Guidelines for APA Referencing and Essay Writing

Southern Institute of Technology
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You should refer to these every time BEFORE you hand in an assignment

ASSIGNMENTS

Please follow the instructions from your tutor when submitting your assignments. Some papers will require electronic submission; others will require hard copy submission. Make sure that you read the instructions carefully.

1. Assignment layout

Please follow the prescribed format when submitting your assignments:

Please use the correct one for your area this when submitting assignments. A copy of the cover sheet for your area should be available in your Blackboard courses or from your tutor.

- All pages should be numbered.
- All assignments are to be typed, grammatically correct, and spellchecked.
- Leave a wide margin.
- Use double or one and a half spacing.
- Use a 12 point font that is easy to read, such as Times New Roman, Arial or Palatino. Do not use Courier for essays.

All assignments should be accompanied by a reference list that starts on a separate page at the end of the assignment
**Academic Writing: What is it?**

Academic writing refers to a particular style of expression. Characteristics of academic writing include:

- a formal tone,
- use of the third-person rather than first-person perspective,
- clear focus on the issue or topic rather than the author’s opinion,
- precise word choice
- avoid jargon, slang, and abbreviations.

Academic writing is formal writing. Many new writers have trouble telling informal writing apart from formal writing. They resort to informal writing, since it’s easier and more familiar. Characteristics of informal writing include the use of colloquialisms and jargon, writing in the first person or making “I” statements, making direct personal statements, and imprecise word choices.

Just as you probably wouldn’t wear shorts and flip-flops to a wedding, there’s a time and a place for informal writing. The most informal writing imaginable is the text message, full of abbreviations such as “R U here?” to convey quick questions and responses. In comparison, the most formal writing of all can be found in legal documents.

Informal writing is fine for diary entries, blogs, personal writing (including reflective writing), letters or emails to friends. However, writers working on papers for school, college application essays, scientific papers, research papers, conference presentations, and business proposals generally employ a more formal style akin to donning a suit or dress to attend a wedding.

Here are examples of informal and formal writing.

**Informal writing**: I think he’s a loser.

**Formal writing**: Macbeth’s horrific choices cause him to lose everything he holds dear: children, wife, friends, crown and king.

In this example, the first statement is informal. The writer speaks in the first person, using the word “I”, and states an opinion. The author employs the slang term “loser”, which is inappropriate in a formal context. He also uses the contraction “he’s”. If this were in the middle of a paragraph, it may be easier to understand to whom the author is referring. Taken as a simple statement, however, it’s impossible to know whether the writer thinks his best friend, his dog, or a rock star is a loser!

The second example uses an academic, formal style typical of what professors might expect at the tertiary level. Written in the third-person, the sentence omits references to the writer and focuses on the issue. Strong, specific adjectives like “horrific” convey the author’s view clearly without
resorting to slang. The use of the colon creates a strong, formal feel when properly used here to introduce a list.

Key Features:

1. **Strong writing**: Thinking precedes writing. Good writers spend time distilling information from their sources and reviewing major points before creating their work. Writing detailed outlines helps many authors organize their thoughts. **Strong academic writing begins with solid planning.**

2. **Excellent grammar**: Learn the major and minor points of grammar. Spend time practicing writing and seek detailed feedback from teachers, professors or writers you respect. English grammar can be detailed and complex, but strong writers command the major points after many years of study and practice proper punctuation use and good proofreading skills improve academic writing as well.

3. **Consistent stylistic approach**: SIT uses APA 6th ed. (more on this later).

**INTRODUCTION TO ACADEMIC WRITING:**

Markers look for content and process

Has the question been answered? Is there evidence of “wide” and critical reading?

Is there a logically structured argument? Does your work conform to academic writing conventions?

**Common terms used in essays**

**Analyse** Find the main ideas and show how they are related, what their function is and why they are important.

**Comment on** Discuss, criticise, or explain the meaning.

**Compare** Note the similarities and differences of what you are being asked to compare.

**Contrast** Compare by showing the differences.

**Criticise** Make a judgment about the merit of theories and opinions or about the truth of statements. Back this by discussing the evidence. It is not necessary to attack it. Discuss the strong and weak points and include your own analysis.
Define Give the formal meaning of a word, term or phrase.

Describe Give a written, detailed account or verbal picture in a logical sequence. Emphasise the important points. An explanation or interpretation is not required.

Diagram Make a graph, chart, or drawing. Label it and include a brief explanation.

Discuss Investigate and examine by argument giving the reasons for and against. Present a point of view - this will require both description and interpretation. Your opinion must be supported by carefully chosen authoritative evidence.

Evaluate Make an appraisal of the worth of something. Give the opinion of leading practitioners in the field of the truth or importance of the concept. Include the advantages and disadvantages. You may also include your opinion.

Explain Interpret the facts; your main focus should be on the “why” or “how” with the aim of clarifying reasons, causes and effects. Do not just describe or summarise.

Illustrate Use a figure, diagram or example (comparisons or analogies) to explain or make clear.

Interpret Explore and clarify the meaning using examples and personal comment.

Justify Give a statement of why you think it is so. Give reasons for your statement or conclusion.

List Give a concise numbered list of words, sentences, or comments. Same as enumerate.

Outline Give a general summary/description containing the main ideas supported by secondary ideas. Omit minor details.

Prove Show by argument or logic that it is true. Establish certainty by evaluating and citing experimental evidence or by logical reasoning.

Relate Show the connections and how one causes, or is like, another.

Review Examine the subject critically. Analyse and comment briefly in an organised sequence on the major points.

State Express the main points in brief and narrative form. Omit details or examples.

Summarise Give a concise account of the main points. Omit details and examples.

Trace Give the development, process or history of an event or idea.

Note:

Citations – occur within the body of your essay

References – occur at the end of your essay, in a specially formatted list
A reference list and the use of relevant in text citations should be a part of every written assignment while you are studying on your degree. There might be one or two exceptions during your study but these exceptions will always be pointed out to you by your tutor.

There is no need to reference class lectures or handouts. These are considered to be part of the generally known body of knowledge and do not need to be cited in either your assignment or your reference list. There are two exceptions:

1. One is when a lecture handout is ascribed to a particular source by a tutor. For example, if the tutor deliberately gives you the source of something such as a diagram and you use that diagram in an assignment you must then reference correctly the original source.

2. The other is when a tutor cites a particular example in class that is related to his or her own research. For example, if Aaron uses an example that is from his Honours research project, or if Sally refers to the fieldwork she did during her Doctoral study. This is knowledge that is specialised and comes from only the person concerned. It should be referenced as a presentation (the format is part of the reference section)

Guest speakers should also be cited and referenced in the same way as a presentation (the format for doing this is later in the handbook).

Be wary of relying on internet sources. When it comes to the body of academic knowledge and academic quality and standards they are at the lower end of the scale. Of course there are exceptions, such as an online academic journal (more about on-line referencing later in this handbook). Make sure that your reference lists contain plenty of references to the academic literature. This is what studying on a degree is all about. Go to the library!!!!
Don’t use Wikipedia as a reference. It can be used as a general source of information when researching an unfamiliar topic but it is not suitable to use as a reference.

Proof read every assignment at least twice! Get a friend or flat mate to proofread as well, do not rely solely on spell check!

Read your work aloud. This will help you to find the mistakes, clarify your ideas, and see if they make sense.

