



Study Skills Manual

TCT C5 1/2009



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Table of Contents

PART A GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF STUDYING	5
PART B ACADEMIC LITERACY.....	7
1. INFORMATION-GATHERING TECHNIQUES	7
2. WRITING AN ESSAY.....	17
PART C REFERENCING AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC DETAILS.....	31
3.1 WHAT NEEDS TO BE REFERENCED?.....	31
3.2 STYLE NOTES.....	40
PART D PROCESSING ASSESSMENT RESULTS.....	62
PART E BIBLIOGRAPHY	64
PART F APPENDICES.....	65

PART A General Principles of Studying

- Spend daily time with the Lord.
- Allot regular time to do research and study for each course.
- Start projects and papers in plenty of time.
- Hand in your assignments on time.
- Do as much extra and wider reading around your topic as you can. It will not be wasted.
- Attend 'Study Techniques' and 'Academic Writing' classes.
- Do not cheat.

PART B Academic Literacy

1. INFORMATION-GATHERING TECHNIQUES

There are four areas of study skills that we will investigate first: reading, note-taking, summarising and paraphrasing. These are all skills needed to begin academic assignment research. These skills are applicable to both reference texts and electronic sources.

1.1 Reading

Reading is one of the many information-gathering techniques that you will find you do a lot of in your study. Initially it will be in the library looking for that all important book on that all important topic. You will need several techniques to discover this resource. To illustrate the need to accommodate different kinds of reading try this exercise.



Activity

Make a list of everything you read yesterday.

What sort of variety did you come across? Maybe you read the morning newspaper, a McDonald's breakfast menu, the street signs to get there, a memo or report at work, a personal letter from a friend, a telephone book and so on.

There are different techniques for different purposes, for instance, would you read the street signs the same way as you would a personal letter?

If you were reading the *Yellow Pages*—the purpose would be to get information quickly, for interest only and with no meaning needed, so the method to use is to **skim**.

If reading the contents or index page of a book or dictionary, you are looking for a particular word and you would have a clear purpose, so the method used is to **scan**.

If you need to recall and understand something you would **study**. You would be seeking to know what it was you were reading about. This means that you would be looking for the main idea or theme and supporting information.

1.2 SQ3R Reading method



Activity

Let's try this in real life. Pick up a new book. What do you do first? Do you open the cover, read the front page, introduction, forward, contents, first page? No not really. Jot down here what you actually did and identify whether it was *skim*, *scan* or *study*.

.....
.....

A common method used for reading is the **SQ3R reading method**. SQ3R stands for **S**urvey, **Q**uestion, **R**ead, **R**ecall, **R**eview. You will notice that the *skim*, *scan*, *study* is part of this method.

Survey

What you are doing here is to create a general impression and framework. The action is to *skim*. Here is what you look for when you skim:

- Skim through particular information.
- Skim terms of reference, introduction, identify writer, topic purpose.
- Skim conclusions and recommendations.
- Skim table of contents.

Question

Here is where you ask yourself what degree of understanding do you need at this point? For example:

- Do you need to quickly read something before filing? or
- Do you need to read carefully, to absorb and understand findings?

Read

Now is the time to decide to read according to purpose.

- *Skim* to see if information is useful.
- *Scan* for specific items and details.

- *Study* if you need to recall information or understand. Select main ideas with supporting information, underline or highlight them.

Recall

How much do you understand of what you have read? Shut the book or article that you are reading and recall what you have read, section by section. This is a good time to start to summarise in your own words.

Review

Double check if you have summarised accurately by reading again.

1.3 Locating main ideas and supporting information

To follow a train of thought or structure of a paragraph, chapter, lecture or text book you will need to be able to recognise **main ideas**. Main ideas are the heart of the subject; they are what ‘it’ is all about.



Activity

Identify the main idea in each of the three following groups:

- *coat, skirt, trousers, socks*
- *jazz, pop, classical, rap*
- *China, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia*

If you said types of clothing, music, and Asian countries respectively, you would be right. Of course these main ideas are very basic. Identifying main ideas and supporting information from paragraphs is a bit more complex. Some people find this easier than others but it does require practice.

The main idea (key point or theme) of a paragraph is usually located within a **topic sentence** at the beginning, embodied in the middle or at the end.



Activity

Read the following paragraph and underline the main idea. Ask yourself, is there one sentence that tells you what the paragraph is about?

Australian is currently undergoing a period of significant economic, educational and training reform. The catalyst for the reform has been falling inflation, increased unemployment and changing world trading patterns in the period since 1981. In response, the Australian government has focused attention on the fragility of the economy and the need to act urgently to reform, if it is to remain competitive on the world market. Under the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), there is growing acceptance that vocational education and training are an important component of economic recovery.

Did you decide that the first line was the topic sentence that contained the main idea? It sets the scene for what the whole paragraph is about. There are other details that surround the main idea or follow it logically. The other details confirm the information that relates to the main idea and are called **supporting information**. Referring back to Activity 1.7, the structure of the paragraph can be broken down in the following way:

Topic sentence: ‘Australian is currently undergoing a period of significant economic, educational and training reform.’

Main idea: Australia is going through reform—the reform being *economic, educational and training*.

Support 1: *Cause behind this.* ‘The catalyst for the reform has been falling inflation, increased unemployment and changing world trading patterns in the period since 1981.’

Support 2: *Economic.* ‘In response, the Australian government has focused attention on the fragility of the economy and the need to act urgently to reform, if it is to remain competitive on the world market.’

Support 3: *Educational and training.* ‘Under the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), there is growing acceptance that vocational education and training are an important component of economic recovery.’

The main idea and supporting information make up the **outline**. In the example above we have one main idea and three supporting pieces of information. Whenever you read something from now on, try to identify the topic sentence, locate the main idea or theme and the supporting information.

We will cover outlining under the subheadings ‘summarising skills’ and ‘making a temporary outline’ a little later in this module.

1.4 Note-taking

Just like reading, note-taking is crucial for study purposes. After you have found and read your article or book, you will need to make notes; similarly, if you are attending a tutorial or even viewing a video, you will need to take notes. However, don't take notes unnecessarily, there may be a handout available from the lecturer.

There are different techniques for taking notes when listening and when reading.

Note-taking from listening

Note-taking is not dictation, where every word spoken is written down. This will take up too much time and may interfere with your ability to listen.

- Listen for the context and what the content is all about, then write it down in your own words.
- Note the things you do not know, like dates, new information, theorists' thoughts, speaker's name or references.
- Use a shortened form with symbols, especially for frequent words, technical and government terms.
- Edit as soon as possible to fill in gaps and correct illegible words, preferably the same day.
- Note references mentioned, for example, author, title of book, year, publisher and place of publication. Referencing more fully in PART C.



Activity

Listen to a radio or television news broadcast or if you prefer a video that you can rewind and re-examine. Transcribe it using a form of notetaking, then try out your own shorthand system.

Note-taking from reading

After skimming and scanning, study the text for meaning and understanding. Highlight sections as you go.

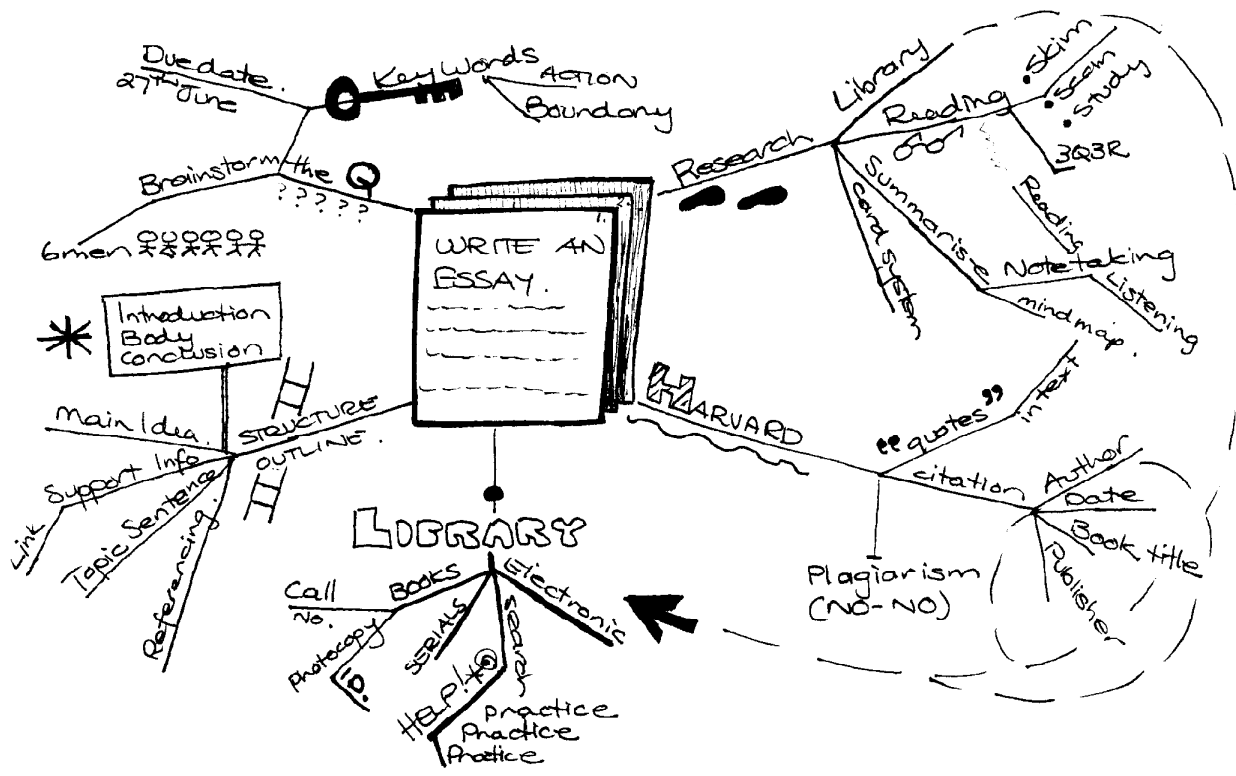
- Underline important points.
- Use different colours for main ideas, details, questions.
- Annotate the important information, for instance:
 - box around main ideas
 - circle details or supporting information
 - asterisk important points

- tick a good idea
- write summary notes in the margin if necessary
- question mark against something you don't understand so that you can follow it up more fully
- note reference. This includes the page number, author, title of book, year, publisher and place of publication.

Mind mapping

Mind mapping is another free form of taking notes and is often easier to do than more formal notetaking.

Select a main idea or theme and label it in the centre of the page, then from this, branch other labelled linear ideas. Next, from this central structure attach other labelled minor sub-branches as required. This is not a neat, formal drawing but a messy interconnection of linked branches and sweeping connecting curves. It is creative from your right-side brain. This can also be elaborated with symbols, colour, shape, size, texture and 3D images—representing our creative mind and assisting memory. See over page.



1.5 Summarising and paraphrasing



Activity

Summarising and paraphrasing is linked to active listening, reading and note-taking. They have an important role in learning because they are difficult to do until you have *understood* either the written or oral material.

To make a summary means to condense or make concise. It consists of facts and main points.

To paraphrase means to state the meaning (of a passage) in different words. It may not necessarily be shorter and can actually be longer. It may also contain facts and main points.

The key here is to *write in your own words*. Copying word for word from the article or book without referencing is plagiarism. See Section 1.6.

To make a summary

Once again there is an action pattern to use.

