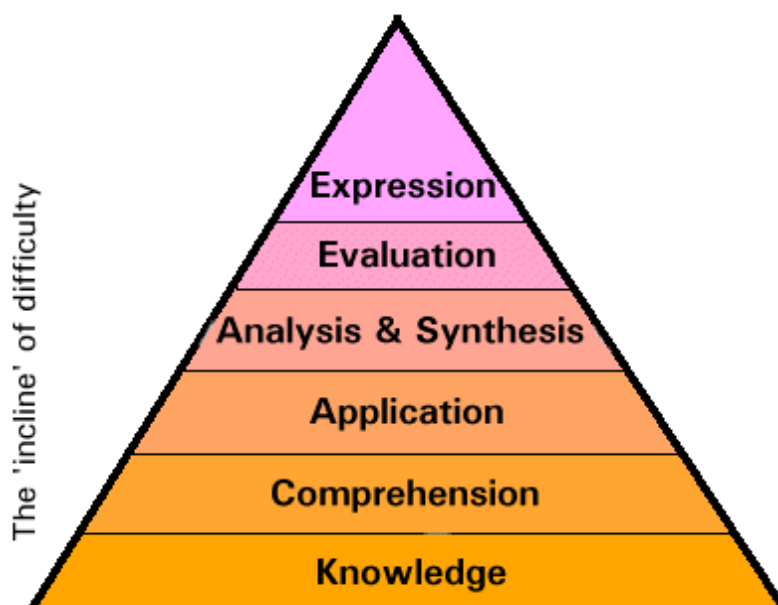
So try to develop a questioning attitude and check each author's work. Such questioning is judged to be fair dealing, and is expected and encouraged. Approach critical evaluation as a brainstorming exercise to assess whether the conclusion is true. The following sections are intended to help you to systematically test a source and so evaluate the quality of the research.

What is involved in critical evaluation?

A lot of researching, reading, and thinking is required for academic work. Thinking involves comparing, sorting, and relating information from different sources. It is like putting together a jigsaw puzzle, relating individual pieces of information in order to see the whole picture. Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive (thinking) objectives, shown on the next page, gives a cumulative hierarchical list of thinking skills — cumulative and hierarchical because the later, higher items include doing the items below them.

In Bloom's taxonomy, evaluation is the highest category, so to evaluate you need to also know and understand information, be able to apply it to new situations, and analyse and synthesise it. The categories become increasingly difficult — the higher it is in the hierarchy, the harder it is (although the level of an activity depends partly on the level of originality, so remembering a definition is level 1 knowledge, formulating a novel definition is at least level 4, analysis, but, for a complex concept, could be level 6, evaluation, if it involves deciding criteria and judgement).

Bloom's taxonomy can be applied to the process of writing an essay or report and to the evaluation of your own writing. As evaluation is the highest level of thinking and as postgraduates are expected to critically evaluate, you will be involved in all six levels of the taxonomy on every assignment.



Source: <http://www.bized.co.uk/reference/studyskills/essay.htm>

Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive skills

Competence	Examples of skills demonstrated
1. Knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acquiring information and recalling it when needed • remembering dates, events, places • knowing definitions, concepts, theories, examples, evidence • cue words: define, describe, identify, label, list, name, quote, recognise, tell, who, what, when, where, etc.
2. Comprehension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understanding, and interpreting information, including the relationship of parts • translating knowledge from one form into another • extrapolating trends • distinguishing warranted, unwarranted and contradicted conclusions from data • cue words: associate, describe, differentiate, discuss, distinguish, estimate, explain, extrapolate, interpolate, identify examples, interpret, summarise.
3. Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • using learned information in a new situation without prompting • recognising problem types and the knowledge required for solutions • using information and skills in new contexts • solving problems using learnt skills and knowledge • cue words: apply, calculate, classify, complete, demonstrate, estimate, illustrate, show, solve, modify, relate, change
4. Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • breaking down information into its component parts and identifying the relationship of each part to the whole • seeing patterns in the information • identifying the component aspects of a topic • recognising and explaining relationships • comparing and contrasting aspects of topics • recognising implicit meanings (e.g. assumptions, values) • recognising the structure of a text or of information • devising categories • cue words: analyse, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, explain, infer, contrast
5. Synthesis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • combining existing elements in order to create something original • distinguishing relevant from irrelevant material • inferring generalisations from given facts or data • integrating knowledge from several sources or disciplines • predicting consequences • using analogies to create new ideas • drawing novel conclusions • detecting logical fallacies in argument • justifying conclusions or recommendations • cue words: combine, compose, create, design, explain, formulate, generalise, infer, integrate, invent, modify, plan, predict, prepare, rearrange, speculate

6. Evaluation

- judging the value of something by using a standard or criteria
- discriminating between ideas, based on criteria
- recognising subjectivity or bias
- using reasoned argument to make decisions
- assessing methodology and evidence
- judging the worth of theories, solutions
- identifying implicit values
- developing criteria
- cue words: assess, compare, conclude, convince, decide, discriminate, grade, judge, justify, rank, recommend, select, summarise, support

2. Time management

Managing your time is not as easy as it sounds. Not only do you need to make sure that you have all of your assignments completed on time, you also need to break down the process of completing an assignment, and make sure that you do not spend more or less time than you need to on any one aspect.

How long do you think it would take to complete an assignment, from when you first read the question to when you hand in the printed document? What tasks do you need to consider? Here are some suggested tasks:

- analysing the topic — what does your lecturer want from you in this assignment?
- finding and evaluating useful sources
- reading and taking notes
- working out your thesis statement and argument
- planning your essay
- writing the first draft
- rewriting and editing
- proof-reading.

Writing an assignment is not a simple process where you perform all these tasks in any strict order. You should be thinking about your argument, and revising and re-working it in the light of your reading, all the way through working on an assignment. Likewise, look for useful sources of information that can provide you with evidence for your argument, or explain complex information in a simple way so that you understand your topic better.

Nevertheless, you need to plan to devote time to each of these tasks, so that you have some control over your study! We run Time Management workshops in the second week of each semester to give you practical strategies to manage your time effectively during your studies at Crawford. Don't miss these workshops!

3. Academic reading

Introduction

Crucial to the critical approach is the idea of being *informed*, that is, we test the claims of others and develop our own opinions based on information and evidence. It is important to know what other people have thought and are thinking about a topic that you intend to address. To not be well informed means that you will not be expressing a reasoned opinion, you will merely be opinionated.

Whilst lectures, videos and conversations are all sources of information that you can use to develop your opinions, the most common way of acquiring information is by reading — reading journal articles, books, websites, newspapers and a range of other sources.

Reading for information is, however, different from reading for pleasure.

Reading for information

Academic reading is a process of acquiring useful information: it is more like an interview than a relaxed chat — you are actively seeking the information that *you* want, not passively listening for any information that they have to give you. You need to interrogate your sources as efficiently as possible, so think about adopting these strategies.

Scan first, read details later

- Start with the part of the text that is going to give you the most information, usually the abstract, the introduction or the conclusion. Find out what the authors' main point is—you should be able to write down their main point in a short sentence.
- Pay attention to headings or, if there are no headings, the first sentences of each paragraph. These should help you to grasp what points the author is covering in order to develop an argument supporting their main point.

Take notes

- Write down the full bibliographic details of your source — author, date, title (and any subtitles), publisher, place of publication
- Jot down key ideas and short quotes — record the page number
- Write a concise summary of the document, including the thesis statement and key supporting points
- Write your thoughts about the author's thesis statement and article.

Resist the urge to read slowly

- There are times you need to engage with an author's argument in detail, and that involves a careful reading of what they have written. Most of the time when researching an essay, however, all you need is the bare bones of their argument. Get the information and go!
- If you find yourself getting slowed down by data, statistics or jargon, look for the point that the author is trying to make, and then move on.

You should be able to quickly and accurately skim read and take notes on a journal article in less an hour.

Reading strategies

1. Ask 'What is my purpose in reading this?' 'What do I need to find out?' Your purpose will decide the reading strategy you will use (reading for overview, reading for specific information, reading for critical evaluation, reading for synthesis and judgement).
2. Try to activate any knowledge you may already have about the topic of the text so that you can relate what you read to previous knowledge.
3. Browse for an overview. Look at the main title, headings and subheadings, diagrams, tables, and any other illustrations. What is the text about?
4. Read the summary, the abstract, the introduction and the conclusion.
5. Try to work out how the writer has organised the text and the ideas. For example, the text, or parts of the text, may be organised chronologically or in some other form of listing, or the organisation may follow a problem and solution, compare and contrast or cause and effect pattern.
6. As you read, keep stopping and asking yourself questions:
 - 'Have I read this before?'
 - 'Do I agree with this idea?'
 - 'What have I read so far?'
 - 'Do I need to read any more?'
 - 'What do other authors say about this?'
7. When you have finished a section or the whole article / chapter, write down the important points.
8. If you cannot do this, re-read the parts that you could not remember.
9. Decide whether you need to make notes and if so, what notes you should take and what form of note-taking to use. It is not usually a good idea to take notes on your

first reading before you know what the author is trying to argue. It is also advisable to take your notes in pencil, so that you can modify them easily as your understanding of the text grows.

10. Note down the full bibliographic details of the reference first.
11. As you take notes, add your personal comments on the ideas (but clearly identified as your ideas and not the author's – use a different pen or write them in a separate column).
12. Finally, ask 'Should I follow up on any of this author's references?' Should I see if they have been cited by a later author? 'Is there anything that I still don't understand?' If so, 'Do I need to seek some help, or is it not important?'

Principles to remember

You often do not need to read the whole text intensively. The author's purpose in writing and your purpose in reading are usually different. Skim read and decide which parts are relevant. Read only those.

Try to use the context to work out the meaning of words which you do not know. Stopping to look up words in a dictionary can disrupt the flow in your understanding of the text.

Make your own glossary of technical terms as you go. This helps you to learn the terminology and builds a resource for future reading in the area. It also tests your understanding.

Reading is an active process. The best readers constantly ask questions about what they are reading and try to relate the information to what they already know.

If you cannot understand a text, it is usually because you do not have the background knowledge which is assumed by the author. Go and read about the topic in a textbook, an encyclopaedia entry or a popular introduction such as can be found on the internet to obtain the necessary background. Note, however, that you *cannot cite these sources as references*, because although they are helpful in getting you oriented, they are usually too general to support an argument.

Discussion with other students usually helps to improve understanding of a text and is particularly helpful when you are experiencing difficulty with a text.

4. Note taking

Note taking from lectures

Why do you take notes?

- Notes are an aid to help you sort and recall information
- Notes are the raw material your work will be based on
- Note-taking forces you to select points relevant to your purpose.

How do you take notes?

- Recognise what is important
- Reduce the important points to note form
- Show how the important points are linked.

Guidelines

- Use abbreviations and symbols to speed up your note taking
- Do not crowd your notes. Leave space around them.
- Make main points stand out by:
 - Underlining and numbering them
 - Indenting lower level details
 - Leaving space between each point.

Before the lecture	During the lecture	After the lecture
Revise the previous lecture/tutorial	Be on time Sit near the front	Review/write up lecture notes on your computer the same day.
Do the pre-reading	Distinguish between main points & details: examples, repetition, 'waffle'	Write a paragraph summary of the lecture in your own words
Check pronunciation of new words or discipline specific language in pre-readings	Listen for structural cues – signpost/transition words, introduction, body, and summary stages	Attach handouts to lecture notes
To save time rule up pages according to your note taking system	Look for non-verbal cues – facial expressions, hand and body signals	Store notes in subject folders
Give each page a heading, date, page number and name of lecturer	Look for visual cues – eg PowerPoint, Doc camera, whiteboard	
	Listen for phonological cues – voice change in volume, speed, emotion	

Note taking from academic readings

Model 1 Classic

Complete bibliographic details for a book: Author's name, year of publication, full book title/chapter title, name of publisher, place of publication, page numbers.

Complete bibliographic details for a journal article: Author's name, year of publication, full journal article title, volume, number/series/issue, page numbers.

Introduction & Argument

- ...
- ...
- ...

Body/Evidence

- ...
- ...
- ...

Conclusion

- ...
- ...
- ...

Complete bibliographic details:

<p>Cue column</p> <p>(1)</p>	<p>Note taking Column</p> <p>(2)</p>
<p>Summary</p> <p>(3)</p>	

Model 3 Linear notes

General tips

- Read & listen critically
 - Is it important?
 - Is it relevant?
 - Is it credible?
- Facts/Opinions/Examples
 - Note facts & opinions
 - Avoid 'their' examples
- Summarise lecture/reading – not word for word
- Use shortcuts when writing
- Change font/colour/size for important parts
- Write clearly
- Be critical
 - Compare with other knowledge
 - Look for logical flow
 - Look for gaps in argument
 - What is missing in argument or understanding?

Notes as a study tool – why they help

- Part of learning process
- Extends attention span
- Remember what you have learnt
- Helps organise ideas

Use visual tools

- Linear notes
- Spray-type diagrams

Store and organise

- Use large pieces of paper with margins
- Organise – folders and filing system

Taking notes from lectures

- Prepare for the lecture
- Use tape/buddy + good note taking
- Look for organisation clues from lecturer

Taking notes from readings

Know what you want from the reading

- Look for organisation clues from headings, sections, paragraphs
- Don't write down examples
- SQ3R Approach
 - Survey – flip through & layout
 - Question – structure and relevance
 - Read – twice through quickly
 - Recall – main points, facts & bibliog. details
 - Review – repeat steps & relate to task

Adapted from :<http://www.education.ex.ac.uk/dll/studyskills/note_taking_appendix_a.htm>.

5. Writing a summary

Definition of a summary

A summary is a brief restatement of the contents of an essay, chapter, book, article, lecture, or any other text. It may be very short (even just one sentence, expressing the core idea) or quite long (say 300-400 words). A summary focuses on the central idea of the text, and excludes minor details. A longer summary may reflect the structure of the original writing, but should not include your own opinions — it is not a critique.

The point of a summary is to reflect the argument made by the author, either for someone else's evaluation or to assist your own memory.

Purposes of summaries

A good summary should:

- help your comprehension of the text
- be an aid to study
- sharpen your reading as well as writing skills
- provide background information when preparing to write a paper based on research
- help distinguish between major and minor points, and between specifics and generalisations
- show that you understand the whole text
- condense information to fit into short essays and reviews.