Spell check! Those red and green lines under your writing mean something. Make sure you fix up the errors they are telling you about.

COMMON MISTAKES

Avoid Americanisms with spellings. The most common form of American influenced English is the use of “z” rather than “s”, for example, “realize/realize”, “capitalization/capitalisation”. Use the “s” version rather than the “z” version in your essays at SIT.

- Other examples: use favourite, not favorite; programme, not program.

Keep your language formal. Avoid colloquialisms. For example, ’a lot’, ‘stuff’, ‘heaps’.

Avoid contractions. For example, use “do not” instead of don’t; use “cannot” instead of can’t.

PLEASE NOTE that “could’ve” is short for “could have” NOT “could of”.

Their = personal pronoun, there = over there

Whether = either/or, weather = the rain, and wether = castrated male sheep
Affect = verb, eg “It was done to affect a change.” Effect = noun. E.g. “The effect was that it fell down.”

It’s = it is, its = something belongs to it (possessive)

**Apostrophe use**: the rule is different for other words than it. For example:

- The cat’s house = the house belongs to the cat
- cats = more than one cat
- The cats’ house = the house belongs to more than one cat
- CDs = more than one CD **NO APOSTROPHE**
- Centuries should be written like this: 1900s, 1800s **NO APOSTROPHE**

Don’t use random capitals in your essay. Make sure that capital letters are used correctly: start of a sentence, and for proper nouns e.g. people’s names, places.

**Don’t use ‘I’ or ‘me’** when writing an essay. Keep personal pronouns out of academic writing. Try not to use ‘we’ either, for example, “When we look at bar 3 of the song we see that…”. This needs to be rewritten as “In bar 3 of the song it can be seen that…”

If you are writing a reflective piece then usually it is ok to use ‘I’. You can also use I when writing a log or journal. If you are unsure check with your tutor.
## Connectives

There are some useful words that you can use in your writing to help with flow and development of ideas. The following table has some helpful hints.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>add idea</td>
<td>and, also, as well as,</td>
<td>add opposite idea</td>
<td>but, however, on the other hand, in contrast, although</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>furthermore, in addition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>add similar idea</td>
<td>similarly, also, as,</td>
<td>give example</td>
<td>for example, for instance, as follows:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>once again</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exception, reservation</td>
<td>even though, still,</td>
<td>give alternative, or repeat</td>
<td>in other words, or rather, alternatively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yet, nevertheless</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give cause/reason</td>
<td>for, because, since,</td>
<td>give effect/reason</td>
<td>therefore, thus, hence, consequently, as a result, so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show time relationship</td>
<td>presently, soon,</td>
<td>show spatial relationship</td>
<td>between, next, front, beyond, across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>while, later, shortly,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>afterwards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give summary, conclusion</td>
<td>therefore, in summary,</td>
<td>generalizing/give qualification</td>
<td>in general, on the whole, in most cases, usually, frequently, mainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to conclude, in short</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highlighting</td>
<td>in particular, particularly</td>
<td>transition</td>
<td>now, as far as X is concerned, with regards to, as far as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list ideas in time order or order of</td>
<td>first, second, etc.</td>
<td>referring</td>
<td>who, which, when, where, whose, that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>importance</td>
<td>then next, finally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**BASIC RULES OF GRAMMAR**

This is a quick, basic grammar review for nouns, verbs, and the sometimes confusing usage of lay versus lie, and rise versus raise. This reference can be used for anyone confused or curious about the basics of English grammar.

**NOUNS**

**Noun Identification:** What is a noun? A noun is a person, place, thing, quality, animal, idea or activity. *For example:*
- Person — Maria
- Place — Detroit
- Thing — Desk
- Quality — Width
- Animal — Dog
- Idea — Independence
- Activity — Navigation

Spot the nouns in a sentence: *Maria went into the city to purchase detergent.*

Nouns: Person — Maria
Place — City
Thing — Detergent

**The functions of nouns:** Nouns sometimes function differently in sentences. For example:
- Subject: Maria likes ice cream
- Object of Preposition: He gave the ice cream to Maria
- Subject complement: The best customer is Maria

**Grammar vocabulary:** Nominal means any word, or group of words, used as a noun. The nominal word used in the original noun example is Maria.

**Types of Nouns:** The names of specific things, places, and people, like Maria or Detroit, are Proper nouns.

General, colloquial names, like table or house are Common nouns. Common nouns can either be concrete, or abstract.

When an object is concrete i.e. you can see it and touch it, like a phone or a chair, it is a Concrete noun.

When it is a quality or idea, like freedom or justice, it is an Abstract noun.
Mass Nouns are nouns that cannot be counted and they usually do not have a plural form. Examples: Freedom, sand, money.

Collective nouns refer to groups of people and/or things. Unlike mass nouns, they can usually be counted, so they usually have plural forms. **Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Staffs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Herd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural nouns are the nouns that have been changed into their plural states by adding -s or -es. Remember your irregular nouns, such as mice and children! They too are plural nouns.

The pronoun must always agree with antecedent, so if the antecedent is male, the pronoun must be male, if the antecedent is plural, the pronoun must be plural, etc. **Example:**

Correct: When Maria bought the detergent, she used her credit card.
Incorrect: When Maria bought the detergent, they used his credit card.

**Personal Pronouns** can refer to the person/people speaking (First person,) spoken to (second person,) or spoken ABOUT (third person.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject singular</th>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject plural</td>
<td>We</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object singular</td>
<td>He/she</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>him, her, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object plural</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example:** I wanted to give them to her, but he wouldn’t let me.

I — first person singular
Them — third person plural
Her — third person singular
He — third person singular
Me — first person singular

**Possessive Pronouns:** Like regular nouns, personal pronouns can also be possessive. Possessive Determiners are possessive forms of personal pronouns. Possessive Determiners must have a following noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determiner singular</th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>Second person</th>
<th>Third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>my</td>
<td>Your</td>
<td>His, her, its</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pronoun singular</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>His, hers, its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pronoun plural</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VERBS

A verb is an action part of speech. It can also express a state of being, or the relationship between two things. It is most powerful when following a noun. Example: He HIT her. Verbs are the most complicated part of speech because they can sometimes become nouns, depending on their use.

The three kinds of verbs: transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, and linking verbs.

Transitive verbs: These take objects. Transitive verbs carry the action of subject and apply it to the object.

Example: She TOOK the bags.

Intransitive verbs: These do not take an object, but express actions that do not require the agent doing something to something else.

Example: She LEFT.

Linking verbs: These link the agent with the rest of the sentence and explain the link between the subject and the rest of the sentence.

Examples: appear, grow, seem, smell, taste

Example: Maria seems tired from shopping.

SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

A sentence is a group of words which starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!). A sentence contains or implies a predicate and a subject.

Sentences contain clauses.

Simple sentences have one clause.

Compound sentences and complex sentences have two or more clauses.

Sentences can contain subjects and objects.

The subject in a sentence is generally the person or thing carrying out an action. The object in a sentence is involved in an action but does not carry it out, the object comes after the verb.
For example: The boy climbed a tree.

If you want to say more about the subject (the boy) or the object (the tree), you can add an adjective.

For example: The young boy climbed a tall tree.

If you want to say more about how he climbed the tree you can use an adverb.

For example: The young boy quickly climbed a tall tree.

The sentence becomes more interesting as it gives the reader or listener more information.

