

SITACS

School of Information Technology & Computer Science

“First Choice for IT Education and Research”

STYLE GUIDE

*for Footnotes and Documentation
...incorporating*

ESSAY & REPORT PREPARATION SUGGESTIONS

**for All Students in the
School of Information Technology
and Computer Science**

A major part of this guide was adapted with permission from:

University of New England, 1994 *STYLE BOOKLET for Footnotes and Documentation.....incorporating a Guide to Language Usage* Armidale, NSW

Part III. Punctuation was taken from:

M. Cutler - Stuart, *How to write essays: a practical guide for students*, Hale & Iremonger Pty Ltd, Marrickville, NSW, 1993, pp.46-50.

Part VI. Notes on Essay Presentation was taken from and adapted from those used in the Department of Science and Technology Studies, University of Wollongong.

Points to Consider when developing your essay or report was taken from:

J. Clanchy, B. Ballard, *Essay writing for students: a practical guide*. Melbourne, Vic., Longman Cheshire, 1991, pp.10, 18, 38, 48

Part VII. 8 Steps to a First-Rate Report was taken from:

L. Sue Baugh, *How to Write Term Papers and Reports*, VGM Career Horizons, Illinois, USA, 1993, p.2.

Report Structure was taken from:

R. R. Jordan, *Nelson Study Skills in English: Academic Writing Course*, Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd, Surrey, 1990, p84.

First printed at the University of Wollongong Printery 1995

This Edition: March 1999

Edited by Sonia Jennings with input for the booklet from members of the School of Information Technology and Computer Science, University of Wollongong

The University has attempted to ensure that the information contained in this publication is up to date at the time of printing (March 1999) but this information may be amended without notice by the University in response to changing circumstances or for any other reasons.

CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	4
What is Plagiarism?	5
Documentation	
When to Document	6
How to Set Out Quotations	7
Part I. Traditional Footnoting System	
Consecutive References to Separate Works	
Books	8
Journal Articles	9
Electronic Information Sources	10
More on Citing Electronic Sources	10
An Interview	14
Continued Reference to the Same Work	
Books	15
Journal Articles	16
Bibliography	16
Sample Bibliography	18
Part II. The Harvard System	
Rules for Citation	19
Bibliography	19
Rules for Bibliography	
Journal Articles	22
Books	23
Edited Volumes	23
Electronic Information Sources	23
A Work in Press	24
Non-English Language	24
Papers	24
Newspaper Article	24
Government Publication	24
Abbreviations	25
Part III. Punctuation	26
Part IV. Policy & Guidelines on Non Discriminatory Language Practice & Presentation	31
Part V. Notes on Essay Presentation	39
Points to Consider When Developing Your Essay or Report	42
Part VI. A Guide - 8 Steps to a First-Rate Report	43
Report Structure	44
Major Difference between an Essay and a Report	44
Appendices	
i. Types of services available at University of Wollongong	45
ii. University of Wollongong's Acknowledgment Practise/Plagiarism Policy.	47
Your Comments Matter	51

Introduction

Many students have been confused by the fact that different styles of footnoting and other methods of documentation have been demanded by different departments and sometimes even by different lecturers in the same department. Of course each discipline may have special referencing and formatting requirements for a project report or a thesis.

These notes contain the details of the application of two widely used systems:

- the traditional footnoting system and
- the Harvard system.

The authority on which the examples are based is the *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 4th edition, 1988, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, pp. 128-163.

Further Readings

Anderson, J. Durston, B.H. & Poole, M. 1970, *Thesis and Assignment Writing*, John Wiley, Sydney.

Australian Government Publishing Service 1988, *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 4th edn, AGPS, Canberra.

Clanchy, J. & Ballard, B. 1981, *Essay Writing for Students*, Longman Cheshire, Melbourne.

Gibaldi, J. 1995, *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*, 4th edn, The Modern Language Association of America, New York.

Gregory, M.J. 1984, *Report Writing and Documentation*, 2nd edn, Dixson Library, UNE, Armidale.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the dishonest use of other people's academic work. Students sometimes plagiarise without meaning to, by failing to provide references to the sources of their essay information, or for any direct quotations they might choose to use. More serious cases involve the deliberate theft of others' work and its presentation as one's own. Plagiarism is a form of cheating, and universities take it very seriously.

Avoid plagiarism, in your essays and in other academic activity, by painstakingly acknowledging information sources.

Procedures for dealing with Plagiarism within SITACS' are as follows:

- i) The lecturer/tutor refers the piece of work to Head of School;
- ii) If the student is guilty of plagiarism then a grade of zero will be given for that piece of work;
- iii) The student will be informed in writing of this decision;
- iv) The student has the right of appeal.

For the University of Wollongong's Acknowledgement Practise/Plagiarism Policy, please turn to Appendix ii.

Documentation

The following notes are designed to assist you with the mechanical aspects of your essay writing. Proper use of these techniques for footnotes and bibliographies may enable you to avoid suspicion of plagiarism. (See note regarding PLAGIARISM on previous page).

Documentation should be used to refer to the source of and authority for statements in the text of your essay or to indicate where more details can be found.

In your early essays you may find that a reference is needed for every sentence! It is better to give too much documentation rather than too little.

When to Document

Full documentation is an essential part of any essay. It enables the reader to follow up the source of ideas, interpretations and information in the essay and it makes clear when you are drawing your own conclusions from the evidence presented. Failure to document adequately and fully is to ignore scholarly rules and may mean that you may not receive full recognition for originality.

Documentation should be used not only to provide the source of a direct quotation but also to give the source for any information, ideas or interpretation that you have used. You must give your source for any direct quotation, but it is equally important when you are paraphrasing another person's ideas to give your source. For example, documentation WOULD be needed for the following statements:

The success of Cook's voyages has been attributed, in part, to improved means of navigation and nutrition.

There are now grounds for the belief that Australia has been inhabited for more than 20 000 years.

However, documentation is NOT needed for self-evident statements or commonly held facts or beliefs such as:

Cook reached Australia in 1770.

Australian Aborigines did not use metal tools before 1770.

How to Set Out Quotations

When quoting directly from any source you may incorporate the quotation in your own text in two ways.

- a) If the quotation is less than a complete sentence, you may simply enclose it in single inverted commas, preceded by suitable punctuation, for example:
- But is violence a basic element in a revolutionary process as Arendt appears to assume when she write ‘... that revolutions and wars are not even conceivable outside the domain of violence’.
- You would then acknowledge the quotation by a footnote in the traditional system of documentation or by a reference to author and date in the Harvard system (see following pages).
- b) If the quotation is a sentence or longer you must break off your own text with appropriate punctuation, take a new line, and indent (without inverted commas) the whole quotation. Take up your own text on a new line following the quotation. The reference would follow the indented quotation. For example:

Increasingly it has become apparent that:

. . . we may have inadvertently killed off the artist in our academic organisations because they didn't fit into our social science mould (Schwen 1986).

Unfortunately, this may be because creativity has tended to have been neglected in traditional educational curriculums.

Below are examples of how to document a quotation when you have not consulted the original source. You must refer to both the original source and the secondary source in which you have found it.

This example is documented in the traditional footnoting system.

(a) A British historian of the early nineteenth century said that to French builders, 'is primarily owing the energetical improvement made in modern times in the form, dimensions, and general contour of vessels'.¹

On the Base of the page the following would appear:

¹ J. Charnock, *A History of Marine Architecture*, Longmans, London, 1800-02, vol. III, p. 172, quoted by M. S. Anderson, in *Europe in the Eighteenth Century 1713-1783*, Longmans, London, 1976, p. 193.

This is the same example documented in the Harvard system.

(b) A British historian of the early nineteenth century said that to French builders, 'is primarily owing the energetical improvement made in' (Charnock 1800-02, p. 172, quoted in Anderson 1976, p. 193).

These two main systems of documentation are set out on the following pages.

Part I. Traditional Footnoting System

Consecutive References to Separate Works

Books

a) Standard form

Far from being in the best interests of France, Philip the Bold's activities there were sinister, selfish and unscrupulous. His political outlook was Burgundian, not French.¹

Footnote

¹ R. Vaughan, *Philip the Bold*, Longmans, London, 1962, p. 240.

b) More than one volume

² S. Runciman, *A History of the Crusades*, vol. 1, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1951, p. 23.

³ H.M. Green, *A History of Australian Literature*, vol. 2, Angus & Robertson, Sydney, 1961, p. 1097.

c) Second or later edition

⁴ C.P. Kindleberger, *Economic Development*, 2nd edn, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1965, p. 46.

⁵ J.M. Buchanan, *The Public Finances*, 3rd edn, Irwin, Homewood, 1970, p. 105.

⁶ Sir Lewis Namier, *The Structure of Politics at the Accession of George III*, 2nd edn, Macmillan, London, 1957, p. 364.

d) A book composed of separate articles

⁷ John le Patourel, 'The King and the Princes in Fourteenth Century France', in J. Hale, R. Highfield and B. Smalley (eds), *Europe in the Late Middle Ages*, Faber & Faber, London, 1965, p. 183.