The process of writing good summaries

- Preview the text: scan headings, sub-headings and any words printed in bold type. These are clues to the main points, and also indicate the structure of the paper.
- Read the introduction and conclusion. Skim the topic sentences of each paragraph in the body text.
- Read the text through completely at least once before you write anything down or make any marks on the paper. You need to get a clear idea of the author's main idea first.
- Begin writing your summary with a short statement of the author's main argument. Then write down the major ideas that lead up to the author's main idea or argument, and identify how they relate to that main argument. (Sometimes a diagram will help you understand these relationships better.)
- Finally, turn your notes and incomplete sentences into proper sentences and paragraphs.

Key features of summaries

A good summary will:

- be much shorter than the original paper
- mention only the important points of the original paper
- usually follow the structure of the original paper
- be in your own words
- use technical words in the same way that the author does
- keep mentioning the names of the author(s) whose ideas you are summarising
- *not* include your own opinions about anything.

Recognising important points

An idea may be considered important if:

- it summarises the argument (that is, it is a thesis statement)
- it is evidence for the thesis statement or the main points
- it has important implications for the wider topic context
- it is necessary for the argument to be valid
- it is an assumption on which the whole argument depends (assumptions need not be explicit).

Language-based indicators of importance

The way a text is written can help you to recognise which ideas the author felt were important (keep in mind that these are not always the most important for your purpose). Important ideas are indicated in the following ways in a well-written text:

- The title usually indicates the main idea or at least the topic area.
- The introduction should contain the thesis statement for the text and the context.
- Likewise, the conclusion should give the thesis statement, a summary of the main points, and the implications of the author's argument.
- Subheadings indicate major sub-topics and show the broad structure of the main arguments.
- The first sentence of each paragraph should tell you what the author is explaining in the paragraph.
- Transition phrases show the relation between paragraphs, and hence how they fit into the argument.
- Repetition of keywords and phrases will indicate main ideas.
- The amount of text given to an idea is usually proportional to its importance.

- Finally, the use of emotive or strong language can indicate a major point the author is making.

Criteria for a Summary

These criteria show what is expected from an ideal summary.

In terms of content, a summary should:

- show sound understanding of the relevant paper
- clearly state the paper's main argument
- avoid over-generalising or making sweeping statements
- make clear how each part of the paper is related to the main argument
- reflect the paper's balance of ideas
- retain the paper's original emphasis
- distinguish the paper's main ideas from its details.

In terms of communication, a summary should:

- be well structured, opening with a clear statement of the main idea followed by well organised paragraphs
- express ideas clearly, using precise and concise language
- use tenses consistently and appropriately
- avoid colloquial or overly idiomatic language
- use non-gender specific language.

In terms of reporting, a summary should:

- cite the paper correctly on the title page
- refer to the paper's author(s) explicitly by page reference
- use direct quotes only for usages peculiar to the paper
- conform to the word limit.

6. Academic writing

What is academic writing?

What makes some writing academic and other writing not? While there is not one single type of academic writing, there are some expectations that are common to most types of academic writing.

Opinions

Perhaps most important is the idea that you must have something to contribute. This is usually an opinion about something, but what that something is can vary widely between assignments.

Justification

One of the key requirements of academic writing is that you will support your opinions with good, well thought-out reasons. Often this can be difficult for students whose previous education has stressed learning facts and figures: the reason for believing an opinion is simply that you were told it was true by a lecturer!

In academic writing you are expected to listen to your lecturers and read what other academics have to say, but just because they say it does not make it (or you) right. You are expected to reflect on all the ideas you have encountered, and come up with your own ideas. If you find yourself strongly agreeing with someone else, you must be able to say why you do so.

You need to think in terms of convincing other people that your opinions are at least sound and reasonable (if not totally right!). Think ‘why should someone believe this statement?’ and you will be on the way to thinking academically.

Organisation

To express an opinion and to support it with well thought-out reasons are the two most important characteristics of academic writing. A third, often neglected, characteristic is: organisation.

You can have the best opinions and the best reasons in the world, but if your audience cannot follow what you are trying to say then they will not be convinced. As an academic writer you have a duty to make what you have to say make sense to someone else, and in order to do that you need to carefully organise your reasons, and present them in a way that makes them easy to understand.

In addition to helping your readers to understand your ideas, good organisation can help you as well, by helping you to see what you are trying to say more clearly, and showing you where your reasoning might need more work.

Summary

While there are many different sorts of academic writing, all of them should share at least three important characteristics: they should express an opinion; they should justify that opinion with well thought-out reasons; and they should be well organised to help your readers understand your opinions and your reasoning.

Thesis statements

The thesis statement is crucial to clear and effective writing. It is the sentence that tells the reader, in a nutshell, what your opinion is. The thesis statement should be presented in the introduction of your essay.

Why are thesis statements so important?

Thesis statements are important for three reasons:

1. writing a thesis statement forces you to be clear about what you are trying to say
2. the thesis statement lets the reader know what you are trying to say
3. the thesis statement organises your whole essay — if you write something that does not help convince the reader of your thesis statement, it has no place in your essay.

You may have many things that you want to say about a particular topic, and what you have to say might be important. But it is easy to try to do too much and end up doing nothing at all — if your reader is not clear about what you are trying to say, then you have wasted your time. Topic sentences help you to avoid confusing your reader with too much information.

Tip: when you are writing an essay, you usually have to provide the marker with an answer to a question. Your thesis statement should be your answer, and the rest of the essay should aim to convince the marker that your answer is a good one.

Criteria for a good thesis statement

A good thesis statement must be:

- substantive
- contestable
- specific.

Substantive means that the thesis statement must have ‘substance’ — it must make a claim, not just describe the topic or what the paper is going to do.

Contestable means that the statement is such that somebody else might contest it. It should lead the reader to think ‘You’ll have to explain that’! It is not contestable if it refers only to the organisation of the essay, or to your personal experience, or repeats what is a commonly held belief that needs little or no explanation.

Specific means that the thesis statement is sufficiently detailed that the reader can recognise the central concepts that you will develop in the essay. If you are specific in stating these concepts, then when readers see that language reappear they will feel that your text is coherent.

Exercise

Which of the following are good thesis statements? Explain why, using the three criteria.

1. World hunger has many causes and effects.
2. Salinisation is a major problem in Australia.
3. This paper is about different models of good governance in developing countries.
4. Corruption in the public sector in developing countries is a difficult problem to overcome because it is often not easy to recognise, and even when it is recognised it is commonly impossible to rectify due to the vested interests of those in authority.
5. In this essay I will examine the environmental effects of coal mining.
6. In this paper it will be maintained that affluence and technological improvement are as important as population growth in contributing to the overuse of natural resources.
7. This essay will argue that problems in the delivery of health services in developing countries are due less to lack of resources than to the drift towards cities, and the consequent overcrowding, lack of sanitation and changes in lifestyle.
8. This paper will give a general overview of the two reports followed by a discussion on the forestry sector in Indonesia.

9. Provincial economic policy must be informed not only by public opinion and fiscal responsibility but also by research funded without corporate interest. Without careful consideration of environmental impacts, short-term economic gain becomes long-term fiasco.
10. This paper will look at the overuse of natural resources, identify the causes, and discuss what is the most significant factor causing the overuse of these resources.
11. In many countries, coal mining has had negative impacts, including damage to wildlife habitat, scarring of the landscape and pollution of waterways. This paper will argue that mining companies cannot be trusted to protect the environment and that powerful environmental legislation and intense monitoring are necessary to reduce such impacts.
12. This essay is divided into three parts. The first part deals with the policymaking process. The second part identifies the key players in health policy. The third part evaluates the impact of the immunisation policy.

Argument & evidence

Once you have told your reader what your opinion is, you then need to *sell* it to them. When you have something that you want someone else to agree with you about, you have to provide them with reasons to agree with you.

The key to this is your *argument*. An argument is not a fight, but a set of reasons that leads you to agree with a *conclusion* — in your assignments, that conclusion will be given by the thesis statement we discussed above. We will discuss arguments in more detail in a later session, but below are some important points to start thinking about.

Argument outline

When constructing an argument, first you need to construct an argument outline.

By the time you start the writing process, you have already conducted your research and done some brainstorming, so you know what you want to say, now is the time to make sure that your reasons do actually support your conclusion!

Terminology

Different terms are used in different ways when talking about arguments and essays! Here is some of the terminology involved.

Claim: a claim is simply an assertion that you make, for instance, ‘it is raining,’ ‘Pakistan won the test match,’ or ‘We should raise tariffs.’ Claims must be supported by reasons.

Conclusion: in an essay it is the last paragraph, in an argument it is the claim that the argument proves. We often put the conclusion first in an argument outline, as you can see in the example on the next page.

Thesis: the thesis of your essay is the claim that you are going to support — it is the same as the conclusion in the argument.

Reason: a reason is the evidence you have for asserting your claim — your reasons can be based on first-hand experience, on the opinions of others, on statistics, or on other arguments. In an argument outline, you simply list your reasons, but in an essay, you must convince your readers that your reasons are valid!

Premise: a premise is another name for a reason, and it is the term usually used in logic. Our argument outline will list the conclusion, followed by the premises that support it.

What is an argument?

An argument is a set of reasons, or premises, that support a claim that you want to make. That claim is the conclusion. The key to an argument is its logic (although this is not all there is to it!).

The logic of an argument is simply the strength of the links between the premises and the conclusion. For example:

<p><u>It is raining (conclusion)</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Only rain makes things wet. (premise 1)2. I am a thing. (premise 2)3. I am wet. (premise 3)
--

Notice that there is a relationship between each of the successive premises:

- the first premise talks about things and wetness
- the second premise talks about me and thingness
- the third premise talks about me and wetness.

Three premises introduce three ideas that are linked between all three. That's a good indication that the logic of our argument is on the right track.

This example shows clearly, however, how the logic of an argument can be good while the argument itself can be bad. There can be no arguing with the logic of the example — if only rain makes things wet, if I am a thing, and if I am wet then there is no other conclusion to be reached other than that it is raining. The problem with this argument is that its premises are not plausible — in particular, premise 1 does not seem very likely.

So an argument can be poor even when its logic is good, but it is worthwhile keeping in mind that an argument cannot be a good one if its logic is poor.

Logic is important!

Why bother with an argument outline or argument map?

With so much work to do when writing an assignment, why bother with an argument outline/map at all? Why not just start writing, or start with an essay plan?

When we construct an argument outline, what we want to do is see the logic of our argument as clearly as possible. So we present only the bare bones of our case: the conclusion and the reasons, all stated as briefly and as concisely as possible.

Hopefully, once we have trimmed our argument down to its bare minimum, we will be able to see clearly whether the reasons really support our conclusions, or whether we need more, or different, reasons, or possibly even a different conclusion!

You can find two argument outline/mapping templates on page 62 – a linear model and a cumulative model.

Evidence

So far we have looked at your argument from the perspective of your *claims* — the points that you need to make to convince your reader. Each point, however, must in turn be convincing. Without evidence, your claims will be unconvincing.

Types of evidence

Many different types of evidence can be used to convince your reader. We might, for convenience, group them into the following kinds:

- facts
- data
- experience
- authority

Facts are reports of events or behaviours, or statistics that are rarely disputed, and can therefore be used without much risk of your reader disagreeing with you. It is a fact that Australia was settled by the British in 1788; it is a fact that the sun is 149.6 million kilometres away from the earth; it is a fact that the Indonesian flag is red and white.

Data, like facts, are reports of events or behaviour, or statistics, but we tend to think of data as derived from research or experiments that have not yet been completely accepted by the community at large. That does not mean that data is unreliable or that your reader will not trust its use as evidence merely that you must provide them with sufficient detail about how the data was obtained for them to find it trustworthy.

Experience is, in everyday life, the most compelling of all forms of evidence. You may use your own experiences as evidence. Experience is, however, a dangerous form of evidence. Our experiences are *limited*, and this makes them unreliable, because the experiences of other people might be very different. The purpose of research is to try and go *beyond* individual experience and to evaluate many experiences to find a reliable point of agreement. That is why we gather data and use statistics. Be wary of individual experience — even your own!

This does not mean that your — or anyone else's — experiences are *wrong*. If someone has experienced injustice and oppression in a certain place, we might be tempted to argue against them by showing that, statistically, only a very tiny proportion of that population will ever experience injustice. This would be a bad argument, however. By using statistics, we cannot validate or invalidate an individual's experience: that experience is real, no matter how many or how few may experience it.

Authority In academic writing, no-one expects you to gather all your own data or research every single aspect of your topic. Indeed, when doing course-work, you have no time for independent research at all. What you need to do, however, is appeal to authority, by referring to the work of other, respected, scholars, as evidence that your ideas are plausible.

The difference between an appeal to authority in a critical environment and appeal to authority in an uncritical environment lies in the *weight* that it carries in your argument. A critical reader will know that just because a famous researcher holds an opinion does not make it true, it just makes it plausible, or more trustworthy. Thus, we still need to be critical: we need to ask questions where appropriate, and never believe that just because an explanation is plausible that we should stop looking for other, perhaps better, explanations.

Relevance

Evidence must not only be valid, it must be relevant to the point you are trying to make. Relevance in academic arguments is not always obvious. But this does not mean that it is not important. In your own arguments keep your thesis statement firmly in your mind when choosing the evidence to support your claims.

Organisation

Your argument is crucial to selling your thesis statement. If you do not have compelling reasons that lead your reader to your conclusion, then you have not succeeded in getting them to agree with you.

It is often necessary to present your reasons in a way that will make them more compelling or easier to understand. Giving examples, drawing analogies and providing explanations can all help with this. It is also often necessary to consider other points of view and other arguments, in order to convince your reader that you are well-informed.

All of these issues come under the heading of organisation: how you present your argument, and in what order you give your reasons to help your readers understand your points. This can be just as important as the argument itself when it comes to selling your thesis statement, especially when you are tackling a complicated and difficult topic.

The essay plan

In your essay, concentrate on:

1. explanations
2. evidence
3. examples
4. counter arguments.

Academic essay structure

The structure of a well-written academic essay usually follows a pattern. The introduction starts from a broad perspective then narrows in on the topic. It begins with one or more general statements, which contextualise the topic and give background. It ends on an indication of how that topic will be approached, that is, what the conclusion (thesis statement) is. The body consists of specific information and arguments leading to the conclusion. The conclusion states the answer to the essay question (or the solution to the problem in a report), then broadens into one or more general statements about what this implies for the discipline theory as a whole (or the practical implications, or in the case of a report, the recommendations).

Introduction

- general statements - establish the general topic
- provide background which puts topic in context
- indicate the importance of the issue
- state the position you will argue (thesis statement)
 - state the claim - position/controlling argument/main idea/assertion - of the essay
 - should be substantive, contestable, specific
- essay outline (road map) - give the issues you will cover and in which order.