**PARTS OF A SENTENCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>Describes things or people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Alters the meaning of the verb slightly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td>a, an - indefinite articles the - definite articles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Joins words or sentences together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>A short word showing emotion or feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Names things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Relates one thing to another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>used instead of a noun to avoid repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper noun (subject)</td>
<td>The actual names of people or places etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Action or doing word</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A simple sentence contains a single subject and predicate. It describes only one thing, idea or question, and has only one verb - it contains only an independent (main) clause.

Any independent clause can stand alone as a sentence. It has a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought.

For example: Jill reads.
Even the addition of adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases to a simple sentence does not change it into a complex sentence.

For example: The brown dog with the red collar always barks loudly.

Even if you join several nouns with a conjunction, or several verbs with a conjunction, it remains a simple sentence.

For example: The dog barked and growled loudly.

Compound sentences are made up of two or more simple sentences combined using a conjunction such as and, or or but. They are made up of more than one independent clause joined together with a co-ordinating conjunction.

For example: "The sun was setting in the west and the moon was just rising."

Each clause can stand alone as a sentence.

For example: "The sun was setting in the west. The moon was just rising."

Every clause is like a sentence with a subject and a verb. A coordinating conjunction goes in the middle of the sentence, it is the word that joins the two clauses together, the most common are (and, or, but)

For example: I walked to the shops, but my husband drove.

I might watch the film, or I might visit my friends.

My friend enjoyed the film, but she didn't like the actor.

**COMPLEX SENTENCES**

Complex sentences describe more than one thing or idea and have more than one verb in them. They are made up of more than one clause, an independent clause (that can stand by itself) and a dependent (subordinate) clause (which cannot stand by itself).

For example: "My mother likes dogs that don't bark."

Dependent clauses can be nominal, adverbial or adjectival.
The Anatomy of a Sentence

The verb is the fundamental part of the sentence. The rest of the sentence, with the exception of the subject, depends very much on the verb. It is important to have a good knowledge of the forms used after each verb (verb patterns), for example: to tell [someone] TO DO [something]

Here we can see that the verb to tell is followed immediately by a person (the indirect object, explained later), an infinitive with 'to', and, possibly, an object for the verb you substitute for DO.

Verbs also show a state of being. Such verbs, called BE VERBS or LINKING VERBS, include words such as: am, is, are, was, were, be, been, being, became, seem, appear, and sometimes verbs of the senses like tastes, feels, looks, hears, and smells.

For example: "Beer and wine are my favourite drinks." The verb "are" is a linking (be) verb.

Fortunately, there are only a limited number of different verb patterns. Verbs can describe the action (something the subject actually does) or state (something that is true of the subject) of the subject.

For example: ACTION: I play football twice a week.

STATE: I've got a car.

Some verbs can represent both actions and states, depending on the context.

For example work: ACTION: David's working in the bank.

STATE: David works in a bank.

Finding the Verb:

When you analyze a sentence, first identify the verb. The verb names and asserts the action or state of the sentence.

For example: "Working at the computer all day made David's head ache."

The main verb of the sentence is "made", not working.

Verbs identify our activity or state.
For example: eat, sleep, run, jump, study, think, digest, shout, walk.

The subject is the person or thing the sentence is 'about'. Often (but not always) it will be the first part of the sentence. The subject will usually be a noun phrase (a noun and the words, such as adjectives, that modify it) followed by a verb.

Finding the Subject

Once you determine the verb, ask a wh...? question of the verb. This will locate the subject(s).

For example: David works hard.

Who "works hard"? = David does = the subject.

Beer and wine are my favourite drinks.

What "are my favourite drinks"? Beer and wine are = the subjects.

The subject(s) of a sentence will answer the questions, "who or what."

The Predicate: Once you have identified the subject, the remainder of the sentence tells us what the subject does or did. This part of the sentence is the predicate of the sentence.

The predicate always includes the verb and the words which come after the verb.

For example: Michael Schumaker drove the race car.

"Michael Schumaker" is the subject; "drove the race car" is the predicate.

More Advanced Terminology-The Object

Some verbs have an object (always a noun or pronoun). The object is the person or thing affected by the action described in the verb. Objects come in two types, direct and indirect. The direct object refers to a person or thing affected by the action of the verb.
For example: "He opened the door." - here the door is the direct object as it is the thing being affected by the verb to open.

The indirect object refers to a person or thing who receives the direct object.

For example: "I gave him the book." - here him (he) is the indirect object as he is the beneficiary of the action.

**Transitive / Intransitive verbs:** Verbs which don't have an object are called intransitive. Some verbs can only be intransitive (disagree). In addition they cannot be used in the **Passive Voice** e.g. smile, fall, come, go.

For example: David disagreed. - intransitive.

Verbs that have an object are called transitive verbs e.g. eat, drive, give.

For example: David gave her a present.

Some verbs can be transitive or intransitive e.g. sing

For example: Xavier Nadu sings. - intransitive.

Xavier Nadu sings pop songs. - transitive.

**COMMAS**

Some common mistakes with commas are to either use them too much or use them not at all.

Commas are useful and necessary parts of punctuation, but you need to use them correctly.

Use a comma

- between elements in a series of three or more items. This includes before and or. Examples: . . . the height, width, or depth. AND . . . in a study by Stacy, Robbs, and Burt (1999).
☐ to set off a phrase or clause that is not essential to the sentence. This is a clause that adds to a sentence but if it were to be removed it would leave the grammatical structure and meaning of the sentence intact. Example: Mr Jones, who was big and strong, liked to catch butterflies.

☐ to separate two independent clauses that are joined by a conjunction. Example: Mr Jones liked catching butterflies, and used to holiday on Stewart Island. It is NOT correct to use a comma between two clauses that are dependent, that is, related to each other. For example: Mr Jones liked catching butterflies and keeping them in jars.

☐ to set off the year in citations that occur in parenthesis. Example: (Smith, 1990).

Do not use a comma before an essential or restrictive clause. That means a part of the sentence that limits or defines the material it modifies. For example: The switch that stops the recording device also controls the light.
Semi-colon and Colon Use

Use a semicolon (;)

- to separate two independent clauses that are not joined by a conjunction. Example: The participants in the first study were paid; those in the second were not paid.
- to separate elements in a series that already contain commas. Example: The colour order was red, yellow, blue; blue, yellow, red; or yellow, red, blue.

Use a colon (:)

- between a grammatically complete introductory clause (one that could stand as a sentence on its own) and a final phrase or clause that illustrates, extends, or amplifies the preceding thought. If the clause following the colon is a complete sentence, it begins with a capital letter. Examples: For example, Freud (1930/1961) wrote of two urges: an urge toward union with others and an egoistic urge toward happiness. They have agreed on the outcome: Informed participants perform better than do uninformed participants.
- in ratios and proportions. Example: The proportion of males to females was 1:2.
DO NOT use a colon after an introduction that is not an independent clause or complete sentence.

**WRONG**
Your group’s task is: to rank the 15 items in order of their importance for the group’s survival.

DO NOT use a colon after "such as."

**WRONG**
I enjoy playing physically demanding sports such as: soccer, racquetball, and ice hockey.

After a word, phrase, or clause has been introduced by a colon, the sentence must end with the introduced element. (The main clause cannot be picked up again after the introduced element.)

**WRONG**
We were offered a choice of desserts: pudding, an assortment of pastries, and a fruit cocktail, but we were too stuffed to eat another bite.