1. Read the article and note the overall meaning.
2. Underline the main idea from the topic sentence of each paragraph, remember it could be at the beginning, middle or end.
3. Look for the supporting information to the main idea. Remember there may be several pieces that support. Concentrate on the most important facts and details; what we want is to say the same thing, but in a shorter version.
4. Make an outline of the issues above using your notetaking skills, it may look like this:

Main Idea A

Support 1

Support 2

Support 3

Main Idea B

Support 1

Support 2

There are several options to consider if you want to organise the support information as a two-sided situation, for example:

- For and against an argument
- Advantages and disadvantages of an idea
- Cost and benefits of a product
- Positive and negative sides of a debate

In these cases your outline may look like this:

Main Idea A

Support 1

Against 1

Support 2

Against 2

Main Idea B

Support 1

Against 1

5. Check nothing of importance is missing from the notes.
6. Write a rough draft from the outline.
7. Check for conciseness and rewrite if necessary. Being concise means that writing is tight, brief and compact without any padding from unnecessary words or phrases.



Activity

Practice summarising the article entitled ‘If I’m so smart, how come I flunk all the time?’ included in the Readings for this module. There is an example of one possible summary for you to view in Appendix One to this module. Have a go yourself first though, before checking.

1.6 Plagiarism

Plagiarism is using someone else’s words without acknowledging them, a practice which is frowned upon in academic life. It is stealing. It can take the form of direct quotes or the paraphrased ideas of another person.

In college courses, there is continual engagement with other people’s ideas: through reading, discussion in lectures, and their eventual incorporation into personal writing. As a result, it is very important that credit is

given where it is due. Another reminder: Plagiarism is using others' ideas and words without clearly acknowledging the source of that information.

Reference: <http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/wts/plagiarism.html> (online: accessed 17/11/2006)

How Can Students Avoid Plagiarism?

To avoid plagiarism, credit must be given for:

- another person's idea, opinion, or theory;
- any facts, statistics, graphs, drawings—any pieces of information—that are not common knowledge;
- quotations of another person's actual spoken or written words; or
- paraphrase of another person's spoken or written words.

Plagiarism and the World Wide Web

The World Wide Web has become a more popular source of information for student papers, and many questions have arisen about how to avoid plagiarizing these sources. In most cases, the same rules apply as to a printed source: when a writer must refer to ideas or quote from a WWW site, she must cite that source.

If a writer wants to use visual information from a WWW site, many of the same rules apply. Copying visual information or graphics from a WWW site (or from a printed source) is very similar to quoting information, and the source of the visual information or graphic must be cited. These rules also apply to other uses of textual or visual information from WWW sites; for example, if a student is constructing a web page as a class project, and copies graphics or visual information from other sites, she must also provide information about the source of this information. In this case, permission from the WWW site's owner must be obtained before using the graphics. PART C Referencing and Bibliographic details - explains how to reference web sources.

Strategies for Avoiding Plagiarism

1. Put in **quotations** everything that comes directly from the text especially when taking notes.
2. **Paraphrase**, needs to be more than just rearranging or replacing a few words. Reference all paraphrases.

Terms You Need to Know (or What is Common Knowledge?)

Common knowledge: facts that can be found in numerous places and are likely to be known by a lot of people.

Example: John F. Kennedy was elected President of the United States in 1960.

This is generally known information. **Facts such as these do not need referencing.**

However, facts that are not generally known and ideas that interpret facts that are not generally known need referencing.

Example: According to the American Family Leave Coalition's new book, *Family Issues and Congress*, President Bush's relationship with Congress has hindered family leave legislation (6).

The idea that ‘Bush’s relationship with Congress has hindered family leave legislation’ is not a fact but an *interpretation*; **consequently, needs to have the source cited.**

Quotation: using someone’s words. The passage used must be placed within quotation marks and the source referenced according to a standard documentation style.

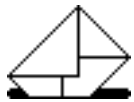
The following example uses the Harvard Referencing Style:

Example: According to Peter S. Pritchard in USA Today, ‘Public schools need reform but they’re irreplaceable in teaching all the nation’s young’ (p. 14).

Produced by Writing Tutorial Services, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN

Verbosity

When beginning to write at an academic level it is a common misconception of students that their writing should sound ‘highly scholarly’ and often they will select the most three-syllabled words they can, usually those with obscure meanings. By doing this writing takes on an unnatural mode that is difficult to read and understand. When in doubt, choose a more simplified version, with plain English words.



If you have carefully studied all the material up to this point, you are well prepared to attempt Assignment Two.

2. WRITING AN ESSAY

What has been covered so far are the basic information-gathering skills needed to start an assignment. Now begins the task of researching, organising and writing an essay, the most common form of assessment in higher education.

There are six stages of essay writing and we will deal with them logically in turn. They are:

- Analysing the question
- Planning the essay
- Researching the topic
- Drafting the essay
- Writing the final copy
- Referencing

Everyone has a different approach. The steps that follow streamline the process or at least provide a framework. It is far better to have spent some time and hard slog at the beginning because this will form the basis of the final product later on. There are no short cuts. Putting effort into the groundwork will even itself out in the final polishing. Remember the case study reading at the beginning about scholarly writing.

2.1 ANALYSING THE QUESTION

The first thing that needs to be considered is the actual question.

When analysing the essay question there are three areas or questions to address. They are:

- key words = what the topic is about
- action words = what you have to do
- boundary words = where the topic occurs

What follows is a six-step process for analysing the essay question, as outlined below.

1.
 - Write out the question.
 - Pin it up in front of you.
 - Read it out aloud.
 - Think about it.



Activity

Example: A possible essay assignment might look like this one below.

‘People talking without communicating; People hearing without listening; People responding without caring what is said.’

Discuss the statement above and provide examples from your teaching or training experience that would prove or disprove the statement.

2. Next underline the *key words* (What is the topic about?). The key words for the above essay topic are:

- communicating
- listening
- responding

3. Then circle the *action words* (What do I have to do?). The action words are:

- discuss
- provide examples
- prove or disprove

Action words give direction and define what is required to be done. Appendix Two to this module will clarify the words used by lecturers such as describe, summarise, explain, consider discuss, compare and contrast

4. Asterisk the *boundary words* (Where, how far?). The boundary words are: ‘from your teacher/training experience’

5. Brainstorm—ask random questions.

What, and *where*, and *when*, and *how*, and *why* and *who* are all questions which provoke thinking.

Other questions might be:

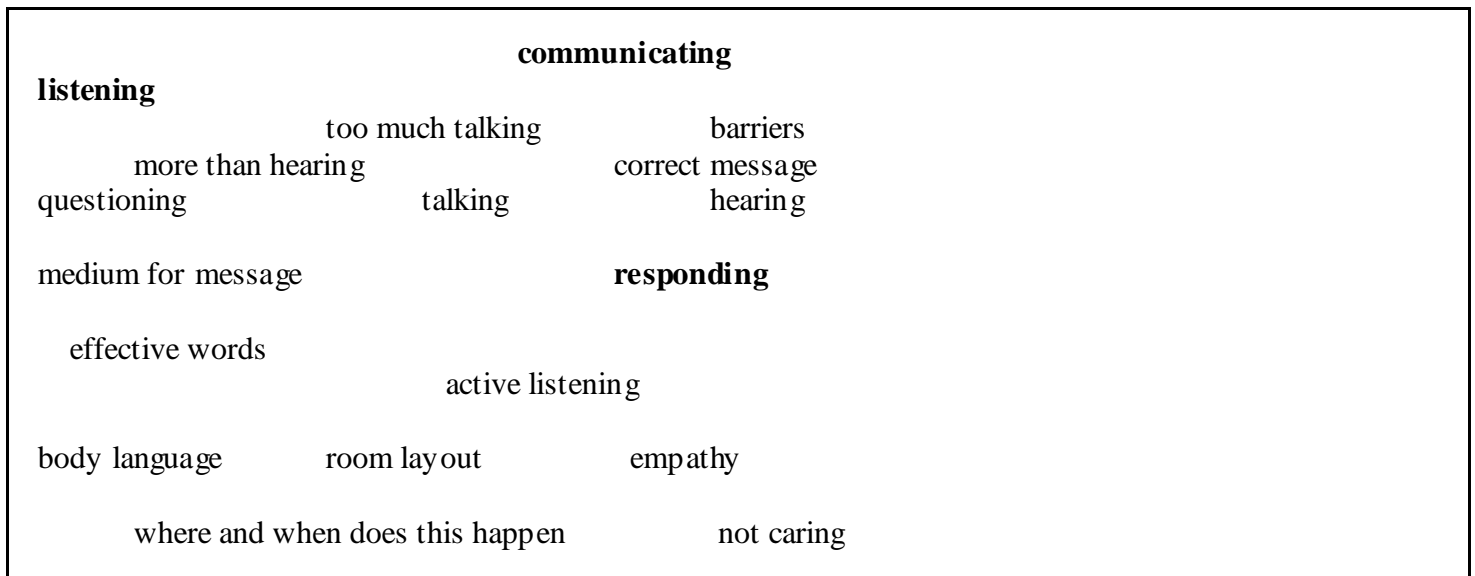
- What’s special or unusual about
- How isrelated to events in my teaching area?
- What impact wouldhave in my teaching or training area?
- When does/did this happen?
- What would I like others to know about
- What questions do I have about..... Why?

6. Check requirements. What assessment criteria are there? How long is the essay to be? How many words? When is it due?

2.2 Making a temporary outline

A temporary outline gives direction or provides a framework for researching the topic. As your research progresses, the outline is likely to change. .

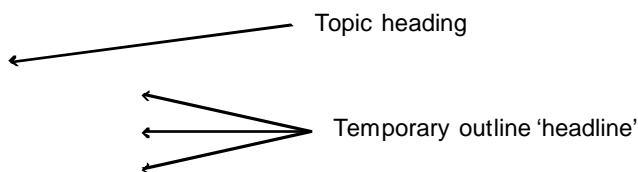
- Write *key words* on a sheet of paper...anywhere.
- From the brainstorm exercise above jot down other information in short phrases on the piece of paper (Mind mapping is one way of doing this p.8). It could look something like the following. Key words have been highlighted.



- From this scribble page above organise ideas in related sets under the key words.
- Order the ideas in a logical sequence. It may look like the following, or some other helpful sequence.

- A. **Communicating**
- body language
 - room lay out
 - medium for message
 - questioning

- B. **Listening**
- more than hearing
 - barriers
 - correct message



These arrowed words will be referred to in a later exercise on using a card system.

- C. **Responding**
- empathy
 - effective words
 - active listening

- not caring
- There may be some thoughts that may not fit in or that warrant further investigation. Note them. In this case they are:
 - too much talking
 - where and when does this happen.

2.3 PLANNING THE ESSAY

After analysing the question and reviewing the information that has already been gathered, you will find that there are some things that you do not know much about—or maybe you don't know anything about—and would like to investigate further. This will involve spending time in the library finding books and articles, reading, taking notes and even photocopying relevant information. You may find that there is more involved than you think. You may even see the assignment in a new light and may need to change direction or emphasis. Here are some helpful hints.

Your approach

- Be prepared to think objectively, both in the broader sense, the wider perspective of the topic, and more specifically, the particular elements which make up the topic.
- Use credible information sources. If in doubt, check with the lecturer. Reliable sources are more likely to be reference texts and peer reviewed journal articles.
- Be objective about the information uncovered during the research. Genuine understanding requires an awareness of human bias that is naturally present, in all of us.

Time management

A guide:

- 50% of available time to plan and research topic;
- 30% to write the essay;
- 20% to reference, rewrite, proofread.

Work out a time schedule between now and the assignment due date. Grid One indicates how long a 1000-word assignment may take in real terms. Until you become familiar with how the library and other information pathways function, and writing essays, it will take longer than this. Adjust the time schedule accordingly.