⁸ E. Schlesinger, 'On Euripides' *Medea*', in E. Segal (ed.), *Euripides: A Collection of Critical Essays*, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey, 1968, p. 71.

⁹ M.N. Austin, 'The Classical Learning of Samuel Johnson', in R. F. Brissenden (ed.), *Studies in the Eighteenth Century*, AN Press, Canberra, 1968, p. 285.

e) Quotation found in a secondary source

¹⁰ G.J. Holyoake, quoted by A. Briggs, in *The Age of Improvement*, Longmans, London, 1959, p. 380.

Journal Articles

Typical references from several disciplines

¹¹ H.G. Judge, 'Church and State under Louis XIV', *History* vol. 45, 1960, p. 228.

¹² J.H. Burns, 'Bentham and the French Revolution', *Transactions of the Royal Historical Society*, 5th Series, vol. 16, 1966, p. 97.

¹³ O.L. Perry, 'The Logic of Moral Valuation', *Mind*, vol. 46, January 1957, p. 44.

¹⁴ G.F. Else, 'Lucretius and the Aesthetic Attitude', *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, vol. 41, 1930, p. 156.

¹⁵ J.M. Holmes, 'A Condition for the Independence of Permanent and Transitory Components of a Series', *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, vol. 66, March 1971, p. 14.

¹⁶ R. Shackleton, 'Montesquieu and Machiavelli: A Reappraisal', *Comparative Literature Studies*, vol. 1, 1964, p. 8.

¹⁷ H.P. Guth, 'Symbol and Contextual Restraint: Kafka's "Country Doctor"', *PMLA*, vol. 80, 1965, p. 9.

The above footnote illustrates the use of standard abbreviation for the title of a journal (PMLA = *Publications of the Modern Language Association*). SITACS staff members will advise on the use of such abbreviations, but if in doubt use the whole title.

¹⁸ B. McFarlane, 'India: The Political Economy of Crisis', *The Australian Quarterly*, vol. 37, no. 1, March 1965, p. 9.

¹⁹ S. Hook, 'The Cult of Revolution', *Quadrant*, vol. 15, no. 5, September-October 1971, p. 51.

²⁰ R. J. Pearson, 'The Social Aims of Chinese Archaeology', *Antiquity*, vol. LI, no. 201, March 1977, p. 8.

You will notice that some of the above references give volume number, part number, month and year as well as page number, while others give volume number, year and page only. More detail has to be shown in the former cases because the journals concerned paginate anew from page 1 in each issue; thus some quarterly journals would have four page 9s in any given year, so we often need to know month (or season) and part number.

Electronic Information Sources

(Quoted directly from X .Li, N.b.Crane, *Electronic Style: A Guide to Citing Electronic Information*, Meckler Publishing, Westport, 1993, p. 1., 3, 11, 13)

The primary objective in making reference to an item, whether in print or electronic format, is to give enough information so that it can be located. It is important to use the “generic terms” offered by an information supplier to identify the path for retrieval of an item. The following citation, an item located using the LEXIS/NEXIS system, illustrates this approach in the “Available” statement:

Niles, T. M. T. (1992, August 17). US position and proposed actions concerning the Yugoslav crisis. *Department of State Dispatch* [Online]. Available LEXIS Library: GENFED File: DSTATE

The “Available” statement usually replaces the information of the publication and publisher.

It is worthwhile to add a “Type of medium” statement, such as online, CD-ROM or disk, directly after the name of the publication. State this within square brackets [].

Schultes, R. E. (1991). Orchid. In *Grolier’s online encyclopedia* [Online]. Available Telnet: UWIN.U.WASHINGTON.EDU Directory: I/REF/GROL File: orchid

Girotti, T. B., Tweed, N. B., & Houser, N. R. (1990, February). Realtime VAr control by SCADA. *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems* [CD-ROM], 5, 61-64. Available: UMI File: IPO (IEEE/IEE Publications Ondisc) Item: 3631953

Care must be taken to duplicate upper and lowercase letters in the address or message exactly as found in the source, or reference to the source.

Give as much information as possible when quoting a http source:

Cooper, Mark. Universal service: a historical perspective and policies for the twenty-first century. Washington, D.C.: Benton Foundation and the Consumer Federation of America, 1996. [<http://27May1997/www.benton.org/Library/Prospects/prospects.html> Last updated 9 December 1996.]

More on Citing Electronic Information

(Taken directly from: THE INTERNET FOR LAWYERS, MYLES McGREGOR and ALAN DAVIDSON, LBC Information Services, Sydney, 1997, Appendix D p. 225-230.

Invariably lawyers will be faced with accurately referencing electronic information and publications. These materials may or may not have a paper form equivalent and may have different characteristics to those inherent in hard-copy publications. The object of the bibliographic exercise is for a reader to verify the source. The extent of the citation will depend on the context of the citation.

Standards of bibliographic references to electronic documents are lagging behind the use of the Internet for scholarly publication. The International Standards Organisation draft standard 690-2 attempts to address these issues and a completed draft is proposed to be published by the end of 1996, <http://www.nlc-bnc.ca/iso/tc46sca/index.htm>

There have also been some private attempts to make some standards until the various style manuals catch up with the Internet.

Some examples from the MLA tradition are:

APA style electronic extension
<http://www.nyu.edu/pages/psychology/WEAPAS/>

Beyond the MLA Handbook
<http://fnlcon.eku.edu/~onors/beyond-mla/>

Galileo—Citing Electronic Sources
<http://uJ7uw.rcnc1lNet.edu/galileo/citation.s/>

The following suggestions may fill the gap while we await agreed standards.

A frustration that many users have is the incorrect citation of electronic sources and one of the preventable errors is the inaccurate use of lower and upper case. Some browsers are case sensitive and it is important to ensure that the correct case is cited.

For that URL that will not work for you, try the following:

- Are you using the correct case?
- Are you confusing a small "l" capital "I" and the numeral one?
- Are you confusing the letter "o" with zero?

Are you confusing a hyphen (-) with underscore (_) or with a tilde (~)?

Try placing a forward slash (/) at the end of the address, especially when the address does not end with the extension ".htm" or ".html".

When you have a long address with directories and a filename after the domain, try contacting the domain and going forward from there.

For example, if you cannot reach <http://www.ozemail.com.au/~lawhook> try <http://www.ozemail.com.all/>

Electronic monographs Specifications might be:

- Primary responsibility
- Title
- Type of medium
- Edition
- Place of publication

Citing Electronic Information

- Publisher
- Date of publication.
- Date of update/revision
- Date of citation
- Availability and access

An example is:

CARROLL, Lewis. Alice's Adventures in Wonderland [online]. Texinfo ed 2.1 [Dortmund, Germany]: Windspeil, November 1994 [cited 10 February 1995]. Available World Wide Web: <URL:http://www.germany.eu.net/books/carroll/alice.html>. Also available in PostScript, TeXDVI, GNU Info, and ASCII versions from Internet: <URL:ftp://ftp.Germany.EU.net/pub/books/carroll/>.

Electronic serials

Specifications might be:

- Primary responsibility
- Title of contribution
- Title of serial
- Type of medium
- Edition
- Issue designation
- Date of update/revision
- Date of citation
- Location within host document
- Availability and access

An example is:

MCGREGOR-LOWNDES, Myles and DAVIDSON, Alan. Practical Strategies for Using Computers in Legal Education. E Law - Murdoch University Electronic Journal of Law [online]. July, 1995 ~cited 1 August 199~]. Available from Internet <URL: http://www.murdoch.edu.au/elaw/issues/v2n2/mcgregor.txt>; also available E-MAIL RETRIEVAL: send message <get elaw-j mcgregor.txt> to <Majordomo~cleo.murdoch.edu.au>; Gopher <URL: gopher://infolib.murdoch.edu.au:70/00/.ftp/pub/subj/law/jnl/elaw/refereed/mcgregor.txt>; FTP <ftp://infolib.murdoch.edu.au/pub/subj/law/jnl/elaw/refereed/mcgregor.txt>

Electronic Bulletin Boards

Specifications might be:

- Title
- Type of medium
- Place of publication
- Publisher
- Date of publication
- Date of citation
- Availability and access

An example is:

Cyber-Accountability Listserver. E-mail listserver archive. New York. Cyber-Accountability Support Group, Feb.-Mar. 1996. [cited 1 August, 1996] Available from Internet <URL:http://www.nway.net/~hbograd/cyb3_96.html>

Electronic Messages

Specifications might be:

- Primary responsibility
- Title
- Title of message system
- Type of medium
- Publisher
- Date of publication

Citing Electronic Information

- Date of citation
- Availability and access

An example is:

MCGREGOR-LOWNDES, Myles. Harriet's Web Site. Cyber Accountability. [online] Cyber-Accountability Support Group. 5 Mar 1996. no.#3354 so/compuServe mail [cited 1 August 1996 16:26 EST] Available from Internet <URL:http://www.nway.net/~hbograd/cyb3_96.html>

Statutes

Specifications might be:

- Short Title
- Number (optional)
- Jurisdiction
- Type of Medium
- Date of citation
- Availability and access

An example is:

Associations Incorporation Act 1984 (NSW) [online] [cited 1 August, 1996] Available from the Internet <URL:http://www.austlii.edu.au/au/legis/nsw/consol_act/aial984307/>.