Body

- provide evidence to support your position/thesis statement
- each paragraph has a topic sentence that tells the reader the main idea of the paragraph
- other sentences in the paragraph provide evidence to support the topic sentence
- evidence can be: reasons, examples, statistics, ideas, research or arguments of other writers.

Conclusion

- refer back to the essay question
- restate the thesis/controlling argument
- summarise and synthesise the main points
- point to broader implications for policy and/or practice
- **NOTE:** Do not add any new ideas or evidence in the conclusion.

Example essay outline

Here is how this might work. This, for example, is an argument about the role of the IMF:

The IMF should be disbanded (conclusion)

- main role of IMF to monitor exchange rates (premise 1)
- exchange rates have all been floated (premise 2)
- markets operate best when unhindered (premise 3)
- the IMF monitoring hinders exchange rate markets (premise 4)

Then let's develop that argument into an essay plan:

Introduction:

changing landscape of international finance (context);
origins of IMF (context);
IMF no longer relevant (THESIS);
reasons: role, current situation, market theory (roadmap)

Body:

Point 1: Role of IMF (argue)
Point 2: Counter argument – IMF develops (describe)
Counter argument – IMF develops (refute)
Point 3: Floating of currencies (describe)
Point 4: Market theory – best unhindered (argue)
Point 5: IMF hinders (argue)
Point 6: IMF's role in Greenland (example)
Point 7: Counter argument – IMF helps (describe)
Counter argument – IMF helps (refute)

Conclusion:

role of IMF, market theory (summary).
IF IMF's role is to monitor, AND monitoring harms the market, THEN disband IMF
(conclusion);
new situations call for new ways of managing international finance (context).

Notice how the essay plan builds on the argument outline. Also notice how the essay plan is concise and to the point — there is no unnecessary information, and words are kept to a minimum. This helps to see whether or not the *structure* of the essay is working or not.

7. Essay writing process

Stages

Analysing the topic

The most important stage in writing an assignment is the first: analysing the question. Even if you write a brilliant essay, it will fail if it does not answer the question, so make sure you know what the question is actually asking you to do.

Put the question into your own words. Read lecture notes, textbooks, reading bricks, for background. Identify what aspects of the topic you need to investigate or concentrate on to develop your argument. Make a mind-map or preliminary breakdown of the topic or question list to help you identify keywords to search for sources.

Finding and evaluating resources

Identify suitable resources — including journal articles (essential), books, reports, web-sites of reputable organisations, monographs, review articles. Evaluate these resources to make sure they are appropriate, credible, scholarly and recent enough.

Reading and taking notes

Note all bibliographic details. Use a note taking style which suits you. Distinguish your own thoughts in your notes. Evaluate each source's arguments and evidence.

First draft

Re-read all your notes. Make a mind-map, table and / or outline. Analyse the main issues and include them. Then write your first draft as a brainstorming exercise (See Brainstorm template, p. 61). Concentrate on generating ideas and arguments. Do not be self-critical at this stage. Think about your overall answer to the question and how you can justify it.

Rewriting / editing

Read through your first draft with a critical eye for the argument. Have you answered the question? Do your ideas connect with each other and your conclusion? Have you used your evidence effectively, and cited sources carefully? Have you introduced the topic well? Is your conclusion strong and precise?

Proofreading

Read through your second or third draft with a critical eye for the writing. Use a checklist to help you remember all the aspects you need to check (title, name, word count, use of language, punctuation, paragraph layout, consistent use of headings, in-text referencing, reference list — see the assignment checklist on p.77).

Follow-up

Read or listen to the feedback you receive from lecturers. How well did you meet your own writing objectives? How well did you use other students as a resource for discussing your ideas? How could you improve your thinking and writing next time?

Academic Skills Advisors

Think about when you need support the most. Do you need help planning your writing? Are you worried about the structure? Do you need an opinion on how well you have addressed the assignment task? Are you having difficulties with the introduction or thesis statement? An Academic Skills Advisor can help you. But remember to allow time to book a consultation *well before the assignment due date!*

Preparing for an essay

An essay usually has a word limit. What does that limit mean in relation to research? Given that you cannot write down all you know, the word limit is the first assistance you will have in knowing how much research to do. Consider these questions:

- How many parts are there?
- Do you need to define any terms?

Plan your essay and identify the key areas you will need to address in response to the question. What is the topic about which you are required to demonstrate knowledge, and why are you researching it? What initial point of view will you take? Decide this before you begin your research. Begin reading on the key areas you have identified. Use critical questions to guide you. Refer to lecture notes and tutorials on the topic. This will remind you of what you have already read and discussed, so that you feel confident that you do know something about the topic.

Having analysed an essay question, it is expected that you will produce an answer which reflects the fact that there is not necessarily one particular perspective of the subject. There is a range of perspectives and various degrees of difference in the way in which authors approach a subject, both in terms of chronological change (a definition from 1967 may be different to a definition from 1991) and in terms of the perspective or bias the writer brings to the subject (eg. mainstream or periphery, gender, politics, left-wing or right-wing).

Begin by scanning the literature to identify representative perspectives: *representative* means that although you cannot write down every single approach (no essay is long enough to be able to do this), there may be particular authors whose definitions reflect change over time and particular perspectives. By limiting the nature of your discussion to representative cases, you are also limiting your reading.

In order to identify authors to represent the range of views, go back to your lecture readings. A good lecturer will have selected essential readings on the basis that they are representative of the views expressed in the larger body of literature.

By consulting the reference lists at the end of the articles, you will identify other authors who have commented on, disagreed or agreed with the views being expressed. The lecturer may also have highlighted particular authors worth considering during the lecture.

During this process of research, you will come across research material which is appealing to you because it relates to what you know or think. In this way your work will reflect your individuality.

8. Analysing the question

How do you answer a question in a way that meets the lecturer's requirements that you display an understanding of what is being taught? The first step is to make sure that you actually do understand what is being taught! Without a solid grasp of the subject matter covered in classes and readings the question being asked will have no meaningful context, and you will struggle to make sense of it, let alone answer it.

The second step is to make sure that you have understood exactly what the question is asking. This is not always as easy as it might seem. Some questions seem to mask their true purpose, while others have several parts. There are some useful strategies that you might like to try in order to help you understand what is being asked in assignment questions. Remember, however, that ultimately you are being asked to demonstrate to your lecturer that you understand the material you have been taught. If they cannot discern that understanding in your assignment, then you have not answered it well.

Strategies for analysing questions

1. What topic are you being asked about?

First, decide what topic the question is on. If, for example, in a course on economics, you were asked whether a particular country should float its currency, we would expect the assignment to focus on the economic issues involved, rather than the political ones. We could then narrow the topic further to exchange rates — discussing all aspects of the financial system of the country in question would be off-topic.

2. What is the question actually asking?

Read the question carefully, preferably at least twice, to make sure that you know what it is actually asking you to present an opinion on. Not only must you discuss the correct topic, but you must give a direct answer to the question. If, for example, I were to ask you how far it is to the nearest petrol station, and you were to answer that the petrol station is closed at this time of night, you would not be answering my question, even though you were, in fact, discussing the correct topic.

3. What aspects of the topic do you need to include in, and exclude from, your answer?

Sometimes the question itself will set limits on what you should discuss in your assignment, other times you will have to make that judgement. Were you to be asked 'What is meant by economic dualism in the Japanese context', for example, you must pay heed to the final phrase 'in the Japanese context', and exclude information that is not relevant to Japan. Likewise, if you were asked 'What is the relevance of globalisation to developing nations, paying particular attention to sub-Saharan Africa', the question itself tells you that you must focus — although not exclusively — on sub-Saharan African nations in your answer.

4. What type of knowledge is the assignment asking you to display?

Recall Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive skills from Chapter 1, where we divided knowing about something into six 'levels'. Some assignments — in particular short answer assignments and exam questions — focus largely on knowledge and comprehension: Bloom's categories that deal with simple recall and understanding. Most assignments, however, ask you to demonstrate more advanced forms of understanding — Bloom's application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Beware the assignment question that seems to ask you to merely describe something: as a graduate student you are almost always expected to demonstrate more than the simple ability to restate facts.

5. Rewrite the question

If you can rephrase the question in your own words, this is a good indication that you have understood what it is asking. It is not a guarantee, of course, but it is a first step.

6. Ask

If you cannot work out what a question is asking of you, then it is important to ask for assistance. First, you can ask your fellow students — you should, after all, be discussing your assignments in discussion groups. Second, you can discuss the question with an Academic Skills Advisor. Finally, you should ask your lecturer. If you do wish to ask a lecturer, however, make sure that you have made a good attempt to understand the question, and show them your attempts to rewrite the question, so that they can understand where you are having difficulty, and so that they appreciate that you are making a genuine effort.

Thesis statements

Once you have analysed the question, you should be able to provide a straightforward, one or two sentence answer. This short answer will comprise the thesis statement that your assignment will address — the rest of the assignment will, in one way or another, expand on and justify your thesis statement.

It is important, therefore, that your thesis-statement simply and obviously answers the question set for you. If you cannot come up with a concise answer to the question, you need to rethink whether you have understood the question properly.

Keywords

Many academic questions use common key words, also called direction words or task words, which can offer students a clue as to how to understand what the question is asking.

Essay keywords/task words/direction words

Account for	Give reasons for something.
Analyse	Focus on the 'how' and 'why' of an issue or topic. Do not simply describe or summarise.
Compare	Find similarities and differences between two or more objects, ideas, events or theories.
Contrast	Similar to compare, but differences should be emphasised.
Criticise	Assess the merit of something. Consider both good points and bad points and give the results of your analysis.
Define	Give precise meanings with key details. Examples may be useful.
Describe	Recall specific details about size, cost, texture, appearance et cetera.
Discuss	Present a point of view after considering both sides of an issue or question. Your opinion should be supported by arguments and evidence.
Evaluate	Consider both strengths and weaknesses and make a judgement.
Explain	Relate how something happens in the order in which it occurs, or, clarify reasons, causes and effects.
Illustrate	Use examples to demonstrate a point.
Interpret	Express in your own words. Examples may be useful.
Justify	Express valid reasons for accepting a particular interpretation or conclusion, probably including the need to 'argue' a case.
List	Write your answer as an itemised series which may be in point form.
Outline	Provide main points and leave out minor details.
Prove	Give factual evidence, examples or clear logical reasons which demonstrate the validity of a statement/idea.
Relate	Tell the story in clear sequence, or, show how things are connected or similar to each other.
Reviews	Examine a subject critically, analysing and commenting on the main point
State	Present the main points in brief, clear sequence.
Summarise	Give the main points or facts in condensed form
To what extent	Consider both sides, make a judgement and defend it. Similar to evaluate or discuss.

9. Finding and evaluating sources

To develop a reasoned opinion on a topic, first you need to find out what other people think about the topic. Sometimes, however, you may find it difficult to find information about a particular, very specific, topic. Your job is to get enough information to give you an informed opinion, and to make sure you have the best possible balance of general and specific information. This calls for the exercise of good judgement in finding and evaluating sources.

Getting started

First you need to know what you are going to be writing about. Finding useful sources begins with analysing the question and working out:

- what topic the question is asking you to discuss, and
- what aspects of the topic are likely to be relevant.

Once you have a clear idea about what sorts of information you need, then you can start locating sources of information.

Types of sources

The first place to find information about your topic is in your lectures. Both the contents of the lectures, and any reading material mentioned in the lectures, should give you plenty of useful information to get started. But only to get *started*. No lecturer will be impressed with an assignment that refers only to the material discussed in classes: it shows a lack of initiative and is unlikely to reflect all the information available.

In addition to your lecture notes, the lecturer should provide a reading list and/or a reading brick.

Primary and secondary sources

Another useful distinction to make is between primary and secondary sources.

A *primary source* is original material on which other research can be based. Examples include:

- diaries and letters
- interviews
- transcripts of speeches
- reports of experiments
- official statistics
- reports of events from firsthand witnesses (for example, journalists)

Primary sources are considered to be 'raw' data, and must be treated with caution. Although they tend to reflect concrete experience, as we saw when discussing evidence, individual experiences can be very misleading.

If you go on to do research, you may be responsible for generating primary sources of your own, as you observe phenomena and collect data.

A *secondary source* is research that is based on the collection of primary sources (and other secondary sources). Most (if not all) of your course-work assignments will be secondary sources — you will draw on the primary sources of others, often at second or even third hand — to reach your conclusions.

Secondary sources are further removed from the phenomena that they discuss than primary sources, and thus must be used more critically. On the other hand, being more removed from the phenomenon gives more scope for reflection, analysis and evaluation, providing a more comprehensive source of information than a primary source, which often comes from only one perspective.

Finding sources

The easiest way of finding good sources of information is at a library. The ANU Library also offers an excellent online facility at: <http://anulib.anu.edu.au/>. Google Scholar is another good source.

Evaluating sources of information

Just because you found it does not make it useful. It is important to *evaluate* the sources that you find, to see if they are of use to your assignment.

When you have determined what kind of materials you need, and started to search in appropriate ways for them, you need some method of reviewing the material to determine which you will use. The questions you should ask as you skim through material can be organised under five criteria: relevance, recency, reliability, authority, coverage and accuracy.

Relevance

- Is the information directed toward a general or a specialised audience?
- Is the information comprehensive enough for your needs?
- Is the information a primary or secondary source?
- Does the information express a particular point of view

Reliability and authority

- Who is the author of the information?
- What are the credentials of the author? How authoritative is the material?
- Where is the information published? Is there evidence of quality control? How thoroughly has the information been reviewed or edited?
- Is there information on the sponsoring or publishing body?
- Has this information been recommended or reviewed by another reliable source?

Recency

- When was the information published?
- Is the information still valid for your topic?
- If it is an Internet source, is the information regularly updated and how often?

Coverage

- How extensively does the source cover your topic in terms of: time, geography, specificity and point of view (single point of view, opposing points of view, or a range of viewpoints)?
- Is the information complete or abridged?

Accuracy

- How is the information presented? (Fact, opinion or 'advertising')
- If presented as fact, how correct is it?
- If opinions are presented, are they clearly marked as such?
- What kind of language is used? Is there obvious bias?

10. Constructing an academic argument

Claims

A claim is a sentence which purports to be making a true statement about something (that is, it is an assertion).

For example:

- The sky is blue.
- It will rain today.
- Men are more intelligent than women.
- Neoliberal economic theory provides the best foundation for a stable economy.