Grid One (1000 word essay)

Weeks before assignment is due	Tasks	Hours
7	Essay question analysis	1
6	Obtain materials from library	2
5	Initial topic research	3
	Notetaking and further research	2
4	Writing the first draft	4
3	Obtain further materials from library	1
2	Revision and editing	4
1	Proofing and correcting final copy	3
	Post in time for due date	

Following is a planning grid. This is photocopy able, for personal use.

Planning Grid

Assignment due date:/...../.....

Assignment length (number of words).

Time requiredhours

Weeks before assignment is due	Tasks	Hours
9		
8		
7		
6		
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		

Essay organisation

- How should the essay be divided up? As a rough guide, an essay of 1000 total words with 125 words to the paragraph would result in 8 paragraphs for the essay. This could be divided up into the following areas. You would need to recalculate these divisions when your essay is longer.

Introduction	=	1 paragraph
Topic 1	=	2 paragraphs
Topic 2	=	2 paragraphs
Topic 3	=	2 paragraphs
Conclusion	=	1 paragraph

- The minimum number of references required varies according to the size of the assignment. Any bible references that are used are counted as **additional** to this minimum number.
- Expect to do two or three drafts of the essay!

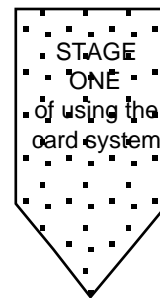
2.4 RESEARCHING THE TOPIC

Record keeping: One possibility is to use a card system. It is also a healthy habit to get into and will be of great assistance in larger studies.

Identify your resources

After analysing your question, identifying key words, brainstorming, and formulating a temporary outline, allocate A, B, C, letters etc. on the temporary outline to the areas in which research needs to be done. Then go into the library.

Step 1: collecting bibliographic information from the library research. Use several catalogue-like cards about 100mm x 150mm size. Alternatively for larger essays, instead of cards manila folders with photocopied sections inside can be helpful. There are also some computer software packages that are designed to assist in research tasks. Whatever method is used should still correlate with the following process.



Check the resources available using the electronic catalogue. Jot down each item of interest onto its own card. These details are bibliographic details. They will be needed when referencing and quoting. At this initial stage they are a way of re-locating the resources which have been identified. If there are too many resources to read, start with those which have the most recent publication date.

On a card write the following.

(a) In the right hand corner

- call number [e.g. LB 1028.B785 1990 or 639.03 A345m]
- locality [e.g. 4th floor, State Library]

(b) On the main part of the card

- author's last and first name
- date of publication [e.g. 1994]
- title of the article ['.....']
- name of book, magazine, newspaper, underlined
- edition [e.g. 3rd ed]
- volume number [e.g. vol. 2]
- chapter number [e.g. ch. 3]
- page number [e.g. p. 251, pp. 2-6, p. 45ff]

(c) On the upper left corner

- number the card [1, or 2, or 3, etc.]

(d) On the bottom of the card

- Library name, if using more than one library

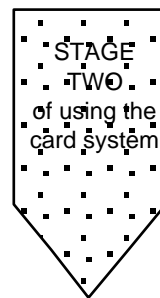
Write every bit of potential information on the card. Make a new card for each resource. Steps (a) to (d) are summarised in the following example. These cards are bibliographic resource cards. See following page for diagram.

1.	364.945 4th Floor
Beisler, F., Sheeres, H. & Pinner, D. 1993	
Communication Skills, 2nd Ed.	
Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.	
Launceston Uni Library	

Step 2: Write down all details from bibliographic resource cards onto a single bibliography sheet, and photocopy it several times to keep in a safe place to save time at the end of the essay when resources will need to be located. Resource cards can be of use for assignments at a later date.

Locate and study the resources

For the next phase set aside a solid time block in the library because it is a time consuming activity. Out-of-towners may have to make use of time now and arrange an external loan through the library facilities, or photocopy what they need to take away.



From the resource cards locate articles and books on the library shelves—check to see if the bibliographic citation is correct. If there are problems locating a particular text, check the call number either side of where it should be located. The rule of thumb is that books located alongside or even on the same shelf will have similar themes or topics and may be a good enough substitute. Now is the time to use skimming and scanning skills to use.

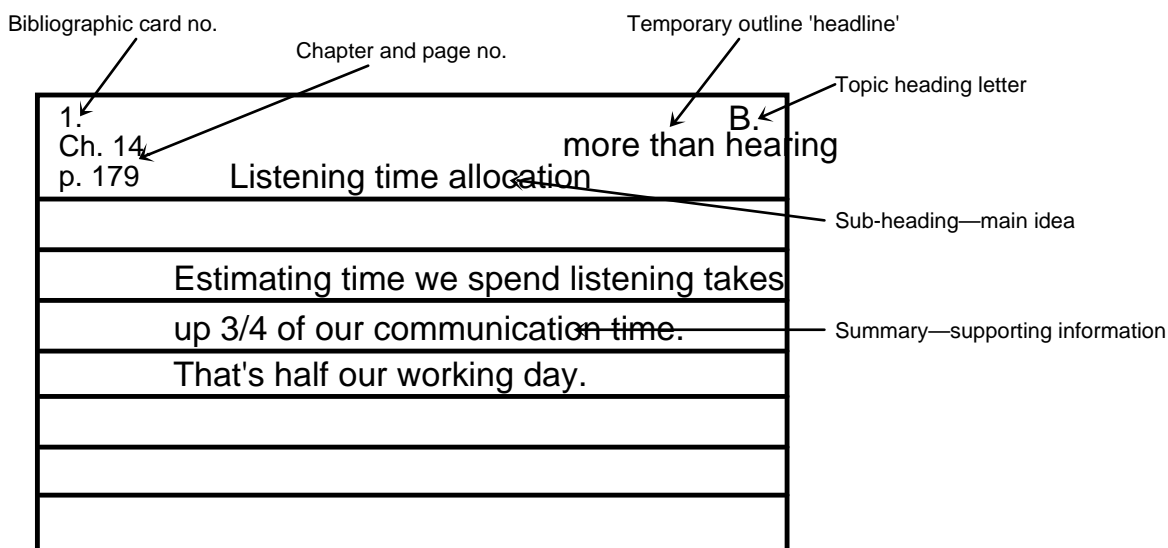
Alternatively, go back to the electronic catalogue and search for other works by the same author. The relevant material may be in another publication. If there is a time restraint—photocopy the relevant article and continue at home with the following points. Make sure to retain the bibliographic details. File in a manila folder under the temporary outline headings.

Step 1: Now information you have collected needs to be studied. Study the book or article using the note-taking skills you have already practised.

- (a) On a new blank card write:
 - a sub-heading of one thought, idea, quote or fact from what you find from your book or article. This is the **main idea**.
 - Underneath the heading summarise the information, relating to that main idea. This is the **supporting information**.

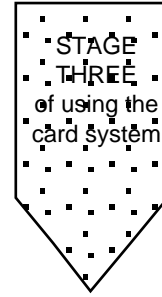
- Copy any quote exactly. Put in quotation marks to identify them as quotes.
- (b) Still on this new card, on the upper left corner write the number from your bibliography list that you are currently studying, ie. 1, or 2, or 3 etc.
- Below the bibliography list number, write the page number on which the information you have just written down appeared.
- (c) Check the temporary outline of topic headings for the essay topic. See what card fits where: A, B, C? Write the appropriate letter on the top right hand corner. If not relevant put an * which means you will determine where it fits later.
- Next to the outline topic heading letter A, B or C jot a one or two word 'headline' from the temporary outline that describes that information on the card.
- (d) Make a note against each resource as it is viewed. Double check the bibliographic citation information. When you have your own insights into what you are studying, add your personal notes or ideas to blank cards with your initials as the source; assign a topic heading as well. Keep your eye out for new resources as you are reading. Take a note of them and follow them up at another time in the library. In the meantime continue through your research material and make appropriate notes as described for all the information you discover.

Steps (a) to (d) are summarised in the following example. You will be able to identify the information it contains from your brainstorming exercise in section 1.5, under the heading 'Making a temporary outline'.



2.5 DRAFTING the ESSAY

Step 1: Now start organising the material for the essay body, using the temporary outline as a guide. (Often the introduction and conclusion can be written more effectively if done last.) At this stage, a well-prepared recording system will be invaluable in ordering the material which has been collected.



An essay consists of an introduction, a body and a conclusion. The **introduction** serves as the director. Each paragraph in the **body** is distinct and an essential part of the whole essay, linking what has gone before with what is to follow. The **conclusion** brings together the whole essay composition and is the last chance to affect the reader.

Organise the material

- (a) Revise the essay question and check that the research information which has been collected is still relevant.
- (b) Sort out the reference cards
 - Group all cards that share the same outline topic letter, putting them in order A → D etc.
 - Within each outline topic letter, groups A, B, C put all the same one or two word ‘headlines’ together.
 - Do any with a * fit in?
- (c) Read the summary note cards through to ensure that they make sense in the groupings to which they have been allocated.

It will be beneficial to determine what order you want them in. When writing essays there are several methods to consider:

- a. Chronological order—discusses events in the order they happened
- b. Spatial—presents information in geographical or physical order i.e. north to south, large to small
- c. Cause/effect—one by one, discusses the effects of a series of individual events or actions
- d. Problem/solution—series of problems and possible solutions
- e. Compare or contrast—the similarities and differences between people, things, events
- f. Order of importance—most important issue first and continues to least important

In Appendix Three there is an extended list of ways to organise supporting information that will be of further assistance.

- (d) Transfer your summary note card headlines to paper—if your original temporary outline is not what you now intend adjust it as necessary, and make your final outline.

Plan the paragraphs

Step 2: Here is where all the hard work will pay off. By using the summary note cards a lot of the writing has already been done.

Collect together all the cards with the same outline topic letter and extract from these the ones which have the same ‘headline’ as the first sub-headline in your final outline.

Do they fit together? Do they make sense?

Re-arrange into an ordered paragraph. Remember that the main idea comes first, and is followed by the supporting information.

Do this for each group of cards.

Remember to include the cards of your own thoughts.

Write your rough draft

Step 3: Using the cards and outline start writing the body of the information. The introduction and conclusion will come later. Working from the topic outline, you can write with the whole essay composition in mind. Each word should then contribute to the sentence, each sentence to the paragraph and each paragraph to the essay.

Adapted from Fry, Ron 1991, *How to Study Program: Write papers*, Career Press, NJ.

Paragraph construction

Remember that each paragraph should have a topic sentence as a lead in sentence that briefly introduces what the next paragraph is going to be about. It is usually at the beginning and contains a statement of a main idea or a fact you will discuss in the paragraph. It is followed by the supporting information that contains the evidence to supporting the main idea. Support the main idea with data, quotes, statistics, examples and detailed descriptions. Each paragraph of the same topic should link together, by using appropriate link words that ‘signal’ what is coming. For example:

- If the same thought is being further pursued, use words like

furthermore, next, subsequently, additionally

- If re-examining ground already covered, use words like

in brief, for example, as already noted, to illustrate

- If changing direction, use words like
however, on the other hand, in contrast, although
- If ending the point, use words like
therefore, consequently, in conclusion, as a result.

The essay will consist of sections that refer to the same topic. When the essay is about to change to the next topic, use the last sentence of the last paragraph to inform the reader of the direction and content to come. For example:

The following section emphasises the points discussed above and draws on information that will subsequently, produce a contrast to what has already been raised and further discussion on the importance of essay writing.