Cases

Specifications might be:

- Name of case
- Date or volume, or number, or both
- Name of report series
- Type of medium
- Date of citation
- Availability and access

An example is:

James Andrew McGinty and others v The State of Western Australia FC 96/001 [online]
[cited 1 August, 1996] Available from Internet
<URL:http://www.austlii.edu.au/au/cases/cth/high_ct/unrep245.html>

An Interview

(Quoted directly from Gibaldi, J. 1995, *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*, 4th edn, The Modern Language Association of America, New York.)

For purposes of documentation, there are three kinds of interviews:

- Published or recorded interviews
- Interviews broadcast on television or radio
- Interviews conducted by the researcher

Begin with the name of the person interviewed. If the interview is part of a publication, recording or program, enclose the title of the interview, if any, in quotation marks; if the interview was published independently, underline the title. If the interview is untitled, use the descriptive label *Interview*, neither underlined nor enclosed in quotation marks. The interviewer's name may be added if known and pertinent to your paper (see sample entries for Blackmun and Updike). Conclude with the appropriate bibliographical information.

Blackmun, Harry. Interview with Ted Koppel and Nina Totenburg. Nightline. ABC. WABC, New York. 5 Apr. 1994.

Fellini, Federico. "The Long Interview." Juliet of the Spirits. Ed. Tullio Kezich. Trans. Howard Greenfield. New York: Ballantine, 1996. 17 - 64.

Gordimer, Nadine. Interview. New York Times 10 Oct. 1991. late ed.: C25.

Lansbury, Angela. Interview. Off-Camera: Conversations with the Makers of Prime-Time Television. By Richard Levinson and William Link. New York: Plume-NAL, 1986. 72-86

Updike, John. Interview with Scott Simon. Weekend Edition. Natl. Public Radio. WBUR, Boston. 2 Apr. 1994.

Wolfe, Tom. Interview. The Wrong Stuff: American Architecture. Dir. Tom Bettag. Videocassette. Carousel, 1983

To cite an interview that you conducted, give the name of the person interviewed, the kind of interview (*Personal interview*, *Telephone interview*), and the date.

Pei, I.M. Personal interview. 22 July 1993.

Poussaint, Alvin F. Telephone interview. 10 dec. 1990.

Continued Reference to the Same Work

Books

If there are several references to the same work, the following procedure should be adopted:

1. The first footnote reference to an author and one of his works should read like this:
²¹ A.J.P. Taylor, *The Course of German History*, Hamish Hamilton London, 1945, p. 155.
2. (a) Should one footnote, immediately following another on the same page, refer to the same work, the whole reference may be abbreviated thus:
²² A. J. P. Taylor, *The Course of German History*, Hamish London, 1945, p. 155.
²³ *ibid.*, p. 73.

ibid. = *ibidem* = in the same work.

(b) Should that subsequent footnote refer to the same page in the same work as the preceding footnote, the reference becomes:
²⁴ A. J. P. Taylor, *The Course of German History*, Hamish Hamilton, London, 1945, p. 155.
²⁵ *ibid.*
3. (a) In subsequent references to this work, which do not follow immediately, it is necessary to mention only the author's name followed by *op. cit.* and a page reference.
²⁶ Taylor, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

op. cit. = *opere citato* = in the work cited.

op. cit. must always be followed by a page reference.

(b) In second or later references to a work where reference to some other work intervenes, the author's name and *loc. cit.* may be used if the reference is to precisely the same page cited in the last footnote referring to that work.
²⁷ A. J. P. Taylor, *The Course of German History*, Hamish Hamilton, London, 1945, p. 155.
²⁸ K. Pinson, *Modern Germany*, 2nd edn, Macmillan, New York, 1966, p. 200.
²⁹ Taylor, *loc. cit.*

loc. cit. = *loco citato* = in the place cited.

Here *loc. cit.* indicates that the reference is still to Taylor, p. 155. If, however, the work by Taylor has not been referred to for some pages, it is preferable to use the method outlined in 3(a) above.

4. As soon as two or more works by the same author have been mentioned the particular title must be given to avoid confusion:

30 J. Hone, W.B. *Yeats 1865-1939*, Macmillan, London, 1965, p. 59.

31 J. Hone, *The Life of George Moore*, Macmillan, London, 1936, p. 74.

32 J. Hone, W.B. *Yeats 1865-1939*, p. 259.

ibid. could still be used in a fourth footnote on this page, for example:

33 ibid., p. 161.

This would refer to W.B. *Yeats 1865-1939*, NOT to *The Life of George Moore*.

Journal Articles

A second reference to the same article by the same author, when there has been an intervening footnote, can be shortened as with books:

34 J. le Patourel, 'The Treaty of Bretigny, 1360', *Transactions of the Royal Historical Society*, 5th Series, vol. 10, 1960, p. 3.

35 W.K. Hancock, *Australia*, Jacaranda Press, Brisbane, 1961, p. 88.

36 le Patourel, op. cit., p. 10.

Here the reference to Hancock intervenes between the two references to le Patourel.

Bibliography

The bibliography or list of references is a list of the books and articles that **you have used in preparing your essay**. It should be presented in alphabetical order at the end of the essay.

The bibliography is a formal piece of academic apparatus and may be presented in the following standard fashion:

Books

1. name of author (or editor) in alphabetical order, surname first, followed by full first name and initials;
2. the title of the book, italicised or underlined if handwritten;
3. the volume number (if applicable); and
4. the publisher, the place of publication, and the date of Publication, in that order.

Journal Articles

Articles in journals are treated somewhat differently:

1. name of author (as for books);
2. the title of the article in single inverted commas;
3. the name of the journal, italicised or underlined if handwritten; and
4. the series number (if applicable), volume number, issue number, date of publication and the pages occupied by the article.

Traditionally, the main difference between an entry in a bibliography and a reference appearing in a footnote is that in a bibliography the author's surname is placed first. As well, certain elements within an entry are separated with full stops instead of commas and the date of publication is placed at the end of the entry.

Blainey, Geoffrey. *The Tyranny of Distance*. Sun Books, Melbourne, 1966.

However, while the placement of the author's name first is necessary to facilitate the alphabetical sequence of the bibliography, use of the other conventions is at the discretion of the author or editor. The following examples illustrate the difference:

Blainey, Geoffrey 1966, *The Tyranny of Distance*. Sun Books, Melbourne.

Blainey, Geoffrey, *The Tyranny of Distance*. Sun Books, Melbourne, 1966.

Sample Bibliography

- Aitkin, D. *The Country Party in New South Wales*, Australia National University Press, Canberra, 1972.
- Ayer, A. J. *The Problem of Knowledge*, Macmillan, London, 1956.
- Blarney, G. *The Tyranny of Distance*, Sun Books, Melbourne, 1966,
- Clark, M. (ed.) *Sources of Australian History*, OUP, London, 1957.
- Elkan, P.G. 'Protection and Productivity in Manufacturing: A Closer Look', *The Economic Record*, vol. 48, no. 122, 1972, pp 161-80.
- Ewin, R. E. 'What is Wrong with Killing People?' *Philosophical Quarterly*, vol. 22, April 1972, pp. 126-39.
- Gollan, R. 'Nationalism and Politics in Australia before 1851', *Australian Journal of Politics and History*, vol. 1, no. 1, November 1955, pp. 33-58.
- Green, H. M. *A History of Australian Literature*, vol. 2, Angus and Robertson, Sydney, 1961.
- Meier, G. M. *Leading Issues in Economic Development.- Studies in International Poverty*, 2nd edn, OUP, London, 1970.
- Taylor, P. E. *The Economics of Public Finance*, 3rd edn, Macmillan, New York, 1961.
- Whitehead, A. N. *The Concept of Nature*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1955.
- Wolfson, H. A. 'The Knowability and Describability of God in Plato and Aristotle', *Harvard Studies in Classical Philology*, vol. 56, 1947, pp. 233- 50.

Part II. The Harvard System

In the Harvard system you document your reference by including in parentheses after the reference the author who is the source of the idea, followed by the year of publication and the page on which the reference is found. The full title of the work is then given in the bibliography or list of references, as explained below. Explanatory footnotes are permitted by the Harvard system, but should be avoided wherever possible. As the Government Style Manual indicates: 'Notes are costly to print, can cause difficulties in the make-up of a book and may distract the reader'. Usually the contents of a footnote can be included in the body of the work.

Thus:

The success of Cook's voyages has been attributed, in part, to improved means of navigation and nutrition (Blainey 1966, pp. 11-13).

There are now grounds for the belief that Australia has been inhabited for more than 20 000 years (Mulvaney & Golson 1971, p. vii).

These statements can also be written in an alternative, positive form:

Blainey (1966, pp. 11-13) has suggested that the success of Cook's voyages can be attributed, in part, to improved means of navigation and nutrition.

Mulvaney and Golson (1971, p. vii) have shown that Australia has been inhabited for more than 20 000 years.