**CORRECT**
We were offered a choice of desserts: pudding, an assortment of pastries, and a fruit cocktail. Unfortunately, we were too stuffed to eat another bite.

Probably the best thing you can do to improve your writing is to READ. Set yourself a goal of reading a journal article or a chapter in a book every week. Go to the library and see what interests you.
**Writing numbers:**

Use numerals to express

- numbers 10 and above. Examples: 12 cm, the remaining 10%, 25 years old
- numbers in the abstract of a paper or in a graphical display within a paper
- numbers that immediately precede a unit of measurement. Examples: a 5-mg dose, with 10.54 cm
  - numbers that represent statistical or mathematical functions, fractional or decimal quantities, percentages, ratios, and percentiles and quartiles.
    - Examples: multiplied by 5, 3 times as many, more than 5% of the sample, a ratio of 16:1, the 5th percentile
- numbers that represent time, dates, ages, scores and points on a scale, exact sums of money, and numerals as numerals. Examples: 1 hr 34 min, 2-year-olds, scored 4 on a 7 point scale. *Exception*: use words for approximations of numbers of days, months and years. Example: about three months ago.
- numbers that denote a specific place in a numbered series, parts of books and tables, and each number in a list of four or more numbers. Examples: Grade 8 (but the eighth grade), Table 3, row 5.

**Numbers expressed in words:**

Use words to express

- any number that begins a sentence, title, or text heading. Example: Thirty-three percent of the sample were men.
- common fractions. Example: one fifth of the class, two-thirds majority
TABLES AND FIGURES

At times in your assignments you will be required to insert tables and figures into your text. These must be clearly and properly labelled. Figures and Tables should ALWAYS be referred to in your essay/report. They must be meaningful and have a purpose.

Figures include pictures, charts, graphs, drawings, maps

Tables refer to information that is presented in numeric fashion, generally using columns and rows

Tables should be labelled like this above the table:

Table 1

*Title of Table in Italics and Capitalised Like This*

The title should be brief and explanatory. It should be easy to understand what information is contained in the table from its title.

Example of a table that you have created.

Table 1

*Number of Cups of Coffee Consumed on a Daily Basis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example of a table that contains information from somewhere else. This requires a note at the bottom to explain where it came from.

Table 2

*Frequency of Swim Safe Lessons Completed*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Lessons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>848</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


And then in the reference list you need to have the source as well, in correct APA format.

Figures should be labelled like this below the figure:

*Figure 1.* Then write a caption that explains the figure and also serves as a figure title.

The caption should be succinct but descriptive. A reader should not have to refer to the text to try to work out what the figure is. It also needs to be referred to in the text. For example: “The seven stages of the student life cycle can be seen in Figure 3.”

Example:

*Figure 3.* The Student Life Cycle

If your figures are of your own devising, that is, you have created the graphs or the model, then you
do not need to add any further information. If you use your own photograph, then you do not need to say anything else.
If you have used a model or picture from another source then you need to state what that source is. The source should also appear in your reference list, along with all the other sources you have used in your report or essay, at the end of your assignment in a correct APA format.

So then it would be:

From a journal:

*Figure 1.* Caption that explains and describes what the figure is. From “Title of Journal Article,” by A. Author and B. Author, Year, *Title of Journal, vol.*, p. 128.

From a book:

*Figure 1.* Descriptive caption. From *Title of Book*, by A. Author, Year, p.

From a website:

*Figure 1.* Descriptive caption. From “Title of Webpage,” by A. Author, Year (or n.d.), http of website

Example:

(This example is from a webpage with no author).

*Figure 2.* Treble clef. From “The Staff, Clefs and Ledger Lines,” (n.d.), http://www.musictheory.net/lessons/10

And in the reference list you would have:

A SPECIAL NOTE REGARDING WORKS OF ART

Art works need to be referenced in very specific way. The format is:

Title: What it is called
Artist(s): Who did it.
Date: year of completion or time frame of work.
Media: What it is made of/from
Size: the scale is really important. This can include duration for fugitive media.
Location: this can be tricky as it really should be current location for an artwork, location of record for a photo.
Source: Where you found the image e.g., Book, website etc.

For example:

Figure 1. Title. Artist. Date. Media. Size. Location. Source.

DOUBLE OR SINGLE QUOTATION MARKS

Use double quotation marks to enclose quotations within text. Use single quotation marks within double quotation marks to set off material that is in the original source in double quotation marks. It is incorrect to have double quotation marks within double marks.
DEFINITIONS

☐ Sometimes in your essay writing you will need to define particular terminology, for example, the key words in the essay question.

☐ Do NOT use a dictionary to define such terms and do NOT use internet sites such as Wikipedia!

☐ Use an appropriate and relevant ACADEMIC source, for example, Roy Shaker (2002) *Popular Music: The Key Concepts* if you are defining terms that are used in contemporary music study.

☐ If you are confused about where to go to for definitions in your subject area, then ask your tutor.

IN TEXT CITATION RULES FOR CAPITALISATION OF TITLES OF BOOKS, BANDS, SONGS, AND ALBUMS, ACRONYMS.

☐ Always capitalise proper nouns, including author names and initials: D. Jones.

☐ If you refer to the title of a source within your paper, capitalise all words that are four letters long or greater within the title of a source: *Permanence and Change*. Exceptions apply to short words that are verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs: *Writing New Media*.

PLEASE NOTE: Capitalisation is one of the quirky elements of APA. It has opposite rules for in text citations and the Reference list. In the text of your essay MOST letters
of titles are capitalised (as per the rules above), BUT in your Reference list, only the first word of a title will be capitalized. For example: Writing new media.

☐ When capitalising titles, capitalise both words in a hyphenated compound word: Natural-Born Killers.

☐ Capitalise the first word after a dash or colon: "Defining Film Rhetoric: The Case of Hitchcock’s Vertigo.”

☐ Italicise or underline the titles of longer works such as books, edited collections, movies, television series, documentaries, or albums: The Closing of the American Mind; The Wizard of Oz; Friends.

☐ You should also put the year of publication or release after the title the first time you refer to the work in the text of your essay: For example, Dark Side of the Moon (1973), Gone with the Wind (1939).

- Put quotation marks around the titles of shorter works such as journal articles, articles from edited collections, television series episodes, and song titles: "Multimedia Narration: Constructing Possible Worlds"; "The One Where Chandler Can’t Cry"; “The Only Exception”.

☐ Band names should have the first letter of each word capitalised. For example, Iron Maiden.

With acronyms, you need to put them in full the first time (followed by the acronym). For example, the first time you refer to SIT you need to say: “Here at the Southern Institute of Technology (SIT) the APA system of referencing is used.” and from then on you only have to put SIT.

WRITING YOUR ESSAY

- PLAN your essay. Read and re-read the question – what are you being asked to do, ie, describe, compare, explain etc. Look at the marking criteria – where do you get marks. For example, if the question asks you to refer to statistics from New Zealand, then make sure that your essay includes statistics from New Zealand. Check the word limit for the essay and stick to it – one of the arts of academic writing is to writesuccinctly.
□ Use the **words of the question** EVERYWHERE in your essay. The introduction, the conclusion, and the first and last sentence of every other paragraph should use the words of the question (or a variation on them). This will ensure that you stay on track and actually answer the essay question.