Academic writing

Academic writing is written in a formal style to convince the reader through logic, argument and by fact. Here are some hints:

- It is written in the third person, for example, 'it is a common thought' or 'the writer states'. Avoid using 'I think' or 'I write this because', unless the lecturer requests a personal account. Avoid the use of 'I', 'you' and 'we'.
- Avoid any personal and emotional feelings. The writing should be objective, free of judgements and bias.
- Avoid slang, jargon and contractions. Instead of 'didn't' or 'isn't' use 'did not' and 'is not'.
- Aim at active rather than passive speech, for example, 'The teacher used this model effectively in the classroom situation'. Here the subject (the teacher) acts directly (used), and the object (the classroom) receives the action. Contrast this with the less effective, passive example, 'This model was used effectively in the classroom by the teacher'. A rule of thumb here is, if the word 'was' is within the sentence, check for the passive tense.

Tie it all together with a conclusion

- The conclusion reminds the reader of the main points being made. If you have made your own conclusion link it to the main point to bring a sense of completeness.
- New material should not be introduced at conclusion time. Nor should you put in a quotation to illustrate what you want to say. Always refer to what has been said in the body of the essay.

Go back to the introduction

- Outline the structure of the essay, defining it to suit the required purpose. Refine the scope to suit the topic.
- Explain the main points to be covered and why the essay topic is important. Spell it out for the reader. Make your position clear.

If you get stuck...

This may sound easy here, but if you get stuck here are some hints to keep your ideas flowing:

- Pretend you are writing to a friend, you can formalise it to academic style later.
- Use everyday language to start with if having difficulty, larger words can be distracting to mental flow.
- Just write as the ideas flow. If you are using a computer, let your fingers do the talking, and cut and paste later if needed.
- Don't edit the work as you are writing. Worry about the spelling and grammar later. Try to use simple words, it isn't necessary look for detail yet.
- Keep moving, don't look out the window or go and make that cup of coffee just yet. Reward yourself later on.
- Start where you are comfortable. If there is an interesting point, start there, the essay does not have to be written in the order of presentation.

2.6 ESSAY WRITING TIPS

If the same thought is being FURTHER PURSUED, use words like:

- Furthermore, too, likewise, what's more, besides, moreover, in addition
- Next, behind, later, succeeding, after, ensuing, following
- Subsequently, in the ensuing period, afterward, thereafter
- Additionally, also, as well, along, besides

If RE-EXAMINING ground already covered, use words like:

- In brief, briefly, in short
- For example, for instance, a case in point, by way of illustration, to cite an instance, as an example, such as the following, as a model
- As already noted, as such, as though, as well, as prescribed
- To illustrate, in particular

If CHANGING DIRECTION, use words like:

- However, nonetheless, nevertheless, despite, still, though, yet, notwithstanding, after all
- On the other hand, conversely, inversely, contrasting, on the contrary, on the other side
- In contrast, but, further
- Although, whereas, even though, in spite of the fact that, while even if, albeit

If ENDING THE POINT, use words like:

- Therefore, accordingly, hence, thus, so, thereupon, then
- Consequently, as a result, in which case, in due course
- In conclusion, in summary, finally, ultimately, at last

If QUOTING, use words like (not says!) The writer/author/he/she may

- Agree (concur, accept, concede, grant, admit)
- Disagree (deny, dispute, query, question)
- Try to rebut (repudiate, refute, demolish) the argument
- Assert, state, declare, claim, allege
- Diagnose, identify, examine, explain, elaborate, describe or discuss
- Infer, impute, surmise, contend, maintain, argue, estimate or conclude
- Support(s) or substantiate(s) his argument (not backs up!)
- Confirm(s), corroborates(s), endorse(s) somebody else's argument
- Propose, submit, appeal, remark, retort, emphasise or consult their ...

If ARGUING/MAKING A POINT on literature, use sentences like:

- This is currently a topic to which many people (who in particular?) are giving some thought because ...
- And this contribution to the debate is most worthwhile / throws some light on aspects of / is not likely to assist
- On the basis of research carried out in (date) at (place) the writer shows ...
- Statistics from records (what sort) / a survey (done by whom and where) / demonstrate(s) that his/her belief that ... his/her experience as (occupation) ... his/her observation of... his/her interviews with ... supports this ...
- My own experience/reading/survey/of other people's research does not agree / substantiate little or some / supports these views. For example, Jones in his research in (date) at (place) ...
- There is little to dispute in this argument ... The main objection to the argument lies in the argument that ... The shortcomings of this work are small ... The doubtful assumption here undermines the argument's main thrust ...

- Overall this adds considerably to our knowledge on the subject .. is a useful round-up of current research on the subject ... is no more than a popular account of a serious subject ... takes up an issue not commonly discussed ... is only interesting for the comment it makes on ...
- The author is careful not to overstate the case ... writes with fervour but soberly. He/she acknowledges the existence of people's behaviour/attitudes/figures/cases which lie outside his/her general view ... This is not a good argument and the writer's efforts have gone more into attempts to persuade us with colourful rhetoric than sober reason
- The writer appears to have little experience or qualifications ... is new to this field ... is a well known researcher in this field ... has devoted a lifetime's work to this subject.
- General/specialist/scholarly/political/radical source

An extract from Hibbens, G.M. 1989, *Stands to Reason - a Guide to Argument*, Macmillan, Sydney.

2.7 WRITING THE FINAL COPY

Edit for meaning

Now is the time to do all the cleaning up and tightening of structure and expression. It may help you to make a checklist of what you need to do as you go along. First, put it aside for a few days at least. This disassociation from the essay can produce a fresh perspective when you read it again. It is a handy hint to read it out aloud. It is quite amazing how this action helps you to find parts that do not make sense, or do not flow together. Someone else can read it as well if this helps.

Review

It can be helpful to 'correct' your own work. By this I mean to read it through and make an outline, jotting down the framework of the essay. Is it logical, concise, clear, correct, comprehensive?

Document your sources

Double check where direct quotations and references have been used, making sure that the author's name and year have been documented.

Check spelling and grammar, and page numbers

If using a computer use spell and grammar check. Remember to use a dictionary and thesaurus for alternative words. Be sure that the word-meanings used are appropriate. Number pages, making sure they are in order.

Final reference list

This is placed at the end of the essay. The reference list contains books and articles that have been quoted and referred to in the essay and is in alphabetical order. Double check for correct punctuation, and details.

Title page, contents page, appendix

For Tabor College assignments a title page is essential. Title pages are available in a set format from the college.





PART C REFERENCING AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC DETAILS

2008 Assignment Style Procedures & Harvard Referencing System

Keep these guidelines handy and use them when preparing your assignments.

1. WRITTEN WORK

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- Substantiate major points and claims with evidence from the Bible and/or other sources, & acknowledge each of your sources as described in point 10 below.
- Re-read your paper carefully and correct typing errors, etc., before handing it in.

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You should use paper of A4 size (i.e. 30 cm x 21 cm), with a margin of about 3 cm on both sides of your work. Write on only ONE side of the paper.

If you can have your paper typed, this is advantageous. If not, at least be sure it is neat and readable. The text in typed papers should be double-spaced. Although your lecturers try to be objective, there is no doubt that a neat, well-presented paper gives a favourable impression.

- Assignments must be double spaced. Type font size – 12 point
- Paragraphs should be indented without leaving a blank line between paragraphs.
- Do not use dot points or enumeration in your bibliography/reference list.
- Any queries that have not been covered by this introduction guide, the attached Harvard guide or the examples in the sample paper (which is available in the **Study Techniques Handbook** and the library website <http://www.taboradelaide.com/pages/?pageid=225>), please refer to the *Style manual for authors, editors and printers*, 6th edition.

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- your full name and ID number;
- the lecturer's name;
- full name and code of the subject, e.g. 1101 Creative Living 1;
- your course of study, e.g. Bachelor of Counselling;
- your level of study, e.g. level 2;
- the number of the assignment and/or question, as appropriate, e.g. 6, 2.2 etc.;
- the exact topic, i.e. the title of the essay/assignment as given on the worksheet. (If the title is too long, include a summary of it, and write the full title on the first page of your paper.);
- the number of words required;
- the number of words you have written;
- the due date; and
- the date on which you submitted the assignment.

Before submitting an assignment, check that you have completed all the requirements for the assignment listed on the cover sheet and sign the declaration that your work is original and that all sources have been acknowledged.

4. WORDCOUNT

- It is a requirement that all assignments meet the word count
- 10% over the word count is acceptable
- No more than 10% of your word count is to be referenced material
- All quotations are considered part of the word count
- Footnotes and appendices are not to be used to add extra references but for extra information that is not included in the body of your assignment. Footnotes and appendices are not included in the word count

5. REFERENCING AND REQUIRED READING

You are expected to read the relevant sections of the set texts as directed by your lecturers. Additional reading is necessary in preparing your essays/assignments.

- For level 1 and 2 papers, you should name at least *three substantial, relevant books* on which you have drawn, in addition to your Tabor notes.
- For level 3 papers, you should name at least *five substantial, relevant books* on which you have drawn, in addition to your Tabor notes.
- At higher levels more substantial referencing is usually appropriate.

If lecturers give additional guidance about required references, please follow this.

Note that it is not usual to include the Bible in your bibliography, unless you have made particular use of study notes, etc. It is assumed that you will be drawing on the Word of God in preparing your papers.

What needs to be referenced?

- All direct quotations
- All indirect quotations
- All specific information that would not be considered general knowledge within the field

Style notes for in-text referencing:

- Always use single inverted commas rather than double inverted commas
- Footnotes need to be listed outside of the sentence
- p. or pp. are used to denote page numbers for in-text referencing
- Punctuation comes at the end of the final bracket of the reference, except in the cases of a question mark or an exclamation mark (see sample paper of examples)
- In-text quotes are up to four lines
- Block quotations are required for quotations of four lines or more and should follow the criteria below:
 - No quotation marks
 - Single spaced
 - Indented both sides
 - Same size font as the body of the text
 - No italics

Style notes for bibliography/reference list layout:¹

- Begin the entry at the left margin
- Indent the second (third and subsequent lines) by five spaces
- Citations are to be single spaced
- A double space is required between citations

¹ A reference list is a list of reference used in an assignment; a bibliography is list of references used in an assignment plus any other further reading not necessarily cited in an assignment. Please see your lecturer for preference of either reference list or bibliography.

- Citations are to be listed in alphabetical order by author's family name
- When there is no author the citation should be listed alphabetically by title
- Book titles are listed in sentence case (an initial capital letter followed by words in all lower case except for proper nouns and acronyms) and in *italics*
- Journal titles are presented in *italics*, with maximum capitalisation; journal article titles are presented in roman type and in sentence case
- Where no date can be found, use n.d.
- When recording the place of publication include the city name and nothing else, unless the city is not well known or there are two cities with the same name i.e. Cambridge, Mass. (Massachusetts) or Cambridge (when referring to Cambridge UK).
- If a publisher's name makes the place of publication obvious it is unnecessary to add the publication place, i.e. Tabor Adelaide does not need to have Adelaide listed after it.

6. USE OF FOOTNOTES INSTRUCTIONS

You are not required to use footnotes. However, if you want to provide further detail, comment or information that you do not wish to include in the text, you may do so.

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Footnotes should be numbered consecutively through your paper and indicated by a superscript or a number in square brackets, e.g. ² OR [2], in the text.

Notes

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- Further details of academic writing style will be provided in the subject *Study Techniques*.
- You may find it helpful to consult McIntosh (1995) for examples beyond those supplied in this paper. Note that one of the style procedures described here is very similar to that of the author-date system described by McIntosh for in-text referencing and very similar to that of the note-bibliography system described by McIntosh for bibliographies.