N.B.

'p. vii' refers to ONE page, i.e., vii whereas 'pp. 11-13' refers to multiple pages.

Rules for Citation

When a quotation or idea is cited from a secondary source, reference should be made to both in the text:

In all academic disciplines there are '... universally recognised scientific achievements that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners' (Kuhn 1962, p. x, quoted in Harvey 1973, p. 16). Kuhn used the word 'paradigm' for this concept.

This means that the quotation is from Kuhn (1962, p. x) and that this quotation is derived from the cited use of it by Harvey (1973, p. 16). The two references are relisted separately in the bibliography.

Sometimes an idea is cited which is the theme of a whole work. In this case, and only in this case, the work can be cited without a page number:

Evolution of species takes place by the natural selection of advantageous characteristics from the variable characteristics of populations of living organisms (Darwin 1968).

Reference can also be made to more than one work. These should be arranged in chronological order, and for a single year in alphabetical order. Separate references should be separated by semicolons:

Understanding primitive economy has become a necessity for those economists concerned with underdeveloped area transformation (Moore 1955; Myrdal 1957; Neale 1959; Shea 1959).

When an author has written more than one work in a year then these works should be distinguished from each other by using lower-case letters of the alphabet attached to the publication date. For example:

Bennett (1976a, 1976b) argued ...
(Bennett 1976a, 1976b)
Bennett 1976a, p. 100; 1976b, p. 67) suggested ...
(Bennett 1976a, 1976b; Hiatt 1974)

When a single reference contains the names of more than three authors, the first surname should be used followed by et al. except where this may cause ambiguity.

Jones et al. (1990) have argued that ...

When a work by two or three authors is cited in parentheses the last name should be linked by an ampersand.

(Jones, Smith & Adams 1992)

When the authors' names are incorporated in the text, the ampersand is replaced by 'and'.

Jones, Smith and Adams (1992) have found ...

If more than one author is cited with the same surname and the same date of publication, they should be distinguished by adding their initials to the citation.

(Jones, R. 1991; Jones, W. 1991)

When only a single work of an author is used, and repeated reference is made to it, then the year of publication may be omitted. If, in a section of your work, this is the only work referred to, then you may preface your summary by some comment, such as: 'In the following paragraphs all page numbers will refer to Hiatt (1974)', and continue by referring to pages without giving author or year. This practice should be used with caution as you will be in danger of **plagiarising** if too much of your work is taken from a single source.

In the Harvard system, abbreviations are of less importance than when you are using footnotes and should be avoided wherever possible. It is simpler to avoid the use of *ibid.*, *loc. cit.* or *op. cit.* as these are sometimes confusing.

Where information is privately obtained by interview, letter etc. from an authoritative individual, reference is made thus:

(Day, D. 1991, pers. comm., 12 May).

Here 'pers. comm.' is an abbreviation of personal communication. Personal communications are not included in the bibliography or list of references.

Full details of the cited references are then to be found in the bibliography, which should be in alphabetical order of author. The bibliography below lists the references given in the examples above. The rules for writing of bibliographic references will be given after this specimen bibliography.

Bibliography

Bennett, J. W. 1976a, 'Anticipation, adaptation, and the concept of culture in anthropology', *Science*, 192, pp. 847-53.

— 1976b, *The Ecological Transition: Cultural anthropology and human adaptation*, Pergamon, New York.

Blainey, G. 1966, *The Tyranny of Distance*, Sun Books, Melbourne.

Darwin, C. 1968 (1859), *The Origin of Species*, Penguin, Hannondswoth.

Harvey, David 1973, *Explanation in Geography*, Edward Arnold, London.

Hiatt, Betty 1974, 'Woman and gatherer', in *Woman's Role in Aboriginal Society*, ed. Fay Gales, AIAS, Canberra, pp. 4-15.

Kuhn, Thomas S. 1962, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, University of Chicago Press.

Moore, W. E. 1955, 'Labor attitudes toward industrialization in under-developed countries', *American Economic Review*, 45, pp. 156-65.

Mulvaney, D. J. & Golson, J. (eds) 1971, *Aboriginal Man and Environment in Australia*, ANU Press, Canberra.

Myrdal, G. 1957, *Rich Lands and Poor*, Macmillan, New York.

Neale, W.C. 1959, 'Discussion of problems of economic development in non-industrialized areas', *Journal of Economic History*, 19, pp. 525-27.

Radcliffe-Brown, A. R. 1952a, 'On social structure', reprinted in A. R. Radcliffe-Brown 1952b, *Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute*, LXX, pp. 63-75.

Shea, T. W. 1959, 'Barriers to economic development in traditional societies: Malabar, a case study', *Journal of Economic History*, 19, pp. 504-22.

Rules for Bibliography

List all works used either for quotation or other reference alphabetically by author and then in chronological order.

Ideal format is:

- Author's surname, comma. Author's first name or initials, full stop. Date, comma. Title, comma. Publisher, comma. Place of publication, page number or numbers if applicable, full stop.
- All titles of journal articles have capital letters at the beginning and for proper names only, and are followed by a comma.
- Journal titles and book titles use capital letters for all important words. They should be printed in italics or underlined to indicate that they should be in italics if printed.
- In consecutive references to the same author, the surname may be replaced by a 'dash' as above in Bennett and Radcliffe-Brown.

Journal Articles

There are two ways of referring to journal articles by the Harvard system. For your essays and for many publications the first is preferred.

1. Title of article is enclosed within single quotation marks and separated by a comma from the title of the journal. The title of the journal should be in italics or underlined. The journal title will normally be followed by the volume number and issue number, if provided, separated by a comma from the page numbers. For example:

Nix, J. S. 1969, 'Annotated bibliography on farm planning and programming techniques', *Journal of the Farm Management Association*, vol. 1, no. 7, pp. 1-56.

If the issue has both number and identifier (season, month), one should be chosen and used consistently, for example:

Holmes, J. M. 1971, 'A condition for the independence of permanent and transitory components of a series', *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, vol. 66, March, pp. 12-21.

The general style is indicated by Moore (1955), Neale (1959) and Shea (1959). See the note after footnote 20 in Part I for the need for complete references to volume issue.

2. The title of the article is deleted and usually abbreviated according to the World List of Scientific Periodicals.

Books

The title of the book should be in italics or underlined and followed by the name of the publisher and the place of publication. The style is indicated by Blainey (1966), Harvey (1973), Myrdal (1957) and Bennett (1976b). Kuhn (1962) illustrates the principle that the place of publication may be omitted if it is obvious from the publisher's name. Darwin (1968) indicates the principle of documenting the edition to which reference was made, although the original publication may have been much earlier.

Edited Volumes

The style is the same as for books except that the editor's name should be followed by (ed.) or for more than one editor by (eds) as in Mulvaney and Golson (1971). For individual papers in edited volumes the format should be as in Hiatt (1974).

Electronic Information

For facts on the citing of electronic information please refer to page 10 of this booklet or X .Li, N.B. Crane, *Electronic Style: A Guide to Citing Electronic Information*, Meckler Publishing, Westport, 1993.

Anthologies and Readers

When papers have been reprinted together the documentation should refer to the date of publication of the anthology as in Radcliffe-Brown (1952a).

Other Examples

Some cases are not illustrated by the examples given in the bibliography above but will be needed quite frequently.

A **thesis** is referred to in the following way:

McBryde, I. 1966, *An archaeological survey of the New England Region*, New South Wales, PhD thesis, University of New England.

No underlining or italics was used for the title of this work, because it was not published.

A work in press is referred to in the following fashion:

Slobodkin, L.B. (in press), The peculiar evolutionary strategy of Man, Transactions of the Boston Colloquium of the Philosophy of Science.

When a *foreign language title* is cited, the translation may be given in parenthesis immediately after the original title:

Jung, C.G. 1964, *Der Mensch und seine Symbole* (Man and his Symbols),

A work in a **non-English language** with title cited in English is thus:

Melin, E. 1925, 'Investigations of the significance of tree mycorrhiza: an ecological-physiological study' (in German),

Papers presented at conferences, seminars and meetings may be referred to in the following way:

Williams, R. R. & Taji, A. M. 1990, Factors affecting vitrification cytokinin and shoot growth, Paper presented to the International Congress on Plant Cell and Organ Culture, Amsterdam, June.

A newspaper article with a named author:

Atherton, Graeme 1977, 'Whitlam offers citizenship in two years', *The Australian*, 7 November, p. 2.

An unattributed newspaper article:

'Computer industry blamed', *Sydney Morning Herald*, 7 July 1977, p. 3.

Government Publications

One of the major problems in citation and quotation arises from the variety of official, semi-official and publicity publications issued by government and semi-government agencies. Usually these may be cited by giving the name of the ministry or agency issuing the publication or report, for example:

Department of Employment and Industrial Relations 1984, *Annual Report 1983-84*, AGPS, Canberra.