Most sentences are claims (including this one). Headings and questions are not claims because they do not usually tell us anything.

For example:

- What is a claim? (question)
- Useful claims (heading)

Useful claims

To be useful in academic work a claim must be able to be tested for truth or falsity by reference to observations or other data based in reality (evidence). Such claims are said to be *falsifiable*, that is, they can be disproved. Another way of saying this is that a useful claim is *contestable*.

Good claims are usually therefore also *specific*, because it is difficult to falsify or contest broad generalisations. (Try to falsify or contest the claim that ‘politicians are corrupt’, for example.)

A useful claim will also be about something important, not about trivial matters. In other words, it will be *substantive*.

Finally, a useful claim will also be written *clearly* and unambiguously.

Exercise

Place a tick in each column that applies to the claim. Then using the criteria of specific, contestable, substantive, and clear, rank the claims according to their usefulness.

Claim	Specific	Contestable	Substantive	Clear	Usefulness
I have a hole in my pocket.					
It would be good if we could make sure everyone in the world had a good standard of living.					
Some forest users [in Ghana] have been able to ignore inconvenient rules: government staff meant to enforce them, bribed or impressed by the political connections of the violator, have ignored infractions.					
I am having a bad day today.					
The extreme concentration of economic enterprises and people in cities is based on cheap fossil fuels.					
I like the President.					
Forests cover large areas that cannot be adequately policed.					
Within the scope of the present study, factors indicating the presence of corruption within some areas of government cannot be discounted as readily as factors indicating, in the absence of other concerns, the non-presence of behaviours of ethical and legal concern.					

The role of claims in argument

An argument consists of several different kinds of logically linked claims. The main claim is the conclusion (sometimes called an inference), which is supported by one or more claims that give reasons and / or evidence as to why the reader should believe the conclusion.

Moderating claims

A 'strong' claim will be worded to allow no exceptions, for example: 'Kingdon's policy stream model does not work in a monarchical form of government.' However, such a strong claim is easily falsifiable. A 'safer' claim to make would be: 'Kingdon's policy stream model

does not often work in a monarchical form of government.’ Moderating words such as ‘often’ weaken the claim, but make it harder to disprove, so most claims will be moderated.

Exercise:

Classify each of the claims below:

1. Median daily earnings in these jobs were US\$2.14 (average of just over US\$3.55).
2. Local communities’ preference for immediate exploitation rather than possible compensation for its conservation is obviously a critical issue for integrated conservation and development projects.
3. The rigid mores channelling sex into producing children are already being replaced in many countries.
4. Kissing in public should be banned.
5. Innovation is a process by which new ideas, objects and practices are created, developed or reinvented.
6. Increased cloud formation due to the warmer ocean may block sunlight and moderate the temperature rise.
7. All government policy proposals should be proportionate to the risk created by the problem which the policy attempts to address.

Argument analysis

Identifying reasons

The reason or reasons are claims given in support of the conclusion, reasons why you should believe it. Your second step in analysing an argument is to identify the reasons and/or evidence provided. An argument which gives neither reason nor evidence is an unsupported assertion, which is considered a fault in academic circles. You can criticise an author for using unsupported assertions. Every claim should be supported by reasons, or evidence or both, to be accepted by an academic reader.

Identifying evidence

Reasons are themselves claims, and as such, are in turn open to questioning. Evidence is detailed and factual in nature, and provides support for the reason. Evidence is not always given, as the reason may be uncontroversial (acceptable to the audience), or evidence may be

restricted to a citation. Conversely, sometimes evidence will be given, while the reader is left to infer the reason.

Exercise

Does the following paragraph give reasons, evidence or both?

In principle, the failure to implement environmental policy is perturbing. No one doubts that in the forest belt of southern Ghana unprecedented changes in land use over the last 100 or so years have taken place. Some of these, particularly the cutting back of the high forest, reduction of habitat for wild fauna and flora with probable loss of biodiversity, the potential for increased erosion from cleared plots, possible over-abstraction of some water resources and pollution of others, etc. — are legitimate causes for concern (Wiggins et al. 2004, p. 1949).

Source:

Wiggins, S, Marfo, K & Anchirinah, V 2004, 'Protecting the forest or the people? Environmental policies and livelihoods in the forest margins of Southern Ghana', *World Development*, vol. 32, no. 11, pp.1939-1955.

Argument mapping

It is helpful to map your argument to help ensure you are thinking critically and that you have a clear structure for your paper. You can find two argument mapping templates on page 62: a linear model and a cumulative model.

Summary of argument analysis

- What is the conclusion or claim? What type of claim is it? (factual, value, definitions, causal, recommendation — you need to know as each type requires evaluating differently)
- What reasons and/or supporting evidence are given for the conclusion?
- How many reasons and/or pieces of evidence are given to support the claim?
- Does the main argument contain sub-arguments?
- Are alternative explanations considered?

11. Writing paragraphs

An essay consists of a series of points, each explained in a paragraph. There are three different types of paragraphs: introductions, conclusions, and body paragraphs.

The introduction

The introduction has several parts:

1. show the reader the background to the topic
2. tell the reader what your main point is ie. your thesis
3. tell the reader how you are going to support your thesis.

We call these the *context*, the *thesis*, and the *road map*.

The conclusion

The conclusion should:

1. restate the thesis statement made
2. remind the reader of the supporting reasons
3. discuss the implications for the discipline knowledge / recommendations.

Body paragraphs

Fundamental to good academic writing is the ability to write a good paragraph. Well constructed paragraphs will improve the logical flow of an essay and improve the strength of its arguments.

A good paragraph develops one idea at a time and helps the reader by breaking up the argument of the essay into logical parts. Each paragraph should have: a topic sentence, supporting sentences and (often, but not always) a concluding message or a link to the next paragraph.

Topic sentence

The idea expressed in the topic sentence ‘controls’ the paragraph: each sentence in the body of the paragraph supports or develops this controlling idea. In academic writing the topic sentence is usually the first sentence in the paragraph, clearly indicating to the reader what point is being made.

Every sentence that follows the topic sentence should explain, expand on or argue for the proposition expressed in the topic sentence.

Concluding message

This emphasises the key point you have been making in the paragraph either by succinctly summarising the main points made in the paragraph (if the paragraph was a long and involved one), or restating the key point. The final sentence can also provide a link to the next paragraph.

12. Writing a critical review

What is a critical review?

A critical review is a writing task that asks you to summarise and evaluate a text. The critical review can be of a book, a chapter, or a journal article. Writing the critical review requires you to read the selected text in detail and also to read other related texts so that you can present a fair and reasonable evaluation of the selected text.

What is meant by critical?

At university, to be critical does not mean to criticise in a negative manner. Rather it requires you to question the information and opinions in a text and present your judgment of the text. To do this well, you should attempt to understand the topic from different perspectives (ie. read related texts) and in relation to the theories, approaches and frameworks in your course.

What is meant by evaluation or judgment?

Here you decide the strengths and weaknesses of a text. This is usually based on specific criteria. Evaluating requires an understanding of not just the content of the text, but also an understanding of the text's purpose and the intended audience.

Components of a Critical Review paper

Introduction

- provide background and context for the article
- indicate why the subject is important and worth writing about
- give the title of the book/chapter/article and author's name
 - full name here with subsequent references to the family name only
 - identify the author by profession or importance
- identify the purpose of the author's article
- summarise the author's key argument
- provide a statement of your evaluation of the text (thesis statement)
 - This can be a positive or negative evaluation or, as is usually the case, a mixed response.
- provide an outline of what is covered in the review paper (road map).

Summary

- summarise the main argument/evidence/ findings/conclusions/implications of the text
- use reporting verbs to make clear you are presenting the author's views.

Evaluation/Critique

- indicate the strengths/usefulness of text
- indicate the weaknesses/limitations/problems of the text
- support your critique with evidence from other literature and the text.

Conclusion

- summarise the previous discussion
- restate your final judgment on the value/contribution/importance of the text to understanding of the topic
- comment on the future of the issue/topic or implications of the view expressed.

References

- List of works cited in the review.

See a Sample Critical Review on p. 66 of this Handbook.

Language of the Critical Review

Introduction

Stating the purpose and argument of the article

The aim of this paper is (to claim that) ...

The point of this article is (to claim that) ...

The view presented in this text is that ...

The argument put forward in this book is that ...

The perspective presented here is that ...

Stating your evaluation of the text

[Author names] presents a compelling argument for ...; however ...

[Author names] have written an important and timely article on ... Despite its many strengths there are a number of small, but significant, weaknesses.

Against [Author names], this review will claim/argue/present the view that ...

[Author names] presents a plausible case that ... Less adequate is his/her discussion of ...

[Author names] takes on the difficult task of ... However, ...

[Author names] presents an important discussion of ...

The article [Author names] is an ambitious feat of synthesis, encompassing diverse theories of ... This effort, however, is not fully successful.

[Author names] and [Author names] offer research on an important topic.

However the study suffers from a number of limitations/weaknesses
can be criticised on several counts.

Summary

Stating the views of [Author names] on the topic

[Author names] claims that ...

[Author names] notes that ...

[Author names] argument is that ...

[Author names] conclusion is that ...

[Author names] point is that ...

According to [Author names] ...

The point of [Author names] paper/article/book is that ...

The substance of [Author names] article/paper/book is that ...

[Author names] work/data leads him/her to conclude that ...

Some theorists, such as [Author names] (1989) consider that ...

It is thought by some theorists, for example, [Author names] (1980) and [Author names] (1989) that ...

Attributing a view to another person (when you are not quite sure)

[Author names] claim seems to be that ...

[Author names] seems to be claiming that ...

[Author names] argument seems to be that ...

[Author names] conclusion seems to be that ...

Pointing out assumptions

[Author names] assumes that ...

[Author names] assumption is that ...

The assumption being made here is that ...

The assumption behind this view is (the point that) ...

[Author names] argument depends on the assumption that ...

Drawing a conclusion using the work of others

The conclusion is that ...

The result is that ...

An outcome of this is that ...

A consequence of this is that ...

When [Author names] argument is analysed it can be seen that ...

Analysing [Author names] data shows that ...

Developing [Author names] work/argument to its logical conclusion shows that ...

One possible consequence of Smith's work is that ...

From [Author names] work it can be determined that ...

One outcome of [Author names] work is that ...

Using [Author names] work it is possible to show/argue that ...

Critique/Evaluation

Agreeing with the views of others

As [Author names] concludes ...

This is also [Author names] view ...

Following from [Author names] point ...

The view being put forward here is largely in agreement with (that of) [Author names] ...

The argument being put forward here is similar to that of [Author names] (1980).

Disagreeing with the views of others

Contrary to the views of [Author names], ...

Smith's arguments do not seem compelling for the reasons that ...

In contrast to [Author names] view/argument/data ...

Analysing [Author names] work in this way, it can be seen that ...
Problems arise in [Author names] work (when it is seen that) ...
The point being made here is that [Author names] argument/ conclusion does not follow ...

Adapted from sources:

Australian School of Business, UNSW, Education Development Unit, 'Writing a Critical Review', viewed 18 November 2010,
<<http://wwwdocs.fce.unsw.edu.au/fce/EDU/eduwritingcritreview.pdf>>.

Faculty of Business and Economics, Teaching and Learning Unit, University of Melbourne, 'Critical Review writing', viewed 18 November 2010,
<http://tlu.fbe.unimelb.edu.au/pdfs/helpsheets/text_types/critical%20reviews.pdf>.

Swales, JM & Feak, CB 2004, *Academic writing for graduate students: essential tasks and skills*, 2nd edn, The University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.

13. Writing a quantitative paper

A number of courses at Crawford require students to complete an empirical or quantitative research project and write up a report on completion of their research.

Components of a quantitative academic paper

Abstract

1 Introduction

2 Method/Model

3 Results and Discussion

4 Conclusion

Abstract

What is an Abstract?

- An abstract is a short account of the content of an article written for a scholarly journal/conference, or formal report, research paper or thesis.
- The purpose is to give an overview of the main ideas of the paper.
- An abstract is sometimes called a ‘Synopsis’, ‘Summary’ or ‘Executive Summary’.
- An abstract summarises all sections of the document.

Abstract for a Research Essay (100 – 300 words)

1. Title
2. Name
3. Abstract
 - a. Background/Context
 - b. Purpose (research question)
 - c. Methodology
 - d. Results
 - e. Conclusion
4. Keywords
 - a. Choose three or four keywords

1 Introduction

The Introduction has four parts.

Part 1 Motivation

- show that the general research area is important, central, problematic, or relevant in some way
- include the summary of past studies (**Literature review**)
- introduce a 'gap' in the previous research, or extend previous knowledge in some way
- outline purpose/s
- list research questions or hypotheses.

Part 2 Methodology

Part 3 Main results

Part 4 Structure of the paper

2 Model

- describe the method / model and explain why it was used
- give details of the data used.

3 Results and discussion

Results

- summarise main results/findings using tables, figures
- identify stronger and weaker results
- comment on whether the research hypothesis is supported.

Discussion

- explain and interpret results
- highlight the strengths of the study
- discuss how results relate to previous studies
- point out agreement/discrepancies with previous studies
- comment on whether the result is expected or not expected
- suggest explanation for a surprising result
- mention any limitations of the study
- discuss the implications of the results.

4 Conclusion

In the conclusion, you:

- restate the research question/hypothesis
- summarise the main contributions (solution)
- suggest implications for policy and practice
- indicate any limitations in the study and future possible extension.

References

- List only publications directly cited in the paper, using the Crawford Referencing style.
- Refer to Crawford Style Guide.

Appendix

- Provide detailed data results, including tables or figures.

For more information on preparing the research essay, a good source is:

Swales, JM & Feake, CB 2004, *Academic writing for Graduate Students: essential tasks and skills*, 2nd edn, University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor.

Language of the empirical academic paper (sentence starters)

1 Introduction

Part 1

The increasing interest in has heightened the need for

Many recent studies have focused on ...

Recently there has been wide interest in ...

The relationship between and has been studied by a number of authors.

Knowledge of has great importance for ...

The study of has become an important aspect of

The effect of has been studied extensively in recent years.

The relationship between and is still not completely understood.

A central issue in is.....

Recently there has been growing interest in

The development ofis a classic problem in

Knowledge of has great importance for

Review current understanding of the topic (literature review)

Easterly (2011) argues that

Similarly, Jones (2009) finds/reports that

On the other hand, Smith (2008) concludes that

However Liu's (2012) findings suggest/show that
In contrast, Melville (2005) demonstrates/proposes that
Taken together, these studies indicate

Part 2

However, previous studies have focused on rather than on
However, these results suffer from some limitations
Yet there is little research on
Although considerable research has been done on much less is known about
However, few studies/investigations/researchers/have attempted ...
Emphasis has been on ..., however little attention has been given to ...