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Greek and Hebrew words should be either underlined or set in italics when used in an essay/assignment (e.g. ekklesia or *ekklesia*). Do NOT put them in quotation marks.

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Tabor students are encouraged to write in gender-inclusive language. This is part of acceptable contemporary writing and consequently the task must be approached with sincerity and perseverance. A lecturer may downgrade a paper if the language does not meet a reasonable standard of inclusiveness.

Useful information on inclusive writing is readily available from bookshops and libraries. Three resources can be accessed at the Tabor Library and are listed below. Students in advanced courses would do well to make use of these. The question arises as to where to draw the line linguistically in writing in a way that is not gender-biased. Some attempts at gender-inclusions are grammatically unacceptable.

Below are some basic guidelines and examples.

Man - this term needs to be avoided when referring to both male and female.

Traditional

man, men

Gender-inclusive

we, person, people, human beings, humans

mankind	humanity, humankind
sons of God	children of God, people of God
the common man	the average person, ordinary people
manhood	adulthood, maturity
manpower	human resources, personnel, workforce
chairman	chairperson, chair
forefathers	ancestors, forebears

Woman - descriptions expressing the feminine can at times be perceived as sexist.

<u>Traditional</u>	<u>Gender-inclusive</u>
deaconess	deacon
Jewess	Jew
a woman lawyer	a lawyer
cleaning lady	cleaner

Sentence Structure

It is often possible to design sentences in a manner that avoids specific male or female references when these are not essential.

Example: “A student is best able to decide which is the most suitable approach for him.”

Rather: “The most suitable approach is best decided by a student personally.”

OR you might simply prefer to delete *for him*, the last two words of the sentence.

Pronouns and possessive adjectives

One of the main difficulties in writing inclusively arises when the words *he* or *she* are used (and also *him* and *her*) - when referring to people in general and not one person of a specific gender. Some writers consequently prefer the plural instead and use the pronoun *they*. This may be acceptable on occasions but is awkward and ungrammatical after a pronoun which is clearly singular.

Example 1: “When someone takes the bus to Sydney he will normally have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning”

Possible rephrasing: “When someone takes the bus to Sydney *he or she* will normally have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning.”

OR “When someone takes the bus to Sydney *he/she* will normally have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning.” (This is not ideal for occasional use but is useful where he/she is frequently repeated in the text. It is not recommended by the APA style guidelines.) (Please note “*s/he*” is less acceptable.)

OR, even better: “Anyone taking the bus to Sydney will have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning.”

Example 2: “A traveller can only take her hand luggage into the passenger compartment.”

Possible rephrasing: A traveller can only take *her or his* hand luggage into the passenger compartment.

OR, even better: Only hand luggage is permitted in the passenger compartment.

Occasionally you may find that lucid writing requires the use of the words *he* or *she* while not referring to any one person in particular. In that case it may be appropriate to apply *he* and *she* somewhat alternately; however, make sure not to alternate within the same story or paragraph. Generally, this approach is disconcerting to the reader and is not recommended. The reader of an essay will soon notice whether you are taking gender inclusiveness seriously and in this case should not respond negatively to writing

that, at times, may be gender specific in a generic context. Please consult appropriate resources to become more familiar with the requirements of using gender-inclusive language.

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sons of God	children of God, people of God
the common man	the average person, ordinary people
manhood	adulthood, maturity
manpower	human resources, personnel, workforce
chairman	chairperson, chair

forefathers ancestors, forebears

Woman - descriptions expressing the feminine can at times be perceived as sexist.

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OR "When someone takes the bus to Sydney *he/she* will normally have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning." (This is not ideal for occasional use but is useful where he/she is frequently repeated in the text. It is not recommended by the APA style guidelines.) (Please note "*s/he*" is less acceptable.)

OR, even better: "Anyone taking the bus to Sydney will have to leave Adelaide quite early in the morning"

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Possible rephrasing: A traveller can only take *her or his* hand luggage into the passenger compartment.

OR, even better: Only hand luggage is permitted in the passenger compartment.

Occasionally you may find that lucid writing requires the use of the words *he* or *she* while not referring to any one person in particular. In that case it may be appropriate to apply *he* and *she* somewhat alternately; however, make sure not to alternate within the same story or paragraph. Generally, this approach is disconcerting to the reader and is not recommended. The reader of an essay will soon notice whether you are taking gender inclusiveness seriously and in this case should not respond negatively to writing that, at times, may be gender specific in a generic context. Please consult appropriate resources to become more familiar with the requirements of using gender-inclusive language.

Harvard Referencing System

Books	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Single author</i>	'The theory was first propounded in 1993' (Comfort 1997, p. 58) OR Comfort (1997, p. 58) claimed that...	Comfort, A 1997, <i>A good age</i> , Mitchell Beazley, London.
<i>2 authors</i>	(Madden & Hogan 1997, pp. 45-46) OR Madden and Hogan (1997, pp. 45-46) discuss this idea...	Madden, R & Hogan, T 1997, <i>The definition of disability in Australia: moving towards national consistency</i> , Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Canberra.
<i>3 authors</i>	(Smith, Rintoul & Grogan 2004, p. 9)	Smith, S, Rintoul, M & Grogan, A 2004, <i>Do worms yawn</i> , Random House, Sydney.
<i>4 or more authors</i>	(Leeder et al. 1996, p. 69)	Leeder, SR, Dobson, AJ, Gibbers, RW, Patel, NK, Mathews, PS, Williams, DW & Mariot, DL 1996, <i>The Australian film industry</i> , Dominion Press, Adelaide.
<i>No author</i>	'This was apparently not the case before about 1995' (<i>Advertising in the Western Cape</i> 1990, p. 14) OR In <i>Advertising in the Western Cape</i> (1990, p. 14) it was claimed that...	<i>Advertising in the Western Cape</i> 1990, ABC Publishers, Cape Town. (Place in alphabetical order in the bibliography/reference list according to the first word in the title.)
<i>Multiple works by same author</i>	University research (Brown 1982, p. 17, 1988) has indicated that... (Brown 1982, p. 17, 1988, pp. 23-27)	Brown, P 1982, <i>Corals in the Capricorn group</i> , Central Queensland University, Rockhampton. Brown, P 1988, <i>The effects of anchor on corals</i> , Central Queensland University, Rockhampton. Order chronologically in the reference list.
<i>Multiple works published in the same year by the same author</i>	'In recent reports (Napier 1993a, 1993b)...' Use a/b etc. to differentiate between works in same year.	Napier, A 1993a, <i>Fatal storm</i> , Allen & Unwin, Sydney. Napier, A 1993b, <i>Survival at sea</i> , Allen & Unwin, Sydney. Order alphabetically by title in the reference list.
<i>Editor</i>	(Kastenbaum 1993, p. 78)	Kastenbaum, R (ed.) 1993, <i>Encyclopedia of adult development</i> , Oryx Press, Phoenix.
<i>Different Editions</i>	Renton (2004, p. 5) suggests that...	Renton, N 2004, <i>Compendium of good writing</i> , 3rd edn, John Wiley & Sons, Milton. An edition number is placed after the title of the work – this is not necessary for a first edition.
<i>Encyclopaedia or Dictionary (without author of section being named)</i>	<i>The new Grove dictionary of music and musicians</i> (1980, p. 85) defined it as...	<i>The new Grove dictionary of music and musicians</i> , 1980, 6th edn, Macmillan, London.
<i>Encyclopaedia or Dictionary chapter (with author of section being named)</i>	(La Sor 2005, p. 10)	La Sor, W 2005, <i>The encyclopedia of family names</i> , F Fry (ed.) MacMillan, London.

<i>Bible*</i> <i>Note: For marking purposes, the Bible is not usually considered as one of your reference sources.</i>	In Ruth 1.8 we see that Naomi accepted her suffering and blessing as the will of God. The rainbow is a sign of God's covenant (Gen. 9:13)	<i>New Revised Standard Version</i> , 1989, World Bible Publishers, Iowa Falls, Iowa. <i>Today's New International Version</i> , 2005, Zondervan, Grand Rapids. (Place in alphabetical order in the bibliography/reference list according to the first word in the title.)
<i>Notes from a study Bible attributed to an author</i>	(Baker 1995, p. 1)	Baker, K (ed) 1995, <i>NIV study Bible</i> , Zondervan, Grand Rapids.
<i>Article or chapter in a book</i>	As discussed by Blaxter (1976, p.121)...	Blaxter, M 1976, 'Social class and health inequalities', in C Carter & J Peel (eds), <i>Equalities and inequalities in health</i> , Academic Press, London, pp. 120-135.
<i>Article or chapter in a book – no author</i>	(<i>Solving the Y2K problem</i> 1997, p. 27).	'Solving the Y2K problem' 1997, in D Bowd (ed.), <i>Technology today and tomorrow</i> , Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, p. 27.
<i>Brochure</i>	(Research and Training Centre 1993, p. 2)	Research and Training Centre on Independent Living 1993, <i>Guidelines for reporting and writing about people with disabilities</i> [Brochure], 4th edn, Research and Training Centre, Lawrence, KS. The publisher's name may be abbreviated if it is also the author.
<i>E-book</i>	(Pettinger 2002)	Pettinger, R 2002, <i>Global organizations</i> , Capstone Publishing, Oxford. Retrieved September 28, 2004, from NetLibrary database.
<i>Thesis</i>	(Jones 1998, pp. 89-90)	Jones, F 1998, 'The mechanism of Bayer residue flocculation', PhD Thesis, Curtin University of Technology. Retrieved December 21, 2005, from Curtin University of Technology Digital Theses.
<i>Conference proceedings</i>	(Debono 2000)	Debono, C 2000, 'The National Trust into the new millennium', <i>Proceedings of the ninth meeting of the International National Trust</i> , Australian Council of National Trusts, Alice Springs, NT, pp. 44-46. Retrieved January 20, 2006, from Informit Online database.
<i>Conference proceedings – no author</i>	(Proceedings of the ninth meeting of the International National Trust 2000)	'The National Trust into the new millennium', <i>Proceedings of the ninth meeting of the International National Trust</i> , Australian Council of National Trusts, Alice Springs, NT, pp. 44-6. Retrieved January 20, 2006, from Informit Online database.
<i>Annual report of an organisation</i>	(Department of Transport and Regional Services 2001, p. 17) OR Billabong's annual report (2005, p. 17)	Department of Transport and Regional Services 2001, <i>Annual report 2001-2002</i> , Canberra. OR Billabong International Ltd. 2005, <i>Annual report 2005 – Brands</i> , pp. 14-17. Retrieved January 27, 2006, from Connect4 database.
<i>Image in a book</i>	The poster 'Buy Australian Apples' (Cowle & Walker 2005, p. 65)	Cowle, C & Walker, D 2005, <i>The art of apple branding</i> , Apples from Oz, Hobart.