Abbreviations

The abbreviations listed below often appear in bibliographies, lists of references, and notes. The Latin abbreviations are most often used in the traditional system of documentation (footnotes, endnotes) but rarely in the Harvard system. Latin abbreviations are set in roman type (not italicised) as they are regarded as being thoroughly anglicised.

c.	approximately, about (Latin <i>circa</i>); use with dates, for example 'c. 1880'
cf.	compare (Latin <i>confer</i>)
ch.	chapter
e.g.	for example (Latin <i>exempli gratia</i>)
ed., eds	editor(s)
edn,edns	edition(s)
esp.	especially
et al.	and others (Latin <i>et alii</i>)
et seq.	and following (Latin <i>et sequentes</i>)
etc.	and so forth (Latin <i>et cetera</i>)
f., ff.	and the following page(s) [f. for one page, ff. for more than one] (= folio)
ibid.	in the same work (Latin <i>ibidem</i>)
i.e.	that is (Latin <i>id est</i>)
l.,ll.	line(s)
loc. cit.	in the place cited (Latin <i>loco citato</i>)
ms, mss	manuscript(s) [use full stop when a specific MS is meant, eg. Bodelian M.S.]
NB	take careful note (Latin <i>nota bene</i>)
no.	number
op. cit.	in the work cited (Latin <i>opere citato</i>)
p., pp.	page(s)
passim	here and there, throughout (a word, NOT an abbreviation)
pt.	part
q.v.	which see [i.e. 'and look this up too'] (Latin <i>quod vide</i>)
rev.	revised, reviser
[sic]	thus, so [used to indicate that despite appearances, the quoted text is exact e.g. with incorrect spellings, dates etc.]
suppl.	supplement
Tech. Rep.	technical report
trans.	translator(s)
viz.	namely (Latin <i>videlicet</i>)
Vol.	volume (as in Vol. 4)
vols.	volumes (as in four volumes)

Part III. Punctuation

(Quoted directly from M. Cutler - Stuart, *How to write essays: a practical guide for students*, Hale & Iremonger Pty Ltd, Marrickville, NSW, 1993, pp.46-50.)

Punctuation is used to help the reader. It is used to clarify written work. The trend in English is to minimize punctuation. Some people however prefer to retain a more formal style. Whichever style you opt for, consistency is important.

Full Stop

The full stop is used:

1. To end a sentence

The Internet is the world's largest information network.

2. To mark an abbreviation which ends with a letter that is not the last letter of the word

Co.	ref.	
et al.	e.g.	i.e.

(Commas should surround these last three examples unless they appear at the end of a sentence.)

BUT full stops may be omitted when the abbreviation ends with the last letter of the word:

Pty Ltd

It is optional for abbreviations made of capitals.

MA PTO

It is usually omitted in acronyms

WHO OPEC UNESCO

Avoid ending sentences with prepositions like "to" and "of".

Comma

The comma is used:

1. To prevent the reader from connecting words that do not belong together, to prevent ambiguity
I must eat, Peter, before we go out. NOT I must eat Peter before we go out.
2. Between adjectives qualifying a noun
It was a large, tiled office.
3. To mark words in apposition (words which add further meaning but are not essential)
Our university, *the oldest in Australia*, was made of sandstone.
4. To introduce active speech
The lecturer said, 'This is your subject outline.'
5. To separate figures
7,354,201
6. To separate the name of a person addressed from the rest of a sentence
'I understand, Amanda, that your assignment is late.'
7. To mark an introductory adverbial clause or phrase from the rest of the sentence (an adverbial clause generally tells how, when, where or why an action occurs)
While she was reading, it started raining.
8. To separate items in a list
Please bring your text book, list of group members and assignment topic to your next lecture.
9. To separate participial clauses from the rest of the sentence
Hoping to gain an advantage, he borrowed all the library books.
(Hoping is the participial)
10. To mark where a word/s common to two parts of a sentence is left out
My venture is bound to succeed; yours, to fail.

Semicolon

This is used to mark a pause greater than that marked by a comma but less than that marked by a full stop.

It is used:

1. Between co-ordinate clauses not joined with a conjunction

The house was old and dilapidated; the roof was falling to pieces; the garden was covered with weeds. (instead of The house . . . and the roof . . . while the garden . . .)

2. To emphasize the second of two clauses

We knew the house had faults; we did not know it had ghosts.

3. To separate clauses or phrases already containing commas

The letter was signed by Mr William Scott, President of University Computer Society; Ms Anne Belov, Secretary of The Information Society; Mr Jim Cooper, President of Computers Today.

Colon

The colon marks a pause that is longer than a semicolon.

It is used:

1. To introduce a quotation (a comma can be used for short quotation).

2. To introduce a list

Don't forget: 'Mother knows best'.

3. To separate co-ordinating clauses where the second explains the first

Maria did not go: the train left before she reached the station.

4. To emphasize contrast in co-ordinating clauses.

The morning was hot and sticky: the evening, perilously cold.

Apostrophe

The apostrophe indicates possession or letters that have been omitted.

1. Letters omitted:

can't cannot

2. Possession

The dog's fleas (one dog)

The dogs' fleas (more than one dog)

The companies' reports (more than one company)

3. Pronouns do not have an apostrophe

This is ours

That is hers

4. Plurals of letters and numbers do not have apostrophes

He obtained HDs in his first year at university.

She wrote her 7s like 9s.

5. Its/It's

Its is a *pronoun* so there is no apostrophe

It's is an *abbreviation* of 'It is' so the apostrophe is used to show abbreviation.

Exclamation Mark

The exclamation mark is often over-used so take care to use it only when justified. It is used:

1. For interjections

Oh!

2. When words are inverted for emotions

A fine friend you are!

BUT not for mere statements which may be delivered with emotion

That's not fair

3. Wishes

Bless you!

4. In sentences containing 'what' or 'how' in exclamation

What a relief!

How lucky you are!

Dash

It is used:

1. To show parenthesis
When I finished my course - I had been studying for four years - I started work straight away.
2. It attaches a comment when the comment is not a complete clause
I should consider it - but won't.
3. It indicates an abrupt change of thought
I should try to explain - but no, you wouldn't understand.
4. To sum up a sentence, to gather up a group subject or object.
Keyboard, monitor, hard disk - are components of a computer.

Hyphen

It is used:

1. To indicate a stutter, hesitation or crying
I c-can't g-go w-with you.
2. To show the parts of a compound
obtain-able: able means 'able to'
3. To prevent ambiguity
a boxing-match - a fight NOT a boxing match - a match which is boxing
4. When words are compound and the first section does not stand on its own as a whole word
anti-nuclear quasi-judicial
5. To avoid awkward double vowels in a word
re-edit co-operate
6. Between words of equal importance in the context
Sydney - Brisbane XPT train
7. Compounding a verb plus a noun
know-all

Part IV: Policy and Guidelines On Non-Discriminatory Language Practice and Presentation

POLICY STATEMENT

As part of its Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action initiatives, the University of Wollongong endorses a policy of non-discriminatory language practice and presentation in all academic and administrative activities of the University.

Accordingly, the University will -

- promote the use of non-discriminatory language and presentation in all University of Wollongong documents and publications
- promote the use of non-discriminatory teaching practice in classrooms
- develop guidelines and regulations for students' use of non-discriminatory language in their written work and oral presentations
- establish a procedure for settling complaints and grievances about discriminatory language, presentation, and teaching practices
- inform all staff of their responsibilities under the policy, and of the existence of a complaints procedure; and distribute suitable educational material to assist staff in compliance.

GUIDELINES FOR REFERRING TO MINORITY GROUPS

ABORIGINES AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDERS

An Aborigine is a person of Aboriginal descent who identifies as an Aborigine and is accepted as such by the community in which he or she lives.

The words 'aborigine' or 'aboriginal' refer to the people living in a country at its earliest period. In order to refer specifically to the indigenous inhabitants of Australia, the words should always be treated as proper nouns or adjectives, and begin with a capital letter.

Aboriginal is the adjective pertaining to *Aborigine* and should not be used as a noun. (Please note that this equity statement overrules the advice of many style manuals on this topic.)

Note that the term ‘Aborigine’ is a general one referring to the Australian Aboriginal race as a whole. When practicable, it is preferable to be more specific. *Koori* is the name by which Aborigines living in Southern NSW, Victoria, and Tasmania refer to themselves. *Murri* people come from the northern part of NSW and most of Queensland, while *Goori* people live on the NSW central coast. Aboriginal people from these groups make up most of the Wollongong Aboriginal population, although there is a growing contingent of Aborigines from other parts of Australia as well as Torres Strait Islanders. Torres Strait Islands have in the past been considered Aborigines, but this is no longer the case. They are a distinctly different race of people and wish to be recognised as such.

Dreamtime, Myths and Legends

Aboriginal religious creation stories are often referred to as myths or legends. The words dream, myth and legend all carry connotations of invalidity. Aboriginal religious beliefs and stories are just as valid as those of any other spiritual or religious group, and so more careful and appropriate terminology is required.

Tribe

The word ‘tribe’ has negative connotations for many Kooris. More suitable terms are *clan* or *family groups*.

Note: Care should be taken with terms like ‘traditional’ and ‘primitive’ to describe present day Koori culture and society. *Traditional* implies a static quality which may not be reflected in reality in Koori society, and *primitive* is a value-laden and imprecise term.

PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Many people with disabilities understandably resent the impersonal terms used to describe them because these ignore their individuality and imply that a disability necessarily means general incapacity to perform many tasks and activities. We are all differently abled. It is important that we avoid stereotyping and depersonalisation by not emphasising the disability, but rather focusing on the individual.

The term ‘people with disabilities’ is therefore preferred to *the disabled*, *the handicapped*, or *disabled people*, because it is recognised that a disability is only one characteristic of an individual and does not indicate a general lack of ability or capacity.

Similarly, in relation to specific disabilities, it is preferable to use terms such as ‘people with epilepsy’, ‘people who are deaf or hearing impaired’, ‘people who are blind or vision impaired’, rather than collective nouns such as *epileptics* or *the blind*.

Confusion in the use of the term ‘disability’ and related terms can be clarified by referred to the following World Health Organisation definitions:

Impairment is any loss or abnormality of structure or function whether psychological, physiological or anatomical.

Disability is any loss or reduction of functional ability and activity that is consequent upon impairment.

Disadvantage is the obstacle resulting from an impairment or a disability.

Disadvantage represents the social and environmental consequences to the individual stemming from the presence of impairment and disability.

These definitions can be more clearly illustrated by example: spinal cord damage of a person with paraplegia is an impairment; its effect on the person’s ability to walk is a disability; if the person’s access to tertiary education studies is affected by difficulties in access to buildings, to transport, or by discriminatory attitudes, then they suffer a disadvantage.

Whether a disability entails a disadvantage depends on an individual’s social and physical environment, as well as the nature and extent of the disability.

The term ‘impairment’ includes those which are not visible. Conditions such as anaemia, epilepsy, heart disease and chronic pain are often described as “hidden disabilities”. Some people may have an impairment which is perceived by others as resulting in some degree of disadvantage, even if there is no functional disability. For example, physical deformities may constitute a disadvantage only because of social attitudes.

ETHNIC MINORITY GROUPS

There is much controversy regarding the most appropriate terminology to use. The following definitions may assist the word selection for a particular context:

1. *Ethnic Group* can be described in an objective sense as people who share a particular national origin, religion, language, or culture. Linking such objective factors with a subjective identification is probably more useful so that ethnicity involves a ‘sense of peoplehood’.

The term ‘ethnic group’ can be misleading, because everyone belongs to an ethnic group, not just those who are of non-Anglo-Celtic origins.

Ethnic is the adjective pertaining to ‘ethnicity’ and should not be used as a noun.

2. *Immigrant* means a person who takes up residence in a country other than his/her birthplace.

The term 'migrant' actually refers to a person who moves from one place to another. This term is often used to mean 'immigrant' in the sense defined above. However, *immigrant* is the preferred and more accurate term where it is permanent settlement to which we are referring. *Migrant* is sometimes inappropriately used to refer to people of non-English speaking background generally, whether or not they were born overseas or in Australia.

3. *People of Non-English Speaking Background*

This term refers to people:

- who have migrated to Australia and whose first language is one other than English;
- born in Australia but one or both parents' first language was not English.

People of non-English speaking background (NESB) is the term most commonly used within an equal opportunity background. Another acceptable term is *People with a Language Background other than English (LBOTE)*.

4. *Ethnicity* is another ideological and controversial concept denoting 'a sense of peoplehood', a feeling of belonging and sharing in a common culture, way of life, nationality or religion. *Ethnicity* is maintained through a process of self-ascription and ascription by others.
5. *Multiculturalism* is a term commonly used to convey either of two meanings. One is a factual description of the Australian population, which comprises a wide range of people of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

The other meaning describes a social ideal. It refers to policies, institutional arrangements and community attitudes that appreciate the diversity of Australian society and how this diversity can enrich Australian life. It recognises that to achieve a just, equitable and harmonious society, there must be no economic or social disadvantages arising from ethnic, racial or cultural background, and that the right to maintain distinctive cultural identities should exist unimpaired by any form of discrimination.

Frequently language use in Australia tends to either stereotype ethnic and cultural minorities or make them invisible. For instance, our society now consists of many people holding religious beliefs other than Christian, or non at all, and it is inappropriate to request a person's 'Christian name' when we are seeking given name identification. Asking for someone's *first name* is also inappropriate for the naming practices of many Asian people. It is preferable to request *surname* or *family name* rather than *last name*, and *given name* rather than *first name*.

GUIDELINES FOR GENDER INCLUSIVE LANGUAGE

What is it?

Gender inclusive language is often referred to as non-sexist language. It is language that treats women and men equally. It does not exclude one gender nor demean their status. It does not stereotype, nor suggest false generics, nor make irrelevant gender references.

False Generics

The term 'man' can be ambiguous because of its traditional dual meaning. One meaning refers to an adult male and the other to the human species. Research indicates that people tend to visualise males when they are asked to describe or define words such as *foreman* or *chairman*. In this way, language reinforces inequality, misrepresenting and excluding women. It is therefore no longer appropriate to use *man* as a generic term as it is confusing and discriminatory.

Usually it is not difficult to substitute appropriate expressions. It is nonetheless important to select a relevant and accurate alternative.

Avoid	Possible Alternative
ancient man	ancient people or civilisation
chairman	chairperson, chair, moderator, convenor
foreman	supervisor
man in the street	ordinary or average citizen
mankind	humanity, humankind
man-made	handcrafted, synthetic, handmade, artificial
manned	staffed
manpower	labour, staffing, workforce
newsmen	reporters, journalists, media
sportsmanship	sense of fair play

Unaffected Words

Some similar looking words are not compounds incorporating the gender-specific word 'man' and these do not have to be considered. Examples of these are:

manage	}	
manipulate	}	
manual	}	derived from <i>manus</i> (Latin for hand)
manufacturer	}	
manuscript	}	
human	}	derived from <i>humanus</i> (Latin for human)

Generalisations and Cliches

Historically, women's contributions have often been overlooked through use of words or phrases which neglect the reality that women's experiences are usually different from those of men. Cliches tend often to have the same effect and should be reworded.

Avoid	Possible Alternative
brotherhood of man	human family, global community
forefathers	ancestors, forebears
founding fathers	founders, pioneers
man-sized job	demanding task, big job

The Personal Pronoun

Inaccuracies arise when *he* is used generically to substitute for a neutral third person singular pronoun. Current research indicates that *he* is rarely interpreted as including *she*, particularly by children, who take the word quite literally. There are a number of alternatives available:

	Alternative
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Recast subjects into the plural form eg. <i>when a student appeals, he must...</i>	<i>When students appeal, they must...</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Recast the sentence, using 'one' or 'you' eg. <i>You should fill in the application in your own handwriting.</i>	<i>One should use one's own handwriting when completing the application.</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Eliminate problems by deleting the pronoun eg. <i>Each student must pay his fees by...</i>	<i>Each student must pay fees by...</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Use 'his or her', 'he/she' instead of the masculine pronoun eg. <i>Everyone must exercise his right...</i>	<i>Everyone must exercise his or her right...</i>

SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING AND STATUS ISSUES

Stereotyping

Sex role stereotyping occurs when people assume that engineers, farmers, accountants, plumbers or mechanics are always men. It can also occur in portrayals which assume that women are always wives and mothers, men breadwinners or that all childcare workers and nurses are female, while firefighters and police officers are male. It is important to avoid expressions that are implicitly sexist.

Avoid

New academics require removal costs for their wives and children.

All Administrative and their wives are invited.

We are looking for a supervisor who is his own man.

Possible Alternative

New academics require removal costs for their families.

All Administrative staff and their partners are invited.

We are looking for a supervisor with a sense of independence and integrity.

Demeaning and Patronising Expressions

Many women object to the insensitive use of the terms 'lady' and 'girl'. *Girl* should only be used for young women of primary and secondary school age. A female shop assistant should not be called a *salesgirl*, just as a male would not be called a *salesboy*. Using the term 'girl' tends to denote inferior status, as in *calendar girl* or *girl Friday*. More neutral terms for these examples would be *model* and *office assistant*.

Condescension or patronisation is frequently implied with the term 'lady'. Women often find words such as *tea lady* or *cleaning lady* objectionable. The terms 'attendant' or 'cleaner' are far more appropriate in today's society. *Lady* should only be used when *gentleman* would be appropriate for a male in the same situation.

Status

Equivalent terms should be used when dealing with men and women. *Husband and wife* are equivalent terms; *man and wife* are not. It is also not appropriate to address a man by his surname, while calling a woman by her given name or her title.

