Student Study Guidlines

TE WHARE WĀNANGA O AWANUIĀRANGI

Professor Wiremu Doherty

MESSAGE FROM THE CE

Tēnā koutou katoa,

Tēnei te mihi maioha atu ki ā koutou katoa i runga i ngā āhuatanga o te wā. Ka mihi ki ō tātau mate e heke tonu nei, e heke tonu nei. Kua tangihia, kua mihia, kua poroporoakitia rātau, nō reira e ngā mate takoto mai rā, takoto mai rā i roto i ngā ringaringa a tō tātau kaihanga. Ka hoki mai ki a tātau te hunga ora, tēnā koutou, tēnā koutou, tēnā tātau katoa.

Rukuhia te Mātauranga ki tōna hōhonutanga me tona whānuitanga.
Pursue knowledge to the greatest depths and its broadest horizons.

It is a pleasure to welcome you to Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. You are here because you seek relevant skills, specialised knowledge and a highly-regarded credential. You want an education that equips you for the challenges you will face, that prepares you to contribute to te ao Māori, and that makes you stand out when it comes to getting a job. In our fast-changing world, the right knowledge will be critical to how we shape our future. What, where and how you study is more important than ever.

Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi plays a distinctive and crucial role in tertiary education, providing an opportunity to learn based on the values of āhuatanga Māori according to tikanga Māori. Strong relationships with our communities of interest – in Aotearoa and internationally – drive the relevance of our academic programmes, teaching and research. Academic achievement and cultural competence are equally significant. Our graduates have discovered the advantage that an Awanuiārangi education can provide as they move into the workforce, and position themselves to make a difference within their communities.

Our organisation has defined values (Ngā Uara) which are embedded in the teaching and learning environment as well as the support functions of Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. Ngā Uara imbue a responsibility of duty toward each other and the wider community:

- Manaakitanga – To respect and care
- Kaitiakitanga – To protect and support
- Whanaungatanga – To value all relationships and kinship connections
- Pūmautanga – To commit to excellence and continuous improvement
- Tumu Whakaara – To inspire and lead through example

We are proud of our transformative approaches to educational achievement and our broad and unique programme offerings, and we continue to focus on providing an education that will encourage and support community development and growth.

Nō reira, nau mai haere mai ki Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. We hope you will feel at home here.

Professor Wiremu Doherty
Chief Executive
PhD (Auckland) B. A. (Hons), B. SocSc, Dip Teachg
Tūhoe, Ngāti Awa

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AWHI TAUIRA STUDENT SUPPORT

Tēnei te mihi atu ki ā koutou i raro i te maru o ngā manaakitanga me te aroha.

Ko mātou te rōpū e kawe nei i ngā mahi hei hāpai i ā koutou i ngā tauira i raro i te āhuatanga o ā koutou mahi.

Awhi Tauira Student Support provides targeted support and input into all programmes at Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. Kanohi-ki-te-kanohi (face-to-face) and eWānanga (online) support programmes are available to suit all needs.

One of the immediate benefits to students is the whānaungatanga (sense of belonging) that is always present at Awhi Tauira. Support includes academic support as well as support for personal issues which may impact a student's ability to learn and complete their study.

AWHI TAUIRA STAFF OFFER –

- Individual support
- Online and face-to-face tutorials
- Group workshops and seminars
- Essays and assignments writing
- Noho Marae support
- Formatting
- APA 7th Edition referencing
- Individual study plan
- Time management strategies
- Writing conventions - English and Te Reo Māori
- Presentation skills

CONTACT AWHI TAUIRA STUDENT SUPPORT

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RESEARCH INTRODUCTION

Tēna koutou tauira mā,

The Awhi Tauira team are here to help you achieve your academic goals this year. The Student Study Guideline is designed to help you navigate your academic journey. This guide will help you work through the different academic conventions and rules you need to understand when writing and presenting your findings and ideas through assignments and assessments. You will be asked to read, research, plan, present and write during your time here to show that you can convey important knowledge and ideas in your chosen field.

A good point to start with is understanding what research is. Your lecturers will have important readings for you to engage with. You will also be expected to look for your own relevant resources and references to help grow your understanding of a subject as well as the skills to develop a position or argument through your writing.

WHAT IS RESEARCH?

- Research is a systemic investigation to establish collated facts, theories and positions on given subjects.
- It is a key component of academic writing which requires you to formulate an argument in response to a given question, utilizing appropriate resources. In order to do so, you must conduct research to seek data or information to support your argument, based on your findings.
- For a researcher, this means setting aside time over and above your lectures, in order to collect, organise and record information about a subject or topic.

HOW TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

There are many different ways to carry out research. The basic approach is to read and collect information, which involves the following steps:

1. Develop a method of collecting relevant information.
2. Use a book or a notebook to record the information that you are researching.
3. Use the resources available to conduct research (library, books, journals, articles, internet).
4. Use notes to record the information that you have collected.
5. Plan what, where, when and why you are researching something.
6. Actively follow your plan of action.
7. Organise your notes into a logical order.
8. File your notes so that you will be able to use them to write an essay and prepare for a presentation or an exam.