Print Journals	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Article</i>	As mentioned by Wharton (1996, pp. 8-12, 27)...	Wharton, N 1996, 'Health and safety in outdoor activity centres', <i>Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Leadership</i> , vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 8-9.
<i>Article – no author</i>	'It's a growing problem in the U.K.' (<i>Anorexia nervosa</i> 1969, p. 530)...	Anorexia nervosa 1969, <i>British Medical Journal</i> , vol. 1, pp. 529-30.
<i>Newspaper/magazine article</i>	(Towers 2000)	Towers, K 2000, 'Doctor not at fault: coroner', <i>Australian</i> , 18 January, p. 3.
<i>Newspaper article – no author</i>in the <i>Sydney Morning Herald</i> (24 January 2000, p. 12)	Provide all the details in the in-text citation – no need for an entry in the reference list.
<i>Press release</i>	(Watersmith 2000)	Watersmith, C 2000, <i>BHP enters new era</i> , media release, BHP Limited, Melbourne, 1 March.
Electronic Journals	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Full text from an electronic database</i>	(Madden 2002)	Madden, G 2002, 'Internet economics and policy: an Australian perspective', <i>Economic Record</i> , vol. 78, no. 242, pp. 343-58. Retrieved October 16, 2002, from ABI/INFORM Global database.
<i>Full text from an electronic database – no author</i>	The internet has had a huge impact on the Australian economy' (<i>Internet economics and policy</i> 2002, p. 350)	'Internet economics and policy: an Australian perspective' 2002, <i>Economic Record</i> , vol. 78, no. 242, pp. 343-58. Retrieved October 16, 2002, from ABI/INFORM Global database.
<i>Full text newspaper, newswire or magazine from an electronic database – no author</i>	(<i>WA packed with overseas appeal</i> 2004)	'WA packed with overseas appeal' 2004, <i>West Australian</i> , 12 November, p. 47. Retrieved November 13, 2004, from Factiva database.
<i>Full text from the Internet</i>	It was proposed by Byrne (2004) that...	Byrne, A 2004, 'The end of history: censorship and libraries', <i>The Australian Library Journal</i> , vol. 53, no. 2. Retrieved November 16, 2004, from < http://www.alia.org.au/publishing/alj/53.2/full_text/byrne.htm >.
<i>Article from database on CD-Rom</i>	(La Rosa 1992, p. 58)	La Rosa, SM 1992, 'Marketing slays the downsizing dragon', <i>Information Today</i> , vol. 9, no. 3, pp. 58-9. Retrieved October 16, 2002, from UMI Business Periodicals Ondisc database.
Secondary Sources	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Book</i>	'Including neuralgia' (Carini and Hagan, cited in Thibodeau & Patton 2002, p. 45) OR Carini and Hogan (cited in Thibodeau & Patton 2002, p. 45)...	Thibodeau, GA & Patton, KT (eds.) 2002. <i>The human body in health and disease</i> , Mosby, St. Louis, Mo. Record the book that you actually sourced.
<i>Journal Article</i>	'...origins of neuralgia' (Carini and Hagan, cited in Patton 2002, p. 2154) OR Carini and Hogan (cited in Patton 2002)	Patton, KT 2002, 'Neuralgia and headaches', <i>Science</i> , vol. 4, pp. 2153-55. Record the journal that you actually sourced.

World Wide Web	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Document on WWW</i>	'It's essential you learn how to reference' (Dawson et al. 2002).	Dawson, J, Smith, L, Deubert, K & Grey-Smith, S 2002, 'S' Trek 6: <i>referencing, not plagiarism</i> . Retrieved October 31, 2002, from < http://studytrekk.lis.curtin.edu.au/ >.
<i>Document on WWW – no author</i>	(<i>Leafy seadragons and weedy seadragons</i> 2001)	<i>Leafy seadragons and weedy seadragons</i> 2001. Retrieved November 13, 2002, from < http://www.windspeed.net.au/~jenny/seadragons/ >.
<i>Document on WWW – no date</i>	(Royal Institute of British Architects n.d.)	Royal Institute of British Architects n.d., <i>Shaping the future: careers in architecture</i> . Retrieved May 31, 2005, from < http://www.careersinarchitecture.net/ >.
<i>Image on the web</i>	The image of the bleached coral (<i>Coral bleaching and mass bleaching events</i> 2002)	<i>Coral bleaching and mass bleaching events</i> [Image] 2002. Retrieved September 2, 2005 from < http://www.gbmpa.gov.au/corp_site/info_services/science/bleaching/ >.
Other Sources	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Personal communication, e-mail and discussion lists with no web archive, self recorded interviews.</i>	'It was confirmed that an outbreak occurred in London' (S Savieri 1999, pers. comm., 24 April).	Not included in reference list as they cannot be traced by the reader.
<i>Lecture - spoken</i>	(Zyderfeld 2006)	Zyderfeld, J 2006, Notes from lecture, 27 Feb 2006, delivered at Tabor Adelaide.
<i>Lecture - published</i>	(Zyderfeld 2006, p. 9)	Zyderfeld, J 2006, Tabor lecture notes, Tabor Adelaide, Adelaide.
<i>Films and video recordings</i>	(<i>Grumpy meets the orchestra</i> 1992)	<i>Grumpy meets the orchestra</i> 1992, video recording, Australian Broadcasting Corporation, Sydney. Featuring the Sydney Symphony Orchestra. Any special information may be noted after the citation.
<i>Television and radio programmes</i>	<i>What are we going to do with the money?</i> 1997)	<i>What are we going to do with the money?</i> 1997, television programme, SBS Television, Sydney, 8 August.
<i>Podcasts</i>	(<i>The wings of a butterfly – children, teenagers and anxiety</i> 2005)	<i>The wings of a butterfly – children, teenagers and anxiety</i> 2005, podcast radio programme, ABC Radio National, Sydney, 10 September. Retrieved September 16, 2005, from < http://www.abc.net.au/podcast/default.htm#mind >.
<i>CD-ROMS</i>	(<i>Dr Brain thinking games</i> 1998)	<i>Dr Brain thinking games</i> 1998, CD-ROM, Knowledge Adventure Inc., Torrance, California.
<i>ERIC document (microfiche)</i>	Davis and Lombardi (1996) put forward the proposal that...	Davis, RK & Lombardi, TP 1996, 'The quality of life of rural high school special education graduates', in <i>Rural goals 2000: Building programs that work</i> . ERIC Document No. 394765, microfiche.

Government Publications	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Act of Parliament</i>	The Commonwealth's <i>Copyright Act 1968</i> ... [future references do not include date]	Legislation is included in a list of references only if it is important to an understanding of the work. Set the list apart from the main body of the reference under the subheading 'Legislation'. Essential elements: <i>Short title Date</i> (Jurisdiction) eg. <i>Copyright Act 1968</i> (Cwth). If legislation is obtained from an electronic database, add a retrieved statement as for electronic journal articles.
<i>Australian Bureau of Statistics Bulletin</i>	(Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999)	Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, <i>Disability, ageing and carers: summary of findings</i> , cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra.
<i>Australian Bureau of Statistics from AusStats</i>	(Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999)	Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, <i>Disability, ageing and carers: summary of findings</i> , cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra. Retrieved October 14, 2002, from AusStats database.
<i>Government Report</i>	(Resource Assessment Commission 1991)	Resource Assessment Commission 1991, <i>Forest and timber inquiry: draft report</i> , vol. 1, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.
<i>Standard</i>	(Standards Australia 1997)	Standards Australia 1997, <i>Size coding scheme for infants' and children's clothing – underwear and outerwear</i> , AS 1182-1997. Retrieved January 10, 2006, from Standards Australia Online database.
Subject Readers	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
<i>Subject Manual</i>	(Buxton G, 2004, p. 40)	Buxton G, 2004, <i>Introduction to Biblical Interpretation</i> , Unit Reader, vol. 1 of 2, Tabor Adelaide.
<i>Subject Reader</i>	(Clowney, EP 1995, p. 7)	Reference the original book or journal that was copied to create the reader.
SACSA/SSABSA	In-text Example	Bibliography/Reference List Example
SACSA	(South Australia Department of Education and Children's Services 2005)	South Australia Department of Education and Children's Services 2005, <i>Improving teaching and learning through the SACSA framework using SACSA resources</i> , Department of Education and Children's Services, Adelaide.
SACSA – editor listed	(Groves 2003, p. 5)	Groves, G (ed.) 2003, <i>SACSA comp doc series: R-7 mathematics: teaching resource</i> , Department of Education and Children's Services Publishing, Adelaide.
SSABSA	(Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia 2007, pp. 5-6)	Senior Secondary Assessment Board- of South Australia 2007, <i>SSABSA/SACE curriculum statements 2007: Health and personal development: Stage 1 and Stage 2 physical education</i> , Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia, Adelaide.

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***SAMPLE ASSIGNMENT
USING HARVARD REFERENCING GUIDE***

A research paper exploring the education of children of Christian families in the early Church, and its connection, if any, to the educational system operating in the Graeco-Roman world.

Given the current Christian education movement, it is interesting to investigate what the Christians of the early Church did to educate their children. In today's context, the term 'Christian education' brings to mind images of children attending a school in which a Christian atmosphere and perspective pervades teaching and learning. People find it natural for the Church 'to claim the right to its own schools as an immediate corollary of the Faith' (Marrou 1964, p. 424). Surprisingly, however, the early Church never provided any kind of *general* education for the children of its members (Barclay 1959, p. 238). This paper will explore a variety of evidences that build the case to support such a claim. Some possible reasons as to why the early Church utilised the pagan education of the times rather than establishing a separate system of general education will also be explored. However, to understand the significance of this issue, the education system of the Roman Empire must also be outlined.

First, the educational setting of the Roman Empire at the time of the early Church needs to be considered. During the days of the Roman Republic, the family was central to education. Mothers educated their children until the age of seven. At this stage in the child's life, fathers took over the education of their children. However, with the Hellenisation of the Roman Republic, many schools of grammar for children began to appear. The teachers at these 'primary' schools effectively took over the role of the father in education (Gangel & Benson 1983, pp. 52-54). Education played a key role in establishing and maintaining the Roman Empire. Throughout the entire empire, in towns both large and small, the 'process of Romanizing through the schools went steadily on, and by the Second Century the Roman schools were practically universal' (Boyd 1950, p. 75). The Romans formalised Greek education by establishing a three-tiered system. At the elementary level was the *ludus* for children aged seven to ten or eleven. Next was the *grammatikus*, a grammar school for those aged ten to sixteen years. The third stage of education was the

rhetorical school for students between sixteen and eighteen years old (Gangel & Benson 1983, pp. 53-55).³

The type of education received depended on one's societal standing. The education of slaves was significantly different. The children of slaves were brought up to serve their master. The goal of their education was learning how to perform their particular job and to behave in a proper manner. Thus, the slaves' masters saw no need to send them to a school. Training took place on their estates. However, some gifted slaves also received an intellectual education so they could act as readers or secretaries (Marrou 1964, pp. 359-60). Then there was private tutoring for the children of aristocratic and wealthy families (Marrou 1964, p. 359) Although many children were tutored, it seems quite likely that these pupils received an education 'substantially equivalent' to that of their contemporaries attending school (Townsend 1971, p. 141). The education of slaves and private tutoring were the only exceptions to most children, both boys and girls, attending school. Education was definitely not reserved for the privileged few. Widespread literacy must not be regarded as an entirely modern phenomenon. In the Roman Empire, even the poor prized a certain degree of literacy, and 'there were many places in the ancient world where literacy, if not general, was extremely common' (Townsend 1971, p. 141). While basic education was common, relatively few received advanced schooling (Townsend 1971, p. 141).

The focus of elementary education was literacy. The teacher's main job was to teach students how to read aloud and to write. Children began by learning the alphabet, then syllables and next, single syllable words. The word lists students studied were not restricted to everyday language. The lists emphasised rare, archaic words that were tongue twisters. There were also lists of gods, rivers, months of the year and proper names from Homer. Once students had mastered

³ Ages for entry into the various levels varied, since Marrou indicates that some may have been attending the rhetorical school as young as fifteen and staying beyond twenty (1964, p. 358f).

their word lists, they moved on to texts. These were not simple readers, but selections from the very best writers, particularly Homer and Euripides. The students first learnt how to read the selections aloud and then committed them to memory. The greatest authors were chosen because their style was worthy of imitation. In learning to write at the elementary level, the focus was completely on the mechanics of handwriting, not on composition or grammar. Students would also learn simple arithmetic and participate in some physical training (Townsend 1971, pp. 144-5).