References

University Guidelines

Davies, B (1983), Towards Non-Sexist Language, Federation of Australian University Staff Associations

Deakin University (1987), Inclusive Language Guidelines, (internally published University document)

La Trobe University (1985), Use of Non-Sexist Language, Council minutes 196.17(v), C85/29, and 199.10.3 (internally published University document)

Queensland University of Technology (1991), Policy and Guidelines on Non-Discriminatory Presentation and Practice, (internally published University document)

Ramson, W (1985), Guidelines on Non-Sexist Language for the Australian National University, (internally published University document)

University of Adelaide (1982), 'Language in Written Communications' in Women at the University of Adelaide, (internally published University document)

Other Guidelines

Banks, TL (1988), Gender Bias in the Classroom, Journal of Legal Education, No 137

Canadian Ministry of National Health and Welfare (1983), Guidelines for the Elimination of Sexual Stereotyping in Language and Visual Material

Fesl, Eve D (1987), How the English Language is Used To Put Aborigines Down, Deny Us Rights, or is Employed as a Political Tool Against Us, Monash University

Marshall, I and Rowland, F (1981), 'Discriminatory Language and Attitudes', A Guide to Learning Independently, Londman Cheshire, Melbourne

McGraw Hill (1979), Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes, McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications

Miller, C and Swift, K (1980), The Handbook of Non-Sexist Writing, Lippincott and Crowell, New York

Miller, C and Swift, K (1981), The Handbook of Non-Sexist Writing for Writers, Editors and Speakers, The Women's Press Limited

Office of the Status of Women (1983), Fair Exposure: Guidelines for the Constructive and Positive Portrayal and Presentation of Women in the Media, AGPS, Canberra

Office of the Status of Women (1983), draft chapter 'Inclusive Language' for Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers, 4th Edition, AGPS, Canberra

Standing Committee on Spoken English (1984), Non-Sexist Language Guidelines, Australian Broadcasting Commission

Guidelines for the Elimination of Sexual Stereotyping in Language and Visual Material (1983), published by authority of the Minister of National Health and Welfare

Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes, McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications

Part V. Notes on Essay Presentation*

1. All work must be submitted with a properly filled out School cover sheet.
2. Write on one side of the paper only. If possible have your work typed; otherwise write clearly in ink. Text should be one and a half or double spaced. Leave a margin of about 5 cm. on each page to allow space for comments. Number your pages.
3. Always keep a copy of your work.
4. An essay should be an argument. It should present a case. You should discuss a problem and not simply narrate events. It may be necessary to devote some space to narrative or description, but the major task will be the weighing and the assessing of evidence and arguing from that evidence to a solution of the problem. Have a clear idea of what the problem is and what it involves. Remember that there will seldom be a single clear-cut answer to it.
5. Read and take notes in your own words taking care to acknowledge the source exactly (full citation including page numbers).
6. Sources vary in quality and not all works on a topic will be relevant or suited to your purpose. Wherever possible, work out your own solutions and interpretations. Do not accept without question the views and interpretations of any author. Part of your task is to assess and criticise the work of other writers. Do not rely on a single source of information or ideas; you should try to find a range of relevant writings.
7. Plan your essay carefully; spend time getting a logical organisation. When you are taking notes from a book, record the page numbers so that you can refer to them exactly when you are writing your essay. Write it in clear, simple and grammatical prose. Do not submit your first attempt; give yourself time to revise and improve your essay.
8. As far as possible, you should use your own words. It is a good idea when you have done your preliminary reading for the essay, to write your first draft without having your source material in front of you. Then you can decide what material to draw on to support your arguments and how to use it. Use quotations only to illustrate or back up a point in your argument - for example, if your purpose is to discuss the style or argument that author exemplifies. Do not use a quotation simply because you think the author is better at phrasing a point than you are. Try to avoid long quotes; they are seldom necessary. Keep direct quotes to a minimum and only to make a point that cannot be made in your own words. It is preferable not to conclude with a quote. It's your argument, why use someone else's word?

9. It is important to understand what is, and is not, acceptable practice when using other people's material. You should avoid paraphrasing passages closely. If you copy phrases or sentences word for word, you must make it clear that they are quotes, by enclosing the words in quotation marks, or, if you are using a passage of several lines, by separating it out as a block quote, indented for clarity. If you express an idea or argument that is neither your own nor an item of common knowledge, you must also attribute this. In both cases, acknowledge the source in the approved manner. The boundary between your words and ideas, and those borrowed from another person, must always be clear to the reader, otherwise you will be plagiarising. **Plagiarism can lead to a grade of zero for the essay.**
10. *Optional:* On the first page of the text should appear an abstract of not more than 200 words in continuous prose (not note form) which outlines the arguments of the essay. An abstract is not an introduction to the essay.
11. Do not use conversational style or colloquialisms. Use the third person as a general rule. Check spelling and use the computerised "spell check" if it is available on the word processing package you are using. Also use a thesaurus to help in choice of words and to avoid too much repetition. An integral part of your essay structure is the construction of proper sentences and writing good paragraphs. Good, logical argument construction is essential in making clear your point of view. You must provide evidence if you are to be convincing.
12. Use appropriate punctuation. Many common essay problems involve punctuation. Refer to this section of this guide, for the correct usage of punctuation.
13. If you use non-textual material (eg. tables, figures, etc.), you **MUST** refer to these in the assignment. The reader needs to understand why this material was built into the piece of work.
14. References should be made in the form of either numbered footnotes on each page or numbered notes at the end of the text. They should be numbered consecutively through the entire essay; numbering of footnotes should not start again from 1 on each page.

References should appear in an accepted style (refer to earlier sections of this booklet).

15. Provide a bibliography in alphabetical order by author.

Useful Reference Tools

CUTLER-STUART, Margaret. *How to write essays: a practical guide for students*. Marrickville, NSW, Hale & Iremonger, 1985.

CLANCHY, John and BALLARD, Brigid. *Essay writing for students: a practical guide*. Melbourne, Vic., Longman Cheshire, 1991.

Any good English Dictionary: e.g.: *The Concise Oxford or the Macquarie*.

A copy of *Roget's Thesaurus* or similar.

A reference on English usage: e.g.: *Fowler's Modern English Usage*.

A subject dictionary is also useful to clarify terms: e.g.:
Collins Dictionary of Information Technology.

or:

Prentice Hall's illustrated Dictionary of Computing.

A style manual such as:

Style manual for authors, editors and printers. 4th ed. reprinted with corrections. Canberra : Australian Govt. Pub. Service, 1992, c1988. OR

ACHTERT, Walter S. and GIBALDI, Joseph. *The MLA style manual*. New York, Modern Language Association of America, 1985.

A style manual for citing electronic information:

LI, Xia and Crane, Nancy B., *Electronic style: a guide to citing electronic information*. Westport, Meckler, 1993.

* The above notes were adapted from those used in the Department of Science and Technology Studies, University of Wollongong.

Points to Consider When Developing Your Essay or Report

(Quoted directly from J. Clanchy, B. Ballard, *Essay writing for students: a practical guide*. Melbourne, Vic., Longman Cheshire, 1991, p.10, 18, 38, 48)

1. Your essay should be relevant to the set topic in both content and focus.
2. You should read widely and critically in order to accumulate and select your material. Adopt the technique of *skimming by paragraphs* to find relevant sources. Very frequently, by glancing only at the opening sentence of each paragraph you can pick up an understanding of the outline of the argument being presented. This is because in most academic writing, the paragraph is an idea unit, coherent in itself and contributing to the logical continuity of the whole argument. Skimming is the most effective initial technique for reading for academic purposes.
3. You need to give time and thought to the interpretation and selection of the topic on which you will write. When you are considering what an essay is 'about', you should take into account the area of content defined by your topic, the specific concepts involved, the suggested relationships amongst those concepts and the discipline within which you are working.
4. Your choice of topic will also be partly conditioned by practical considerations of time, availability of sources and other commitments.
5. You should present a reasoned argument based on valid evidence and leading to a clear conclusion. Sophie Johnson¹ promotes the idea that an argument is "a process of reasoning which aims to convince". She also suggest that "to express a carefully reasoned and informed point of view is a proper function of argument."
6. Your lecturer will be looking not only at the material you have selected but, more importantly, at the use you have made of it.
7. You should aim at precision, accuracy and appropriateness in language, style and format.

¹Johnson, S, *The Stuff of Argument*, Melbourne, Vic., Thomas Nelson Australia, 1980, p.viii, xi.

Part VI. A Guide - 8 Steps to a First-Rate Report

(Quoted directly from L. Sue Baugh, *How to Write Term Papers and Reports*, VGM Career Horizons, Illinois, USA, 1993, p.2.)

Step One	Select and Focus Your Topic <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Choose general subject area• Narrow the topic• Select focused topic from general subject area• Verify topic with lecturer
Step Two	Set Up Research Strategy <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Research available information - is there enough?• Start research
Step Three	Develop Preliminary Report Statement
Step Four	Conduct In-Depth Research <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Set up key terms and searches• Locate sources• Retrieve, evaluate sources• Create bibliography cards
Step Five	Take Good Notes <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Set up system• paraphrase, summarize, outline
Step Six	Choose the Best Structure - Create an Outline <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Insert source numbers• Select illustrations
Step Seven	Complete the First Draft <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Insert source references• Select illustrations
Step Eight	Revise Your First Draft <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Create Works Cited/Works Consulted list• Check logical flow• Revise introductory, middle, concluding paragraphs• Prepare final illustrations

Report Structure

(Quoted directly from R. R. Jordan, *Nelson Study Skills in English: Academic writing Course*, Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd, Surrey, 1990, p.84.)