- The **introduction** should use the words of the question and outline what you are going to say. It should give an indication of at least three of the main points of your essay. It can begin: “This essay will examine/discuss/explore . . .”. **You cannot begin “I will examine. . .” as you need to write your essays in the third person.**

□ You may also need to state explicitly that confidentiality has been maintained throughout the essay if you are writing about people / institutions.

□ Organise the **main body** of your essay into paragraphs that each deal with a separate issue. Use topic sentences, the first sentence of each paragraph, to pinpoint exactly what it is you will discussing in the paragraph. Make sure you keep to the one idea per paragraph rule. Don’t go off on tangents. If the topic sentence of your paragraph is: “One aspect of the role of technology in the consumption of popular music relates to the use of cellphones in today’s society.” Don’t start discussing radio or television in the same paragraph. The entire paragraph should only be about cellphones.

□ As a general kind of rule EVERY paragraph in the **main body** of your essay should have more than one citation in it. This provides the evidence and proof for what you are saying. You need to use quotations from (or paraphrase, that is, saying something in your own words that originated in another source) journal articles, books, and internet articles to back up what you are saying. These quotations and paraphrases must always be backed up with the APA formatted citation, for example (Shuker, 2003, p.4).

□ Quotes of 40 words or less, should be contained within the paragraph.

□ Quotes of more than 40 words should be indented.

□ Please note that quotes of 40 words or more are not usually included in the word count.

□ A general kind of structure for each paragraph:
• The **conclusion** of your essay needs to use the words of the question and summarise the main points of your essay. It is important that you actually do summarise these points and mention them all again (briefly, a sentence on each is enough) and that you don’t just make your conclusion about whatever you think about the topic in general. Your conclusion needs to make the reader feel convinced that you have answered the question. New information should not be contained within the conclusion.
USING QUOTES AND PARAPHRASING

Try to use a mixture of direct quotations and paraphrasing of sources throughout your essay. Direct quotations should be used to make a particular point, or to make a concept stand out. Paraphrasing can be used to show that you have read or engaged with a particular source.

Direct quote = word for word from the source
Paraphrasing = putting an idea or concept from a source into your own words

Your writing needs to be a combination of quotes and ideas from other sources together with your own ideas and words. Use other sources to back up the statements that you make.

Your essay should be a balance of your own words and paraphrasing/direct quotes from sources. Try to use sources to reinforce your own statements, rather than as the bulk of the essay. Assignments that rely too heavily on direct quotes are not likely to achieve high marks. Likewise, assignments that use no sources are unlikely to get a high mark. It is a real skill getting the mix right, and different assignments might require more of your own statements that others. Ask your tutor if you need direction on how much of your essay should come from direct quotes and paraphrasing. While your essay should contain sources, it also needs to show that you can synthesise/discuss/argue. Sources need to be used to support and validate, rather than make up the majority of your word count.

Learning how to get this balance in your writing is all part of what you will be learning throughout your course of study.

USE OF HEADINGS

Generally headings should not be used in academic essays. Your topic sentences should be clear enough to direct the reader to the content and ideas of the paragraph. Headings can be used in report writing and for research proposals. These types of writing generally follow a prescribed format with a set list of headings. If in doubt, ask your tutor to clarify whether headings should or should not be used.
USE OF APPENDICES

For some assignments it is necessary to include additional material in the form of an appendix. Material that adds to the essay or report but that would be distracting or inappropriate to include in actual text should be included as an appendix, at the end of the essay/report, after the reference list.

An example of material that could be included as an appendix is a log of observations that were carried out for an assignment, or a transcript of an interview that was used for a case study.

APA REFERENCING

- Every time you make a statement, a claim, an assertion, an opinion, you MUST show your audience the EVIDENCE on which it is based. Degree study, especially at the Bachelor level, is built on establishing the validity, reliability, integrity, and relevance of the evidence that underpins one’s opinions.

- When you refer to someone else’s words or ideas in your text, the source should be acknowledged by stating the author and year. You must always acknowledge your sources otherwise you will be guilty of plagiarism.

☐ At SIT the American Psychological Association (APA) 6th ed. style of citations and referencing is used. Please note that APA style covers more than just citations and referencing, it can also cover how you format your document, right down to specifying the margin size. However, at SIT it is only the referencing and citation aspect of APA style that we are concerned with.
It is **important** that you follow the correct procedures and get everything in the right place.

Word 2007 has an inbuilt referencing element that will help you with getting the right format for APA, but you need to know a bit about what it is in order to be able to use this.

Please note that the following material has been sourced from a variety of places including the APA official website ([http://www.apastyle.org](http://www.apastyle.org)) and [http://www.vanguard.edu/faculty/ddegelman/index](http://www.vanguard.edu/faculty/ddegelman/index).

**In text citations**

APA is known as an author-date style of referencing because only the author’s surname and the year of publication are necessary to refer to in the body of the essay itself. The rest of the information can be found in the reference list, at the end of your essay. Source material must be documented in the body of the paper by citing the author(s) and date(s) of the sources. The underlying principle is that ideas and words of others must be formally acknowledged. The reader can obtain the full source citation from the list of references that follows the body of the paper.

You **don't need to put the full title of the book or article into your essay paragraphs.** All you need is the author’s **surname**, and the **year** it was published, and the page number (most of the time).
**Books and Journals**

Most of your citations should come from **books** (in the library) and **journals** (also known as periodicals).

There are different ways that you can structure your sentences, you might want to include the author's surname into the sentence itself.

When the names of the authors of a source are part of the formal structure of the sentence, the year of publication appears in parentheses following the identification of the authors.

Consider the following example:

> Wirth and Mitchell (1994, p. 305) found that although there was a reduction in insulin dosage over a period of two weeks in the treatment condition compared to the control condition, the difference was not statistically significant. [Note: *and* is used when multiple authors are identified as part of the formal structure of the sentence. Compare this to the example in the following section.]

When the authors of a source are **not** part of the formal structure of the sentence, both the authors and year of publication appear in parentheses. Consider the following example:

> Reviews of research on religion and health have concluded that at least some types of religious behaviours are related to higher levels of physical and mental health (Gartner, Larson, & Allen, 1991; Koenig, 1990; Levin & Vanderpool, 1991; Maton & Parşament, 1987; Paloma & Pendleton, 1991; Payne, Bergin, Bielema, & Jenkins, 1991). [Note: *&* is used when multiple authors are identified in parenthetical material. Note also that when several sources are cited parenthetically, they are ordered alphabetically by first authors' surnames and separated by semicolons.]

Also please note that no page number is included in the above example because it is the **whole study or whole book** that is being referred to.
MULTIPLE AUTHORS

When a source that has **two** authors is cited, both authors are included every time the source is cited.

When a source that has **three, four, or five** authors is cited, all authors are included the first time the source is cited. When that source is cited again, the first author's surname and "et al." are used. Consider the following example:

Reviews of research on religion and health have concluded that at least some types of religious behaviours are related to higher levels of physical and mental health (Payne, Bergin, Bielema, & Jenkins, 1991, p. 205).

Payne et al. (1991, p. 205) showed that ...

When a source that has **six or more** authors is cited, the first author's surname and "et al." are used every time the source is cited (including the first time).

In the reference list a source which has six or seven authors ALL the authors are spelt out in the reference list. If there are more than seven authors "..." is used. APA 6th ed. replaces all authors between the sixth and last author with "...". For example:

Smith, J. D., Khan, V., Zhang, H., Williams, T., Garcia, J., Sato, Y., . . . Laurence, D.