A key problem is
A question remains whether

Part 3

The purpose/aim of this research/study is to ...
This research examines/assesses/evaluates ...
The present work extends the use of the previous model ...
This study extends the findings of the previous work by ...
This paper addresses the issue of ...
The research problem is ...

The findings/results indicate ...
This paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 gives ...
The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section 2 ...
The remainder of the paper is divided into five sections. Section 2 describes ...

2 Methodology

This study/research uses/includes/disregards/considers/ compares

3 Results

The results suggest /show/ demonstrate/ indicate
Table 1 / Figure 1 presents/ summarises/ illustrates/reveals/ provides/ gives

4 Discussion

The results indicate/ suggest that ...
The results question/undermine previous research ...
The results support the hypothesis that ...
The earlier work failed/neglected to ...
Overall ...
In general ...

5 Conclusion

This study examines/investigates ...
The study used x model/methodology ...
The results indicate ...
There are several policy implications. First ...
There were a number of limitations in the study ...
Future research could ...

Hint: For more on the language of the research essay, go to:

<http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/>

14. Oral presentations

Time, purpose, structure and manner

Managing your time

Many speakers focus on the amount of information they want to convey, rather than the amount of time they have in which to convey it. In an oral presentation of 10 minutes, given that you need to introduce and conclude, you will be able to cover between two to four points briefly.

It is unacceptable to go over time. Often examiners will either deduct marks, or the following speaker may be penalised by having their time cut in order to complete the session within a specific time.

Help manage the time by limiting the scope of your presentation. You can indicate this at the beginning of your presentation, clearly stating what you will, and will not, be discussing:

- Although there are several theories, this presentation will only focus on two...
- This presentation focuses only on the private sector as opposed to the public sector...
- Although the effects have been apparent since 1970, this presentation focuses on the period 1976–86...
- Implementation, rather than policy formulation, will be considered...

The purpose

As with any form of communication, it is important to know not only what you want to say, but what your *audience* is expecting from you. The purpose of the presentation is important to how you present your material, how much detail you give, how much background information you give, and what aspect of your content you focus on.

In order to gauge the purpose of your presentation, you should ask the following questions about *who*, *why*, *what* and *how*.

- *Who* are you speaking to? How many people will there be? What kind of room will you be presenting in? Will the audience be close to you or far away? Will the presentation be formal or informal? Will the audience be familiar with the topic? How much can you assume members of the audience know, and how much do you think they want to hear?
- *Why* are you giving a presentation? Are you being assessed, and if so, what are the assessment criteria and expectations? What guidelines have been issued? Talk with your lecturer about what they expect you to do.
- *What* do you want to say? What do you want the audience to know? Why do you want them to know it? Why will the information you present be useful to the audience? How? (presentation objectives).
- *How* are you going to interest your audience and persuade listeners that the content of your presentation is interesting, informative and useful?

Structure

At the beginning of your presentation make it clear to the audience what the presentation will be about and the main points it will cover. Make sure they do not lose sight of the big picture — presenting a lot of detailed information with no reference to your topic is a good way to make sure your audience gets lost and bored.

To avoid losing your audience, try the following strategies:

- Introduce the topic clearly.
- Define or explain terms if necessary.
- Have an effective introduction and a conclusion.
- Begin with a brief outline of what will be covered in the presentation.
- Have clear and logical links between sections.
- Let the audience know what stage you are at by using signposts, such as: ‘the first point is’, ‘the second point is’, ‘another important factor is’, ‘in conclusion’.

Manner of speaking

Standing up in front of a group of people can be intimidating, and people can become nervous. Put effort into making your presentation as clear and well-spoken as you can, so that your audience does not miss any of your information. Keep these points in mind:

- Volume and speed:

Volume and speed can be a problem for both international and native speakers. There can be difficulties with the voice of the speaker being too loud or too soft. There is also a balance between going so slowly that the presentation loses all interest for the audience, and so fast that speech becomes incomprehensible.

- Eye contact:

Have eye contact with the audience, but do not stare! Avoid looking only at one or two people (very often the lecturer); include as many of the audience as possible.

- Body language:

Body language can influence an audience: nervous students for example, may smile/laugh inappropriately, or use gestures/body movements inappropriate to the setting.

- Pronunciation:

It is important to learn to pronounce the specialised words of the discipline. Pronunciation is often based on reading a word, not listening to it, which can lead to both embarrassment and confusion.

- Unrestricted sound flow:

It is important to face the audience and not obstruct the line of sight between the speaker's mouth and the listener's ear. Often nervous students will talk to their shoes, or the ceiling, or hide their mouths behind their hands or papers. What habits do you have when you are nervous?

- Memorising or using notes:

Writing out your presentation and reading it aloud is best avoided. Although it offers some security to the presenter worried about forgetting what they are going to say, it can lead to problems for the audience in understanding what is being said. It forces the reader to look down, losing contact with your audience and often makes people mumble, and it is easy to lose your place, which can be both embarrassing for you and distracting for the audience. Finally, it can be a problem if English is a second language, because reading from a page can distort your articulation and pronunciation.

Memorising, however, is risky. Memorising every word, and then reciting it back can be monotonous for the listener. Memorising a speech can make it difficult to cope well with unexpected interruptions and questions, and makes it difficult to convey enthusiasm for what they are doing. Memorising the whole speech, word for word, is therefore best avoided.

Using notes is the best alternative. The quality of the notes, and the ease with which they can be referred to determines the quality of the presentation. Use notes as a guide for speaking, and do not read word-for-word. Only your key points should be written down — you should never write down actual sentences and paragraphs, unless remembering the exact wording of a phrase is important. Notes should be typed in large font with double-line spacing, making them easy to read from a distance.

Using PowerPoint /slideshows

A common way of keeping your audience engaged with your presentation is to use PowerPoint slides.

PPT slideshows can be effective as presentation tools. They can, however, also be awful, distracting the audience and detracting from what the speaker is trying to say.

These suggestions can help to keep your slideshow focused and useful!

- Use your slideshow to keep the audience focused, not to distract them. You can use slides in two ways: first you can present your outline and key points, so the audience knows what you will be saying, and where you are in the presentation. Second, you can put useful illustrating material — either pictures or text — in your slides. But illustrations do not *make* a point for you, they only *illustrate* a point that you have already made.
- Keep the amount of information on each slide to a minimum. Five points, or 6-8 lines of text should be a maximum.

- Never put large amounts of text on a slide, as it (a) becomes difficult to read, and (b) distracts your audience, as they try to read the text on the slide rather than listening to you.
- Never copy a page from a book or article or newspaper straight into a slide, as it will be too small to read. If you must use a section of text from a source, make sure you enlarge it sufficiently.
- Make sure that your text is large enough to read clearly from the back of the room, and that your text is presented using high-contrast colours: blue text on a red background is difficult to read! Use as much black and white as you can, keeping colour for small highlights.
- When you are using diagrams, tables or graphs, you may need to enlarge them so the audience can clearly read the headings and information.
- Include the title of your presentation and the title of the slide at the top so that the audience can immediately note the relevance. At the bottom of each slide include the source of your information if appropriate so that the audience may note the details.
- The language should be clear and precise, and spelling correct.

Just as important as the material *on* the slide is how you refer *to* the slides. It does not look good if you stand with your back to the audience talking to the screen, and it makes it difficult to hear what you are trying to say! Face your audience, and stand somewhere where you can easily see the screen without having to pivot away from the audience.

Finally, you should neither treat your slideshow as the whole presentation, nor should you ignore it, leaving it to run in the background with no acknowledgement. *Use* your slides to reinforce what you are saying to your audience. You could use phrases such as:

- This slide shows ...
- I'd like to draw your attention to ...
- Please note ...
- Compare x and y, as shown on this slide ...
- As this slide shows, this means...

15. Examinations

Why exams?

Exams are set so that lecturers can gauge students' knowledge and understanding of the course that may not be available through other forms of assessment.

Exams can test:

- ability to recall and apply theory
- knowledge of the content area
- critical thinking and problem solving skills
- communication skills
- ability to work alone and under pressure
- the authenticity of your work

Exams can be very stressful. Many students find them difficult. Here are some useful techniques to improve your performance in exams.

Exam management strategies

There are two parts to managing exams:

- **preparation** and planning before the exam
- **performance** during the exam.

Exam preparation

By planning ahead - from the beginning of the year or semester - you can maximize the effectiveness of your study and revision time.

Regular revision

Regular revision is essential in preparing for exams. Don't leave it until the last minute. This is called cramming. At a tertiary level, it is difficult to read and learn an entire semester's course in one week's study vacation.

These strategies and processes help to maximize your revision.

- Read required texts weekly
- Revise after each lecture. If you have not understood a particular topic/area, you will need to do more reading, ask questions in tutorials or of your lecturer, do more independent research or ask other students
- Summarise your notes to help in the development of a better understanding of the topic. Understanding the whole course and not just the isolated parts helps you to see the reasons for and connections between the concepts
- Develop a weekly study timetable
- Establish regular study habits
- Manage your time.

Active revision

Simply re-reading your texts and notes will do little to help you learn the material. You need to make your revision active to improve your ability to store and recall knowledge. Revision is best done on a regular basis.

Form a study group and revise with others.

This allows you to exchange, clarify and expand your understanding of the subject.

Look back over all your notes for common themes/ideas.

Link these together to develop your understanding of that topic.

Create a list of topics from your subject outline.

Develop a list of likely questions on each topic.

Develop question analysis skills.

Use visual aids

Draw maps, diagrams, flow charts, pictures, to see and create associations. These are generally easier to remember than 'slabs of text'.

Use highlighter pens.

Download past exam papers

Look at past exam papers and practise answering them.

This helps you to prepare for and predict the sort of questions that might be asked and to work out the best possible answers.

Create mock questions and dot point your answers.

DO NOT learn by rote.

Review your course work

Look for strengths and weaknesses in your understandings. Fill in these gaps.

Review lecturer's comments from lectures or from your assignments.

Time management

Many demands are made on a student's time. Managing your time effectively both during the year and through active revision is important. Don't leave everything until the last minute.

Use time management strategies to improve your study and revision.

- Create study & revision timetables.
- Begin revising for exams at the beginning of the semester. A revision time should be integrated into your regular study timetable. For example, 1 hour per week per course should be included in your study timetable.
- Set specific goals for each session.
- Set achievable, specific learning goals for every 40-60 minutes that you set aside for revision.
- Take regular small breaks, eg 5-10 minutes per hour study block.

Have something to eat and / or drink as required.

Have variety.

Don't revise/study a topic hour after hour. Give yourself a mental break by studying different topics. This can also help you to see connections between topics / themes.

Exam Performance

Exam formats and requirements

- Check exam timetable - time, date, room?
- Travel - check travel arrangements and times – arrive early
- Time allowed – reading & working time?
- Exam format - essay, short answer or calculations?
- Is there a choice of questions or are they all compulsory?
- How many questions?
- How many marks are allocated to each question?
- Which topics will be examined?
- Allowable materials? - prepare your materials, eg pens, rubbers, calculator, student ID number, dictionary.

Study period (Reading time)

- Adjust your watch to match the clock in the room
- Read the whole exam paper thoroughly
- Circle the questions you will answer
- Underline key direction and content words
- Start making notes, outline answers on the exam paper (not the exam script book).

Time management

- 1 It is important to structure your exam time. All exams have a study period (reading time – see above) where you should read through the entire exam paper and plan your answers. Mentally prioritise each section and which questions need to be answered.
- 2 Work out a time breakdown for each section/question, identify the easy questions and look at allocated marks etc.
- 3 At the beginning of the exam, circle the questions you will answer, re-read them and underline the keywords. You can make notes on the exam paper but not in the exam script book!

Types of exam questions

When answering short answer and essay questions, remember to:

- Read and analyse the question
- Underline key direction and content words
- Recall what you know about the topic
- Select from this the facts that are relevant to the question
- Write an essay plan/outline
- Organise these ideas into a logical order – follow basic essay procedure, i.e. introduction, points, conclusion
- Begin writing your answer
- Use short, clear sentences, rather than long complex sentences where you risk losing control of the meaning

- If you are running out of time, finish the question using dot points
- Try to write legibly
- If you have time at the end of the exam, proof read your essay for grammatical and spelling errors.

Stress management

Managing stress is important.

- You can minimize stress by being prepared before an exam and not leaving your study till the last minute. Maintaining physical fitness is important, with regular meals, sleep, exercise and relaxation.
- Relax - avoid panicking. Panicking accelerates heart rate, sweating, fast breathing and destroys short term memory. This makes it harder to recall information and increases the panic factor, thereby turning it into a cycle.
- Breathe. Long, slow, deep breaths help to calm you physically and mentally.
- Positive thinking. Tell yourself you can!
- Focus on the task at hand. Do each part one at a time. Don't think about one large exam, but 10 small questions.
- Plan time for each question - ask yourself what the examiner is looking for in the answer.
- Answer the questions in the sequence that is easiest for you.
- Leave time at the end for reviewing your answers.

The golden rules

- ✓ Get enough sleep the night before
- ✓ Eat something
- ✓ Avoid talking to panicky people
- ✓ Read the instructions carefully
- ✓ Make a time management plan and stick to it
- ✓ Watch the clock
- ✓ Start with the easy ones
- ✓ Build in revision time
- ✓ Do not leave the exam early
- ✓ Take control of your stress and make it work for you.

Successful exams

Success in exams can be increased by being prepared. By employing regular and active revision techniques, more information will easily pass into your long term memory and this will help you to identify areas to focus on.

Adapted from :

https://www.dlsweb.rmit.edu.au/lsu/content/1_studyskills/study_tuts/exams_ll/manage.html Additional resources

For more information about examinations at ANU, go to: <http://students.anu.edu.au/aep/exams/>

16. Academic honesty and plagiarism

ANU policy on academic honesty and plagiarism

‘Academic honesty embodies the principle that a student's work is original and authentic and completed only with the assistance allowed according to ANU rules, policies and guidelines.

In particular, the words, ideas, scholarship and intellectual property of others used in the work must be appropriately acknowledged.

Academic integrity is about honest presentation of academic work. It involves acknowledging the work of others while developing your own knowledge and ideas.

Breaches of academic integrity include plagiarism, collusion, the fabrication or deliberate misrepresentation of data, and failure to adhere to the rules regarding examinations in such a way as to gain unfair academic advantage’.