At the secondary level, the grammar school, students studied the classics. Homer was the pre-eminent author studied. Virgil was considered the most important Latin author. The study of the classics involved four disciplines: (1) textual criticism, since texts were hand copied; (2) reading with expression; (3) exegesis, which involved translating the classical literary Greek into the common language and expounding the content; and (4) moral evaluation of the classics. Students also learnt how to write in the classical style (Townsend 1971, pp. 145-148).⁴

Education in the Roman Empire 'was permeated with pagan ideas and worship of pagan gods' (Frost 1966, p. 100). As has already been discussed, the classics (especially Homer) were at the heart of education. Homer and the poets tell of the gods and their loves, hates, wars and exploits (Barclay 1959, p. 239), 'as impious as they were immoral' (Marrou 1964, p. 428). The *2* philosophy portrayed by Homer can be described as 'artistic polytheism', based on a sense of beauty rather than conscience (Gangel & Benson 1983, p. 63). In addition, students were often taught in classrooms decorated with representations of pagan gods. Furthermore, 'students were

⁴ For the purposes of this paper, it suffices to discuss the first two stages of education. However, this note gives a basic summary of the third level of education. After secondary school, students had a number of options, including medicine, and a preparatory course for the military (Townsend 1971, p. 149f). However, the rhetorical schools dominated Roman higher education (Gangel & Benson 1983, p. 56). Learning how to prepare speeches was central in rhetorical training. However, studying rhetoric involved far more than learning the art of public speaking. Rhetors were expected to be able give a speech on any given topic. Thus, the student of rhetoric had to study most branches of knowledge, including logic, philosophy, astronomy and history (Townsend 1971, p. 151f).

often expected, and even compelled, to take part in pagan religious festivals' (Townsend 1971, p. 149). Several schools included some musical training for the purpose of having school children provide choral singing at various religious festivals (Townsend 1971, p. 142). The basis of school organisation was the heathen religion. Timetabling was according to the festivals of the gods (Barclay 1959, p. 239). In arguing against the propriety of Christians being teachers, in *On idolatry*, Tertullian gives a stark picture of the extent to which schools were inseparably aligned with paganism. While discussing teachers, he writes:

In the first place, they are bound to praise the gods of the heathen, rehearse their names, genealogies, stories, and all their ornaments and attributes. Next, they must keep their feasts and celebrations, since it is by them that they compute their income... He consecrates the very first payment of a new pupil to the honour and name of Minerva⁵... Your schoolmaster must put out his hand for new year presents and what he gets at the feast of the Seven Hills. He must exact the mid-winter dues and the offerings at the festival of Remembrance. The schools must be garlanded for Flora, the priests' wives and the newly appointed aediles bring their sacrifices, the school is bedecked for holy days. It is the same on an idol's birthday; the whole pomp of the devil is celebrated. Can you think this fitting for a Christian...? (Tertullian 1956, pp. 92-3).

Amazingly however, it was to these overtly pagan schools that the Christians sent their children to be educated. In spite of Christians being determined to make a break with the pagan world, which they constantly criticised, they never sought to develop their own school system in the Graeco-Roman world (Marrou 1964, p. 422). In fact as long as the pagan schools lasted, the children of Christians attended them (Townsend 1971, p. 149). Parents faced the choice of having their children educated in pagan schools or remaining ignorant (Foakes-Jackson 1924, p. 202; Frost 1966, pp. 100-1). Most parents did not have the ability to give their children an education sufficient for them to succeed in adult life. Education was important, and their children could not afford to be ignorant and uneducated. Thus, in the absence of Christian elementary schools and in spite of their

⁵ Minerva was the patroness of schoolmasters and pupils (Boissier as cited in Cubberley 1948, p. 93).

aversion to the pagan schools, Christian parents reluctantly sent their children to them (Frost 1966, p. 101; Greensdale 1956, p. 92; Boyd 1950, p. 82). While adopting the pagan education system, Christians certainly did not accept the culture it promoted. The fundamental duty of parents was to provide a Christian education for their children so that they would grow up to share in the treasury of the faith and discipline themselves according to Christianity's moral ideals. Parents were the child's first teacher. They aimed to induct their children into the faith (Marrou 1964, pp. 419, 426; Frost 1966, p. 100). However, 'A Christian upbringing was something superimposed on a humanistic education' (Marrou 1964, p. 429).

The fact of this situation regarding education and the early Church can be proved in a variety of ways, including the writings of the Church Fathers, the education some Church Fathers received, and anecdotes from the early Church. When considering the Church Fathers in this context, Tertullian provides the best evidence that Christian parents sent their children to pagan schools. Tertullian was a controversial rigorist, uncompromising with paganism and unafraid to make the absolute demand and lay down the absolute standard (Marrou 1964, p. 428; Townsend 1971, p. 149; Boyd 1950, p. 82; Barclay 1959, p. 239). In his work, *On idolatry*, Tertullian tackles in detail the practical implications of the principle that Christians must not worship idols. For Tertullian it was clear-cut that a Christian should not serve as a magistrate, soldier or schoolmaster because these positions had direct involvement with idolatrous ceremonies. Nor should a Christian craftsman work on pagan temples or produce images for pagan use, while a Christian businessman should not sell wares such as incense. Even indirect services to idolatry were to be avoided (Greensdale 1956, pp. 79-80).

Tertullian's argument against Christians being teachers has already been cited. Given the forcefulness of that argument, it would seem natural for Tertullian to argue a case against the Christian pupil being defiled by attending a pagan school. He acknowledges that such a case could

be made, but shrinks from this obvious conclusion (Boyd 1950, p. 82; Barclay 1959, p. 239).⁶ Instead, Tertullian argues that elementary education, albeit pagan, was a necessity so that children could learn to read the Bible for themselves. To justify this position he distinguishes between teaching and learning. Tertullian proposed that to teach something necessarily meant to commend, affirm and bear testimony to it (Barclay 1959, p. 239). However, when a Christian learns something in connection with idolatry, he or she does not have to accept or affirm it, because they understand the nature of idolatry.

Alternatively, when he is beginning to understand, he must first understand what he learned first, namely, about God and the faith. Thus he will reject and repudiate the idols, and will be as safe as one who wittingly takes poison from the unwitting and does not drink it (Tertullian 1956, pp. 93-94).

Necessity is the excuse because there was no other way for children to obtain a basic education. Tertullian also believed that students would be able to avoid at least some of the pagan festivals, whereas a teacher could not (1956, p. 94).⁷

Several other Church Fathers mentioned education. The Cappadocian Fathers ‘taught that every Christian must know what is best in pagan education, the better to learn how to love and serve God’ (Lockerbie 1994, p. 50). One of these Cappadocian Fathers, Basil the Great, wrote an essay to his young nephews titled *On the reading of the profane authors*. The young men he addressed were coming to the end of their studies. Basil attempted to enable them to glean the best out of all they had learned by developing their Christian insight (Marrou 1964, p. 429). At the funeral of Basil another of the Cappadocian Fathers, Gregory of Nazianzus argued that ‘the first of our advantages [as Christians] is education’ and that Christians should ‘reap what advantage we can’ from learning

⁶ In Tertullian’s own words: I know it can be said: ‘If the servants of God are not allowed to teach letters, they will not be allowed to learn them either’, and: ‘How could anyone be educated in everyday human wisdom or taught how to think and behave, since letters are a tool for every part of life. How can we reject the secular studies without which divine studies are impossible?’ (1956, p. 93).

⁷ Incidentally, the church did not adopt Tertullian’s view and did not prevent its members from being teachers (Barclay 1959, p. 240; Boyd 1950, p. 83).

(cited in Lockerbie 1994, p. 50). Then there is Jerome who berates priests for neglecting the Gospels and the Prophets, wasting their time instead by reading the profane authors. He claimed 'it is a crime to do voluntarily what children are obliged to do for the sake of their education' (Marrou 1964, p. 428), showing that children were obviously attending pagan schools.

The education of some Church Fathers who were born into Christian families provides further insights. Origen had Christian parents. His father, Leonidas, was well educated and was probably a school teacher or teacher of rhetoric in Alexandria. He took responsibility for Origen's education. In spite of being a Christian, Leonidas still decided that Origen should study the normal curriculum of secular subjects. However, Leonidas also prioritised religious study and Origen was required to memorise and recite Bible passages every day. When Origen was sixteen, his father was martyred, which left his mother and five or six younger brothers destitute. In order to support his family, he obtained a position as a grammar teacher, since he had a good grounding in Greek literature. Not long afterwards, Origen gave up this secular teaching because he had been appointed head of the catechetical school in Alexandria (Eusebius 1989, pp. 179-183; Frost 1966, p. 100; Cole 1950, pp. 91-92; Foakes-Jackson 1924, p. 100; Gangel & Benson 1983, pp. 86-87).

The education of Augustine is also significant in supporting the fact that Christians sent their children to pagan schools for a general education. Augustine's father was pagan, but his mother, Monica, was a fervent Christian. At the age of 11 or 12, Augustine's parents sent him about 20 miles south to the town of Madaura to study grammar and literature. He did very well, and at age sixteen went to Carthage to study rhetoric for three years (Kibre 1965, p. 96). In reflecting on his education later in life while writing his *Confessions*, Augustine felt

The instruction that he received was utterly immoral ... A noble deed was condemned, if it was recited in a faulty style, and an immoral deed praised, if its style was faultless. A man was taught to be more afraid to murder a word by dropping an aspirate than to murder a fellow man (Barclay 1959, pp. 252-253).

However, Augustine did acknowledge that he benefited from his studies through acquiring useful skills (Kibre 1965, p. 97).

An interesting incident in Church history further establishes that in the Graeco-Roman world no Christian schools existed. In about 372 AD, two orthodox priests from Edessa were exiled to Antinoë as punishment for resisting Emperor Valens' Arianising policy. They were shocked to discover that Christians were a small minority in Antinoë. In an attempt to convert the pagans, one of the priests established an elementary school. However, since he was also a missionary, he taught a type of catechism to the children through the careful selection of passages for dictation and recitation from the Psalms of David and the New Testament. As a result of this teaching, his care for the students and the miracles of his fellow priest, all were converted to the faith. The fact that this was a unique occurrence and something previously unheard of is evidenced by the astonished delight with which it is reported (Marrou 1964, pp. 433-434).

A remarkable feature of Roman education was its sameness and uniformity under diverse conditions throughout the empire's existence (Boyd 1950, p. 76). One would expect that after the emperor was converted and Christians were no longer a persecuted minority that considerable changes would have occurred in the character of education. In spite of the changed circumstances, however, Christian parents still sent their children to the pagan schools, which still studied mythology (Marrou 1964, pp. 428-429).⁸ Boyd comments:

In spite of its political triumph, the Church at the end of the Fourth Century was scarcely any nearer a definite educational policy than it had been at the end of the Second. There was still the same distrust of pagan learning and the same inability to conceive of any practical alternative (1950, p. 88).