And in the citation it is Smith et al.

CITING A SOURCE MULTIPLE TIMES IN ONE PARAGRAPH

Sometimes you might want to use one particular source several times during one paragraph. Putting an in-text citation after every sentence that comes from that source would look awful and break the flow of your writing... but leaving the in-text citations out risks plagiarism.

Introduce the source early in the paragraph, with the author as part of the sentence rather than in brackets. For example: Lazar (2006, p. 100) describes several aspects of the data gathering process.

For the rest of the paragraph, you can refer back to the author by name or pronoun when elaborating on their ideas. For example: He notes that the relevance and number of questions can affect participation rates. Lazar also found that...

As long as it is clear to the reader that all of the ideas come from that same source, there is no risk of plagiarism and the paragraph flows well.

It is **NOT ACCEPTABLE** to use several statements or ideas from one source throughout a paragraph and use one citation at the end of the paragraph to "cover" all the information within. If only one
citation is used at the end it appears that only the final sentence is from that particular source, and
the rest of the information is the writer's own ideas. **THIS IS STILL PLAGIARISM.** A citation only
covers the sentence (or in the case of blocked quotations that are longer than 40 words, the
quotation) that it is part of. One citation at the end of a paragraph **DOES NOT** cover the entire
paragraph.

Note that if you put the author's name in brackets later on in the paragraph (for example, if
you include a quotation from that source) you should always include the year of publication
in the brackets.

**WHICH SOURCES SHOULD I USE?**

The best sources to use in academic writing are those that have been through some kind of review
process. When an article gets submitted to a journal it is read and critiqued by other academics.
This is known as **peer review.** Books go through a similar process in the publishing world.

Sources such as Wikipedia, or random pages on the internet have **not been through a peer review**
process, and so are not generally favoured by your tutors as valid and appropriate sources to use in
your essays. However, it depends what you are using the source to support. The Shure Microphone
website, for example, might be appropriate to use in a Business assignment when you are asked to
provide evidence of specifications of a particular microphone, but not credible to use to back up an
academic discussion about microphones in a general sense.

Think about the sources you are choosing when you write your assignments. Ask yourself:

- Is there a date?
- Is there a name?
- Is there evidence of some kind of review process before it has gone on the internet?

Academic writing and APA referencing is about quality of sources. Ideally your information should
have **quality.**
SOURCES THAT YOU HAVEN’T READ YOURSELF

Every effort should be made to cite only sources that you have actually read. When it is necessary to cite a source that you have not read ("Grayson" in the following example) that is cited in a source that you have read ("Murzynski & Degelman" in the following example), use the following format for the text citation and list only the source you have read in the Reference list:

Grayson (as cited in Murzynski & Degelman, 1996, p. 23) identified four components of body language that were related to judgments of vulnerability.

PERSONAL COMMUNICATIONS

These may be letters, memos, email, personal interviews, telephone conversations, and the like.

However, in order to use a quotation from someone you must get that person’s permission and you must make notes of the interview or phone call.

You cannot quote someone without his or her knowledge and permission. This is simply not ethical. When a person is interviewed for this type of information they may request that you give them a copy of your notes of the conversation to be approved by them, prior to you using it in your assignment.

Because personal communications are non-recoverable data they are not included in the reference list. Cite them in the text only. Give the initials as well as the surname of the communicator, and provide as exact a date as possible.

T. K. Lutes (personal communication, April 18, 2001)

Or (T.K. Lutes, personal communication, April 18, 2001)
ONLINE SOURCES

You will also need to use sources from the internet when you write essays. Some of these have authors, some have titles only and no author, and some have no date. There are rules to follow in all of these scenarios.

- If there is an author use the author-date format, just like you would for a book or article, for example (Smith, 1990)
- If no author is identified, use the first few words of the title in place of the author. These must be placed within double quotation marks, for example, (“Eating Tomatoes”, 1990)
- If no date is provided, use "n.d." in place of the date, for example, (“Eating Tomatoes”, n.d.)
- To cite a specific part of a source, indicate the page, chapter, figure, table, or equation at the appropriate point in text. Always give page numbers for quotations (see section 3.34). Note that the words page and chapter are abbreviated in such text citations:

(Cheek & Buss, 1981, p. 332)
(Shimamura, 1989, chap. 3)

For electronic sources that do not provide page numbers, use the paragraph number, if available, preceded by the abbreviation para.

Example:
(Myers, 2000, para. 5)

Do not cite the URL in the body of the essay. This information will be put into the reference list (at the end of the essay).

The only exception to this is if you are referring to an entire website in your essay, then you would cite the website address. For example,

Marketing and branding of the All Blacks is an integral part of their commodification. This is exemplified by Allblacks.com (http://www.allblacks.com/) which features a flashing icon which alternates between the Adidas advertising logo and the All Blacks silver fern.
BIBLE

To cite the Bible, provide the book, chapter, and verse. The first time the Bible is cited in the text, identify the version used. Consider the following example:

"You are forgiving and good, O Lord, abounding in love to all who call to you" (Psalm 86:5, New International Version). [Note: No entry in the References list is needed for the Bible.]

DIRECT QUOTATIONS:

When a direct quotation is used, always include the author, year, and page number as part of the citation.

A quotation of fewer than 40 words should be enclosed in double quotation marks and should be incorporated into the formal structure of the sentence. Example:

Patients receiving prayer had "less congestive heart failure, required less diuretic and antibiotic therapy, had fewer episodes of pneumonia, had fewer cardiac arrests, and were less frequently intubated and ventilated" (Byrd, 1988, p. 829).

A lengthier quotation of 40 words or more should appear (without quotation marks) apart from the surrounding text, in block format, with each line indented five spaces from the left margin. See the example in the specimen essay provided.

For indented quotations the citation comes AFTER the full stop at the end of the quote.

Note that pp. is the plural version of p. For example: (Smith & Jones, 1990, pp. 123-125).
Paraphrasing:

Paraphrasing (putting someone else’s ideas into your own words) must also be acknowledged by a citation. APA 6 is also a little quirky with regard to whether or not paraphrasing requires only the surname and year in the citation, or the page number as well. The Manual suggests that the page number is “encouraged” when paraphrasing. At SIT we are interpreting this as “do it”. Therefore, even when paraphrasing **ALWAYS SUPPLY A PAGE NUMBER**.

Referencing

As stated previously, every assignment should be accompanied by a reference list. SIT uses the APA style of referencing, although there are many others and you will come across these as you read and research your assignments. There are many rules that are part of APA that you need to follow when you prepare your reference list. Again, it is important that you get this right and get the commas and full stops in the right place. You will **lose marks** in your assignments if you do not follow the correct format. References cited in the text of your essay must appear in the reference list and vice versa.
**Some General Things about APA 6th Ed.**

1. The reference list begins on a **separate page**.

2. Entries in your reference list appear in **alphabetical** order by the surname of the first author.

3. APA uses a **hanging indent**. This is where the lower lines hang inwards underneath the top line.

4. **APA has opposite rules for capitalization of titles (as mentioned earlier) between the in text citations and the reference list.**

5. **In the reference list capitalise** only the first letter (and any proper nouns) of titles and subtitles of any book, articles, chapters, and titles of unpublished periodicals. Capitalise the first letter of all significant words in periodical titles (they are treated like proper nouns).