It is a student’s responsibility to find out about ANU policies on academic integrity, including plagiarism and examination policies. Ignorance is not an excuse.

To learn more about academic honesty at ANU go to: <http://www.anu.edu.au/students/program-administration/assessments-exams/academic-honesty-plagiarism>

To ensure academic honesty is maintained:

Make sure you understand how to reference sources.

Make sure your work clearly distinguishes between the ideas of others and your own ideas. If you do not reference, it is assumed that it is your own idea!

To get further support to help you in maintaining academic integrity:

- read the course outlines as they include information about academic honesty.
- attend an Academic Skills workshop on note taking, referencing and avoiding plagiarism.
- use the Crawford Style Guide which shows how to reference assignments at Crawford.
- consult with a Crawford Academic Skills Advisor.

Academic misconduct can seriously put at risk your academic career, your future, and, if you are an international student, your ability to stay in Australia to study. Your reputation is important.

17. Turnitin

The ANU uses an online service called Turnitin (pronounced turn-it-in) to provide feedback for both students and lecturers regarding the originality of submitted work. Turnitin allows students to see whether they are using too much — or not enough — material from their sources in their assignments. It does this by comparing your assignments to a vast database of existing assignments, books, articles and websites, and highlighting matches between your assignment and the database. Keep in mind that just because Turnitin highlights some of your assignment it does not mean that you are plagiarising. Turnitin cannot tell whether you have referenced your quotations properly, all it can do is see a match. It is up to you to use the Turnitin Originality Report to check that you are using your sources properly.

When a student submits an assignment through Wattle it is automatically linked to Turnitin. You can submit a draft essay and then open your Originality Report to check the in-text referencing.

If you have made any changes, you can re-submit the paper through Wattle/Turnitin. Turnitin will only provide one Originality Report in any given 24 hour period. This means that when you first submit an assignment to Turnitin, you will receive an Originality Report in a matter of minutes. If you then resubmit that assignment, you will not see the new Originality Report for 24 hours.

To learn more about using Turnitin at ANU, go to: <http://online.anu.edu.au/turnitin>

Use Turnitin to check your in text referencing

Ask yourself:

Step 1 Do I need to add a citation?

Step 2 Do I need to modify the current citation?

Step 3 Do I need to add the author's name?

Step 4 Do I need to paraphrase?

Step 5 Do I need to add quotation marks?

Step 6 Do I need to add the page number/s?

Appendices

Glossary of critical thinking terms

Note that many of these words have other meanings in general use or in other academic fields. Only meanings relevant to critical thinking are given here.

Ambiguous Strictly, having two possible meanings. Sometimes used in the wider sense of having several possible meanings, so that the reader is unclear as to which is intended.

Analogy An analogy is a comparison between two things. An argument by analogy typically has the general form x is like y , x is A , therefore y is A . Arguments by analogy are weak (fallacious when the similarities between x and y do not extend to the property discussed).

Analysis The resolution or breaking up of anything complex into its various simple elements, the opposite process to synthesis; the exact determination of the elements or components of anything complex, with or without their physical separation (Oxford English Dictionary online edition).

Application The bringing of anything to bear practically upon or affect another (Oxford English Dictionary online edition).

Argument Reasoning in which premises are offered in order to justify a conclusion. Arguments exist at both the paragraph level and the whole text level.

Assertion A positive statement; a claim, contention, declaration.

Assumptions Not every argument is fully expressed. Sometimes premises or even conclusions are left unexpressed. If one argues that Rover is smart because all dogs are smart, he is leaving unstated (assuming) that Rover is a dog.

Begging the question Assuming what you want to prove: For example, a circular argument. It does NOT mean prompting or raising a question.

Bias Pre-judgment of an issue, or a refusal to even judge because of emotional or other non-rational commitments.

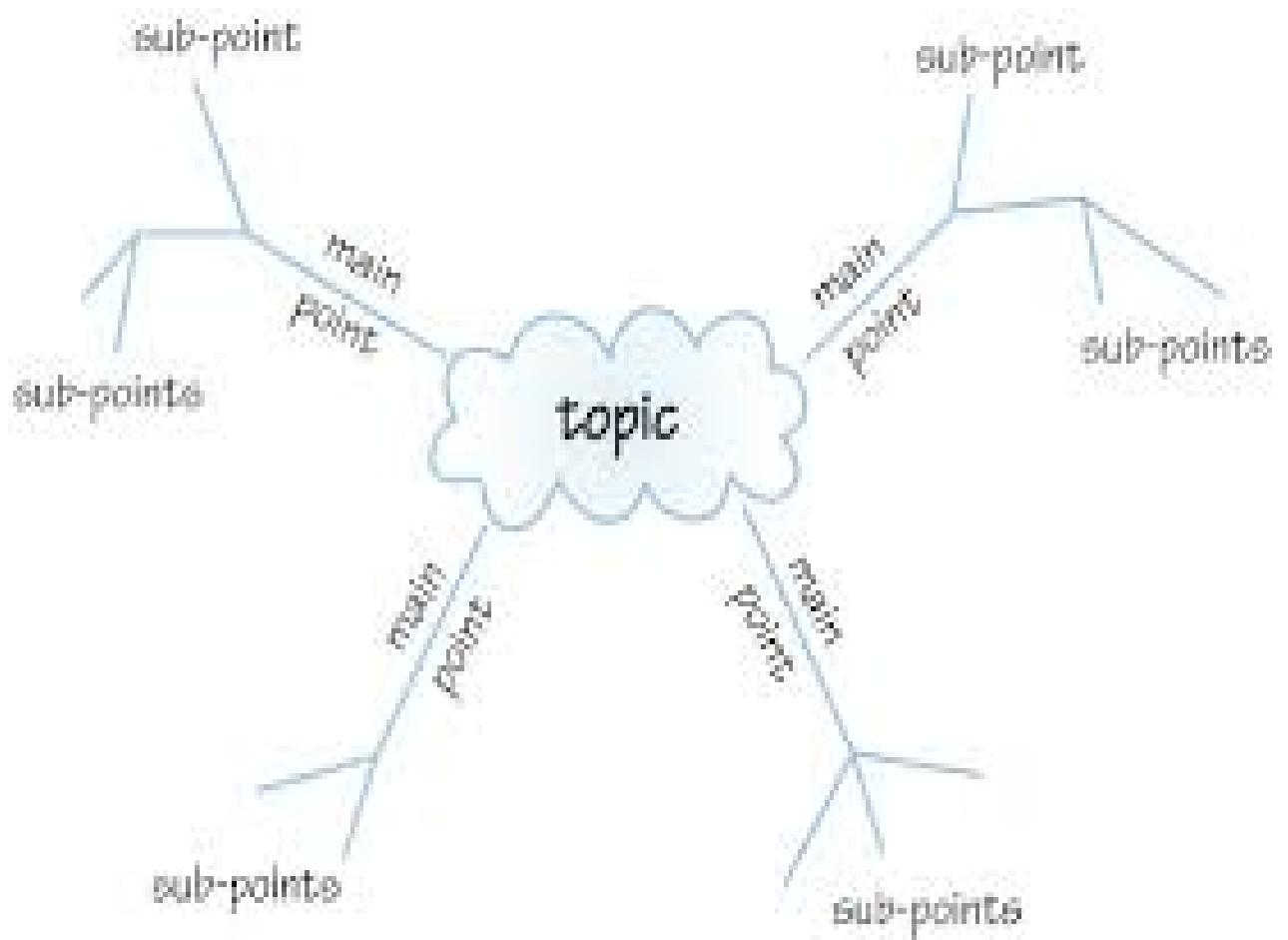
It should be noted that although bias is considered a negative quality, it is also unavoidable. It is important to try to be aware of ones biases, to minimise their impact on reasoning.

Circular argument	An argument in which you assume your conclusion as a premise.
Claim	Any sentence that asserts something that may be true or false and so needs support. See assertion.
Concept	An idea of a class of objects, a general notion or idea.
Conclusion¹	The claim that an argument attempts to prove.
Conclusion²	The summing up of an essay in the final paragraph.
Deductive argument	<p>An argument where the relationship between the premises means that if the premises are all true, then the conclusion must be true as well.</p> <p>For example: All Australians speak Icelandic. Bob is an Australian. Therefore, Bob speaks Icelandic.</p> <p>If the premises were true, then the conclusion would have to be true. Deductive arguments, guarantee the truth of the conclusion, but, as you can see, do not guarantee the truth of the premises!</p>
Equivocation	Changing the meaning of a word during the argument.
Evaluation	The action of evaluating or determining the value of (a mathematical expression, a physical quantity), or of estimating the force of (probabilities, evidence).
Evidence	Evidence is anything that supports a claim: facts, data, statistics, even another argument, can all count as evidence. Not all evidence is good evidence, however, and evidence does not prove a claim, it merely supports it.
Fallacy	A mistake in reasoning, an invalid argument.
Hypothesis	A hypothesis is a conjecture or an model explaining a phenomenon. It allows prediction of what will happen under particular circumstances and so allows testing of the hypothesis through experiment or observation. If the predicted response is observed then the hypothesis is supported, if not then the hypothesis is rejected or modified and retested. As experimental conclusions are always inductive, hypotheses are never proved.
Implication	Something suggested or caused by something else, without being obvious or clearly expressed.

Inductive argument	An inductive argument, unlike a deductive argument , cannot guarantee the truth of the conclusion. It is possible for an inductive argument to have true premises but still have a false conclusion. Inductive arguments are important because it is usually impossible in reality to construct a deductive argument to match the available data. Most scientific research proceeds according to inductive arguments.
Infer	To draw a conclusion based on something. For example, 'We can infer from the data that real GDP is actually falling.'
Invalid	Not valid. The conclusion does not logically follow from the premises, even if the premises are true.
Justify	To show (a person or action) to be just or in the right; to prove or maintain the righteousness or innocence of; to vindicate.
Logic	Logic is the study of correct reasoning. It both describes and evaluates the way in which we draw inferences. Inferences are formulated as arguments and then evaluated as to their validity and soundness. The aim is to find generally reliable (see inductive) or always reliable (see deductive) arguments.
Methodology	The study of the direction and implications of empirical research, or of the suitability of the techniques employed in it; more generally, a method or body of methods used in a particular field of study or activity.
Plausible	Having an appearance of truth, reasonableness, or worth; acceptable or trustworthy but not proven. When preceded by the word 'merely' it carries an implication of appearance only.
Premise	A statement given as a reason for an argument's conclusion.
Proposition¹	see assertion
Proposition²	Something proposed for discussion.
Reason (noun)	A statement of some fact (real or alleged) employed as an argument to justify or condemn some act, prove or disprove some assertion, idea, or belief, one of the premises in an argument; esp. the minor premise when placed after the conclusion.
Reason (verb)	To think through an issue; to use logical means to solve a problem.
Rhetoric	The art of persuasion, often considered the antithesis of logic, because we can persuade people of what is not true, but considered by Aristotle and others to be the necessary complement to logic. Logic tells you that something is true, rhetoric allows you to convince others.

Refute	To disprove by argument, to prove to be false a particular statement or opinion.
Sound argument	A valid argument with true premises.
Substantive	Having a firm or solid basis; not slight, weak, or transitory.
Synthesis	The putting together of parts or elements so as to make up a complex whole; the combination of immaterial or abstract things, or of elements into an ideal or abstract whole.
Theory	A generalisation based on logical extrapolation of values or principles, or on data, or on both. Theories give rise to predictions about what will happen in real life. Case studies, and other data are used to test the predictions based on theories and so to possibly validate the theory.
Thesis	A proposition laid down or stated, especially as a theme to be discussed and proved, or to be maintained against attack.
Unstated premises	see assumptions
Vagueness	Too little information to be of any use to a process of reasoning. For example: 'Something, somewhere, is happening.'
Valid argument	A valid argument is a correctly constructed deductive argument , that is, if the premises are true, then the conclusion must also be true. A valid argument can still have false premises, and therefore a false conclusion. Validity only relates to the form of the argument, not the content. A valid argument that has premises that are actually true is called a sound argument .

Brainstorm template

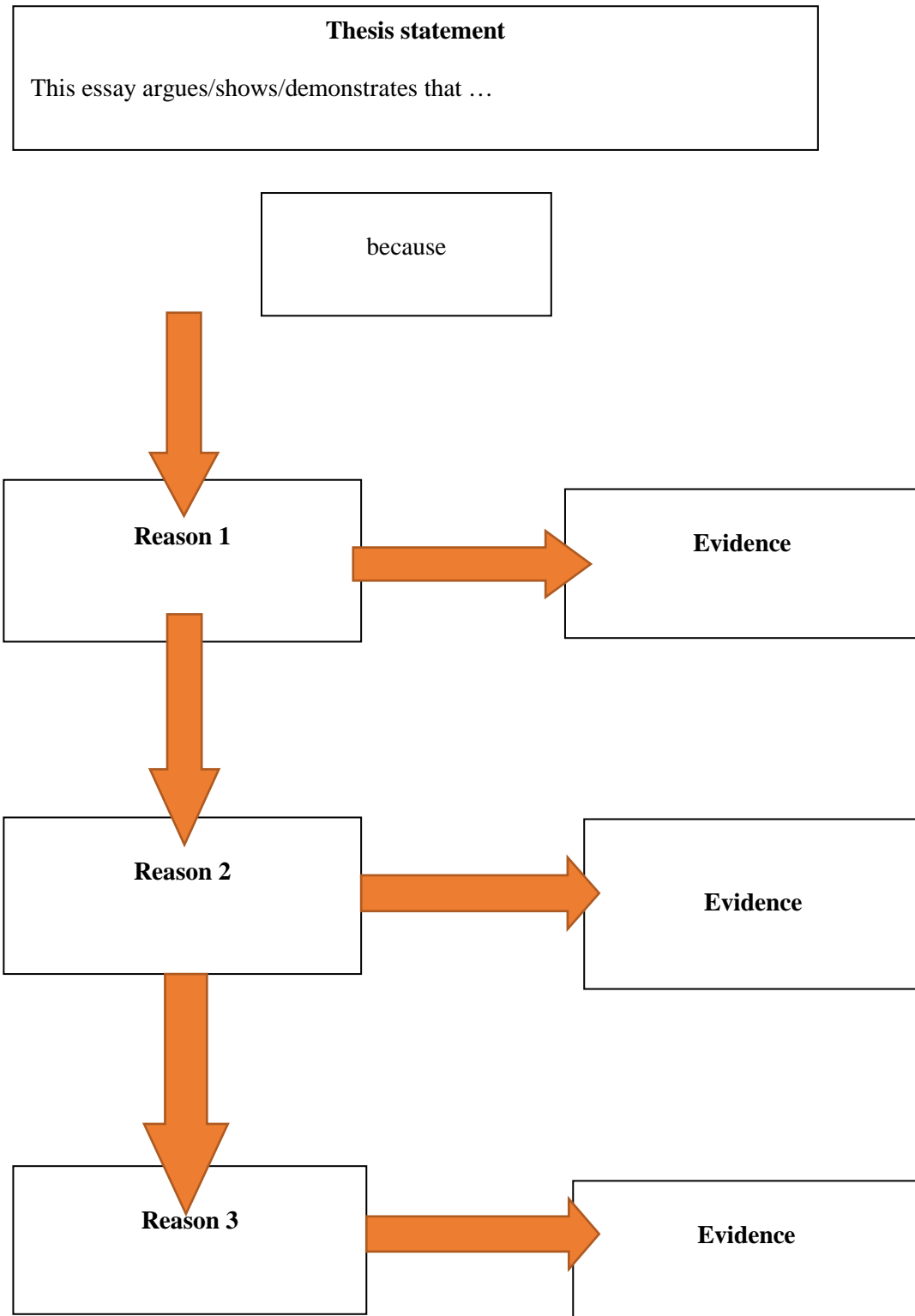


Source:

<https://www.google.com.au/search?q=brainstorming+template&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ei=WOaKUv6FHOvxiAe1voGoBA&sqi=2&ved=0CDoQsAQ&biw=1768&bih=979>

Argument mapping

Linear Model



Reporting verbs

When you mention other people's work, you need to use a *reporting verb* to indicate what the author was doing. The simplest reporting verb is 'states': for example, 'Smith states that...'. We can, however, get much more sophisticated than that, and use reporting verbs that give much more information about what the author is doing.