<i>Preliminaries</i>	1	The title
	2	Acknowledgements
	3	List of Contents
	4	List of Figures/tables
<i>Introduction</i>	5	The abstract
	6	Statement of the problem
<i>Main body</i>	7	Review of the literature
	8	Design of the investigation
	9	Methods and Procedures
	10	Results
<i>Conclusion</i>	11	Discussion and conclusion
	12	Summary of conclusions
<i>Extras</i>	13	Bibliography
	14	Appendices

Major Difference Between an Essay and a Report

(Quoted directly from Betts, K and Seitz, A, *Writing Essays and Research Reports in the Social Sciences*, Thomas Nelson Australia, Vic., 1994, pp.84-85)

Writing a research report is like writing an essay in that, in both cases, you are setting down your ideas and demonstrating to your readers that you have made an honest attempt to check these ideas against the evidence. The feature that can make a research report unlike an essay is that, if it is a report on research involving primary analysis, your readers do not have direct access to your evidence. They can't look it up in the library to see if it is valid evidence for the point you are making and if you have used it correctly. It is this characteristic of reports based on primary analysis that makes them different from essays. It means that in the text of your report, you have to do two things. You have to convince others that you have indeed put your ideas to a fair and valid test and, by providing full information on how you went about this, you allow them, if they wish, to try as nearly as is possible to do exactly what you did to see if they get the same results.

Obviously this is much more trouble than checking your assertions about facts published in books or articles, and you must provide all the information that they will need if they are to replicate your work. In fact most readers will not want to replicate your work, but your description of your methods is not only a recipe for them to follow, it is also an account that allows them to make a judgement about the validity of your work.

Types of Services Available at University of Wollongong

Library Search Assistance

Sue Craig is the Faculty Librarian for Informatics. Her telephone number is (02) 4221 4637. She is located in the Faculty Librarian's Office in the Library on campus.

She will assist you with your information search strategies and guide you to appropriate resources whether in this Library or elsewhere in Australia. Assistance is available by appointment on a small group or one on one basis with regard to using electronic databases such as those on CD ROM. Postgraduate students also have access to a number of databases which are available via AARNet or the Internet. Help in searching these databases is also available. A guide to Library services for postgraduate students in Informatics is available from the Library Information Desk. Staff at the Information Desk can also help with general enquiries.

If you need assistance in finding relevant information for your research, please feel free to call or send Helen an e-mail message.

Learning Support Centre - Study Skills Assistance

The Learning Support Centre, situated in the Library provides a range of programs including:

- Individual help from a lecturer (arranged by appointment at no charge to students);
- Larger group sessions of a specific or general nature;
- Lunchtime workshops to increase awareness of study skills and sources of help.

Ring (02) 4221 3977 for an appointment.

International Student Advisers

The International Student Advisers, Robyn Ngui and Denise Hull, are located on the Ground Floor of the Library (near Special Collections). Their telephone number is (02) 4221 3173.

They are available to assist international students with a range of welfare issues including: personal problems; immigration; health; legal; support for students with their families in Wollongong while they study and referral service for students with study difficulties.

The School's International Student Co-ordinator is Penney McFarlane. She may be contacted on (02) 42 214 864 or by visiting her in 3.204.

Other forms of assistance

Advice and other sources of help are available to students through:

- a) Co-ordinators and department tutors - your teaching staff members.
- b) The Dean's Office in this faculty.
- c) University Counsellors who, as well as providing personal counselling, can assist you with certain study related matters such as:
 - Time management and organisation;
 - Personal management, including coping with stress;
 - Memory improvement and effective usage;
 - Concentration skill;
 - Planning your study environment/facilities.
- d) The Aboriginal Education Centre, which provides academic advisors and DEET sponsored ATAS tutors for students who are Aborigines or Torres Strait Islanders.
- e) Academic Coordinators in various residential colleges.



The following examples will help you understand some of the common methods for acknowledging your sources. If you have any questions about these methods, check with your lecturer or tutor.

Acknowledging Sources of Quotations

If you copy a paragraph or even a sentence from an article, a book, lecture notes or an essay or report of another student, it should be put in quotation marks and the article, book or other source should be listed in a footnote or in the bibliography or in the references.

Example 1:

“The subjugation of thought in Australia through stringent censorship and draconian defamation laws has existed throughout the 200 years of white settlement” (Pollak, 1990, p 7).

Correct.

The bibliography should then include:

Pollak, Michael. Sense and Censorship: Commentaries on Censorship Violence in Australia (Sydney: Reed Books, 1990).

Example 1 is presented using the author-date system in which the author of the work and the date the work was published are listed in brackets.

Example 2:

“The subjugation of thought in Australia through stringent censorship and draconian defamation laws has existed throughout the 200 years of white settlement.”²

Correct - see the footnote.

Example 2 is presented using the footnote system in which the full reference is given as a footnote. You should be aware that, depending on the system your lecturer or tutor prefers, you may use either footnotes at the foot of the page or endnotes at the end of the text.

Example 3:

The subjugation of thought in Australia through stringent censorship and draconian defamation laws has existed throughout the 200 years of white settlement.

Wrong and very bad: this is a direct quote from Pollak and therefore should be placed in quotation marks followed by a reference using the author-date system or the footnote or endnote system.

If you use a quote, the words in quotation marks must be copied exactly as they are in the original source.

² Pollak, Michael. Sense and Censorship: Commentaries on Censorship Violence in Australia (Sydney: Reed Books, 1990), p 7.
or
as reference number 2 in the List of References at the end of the essay or report.

Example 4:

“In Australia, stringent censorship and draconian defamation laws have existed throughout the two hundred years of White settlement” (Pollak, 1990, p.7).

Wrong: the quote is inaccurate in several places.

If you change or add anything, use square brackets [] to indicate the place where the alteration is located.

If you omit something from the quote, use a line of dots to indicate the location of the omission.

Example 5: Pollak claims that censorship and defamation law have been the means for “[t]he subjugation of thought in Australia throughout the 200 years of white settlement” (Pollak, 1990, p.7).

Correct.

Acknowledging Sources of Ideas

Even if you are not using the exact words of somebody else, it is wrong to use their ideas unless you give appropriate credit. For example, if you write an essay or paper on the censorship of the press and you structure it using the same set of topics as Pollak uses in his book *Sense and Censorship*, you should say this in a sentence or note and thus give credit to Pollak.

Example 6:

In this essay, the use of censorship against Dorothy Hewett, Terry Hayes, Chris Masters and Brian Toohey will be described.

Wrong: the last four chapters of Pollak’s book are on these individuals, so you should give Pollak credit for having picked them out – and more credit if you used his book for your analysis.

Paraphrasing

This means taking the ideas of somebody else and expressing them with different words. Since you are using your own words, you do not need to use quotation marks. However, you must make enough changes so that what you have written is distinctly different, and you must acknowledge your source.

Example 7:

Stringent defamation laws combined with tight censorship practices have meant that independent thought has been under attack since white settlement began in Australia (Pollak, 1990, p.7).

Correct.

Example 8:

In Australia, stringent censorship and draconian defamation laws have led to the subjugation of thought in Australia throughout the 200 years of White settlement (Pollak, 1990, p 7).

Wrong: this is too close to Pollak’s original wording.

Example 9:

Stringent defamation laws combined with tight censorship practices have meant that independent thought has been under attack since white settlement began in Australia.

Wrong: there is no citation of Pollak.

It is often better to avoid paraphrasing altogether and write things in your own words. One good way to do this is to first read the book or article and make brief notes. Then close the book or turn over the article and write what you want to say without looking at the source. In other words, don't refer to the source material while you are writing, unless you are transcribing a direct quote. Then, afterwards, put in the citations, in the appropriate form and at the appropriate places.

Common Knowledge

It is unnecessary to give a citation to something that is common knowledge. Common knowledge is what 'everyone knows' about a particular subject, or which can be found in many sources such as newspapers, magazines, popular journals and radio and television reports.

Example 10:

Defamation laws are quite severe in Australia.

Correct: this is common knowledge. No citation is needed.

How to Avoid Plagiarism

Unwitting plagiarism is often the result of poor study methods. The habit of copying verbatim (word-for-word) from a source as you read is dangerous. It is easy to forget that the notes you make are verbatim and to later write them into an essay or report. The only material you should write verbatim are those absolutely delightful, pithy, witty or incisive phrases which you need to make a special point in your essay or report.

The distinction between what needs to be acknowledged and what is common knowledge is not always clear. As you gain experience in expressing yourself, you will learn to discriminate and you will learn the acceptable practices for acknowledgement in the disciplines in which you study. However while you are learning, always play safe and **acknowledge, acknowledge, acknowledge.**

Your Comments Matter

If you have any suggestions, by way of improvements or corrections, for this guide please note them on this page and return to:

Mrs Sonia Jennings
Administrative Officer
School Information Technology and Computer Science
University of Wollongong
Northfields Avenue
Wollongong NSW 2522

Tel: (02) 42 21 4382
Fax: (02) 42 21 4170
Email: sonia_jennings@uow.edu.au