6. APA uses an ampersand (&) between authors' surnames, NOT “and”. But if you are using the authors' surnames in a sentence then “and” is used, as per the normal rules of writing.

7. **There can be no** hyperlinks in either your essay or your reference list.

8. APA 6th ed. does not require the date that you retrieved information from an internet site. **THIS IS A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE FROM APA 5th ed.**

9. APA 6th ed. puts increased emphasis on the DOI (Digital Object Identifier) as the best way to identify an online source. Most online journals include a DOI, if a DOI is present, it should be used instead of a URL. However, if no DOI is available, then the URL should be given. With journals this should be the URL of the homepage of the journal.

10. APA 6th ed. requires that the state (US) or country MUST be provided, alongside the city where the book was published. (APA 5th ed. did not require the country if the city was famous for publishing).
WHAT IF I AM GIVING A POWERPOINT PRESENTATION?

Several times during the course of your studies you will be asked to give a presentation.

If you are using powerpoint, or something similar, then you will need to provide the sources for any information that you include that comes from a source. So, giving a presentation is exactly like writing an essay.

You should include a citation on a slide, and follow the same format as you would in an essay. Some examples are given below:

Example 1: the whole article is being referred to and summarized/paraphrased, so it isn’t necessary to provide a page number

---

Literature

- Rutherford (2010) created a Facebook mimic site: the Brock Learning Network (BLN)
  - results indicate that there is a positive correlation between student use of a variety of social media resources and
    - how students perceive their relationships with their fellow students and instructors
    - as well as how they describe the overall quality of their educational experience.
Example 2: page numbers are provided here, because there are specific quotes, or specific passages being referred to.

Music and identity

- Turner (1992, p. 32) “waste of time” looking for signifiers of Australianness in music texts
  - Australian on the basis of being produced, consumed, performed there
- Hayes (cited in Harrison, 2005, pp. 108-110)
  - Recognisably Australian music, because of the country’s history, location, geography
  - Images
- Harrison (2005, p. 309)
  - Iconic songs from the popular music canon
  - searching for an identity in Australian Music Education

The final slide of a presentation should be a correctly APA formatted list of all your sources.

Please note that if you are using figures and tables you should reference these exactly as you would if they were in an essay. The exception is images that you are using to “window-dress” your slides. You do not need to cite these, except where instructed so by your tutor.

APA AND ACADEMIC POSTERS

Like powerpoint presentations and essays, academic posters also require citations and a reference list. Citations should be used whenever a source is referred to, and a list of references in APA format should be provided somewhere on the poster (usually this is the bottom right hand corner).

REFERENCE LIST AND CITATION FORMAT EXAMPLES

48
Reference:

Citation:
(Adorno, 1981, p. 56)

A book, edition other than the first

Reference:

Citation:
(Helfer, Keme & Drugman, 1997, p.45)

A book with a translator

Reference:

Citation:
(Adorno, 1997, p. 87)
A BOOK WITH NO EDITOR OR AUTHOR

Reference:

Citation:
(Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary, 1993, p. 650)

A PERIODICAL/JOURNAL ARTICLE
Journals and periodicals might have volume/issue numerals, as well as a number. For example they might be volume 6, number 2. In this case the volume numeral is in italics followed by the number in brackets but not italics. Example; 6(2).

Format:

Reference:

Citation:
(Meintjes, 1990, p. 45)

MAGAZINE ARTICLE
Both the month and the date should be included after the year.

Reference:

Citation:
(Henry, 1990, p. 30)
**NEWSPAPER ARTICLE**
Both the month and the date should be included after the year.

Precede page numbers for newspaper articles with p. or pp.

If an article appears on discontinuous pages, give all page numbers, and separate the numbers with a comma (e.g., pp. B1, B3, B5-7).

**Reference:**

**Citation:**
(Shultz, 2005, p. 4)

**ONLINE NEWSPAPER ARTICLE**
Give the URL of the homepage when the online version is available by search to avoid the risk of nonworking URLs.


**A MANUAL**

**Reference:**

**Citation:**
(*Cakewalk Pro*, 1999, p. 3)
AN ENTRY IN AN ENCYCLOPEDIA

Reference:

Citation:
(Bergmann, 1993, p. 65)

GROVE ONLINE

Reference:

Citation:
(Wallser, 2006, p.5)

REFERENCING MATERIAL FROM ELECTRONIC SOURCES

Format:
JOURNAL ARTICLE WITH DOI (DIGITAL OBJECT IDENTIFIER)


JOURNAL ARTICLE WITHOUT DOI


ONLINE MAGAZINE ARTICLE


ELECTRONIC VERSION OF PRINT BOOK


ELECTRONIC-ONLY BOOK

INTERNET ARTICLES BASED ON A PRINT SOURCE

Reference:

Citation:
(VandenBos, Knapp & Doe, 2001, p.118)

ARTICLE FROM AN INTERNET ONLY JOURNAL

Reference:

Citation:
(Fredrickson, 2000, para. 4)
ONLINE NEWSPAPER ARTICLE

Only the URL of the homepage needs to be given, as the article can be found in a search.

Reference:


Citation:

(Brody, 2007)

DATA SAFETY SHEET

Reference:


Citation:

(Chemsafe, 2012)

NON PERIODICAL DOCUMENTS ON THE INTERNET

If the author is not identified, begin the reference with the title of the document.

If no date is given, use n.d.

Reference:


Citation:

(“GVU’s 8th WWW user survey”, n.d., para. 3)

If the author is identified:

Reference:

Citation:
(Nielsen, n.d., p. 4)

LEGISLATION

Reference:
Give the name of the Act or regulation including the year, e.g.
OR
Education (Registration of Early Childhood Services Teachers) Regulations 2004.

For electronic versions, add a retrieval statement with the URL of the entry page of the web site, e.g.

Citation:
In-text
Give the name of the Act or regulation including the year, e.g.
According to the Education (Registration of Early Childhood Services Teachers) Regulations 2004...
OR
... violence against that person by any other person with whom that person is, or has been, in a domestic relationship (Domestic Violence Act 1995)...

If referring to a particular part of an Act or of a regulation include that information in the In-text Citation only. A part of an Act is indicated by s. and a part of a regulation by reg. The part referred to should come first, following the pattern “[part] of the [Act or regulation]”, e.g.

... s. 13(b) of the Children, Young Persons, and Their Families Act 1989...
OR
Section 13(b) of the Children, Young Persons, and Their Families Act 1989...
OR
... reg. 2(1) of the Education (Registration of Early Childhood Services Teachers) Regulations 2004...
Blog Entry or Facebook Comment

Reference:
Author Surname, First Initial. Second Initial. OR Author screen name (as it appears on the blog), (Year, Month Day (of post)). Title of specific post [Web log post].
Retrieved from URL of specific post


Citation:
(Bell, 2012)

WEB DOCUMENT ON UNIVERSITY PROGRAMME OR DEPARTMENT WEB SITE

Reference:

Citation:
(Degelman & Harris, 2000, para. 8)

YOUTUBE VIDEO

Reference list:

Citation:
If the author is a person then follow the same rules as for books eg Surname, I.

If there is no ‘author’:

Reference list:


Citation:

(“Catching butterflies”, 2006)

**DOCUMENTARY OR TELEVISION SERIES**

Films and documentaries list only the country of original but television series and episodes from television series are like books and state both the city and the country/state.