In order to present the **aims or thesis** of the work cited, we can use these verbs:

- investigates
- examines
- analyses
- focuses on
- considers
- identifies
- reports on

In order to present the **results** of an author's research, we can use these verbs:

- shows that
- establishes that
- demonstrates that
- finds that
- indicates that
- reveals that
- suggests that
- confirms that
- concludes that

Finally, in order to present an author's **opinion**, we can use these verbs:

- states that
- believes that
- argues that
- notes that
- points out that
- observes that
- considers that
- holds that
- claims that
- emphasises that

Other commonly used reporting verbs

Tentative reporting verbs	Neutral reporting verbs	Strong reporting verbs
admit caution consider hypothesise imply moot postulate propose question recommend speculate suggest	assume categorise comment compare contrast define demonstrate describe document discuss examine explain explore focus on found identify indicate interpret list note observe point out present reflect regard report reveal show study use view	acknowledge advocate affirm argue assert assume believe challenge condone concede confirm conclude contend deny declare determine dismiss dispute disregard doubt emphasise endorse establish highlight ignore infer insist maintain misinterpret negate object to oppose presume recognise recommend reject refute reveal stress substantiate support the view that

Verb tense in reporting verbs

Present	Most commonly used tense	<i>Smith (2001) examines the relationship between ...</i> <i>Marklin (2010) argues that ...</i>
Past	To increase 'distance' between you and what you are referring to. To present methodology/results of one specific piece of research	<i>Lefevbre (2002) identified (x) as the main cause of (y).</i> (but you think this may be wrong). <i>Brown (2002) found that ...</i>
Present perfect	Talking about general research in the area	<i>Several studies have explored ...</i> <i>Few researchers have investigated ...</i>

Transitions / Signpost expressions

Here are some transition words and phrases to be used between and within paragraphs.

<p>Conjunctions and but or for nor neither so yet</p>	<p>To summarize or conclude in brief briefly in other words in summary in conclusion on the whole therefore hence thus that is consequently as a result finally</p>	<p>To explain, give reasons admittedly because for example since that is</p>
<p>To compare by comparison here again in the same way in a similar manner likewise similar to similarly so too as also equally balanced against</p>	<p>To contrast conversely however instead a different view is differing from on the contrary by contrast on the other hand unlike whereas otherwise rather than despite still yet but</p>	<p>To show cause and effect accordingly as a consequence as a result consequently for this reason hence it follows that so/so that then therefore thus</p>
<p>To add information and reasons again also another equally further furthermore in addition moreover once more then too too</p>	<p>To show various conditions in this event in these circumstances under such circumstances this (that) being so provided that in spite of none/nevertheless at the same time even if if unless otherwise</p>	<p>To show conviction after all at least at the same time conclusively perhaps possibly</p>

<p>yet again yet another</p>	<p>although even though though despite</p>	
<p>To show concession admittedly after all all the same granted however in any case in spite of nevertheless still obviously (avoid) of course (avoid)</p>	<p>To show chronological order later subsequently concurrently in the meantime now simultaneously at this time when/while/was first, second, etc. formerly earlier previously before then already at length by that time finally followed by</p>	<p>To list or show logical order for example for instance in particular to illustrate the one ... the other this ... that these ... those here ... there either ... or neither ... nor whether ... or though ... yet wherever ... there since ... then the more ... the more</p>
<p>To introduce a topic as for concerning with regard to with respect to</p>	<p>To show purpose in order that in order to so that</p>	<p>To give an example for example for instance to illustrate to demonstrate in this case take the case of</p>

Sample Critical Review

Little, W 1996, "Corruption and democracy in Latin America", IDS Bulletin, vol.27, no. 2, pp.64-70.

1 For many countries of Latin America, liberal democracy is a new system of government that has only recently replaced harsh military regimes. However, despite the adoption of a democratic model, many Latin American countries still experience high levels of corruption. Little (1996) examines whether democracy is incompatible with corruption in Latin America. Little draws on three different approaches to explain the presence of corruption in Latin America, and uses several case studies. His discussion culminates with his conclusion that corruption in Latin America will only be reduced if the ruling elites fear some form of retribution by their constituents. He argues that this would happen if political systems were more responsive: thus formal democracy needs to become more substantive. This paper will argue that, while a more substantive democracy may help tackle corruption, Little fails to take seriously the role of reforms, which serves to weaken his overall argument and conclusion.

The first two sentences provide the broad background to the topic, but also arouse the reader's interest.

Here, the introduction explains the scope of the paper being reviewed.

The thesis statement of the paper which is being reviewed.

The thesis statement of the review paper (i.e., this paper). This is an evaluation of Little's paper.

2 The first section of this critical review briefly summarises Little's argument; while the second analyses the strengths and weaknesses of his argument. The review concludes by asserting that, while the article is well written, it does not provide the reader with a nuanced and complex insight into the relationship between corruption and democracy in Latin America.

Outline of what is covered in the review paper, and its order of coverage.

A further overall evaluation of the paper under review (but is this the best place for this from the reader's point of view?).

3 Little (1996) addresses the problem of corruption from three broad approaches; the reform, realist, and liberal approaches. He points out that without exception, the three approaches have in common an assumption that corruption is likely to thrive under

Summary of Little's paper.

Note that not all aspects of the paper are summarised – just the points that are important to Little's argument.

uncompetitive conditions. In Little's discussion, he suggests that corruption became a public issue in Latin America after civilians came to power. This, he asserts, could be due to an intolerance of 'whistle blowing' in military governments or it could be because corruption is institutionalized in military governments (Little, 1996, p.65). Moreover, Little goes so far as to suggest that the style of democracy practiced in Latin America may actually encourage corruption. He explains that the presence of a tradition of impunity and 'partidocracia' have facilitated the spread of corruption in many Latin American states (Little, 1996, p.65). Indeed, the article paints a bleak picture of Latin American politics and offers only a modest hope for reform.

Will the reader know the term partidocracia or should it have been defined?

4 Notwithstanding, Little (1996) acknowledges that reform in Latin America may be possible. However, he highlights that such change takes time, and presupposes political will, which he claims is nonexistent. He argues, that corrupt behaviour will continue to exist until the ruling elites fear 'retribution by the people' and that such a scenario can only occur if a democratic system becomes more responsive and substantive (1996, p.69). He concludes with a broad claim that, until such time that democracy in Latin America can bring equity among people, corruption will continue unabated.

Note the use of a contrast word to signal a change of direction by the reviewer.

5 For the most part, Little's analysis of the relationship between corruption and democracy is balanced and thoughtful. He successfully convinces the reader that corruption is an enormous challenge facing many Latin America countries. He does this by providing several examples of corruption scandals in countries ranging from Chile to Venezuela and clearly demonstrates his knowledge of Latin American politics, culture and society.

Note the repetition of the words retribution, responsive, and substantive from the introduction. Use of different words might have added depth of understanding or given new information.

The critical analysis begins here with a general judgement as to what Little does well.

6 However, his argument suffers from some contradictions and notable omissions. Fundamental to Little's argument is that corruption will abate only under the conditions of fear of retribution. Therefore, by implication, Little (1996) suggests that such a condition is absent in contemporary Latin American politics. However, this assumption is flawed and there is much evidence to the contrary. For example, Weyland (1998, p.19) claims that recent scandals were pressed, not only by politicians, but also by 'a more vigilant public committed to universalist standards of morally appropriate behaviour'. A possible source of this contradiction may be that Little has a different conception of 'retribution' to the one described by Weyland. If this is the case, a working definition of retribution in Little's argument would have proved helpful.

This paragraph criticises the paper's weaknesses.

The author of the review argues against Little's assumption that no fear of retribution exists in Latin America.

The author provides evidence for their claim.

The author examines a possible alternative explanation for the contradictory evidence.

The comment on the desirability of Little providing a definition, is, by implication, a negative criticism.

7 The most significant gap in the argument put forward by Little (1996) is its failure to take seriously the importance of reform in addressing corruption. Little dismisses the role of reform with ease by simply suggesting that while it might be 'desirable', long-term reforms are 'difficult to sustain' (Little, 1996, p.69). Indeed, reforming a system of governance is a difficult process, particularly when corruption is institutionalised. Little (1996, p.66) rightly maintains that one reason corruption exists is the 'economic vulnerability of the middle-income, educated class from amongst whom most of the political class is recruited'). He also points out that in many Latin American countries, opportunities in the private sector fail at meeting the demand for employment. Interestingly, this scenario is not unique to Latin America and can be applied to many developing countries. However, such a situation highlights the need to improve economic conditions, or to undertake civil service reform. Moreover, it indicates that countries may benefit from reforms like privatisation, such that the private sector could expand and provide more employment opportunities. Accordingly,

Topic sentence clearly states the content of the paragraph.

The author highlights a major deficiency in the paper where Little dismisses the possibilities of reform too readily.

any prescription on how to tackle corruption must include the role of reform. Little's failure to address it as a serious factor belies its significance and only serves to weaken his argument.

8 A further weakness in Little's argument is his over emphasis on the role that the 'tradition of impunity' has played in Latin America. Interestingly, this is tied to his lack of rigorous research into the role of reform. For example, he asserts that the tradition of impunity is a major cause of corruption and argues that this is exacerbated by the lack of legal provisions and agencies to investigate corrupt behaviour in Latin America (1996, p.66). However, it has been suggested that Latin America may in fact be served better by fewer laws relating to corruption (Lozada 2003, p.20). Instead, what is required is judicial reform. Drawing on their extensive research on anti-corruption reforms in Italy, Colozingari and Rose-Ackerman attest to this claim (1998). They assert that a primary factor in tackling corruption in Italy was the creation of an independent judiciary (1998, p.455). Furthermore, they suggest that, as many Latin American countries are without an independent judiciary, Italy should be considered as something of a model (1998, p.455). Accordingly, while Little may be correct in claiming that a tradition of impunity is a source of corruption, based on the evidence above, it should not be considered a 'major cause'.

This sentence uses strong language - 'lack of rigorous research' is a serious defect in academic communities. 'Asserts' has negative connotations in academic circles. Note the reporting language used here to distinguish Little's views from those of the author.

Here the author of the review is once again stating his/her views. This is a claim.

Note the citation of other sources as evidence to support the author's claim.

Oops – it might have been better if the author had used 'argue' or 'conclude' here rather than 'assert,' since they agree with this idea.

Note that while the initial claim is that Little has over-emphasised the role of the 'tradition of impunity', in fact the critique deals only with his alleged claim that 'that this is exacerbated by the lack of legal provisions and agencies to investigate corrupt behaviour'. No evidence relates directly to 'the role that the 'tradition of impunity' has played in Latin America'.

9 Aside from issues of weakness of argument, there are also problems with the author's use of terms. For example, Little claims that the only solution to reduce corruption in Latin America is for democracy to become more substantive. One would assume therefore, that the author would provide a working understanding of what a more 'substantive' or 'responsive' democracy may look like. However, he fails to provide the reader with such a definition. There is already an intellectual debate surrounding the question of

The last position in the body of a text is (second to the conclusion) most likely to be remembered. Is this the best note to end on, or would one of the earlier paragraphs have worked better? Which of the reviewer's arguments did you find most convincing?

what constitutes a democracy, so it is wrong to assume the reader will understand what is meant when he refers to the need for a 'more substantive' style of democracy. This leads to a further question of how a more substantive system of democracy would combat corruption. This is not to disagree that a more responsive democracy could help induce a fear of retribution among the corrupt elites. What is important is that Little fails to explain how such a system would deal with corruption.

- 10 Overall, 'Corruption and Democracy in Latin America' is a useful article for a reader looking for a general introduction to the topic. Little uses examples from several countries throughout Latin America, and obviously has a sound understanding of Latin American politics, society and history. However, judged as an academic article, Little (1996) is less adequate. Little's main argument is problematic and reflects a lack of rigorous research on the subject. Given the potential impact that judicial and economic reform could have on corruption in Latin America, it appears to be an error to marginalise its significance. Moreover, to do so at the cost of giving primacy to 'substantive democracy', while avoiding definition of the term, is a notable oversight. Notwithstanding, the article provides an interesting and lucid discussion on an issue of enormous importance, not just to countries of Latin America, but to many countries across the globe.

The conclusion initially returns to an overview evaluation, that Little's paper is mostly useful as a summary of corruption in Latin America, but is less adequate as a contribution to new knowledge. Usually conclusions might finish rather than start with this broad generalisation.

Note how, by implication, this could contradict the first positive point, that it is a good introduction to the area. If Little has not done thorough research, can we trust him at all?

Note that the summary of the review paper is expressed in totally different words to the paragraph conclusions, giving the reader the sense of freshness, and of a higher view of the topic, although they have met the ideas earlier.