The Roman education system was strongly organised and Christian influence was merely superficial (Foakes-Jackson 1924, p. 202). An example of this is an exercise book belonging to a

⁸ Consider that the statements of the Cappadocian Fathers and Jerome (discussed above) were all made in the fourth century after Constantine's triumph. Augustine's educational experience also occurred in the fourth century. This demonstrates that the church was still utilising the pagan education system in spite of the favourable circumstances for Christianity.

young Christian schoolboy in fourth-century Egypt. This workbook is basically the same as a Hellenistic book six or seven centuries older. It contains the same lists of mythological names and the same maxims and anecdotes, both moral and immoral. The exercise book of the Christian student only has a “Blessed be God” at the top of the first page and a carefully drawn grammatic cross at the beginning of every page to distinguish it as Christian (Marrou 1964, pp. 432-433). Thus, Christian influence on education was minimal, even after Constantine.

It remains to consider reasons why the Church simply utilised the existing pagan schools rather than establishing its own. Barclay proposes three reasons. First, Christians of the early Church had ‘an intense and passionate belief in the imminence of the Second Coming’ (Barclay 1959, p. 238). Preparing for life in the world through secular education was somewhat irrelevant, and there was definitely no point in establishing a Christian school system if the Lord was coming again shortly. Secondly, the early Church was poor. It did not have the means to set up a separate system of schools. Added to that, Christianity quickly became illegal, which practically ruled out the possibility of Christian schools (Barclay 1959, p. 238).

Over time, however, these barriers were removed. After Constantine won the battle of the Milvian Bridge, he ordered persecution to cease. The church steadily increased in wealth and influence. The Second Coming of the Lord seemed delayed and the Church could not afford to ignore schooling. Marrou argues that

If the Christian religion was to persist and spread, if it was to continue its teaching activity, or even merely to preserve its form of worship, there was an absolute minimum of literary culture that it could not do without. Christianity is an intellectual religion and cannot exist in a context of barbarism (1964, p. 421).

This was true for the early Church since Christianity was a religion of the Book, it increasingly valued the written word in Church life, and had a rapidly growing tradition of doctrines and explanations, a whole literature that was rich and varied (Marrou 1964, p. 421).

It is interesting to note that Christians did set up religious schools whenever the Church moved into a barbarian land (i.e. a land that had not assimilated classical culture). In fact, ‘in

countries which had previously had no written culture, Christianity gave birth to a national culture, a national literature, and above all a national script, all for its own purposes' (Marrou 1964, p. 423). The primary goal was to translate the Bible into the people's native tongue so they could also experience the source of Christian life. However, in the Graeco-Roman cultural area, nothing like this ever took place (Marrou 1964, p. 423). The question still remains to be asked, 'how could the Church tolerate the pagan schools for so long?' Marrou points out that Christianity is fundamentally about the relationship between God and human beings, not primarily a cultural ideal or a manifesto about how to manage life on earth. While a profound doctrine about human beings and their existence will naturally lead to certain principles with practical implications that will "react on civilization", this is a process taking many centuries. Marrou continues:

The early generations of Christians had not worked out any specifically Christian form of education, any more than they had worked out a Christian system of politics. They put first things first, and they laid the rock-bottom foundations of any Christian civilization to come: a system of dogma, a system of morals, canonical discipline, and the liturgy (1964, p. 425).

In conclusion, the Christians of the early Church educated their children through the existing pagan schools. The Roman education system was universal within the empire, readily accessible to the majority of children and inseparably aligned with paganism. Surprisingly, the Christians of the early Church sent their children to these schools without ever establishing their own schools for general education. The witness of the Church Fathers attests to this, as does their experience. Furthermore, there are other stories and documents preserved that also support the above conclusion. Parents, however, certainly instructed their children in the things of the Lord to help their children reject the pagan ideas they would be exposed to at school. While initially the church was poor, outlawed and looking for imminent the Second Coming of Christ, it did not stay that way with the conversion of Constantine. A minimal amount of education was necessary for the church to survive, and when the Church moved into a barbarian land, it established its own educational system. However, this did not occur in the Graeco-Roman world, where the Church was slowly

working out the implications of the faith. It seems 'the Church had annexed the Roman educational system, and had made it her own. She had in fact baptised pagan education into the service of the Church' (Barclay 1959, p. 251).

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PART D PROCESSING ASSESSMENT RESULTS

When you receive your assignments back

By now or very shortly you will have at least one assignment graded and returned to you from one of the units you are studying. It will benefit you now to engage in critical reflection.

Critical reflection is a method of learning; it reviews *how* you went about doing the assignment and *what* you learnt from it. The process uses self reflecting questions concerning your feelings, the actions you went through and the outcomes of that action.



1. *Ask yourself these questions and reflect on the answers:*

- How did I feel doing the assignment?

What sort of things did I do to get it done?

Realistically, was I satisfied with my effort?

- What worked well? Well, try that again next time.

If it didn't work well, then ask 'what can I do next time?'

What new technique can I apply?

2. *Transfer these new techniques, perspectives and concepts onto the next learning experience.*

If you have an opportunity to meet or talk with a fellow student, share your experiences with each other. It is also a great opportunity when and if you all meet in a group to discuss like experiences. Other students often have an answer for your particular 'problem' and are great study buddies.

PART E Bibliography

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PART F APPENDICES

APPENDIX ONE: SUMMARY OF ARTICLE IN ACTIVITY 1.9

I'm so smart, how come I flunk all the time?

Dr Lloyd Homme, of special education, believed scientists could raise Maths and English grades of twenty flunking students in thirty days. Using any available technology and standardised tests under strict laboratory conditions, the grades improved. However, the students were not improving when back in the classroom, admitting they thought the experiments to be a failure. When told to work harder, they challenged the scientists to view the classroom.

Homme discovered that students, though proven bright in the experiments, acted like 'dummies' in the classroom. They played the class idiot, did not pay attention and appeared absent-minded. Their teachers did not help either, categorising the students into three groups. Bright-eyes, who held the teacher's gaze, calling out for attention, admitting ignorance when appropriate and asking questions. Scaredy-cats, who looked but did not hold gaze, appeared uninvolved and asked few questions. Dummies, who never looked at the teacher, never asked questions and never gave information in class. The teachers believed 'once a dummy always a dummy', branding behaviour with appropriate grades, giving little chance for improvement. Homme decided that students should be trained to be 'bright-eyes' and gain the favourable attention of teachers.

As a result, drill sessions in eye-balling' and 'hand-raising' techniques confounded the teachers causing a gradual rise in grades. It proved successful with those who decided to help each other and give it a try. 'Results', said Homme, that were 'guaranteed for life'.

253 words

APPENDIX TWO: DEFINITION OF ESSAY TERMS

- analyse:** break down into parts and examine each closely
- argue:** present a case for and against a particular allegation
- assess:** evaluate and measure the importance
- compare:** look for and discuss the similarities between two or more things
- contrast:** as above but emphasise the differences
- define:** set out a precise meaning of a word or phrase
- describe:** give a detailed account
- discuss:** describe the details and interpret their significance
- evaluate:** make an appraisal of the worth of something; judge its significance
- examine:** present in depth and investigate the implications
- explore:** describe in detail and note the impact
- illustrate:** present a specific example or use a diagram
- interpret:** bring out the meaning of, usually by giving one's own opinion
- indicate:** focus on special areas
- outline:** describe the main ideas or broad theme, omitting minor details but remaining compact
- paraphrase:** using your own words give the same meaning to a passage, not necessarily shorter in length
- prove:** demonstrate truth or falseness by presenting evidence
- relate:** narrate how things are connected to each other
- review:** make a survey of, examining the subject critically
- state:** specify fully and clearly
- summarise:** give a concise coverage of the chief points or overview of the matter, omitting lengthy details and examples

APPENDIX THREE: WAYS TO ORGANISE YOUR SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Chronological order:

If your details recount a story, explain history, or a task process, this would be a good choice. *For example*, your current course of study started in 1985, when you completed a technical certificate, which led you to change your employment in 1990. You became so skilled in your trade that in 1993 the company director asked you to conduct regular staff development in this area. You now find that you have a passion for teaching and want to gain some credentials in teaching, so in 1996 you enrol in the Diploma of Adult and Vocational Education. (Words to use in this mode are: after, as soon as, before, during, finally, later, meanwhile, next soon and when.)

Order of importance:

If some of the supporting information carries more value or consequence than the rest, then you may choose to arrange it in the order of importance. *For example*, when stressing teaching excellence compared to student behaviour or student results, the first is more important because teaching excellence directly relates to the other two topics. (Words to use are: above all, better, furthermore, of major concern, equally important and moreover.)

Cause and effect:

Most readers like to know why something happened and what caused it. Documenting cause and effect would provide the answer. It relies on clear reasoning and your ability to make these relationships clear. *For example*, relating mature-age students' difficulty in accessing the library computer system (effect), because of their lack of computer literacy (cause).

Analogy:

Analogy is a particular form of comparison. It explains an unfamiliar process or idea by likening it to something that is familiar to the reader. *For example*, writing an essay is like cooking a cake. Both have certain 'ingredients' that need to be introduced in a certain order to be successful. Put in the wrong ingredient in the recipe and the cake will not taste right. Having the supporting information incorrect to the main idea will make the essay difficult to read. Adding the cake ingredients in an illogical sequence will turn the cake into a biscuit. By having your argument in an illogical sequence you will make the essay a farce.

Classification:

When you classify you divide a broad subject into smaller parts and rely on the shared characteristics within each classification that you have identified for explaining your material. *For example*, if you classified teaching you may list the various types: behaviourist, humanistic, progressive, etc.

Definition:

Defining places the classified subject into subsets that show how each differs from the other classifications. *For example*, behaviourist teaching style has the objectives set by the teacher.

Learning is passive and repetitious. Students must meet those objectives to pass the subject and are rewarded or punished accordingly.

Example:

Someone once wrote ‘All mature-age students will excel in study if given half a chance’. This is a broad assertion and a reader would question the truth of that statement, requiring an example to prove it. Previous writings, general case-study, and personal experiences would be some ways to provide examples.

Illustration:

Illustration goes beyond example and also includes specific details. *For example*, statistical research, personal testimony or case-study.

Comparison:

Comparison shows how two apparently different items are really alike. *For example*, yourself compared to your ‘ideal’ teacher; your first day at university to your first day at school. (Words to use are: both, same, similar, also, alike, and, each, just as, still.)

Contrast:

Contrast shows the items are dissimilar. *For example*, the personalities of two of your students; talking to a person on the phone and talking to a person face to face; your essay structure to your report structure. (Words to use are: but, different, however, in contrast, on the other hand, yet, whereas, and while.)

APPENDIX FOUR: ACCESS DETAILS FOR DATABASES

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY COLLECTION

(Subscribed to by Tabor Adelaide)

The *Religion & Philosophy Collection* is a comprehensive database covering such topics as world religions, major denominations, biblical studies, religious history, epistemology, political philosophy, philosophy of language, moral philosophy and the history of philosophy.

This database offers more than 300 full text journals, including more than 250 peer-reviewed titles, making it an essential tool for researchers and students of theology and philosophical studies. In addition to the full text, indexing and abstracts are provided for journals in the database.

- To search R&P, simply enter the following URL into your web browser:

<http://search.epnet.com>

Enter the college

- User Name: **S5527200**
- Password: **PASSWORD** in the appropriate boxes
- Press the **LOGIN** button to begin using the database.

ATLA RELIGION DATABASE

(Subscribed to by Tabor Adelaide)

ATLA, or the American Theological Library Association Religion Database is a simple to use electronic index of 650 Journals and other resources published since 1949 with particular reference to religion or theology.

You can use the Database to find information for all the subject areas taught at Tabor, however most undergraduate students will not need to use this unless they are doing major research.

- To search ATLA, simply enter the following URL into your web browser:

<http://search.epnet.com>

Enter the college

- User Name: **S5527200**
- Password: **PASSWORD** in the appropriate boxes
- Press the **LOGIN** button to begin using the database



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