Reference:


Citation:

(Driver, 2002)

**SINGLE EPISODE FROM A TELEVISION SERIES**


(Smith & James, 2010)

**FILMS**

Reference:


Citation:
For the first citation in text (for works of three to five contributors):

(Zanuck, Brown & Spielberg, 1975)

Subsequent citations in text (for works of three to five contributors):

(Zanuck et al., 1975)

**Recordings**


(or if there is no one artist)


Or for one song off an album:


In text citations of songs include side and band or track numbers: “Over the Waterfall” (Shocked, 1992, track 3).

**Podcasts**

FOR PRESENTATIONS AND SEMINARS

Reference:

Citation:
(Ives, 2005)

PAPERS PRESENTED AT CONFERENCE


PUBLISHED CONFERENCE PAPER IN CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS


FOR GUEST SPEAKERS

Reference:

Citation:
(Hendry-Blair, 2005)

FOR UNPUBLISHED THESES

FOR A THESIS AVAILABLE FROM A DATABASE


Reference:

Citation:
(Wilfley, 1989, p.4)

If you need further APA style examples please refer to the APA Publication Manual.

The following pages have an example of what an assignment and reference list should look like.
SAMPLE ESSAY

The rise of feminism: The development of the study of women

It is difficult to determine when the rise of feminism begins. There are landmarks: women suffrage in the late nineteenth century, the aftermath of World War I and its effect on women in the 1920s, the women’s movement of the 1960s; but feminism actually exists in a continuum. This essay will explore some of the key features of the rise of feminism.

The word ‘feminism’ itself has negative connotations. It has come to represent all that is argumentative, stroppy and irrational about women (Citron, 1990, p. 65). It shouldn’t be that way. Feminism is not about proving women to be better than men, nor is it about advancing women’s situation in society. Smith’s definition of feminism is a valid one here: “a view of women as a distinct sociological group for which there are established patterns of behaviour, special legal and legislative restrictions and customarily defined roles” (1976, p. 369). Smith’s definition leads to the question: why do we need feminism? Simply because women have been largely ignored or forgotten by history. They have been restricted socially and academically through cultural or religious beliefs and as a result they have been denied power, freedom, and equality (Riley, 1988, p. 89). Women’s exclusion has meant that men retained control over society.

Feminists existed as early as the 17th century. In 1662 the Duchess of Newcastle wrote:

...wish I were so fortunate as to persuade you to make a frequentation, association, and contribution amongst our sex, that we may unite in prudent counsels, to make ourselves free, happy, and famous as men, whereas now we live and dye, as if we were produced from beast rather than from men. (Smith, 1976, p. 379)
In other writings of the time women compared the role of the wife to that of a slave. In this century feminists were comprised of a small group of women from the lesser gentry. These women resented the triviality of women’s lives and their lack of opportunity for education. When comparing their lives with those of men they found them unfulfilling.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century women in Western countries began to campaign to gain the right to vote. Women’s suffrage contributed a great deal to the rise of feminism. In 1892 New Zealand became the first country in the world to give women the vote and gradually over the next forty years the rest of the Western world followed New Zealand’s example (Rowbotham, 1992, p. 187). Women finally had recognition that they were citizens of equal status and intellectual ability, something lacking in so much of women’s history.

Women have benefited from times of social dysfunction such as war. After the First World War there was another surge in the rise of feminism. This was a result of the freedom accorded women during the war years. They stepped in to fill the gaps left by men and took over more dominant social roles. When the men came back not all women reverted to their previous subordinate roles. Women began to smoke, cut their hair, and wear trousers (Rowbotham, 1992, p. 201). This is represented in literature through the works of writers such as Virginia Woolf. Her novel *A room of one’s own* (1929) was rediscovered in the 1970s as a source of feminist stirrings.

The next major link in the chain of feminism is the women’s movement of the 1960s. In this bra-burning decade women rebelled against the ideal homemaker of the 1950s. The sixties was the decade of freedom and were turbulent, owing to the unrest of civil rights marches, ‘free love’ rock music, drug experimentation, long hair and dishevelled clothes, and the winds of war in Indochina (“Social issues – Baby boom generation,” 2002-2005, The Sixties section). In this environment women’s awareness of themselves as a distinct and equal gender rose. For the first time perhaps, in the history of the world, women gained equality.

The rise of feminism can be viewed as a continuum with distinct events of significance. While women with feminist perspectives have been around since the
17th century and earlier, it was at the end of the 1800s with women in the Western world obtaining the vote that feminism really began to take shape. The after effects of WWI and the social environment of the 1960s have all contributed to the development of feminism. History is being challenged and re-written from women's perspectives. As Smith suggests “history should be a recounting of how members of a society lived not about what was designated to be important” (1976, p. 369).

Commented [121]: Each main point from the essay is reiterated and summarised.

Commented [122]: This essay ends with a quote, which is a bit of a weak finish, but alright to do sometimes.
Reference List:


Commented [123]: The reference list starts on a new page.

Commented [124]: This is the hanging indent.

Commented [125]: First letter of title and subtitle are the only capitals.

Commented [126]: This is a chapter from an edited book.
WRITING A REFLECTIVE LOG

What should I include in my reflective log/journal?

The purpose of the reflective log/journal is to encourage you to think more critically about what you have learned during the practical experience or recording/engineering process and what difference this may make to your professional (or personal) life as a result. A course or programme can only be said to have had a real impact if there is individual learning which goes on beyond the end of the course itself. This is what we are looking for in the reflective log.

Here are some prompts or questions for you to consider when putting together your reflective log:

• identify moments or events in the practical experience which gave you inspiration, new insights or ways of seeing
• try to explain what it was about the above events which made you think differently
• try to example how you managed to synthesize the new skills, or any understandings and abilities you have gained from this assessment
• try to pinpoint the triggers which made you see things differently or gave you ideas (e.g. was it conversation with peers, an inspirational lecture or tutorial?)
• explain what you are planning to do with this new learning within your professional context?
• were there areas of the course when your learning was less effective - why do you think this was the case?

With all examples the assessor is looking for relevance and justification for decisions. The assessor is looking for “what and why” or “how and why” statements, and also resolution ideas for the future experiences.
GUIDELINES FOR PRESENTATIONS

In some of the courses you take you will be required to do an oral presentation as part of your assessment for the paper. Here is some information to help you with preparing your presentation.

1. **Dress** professionally and appropriately.
2. Use **powerpoint** as an audio visual aid. Some courses show you how to use this, otherwise you can learn through attending a Computing for Free programme.
3. **Don’t read your slides** word for word. Your audience can read them for themselves. Use your slides as a general guide to your main points.
4. **Never read** a presentation word for word. This is very boring! Speak from notes that should provide cues for you to elaborate on.
5. **Make eye contact** with your audience. Include the whole room in your eye contact.
6. **Be prepared.**
7. Stick within the **time limit.**
8. Use your **voice:** pause, speed, inflection, vary your vocal tone. Speak clearly and not too fast.
9. **Don’t go up at the end of sentences.** (Like you are asking a question). HRT! (High Rising Terminal)
10. **Use gestures:** don’t be afraid to use your arms for emphasis.
11. **Don’t lean on the podium.**
12. **Don’t mumble.**
13. **Don’t think out loud.** Your audience can hear everything you say so make sure that everything you say is relevant and meaningful.