Also note the use of the language of value judgment. What criteria for good papers did the author of the review use in their critique

References

Colozingari, S and Rose-Ackermann, S 1998, 'Corruption in a paternalistic democracy: lessons from Latin America', *Political Science Quarterly*, vol.113, no.3, pp.447-70.

Lozada, C 2003, 'Latin America', *Foreign Policy*, vol.135, pp.18-26.

Weyland, K 1998, 'The politics of corruption in Latin America', *Journal of Democracy*, vol.9, no.2, pp.108-21.

Is this enough supporting material? Are the references formatted correctly?

Sample essay

Read this essay and consider what grade you would give the student. Give an explanation for the grade.

‘Development’ is a Perception which Models Reality: Discuss (1,000 words).

It was a long time ago when the almost world were in the situation of low technologies, low education, low productivity and so on. To escape from this context was the dream of all countries in the world. It was called ‘development’. However, the efforts to do so in turn have been giving rise to many problems such as pollution, inequality, independence and so on. This therefore leads to an argument that it is very development that ruins the world (Bissell 1992). This article will try to examine development both conceptually and practically and make it clear about whether development ruins or makes the world better.

The distinction of concept of ‘development’

First, economic growth which is based on the criteria of Gross National Product (GNP) or Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and income per capita was considered as being synonymous with all economic development as well as development in general. Based on these criteria one divided the world into developed countries, less developed countries and under developed countries. And the 1950s and 1960s were the decades of economic growth in all the world (Meier 1970; Sachs 1992).

However, although there was some economic growth in terms of the rates of GDP and income per capita in almost countries in the world during these decades (World Bank 1981), many problems such as the imbalance of economy’s structure, economic dependence, inequality income distribution and so on became so complicated that they prevented economic growth itself. It was therefore recognised that economic growth was quite not enough to represent economic development. Economic development should embrace changes in structure and equally income distribution and economic dependence.

The issue has not come to an end. It was very the consequences of these efforts for economic growth or development which caused many problems socially, environmentally and even politically such as pollution, inequality, huperson rights, democracy and so on. Therefore it was recognised that economic development was not enough to understand development. ‘Development’ should be understood as a “normative concept” by which the last and universal aim of so-called development is “the realisation of the potential of human personality” (Seers,1972:22).

Thus, such a process of coming to a distinction of the concept of development shows that development itself seems likely to cause problems never seen in history which are damaging the world itself. It seems that the aims of development are destroyed by the development efforts themselves. Just as soon as each time of being damaged, what the development is can be recognised.

The Consequences of ‘development’ efforts.

To understand whether 'development' damages the world or not it is necessary to examine some consequences of 'development' which are likely to be harmful for the aims of development themselves.

Inequality has been seen as a social problem against the aim of development. That is because of the fact that the level of inequality increases when the economy starts growing. Chenery (1974) showed that the level of inequality in poor countries, where the economic growth is accelerated, was even much higher than that in rich countries. In the poor countries with the highest level of inequality, the richest 20 per cent of the population receive 60 per cent of GNP, while the poorest 40 per cent of the population receive only 10 per cent or less. While some income distribution in the United States is less unequal (McGuire and Pichler 1969). However, Kuznets (1955) examining cross-data on the size of income distribution showed a law of an inverted U-shaped relationship between economic development and inequality (see diagram). The law shows that the levels of inequality and income per capita first increase at the same time; then at a certain level of income per capita the level of inequality stops, then after that decreases by any further increase in income per capita. This law implies the fact that high inequality is essential for the beginning of development in order to help national capitalists with accumulating quickly. What can be distributed to every member of society is the fruits of development after a period of time of development. The point is that it is needed to be seen in the long term.

Environment problem in which pollution is the most outstanding is also a consequence of development itself. Pollution of the air, water source, soil erosion and forest damages caused by industry development provoke arguments that 'development' has given rise to factors which ruin the world gradually. Nevertheless, from the other viewpoint, a variety of techniques highly helpful to control damages in environment have been found, for example, techniques to reduce energy consuming in traffic and industrial facilities. They are highly helpful to avoid environment disasters in the future.

Conclusion

'Development' viewed in the long term, and universally is not destroy the world, although in the present they are still giving rise to many problems. So the consequences of development should be considered in the context of the whole progress of 'development'. They are the essential price of development. Of course, in this development process, some countries have to pay a higher price than others. Unfortunately they are usually poor countries. However, some countries such as Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and so on show the fact that whether that price is high or not depends on each individual country, in other words, depends on whether development strategies of those countries are right or not.

This can also explain the fact that economic and political independence which is claimed by poor countries as a consequence of development can be solved. Dependence is essential at the beginning of development process if wanting quick development. Simply because poor countries cannot develop without taking advantage of high technologies from rich countries. That is the reason why there is dependence. However, how much and how long the dependence depends on how good the development strategies of these countries are.

References

Chenery, H.B. et al. 1974, *Redistribution With Growth*, Oxford University Press.

Kuznets, S., 1955, 'Economic growth and income inequality', *American Economic Review*, 45(1).

McGuire, J.W. Pichler, J.A., 1969, *Inequality: The Poor and the Rich in America*, Wadsworth Publishing Company, California.

Meier, G.M., 1970, *Leading Issues in Economic Development*, Oxford University Press.

Sachs, W, (ed), 1992, *The Development Dictionary*, Zed Books, London

Sachs, W., 1992, 'Development: a guide to the ruins' *New Internationalist*.

World Bank, 1981, Figure 11:6.

Assignment criteria & checklist

Academic Paper

Here are the criteria that a well written and well-argued academic paper is expected to meet. You can use these criteria to help you plan, structure and write an academic paper.

In terms of content, an ideal academic paper would:

- maintain focus on the question/task
- provide more analysis than description
- provide a critical analysis of strengths/weaknesses of author's argument
- assess the relevance of the author's argument to your experience/country
- present a logical and coherent argument.

In terms of structure and organisation, an ideal academic paper would:

In the introduction

- introduce the context/topic of the focus paper
- present the overall argument of the focus paper
- have a clear thesis statement, stating the argument of the academic paper
- provide a clear outline of issues discussed in the academic paper.

In the body

- provide a clear and concise summary of the focus paper's argument
- have good topic sentences for each paragraph
- link points well within paragraphs
- link ideas well between paragraphs.

In the conclusion

- provide a clear and concise summary of your overall judgment of the argument of the focus paper
- include a policy recommendation
- make clear how your analysis in this academic paper

In terms of critical analysis, an ideal academic paper would:

- evaluate evidence in the focus paper
- show original thinking in the discussion.

In terms of use of evidence, an ideal academic paper would:

- have all statements supported by evidence
- explain / show why that evidence is relevant
- use sources that are appropriate, relevant and reliable
- have been submitted to Turnitin (Wattle), so that you can check the Originality Report for appropriate use of sources.

In terms of communication of ideas, an ideal academic paper would:

- explain all ideas clearly and concisely
- distinguish clearly between your ideas / opinions and those of the author of the focus paper
- avoid repetition of ideas/phrases.

In terms of use of language, an ideal academic paper would:

- use appropriate academic language (e.g. no contractions, colloquialisms etc.)
- use grammatically correct sentences (e.g. no sentence fragments)
- have very few errors of grammar (i.e. have correct subject-verb agreement, correct use of articles, correct use of singulars and plurals, no loss of meaning through grammar errors)
- use correct punctuation (to help understanding).

In terms of referencing, an ideal academic paper would:

- present direct quotations accurately and with quotation marks
- give author, year and page number for all specific paraphrases and quotations
- correctly reference books (including chapters in edited books)
- correctly reference journals (including online journals)
- correctly reference websites
- correctly reference reports, conference proceedings, unpublished material etc)
- provide an accurate and complete reference list in alphabetical order.

In terms of presentation, an ideal academic paper would:

- show evidence that the assignment checklist has been used conscientiously
- show evidence that the Crawford Style Guide had been used.

Editing Checklist

This is a general checklist to help you work through essays to make sure you have covered all aspects of content, writing and referencing as effectively as possible. Different genres (e.g. critical reviews, research papers, policy submissions) will have specific requirements that you should add to the checklist when you are writing them. You should add to the general checklist as you receive feedback on your writing and identify individual aspects you want to be particularly aware of.

In terms of content, have I ...	
addressed all parts of the question?	<input type="checkbox"/>
stated my argument in the introduction and pursued the same argument throughout the essay?	<input type="checkbox"/>
provided relevant supporting evidence for all the points I make?	<input type="checkbox"/>
used recent and relevant published material from a variety of reliable sources?	<input type="checkbox"/>
In terms of structure, have I ...	
• written an introduction that:	<input type="checkbox"/>
• introduces the topic and its relevance?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• has a clear thesis statement?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• outlines the way I am going to develop my argument?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• written body text that:	
• is divided into paragraphs of reasonable length?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• uses headings and sub-headings in a way that helps the reader understand my argument?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• written a conclusion that:	
• returns to the argument and summarises my findings, and perhaps considers the implications of those findings?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• written a coherent essay, where the ideas, sentences and paragraphs are clearly connected?	<input type="checkbox"/>
In terms of language, have I ...	
• made sure I have used appropriate tenses consistently?	<input type="checkbox"/>
• written out all acronyms (abbreviations) in full the	<input type="checkbox"/>

first time I use them?

-
- checked for grammar errors (e.g. subject-verb agreement, use of articles, use of singulars and plurals)

 - checked punctuation?

 - used a spell-checker on the whole document?

 - checked for words missed by the spell-checker (e.g. 'form' instead of 'from'; technical words) and for spelling of proper nouns (e.g. names of authors or organisations)?

In terms of presentation, have I ...

-
- followed the guidelines in the Crawford Style Guide?

Overall, have I ...

-
- looked carefully at the assessment criteria for this essay, and tried to meet them all?

 - submitted a draft and final copy of the assignment to Wattle/Turnitin and checked the Originality Report carefully?
-

ANU Grade Descriptors

The following descriptors are used as a guide to determination of grades at ANU.

High Distinction (HD) 80+	Exceptional performance indicating complete and comprehensive understanding of the subject matter; genuine mastery of relevant skills; demonstration of an extremely high level of interpretative and analytical ability and intellectual initiative; and achievement of all major and minor objectives of the subject.
Distinction (D) 70-79	Excellent performance indicating a very high level of understanding of the subject matter; development of relevant skills to a very high level; demonstration of a very high level of interpretive and analytical ability and intellectual initiative; and achievement of all major and minor objectives of the subject.
Credit (C) 60-69	Good performance indicating a high level of understanding of subject matter; development of relevant skills to a high level; demonstration of a high level of interpretive and analytical ability and achievement of all major objectives of the subject; some minor objectives not fully achieved.
Pass (P) 50-59	Satisfactory performance indicating an adequate understanding of most of the basic subject matter; partial development of relevant skills; adequate interpretive and analytical ability and achievement of all major objectives of the subject; failure to achieve some minor objectives.
Fail (N) 49 and below	Unsatisfactory performance indicating an inadequate understanding of the basic subject matter; failure to develop relevant skills; insufficient evidence of interpretive and analytical ability; and failure to achieve major and minor objectives of the subject.

Note: ANU Grade Descriptors can also be viewed on Wattle.

Academic Skills resources online

Topic	Recommended website
Learning styles Index of Learning Styles (ILS) questionnaire	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/learning/index.htm http://www.engr.ncsu.edu/learningstyles/ilsweb.html http://www.ncsu.edu/felder-public/ILSdir/styles.htm
Time management	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/git/index.htm
Academic Reading	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/effective/index.htm
Note-taking from readings / lectures	http://www.ex.ac.uk/dll/studyskills/note_taking_skills.htm http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/notetaking/index.htm http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/note1.html http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/notemake.html https://student.unsw.edu.au/listening-and-note-taking-strategies
Academic writing	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/1/2/
Argumentative essays	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/685/05/
Brainstorm Mind mapping	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/mindmapping/ http://emedia.rmit.edu.au/learninglab/content/plan
Answering assignment questions	http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/taskanal.html
Assignment planner	http://www.lib.rmit.edu.au/assignment/ac-textonly.php?ampm=&monthone=02&monthtwo=03&yearone=2014&yeartwo=2014&dayone=07&daytwo=13&monthtwo=03
Research and evidence	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/2/8/
Thesis statements	http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/thesis_refine.html
Paragraphs	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/606/01/
Quoting , paraphrasing, summarising	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/563/1/ http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/pdf/paraquo.pdf http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/sumpara.html http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/quot.html https://student.unsw.edu.au/paraphrasing-summarising-and-quoting
Reporting verbs	http://emedia.rmit.edu.au/learninglab/sites/emedia.rmit.edu.au.learninglab/files/Reporting_verbs.pdf
Transition signals	https://student.unsw.edu.au/transition-signals-writing
Academic Honesty Avoiding plagiarism	http://www.anu.edu.au/students/program-administration/assessments-exams/academic-honesty-plagiarism
Oral presentations	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/oralpresentations/index.htm
Examinations	http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/studying/index.htm http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/examtactics/index.htm http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/exkey.html http://www-public.jcu.edu.au/learningskills/resources/lonline/studying/index.htm

English expression and grammar online

Topic	Recommended website
Writing plain English Writing concise sentences Strategies for eliminating wordiness Using simpler, shorter alternative words and phrases Academic phrasebank	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/572/01/ http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/concise.htm http://leo.stcloudstate.edu/style/wordiness.html http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/style-and-editing/wordiness http://home.comcast.net/~garbl/stylemanual/words.htm http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/plague.htm http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/
Articles (a/an, the, zero article)	http://www.adelaide.edu.au/english-for-uni/articles/ https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/591/1/ http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/determiners/determiners.htm#articles
Subject-Verb Agreement	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/sv_agr.htm https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/591/1/
Singular and plural nouns	http://www.englisch-hilfen.de/en/grammar/plural.htm http://www.edufind.com/english/grammar/nouns2.php
Verb tense consistency	https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/601/04/ http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/consistency.htm
Using tenses in scientific writing	http://services.unimelb.edu.au/_data/assets/pdf_file/0009/471294/Using_tenses_in_scientific_writing_Update_051112.pdf
Pronoun consistency	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/consistency.htm
Prepositions	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/prepositions.htm http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/prepositions.htm https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/594/1/
Tone in writing	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/composition/tone.htm
Punctuation	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/marks/marks.htm http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/grammar/g_overvwEX1.html http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/punc.html
Capitalisation	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/capitals.htm
Writing numbers in formal English	http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/numbers.htm