RESEARCH RESOURCES

Notes – Your lecture notes will give you a starting point as to what you should be looking for during your research.

Library – The Library should contain most of the information that your lecturers will direct you towards.

Books – Published works by an author or group of authors, based around a central theme.

Journals – Publications usually put out on a regular basis by a society or institution that is involved in exploring a topic academically.

Internet – Take care when utilising Internet resources because there is no guarantee of the validity of the information being presented.

Databases – Databases are stores of information that are able to be accessed electronically.

QUALITATIVE

Qualitative *research* examines the 'why' and the 'how' of any particular research, without using mathematical models. This type of research is utilised to understand reasons, opinions and motivations of a study group.

Qualitative *data* involves collecting data, either through structured or semi-structured techniques, usually through group discussion and interviewing. Data obtained will generally be opinions using 'words'. The study group size is generally small.

QUANTITATIVE

Quantitative *research* examines measurements. This type of research uses mathematics, numerical theories and hypotheses to understand a study group.

Quantitative *data* involves collecting data usually through surveys and polls. Data obtained will generally be 'numbers'. The study group size is generally large.

STUDY SKILLS

GOALS AND TIME MANAGEMENT

WHAT ARE GOALS?

Goals are a specific intention or focus that you may have – like achieving a degree, learning about an interest, or learning te reo. They put you in control, give you a sense of purpose and usually express your values and principles.

Goals such as learning te reo are long-term goals. When they are broken down into steps, they then become short-term goals, which are more flexible and can be changed and, more important, can be measured over a time frame where you have to be precise about what you want to accomplish and by when. Writing your goals down gives them meaning so do not be afraid to put your dreams and aspirations in writing.

WHY IS TIME MANAGEMENT IMPORTANT?

There are many challenges you will face as a new student and, to be successful, time needs to be managed properly. Time Management is about you, as an individual, using your time productively. It is a skill which will take a lot of effort for some to develop. Remember, it takes time to acquire new practices and information. The first step is knowing how you spend your time now. This can help identify what type of person you are, what priorities you have, where you can best recover time and where you should direct your efforts to get the best return. Ask yourself "If I stop doing this what will happen?" If the answer is nothing, then stop doing it. Focusing on your goals and objectives should give you enough motivation and reason to change how you spend your time, if this is needed.

TIME MANAGEMENT PLAN

There are three planning tools to consider:

- Semester Plan (or Yearly Planner)
- Weekly Schedule
- Daily Organiser

SEMESTER PLAN

To develop a Semester Plan (or Yearly Planner) you need to ask the following questions:

- What are my long-term goals?
- What do I want to accomplish this semester?
- How much time do I need to spend on my studies?
- How much time do I have for other things?

You will also need to do some prioritising which involves considering the following:

Amount of Time – Do not spend all your time on one or two subjects while ignoring others. Designate regular study times and plan other commitments around these.

Level of Urgency – Begin with the assignments that have the earliest deadlines, not those that are easiest or most interesting!

Level of Importance – You should also consider how much time you might spend studying for a 20% exam compared with a 80% exam, as well as how much internal assessment you have to do and how much it is worth in comparison to your exam.

WEEKLY SCHEDULE

A Weekly Schedule allows close monitoring of your time so you know how many hours you have for each week for study. When you are creating your plan:

- Schedule your study at the time of day that is most productive for you
- Make sure that the time you allocate for study is quality time
- Study the subject(s) you find most difficult before the ones you find interesting
- Review your goals
- Plan your study environment
- Create ways to reward yourself

DAILY ORGANISER

Planning your day helps maintain an immediate focus on the task you need to complete. Each evening, before a school day, prepare a Daily Organiser for the next day. Place a ✓ next to each thing to do as you accomplish it.

Here is how you prepare a Daily Organiser:

- Enter the things to do for the coming day from your Weekly Schedule
- Enter the things that still need to be accomplished from your Daily Organiser from the previous day
- Review your class notes for the day to see if you need to add any study activities
- Add any out-of-school activities in which you will be involved with the next day

Your Weekly Schedule should have more detail than your Semester Plan while your Daily Organiser should have more detail than your Weekly Schedule.

Using a Semester Plan, a Weekly Schedule, and a Daily Organiser will help you make the best use of your time.

NOTE TAKING

WHY TAKE NOTES?

Note taking is essential for recalling and retaining information.

HOW TO TAKE NOTES

1. Go into class knowing that you have read all the recommended readings.
2. Position yourself where distractions are minimal.
3. Focus on the lecturer and motivate yourself to be a good listener.
4. Number and date the pages and then write the number of the class, lecturer and topic on all papers.
5. Formulate a system of abbreviations and symbols in place of whole words.
6. Formulas and facts should be noted accurately.
7. Leave a wide margin to the left so that new information, main ideas or questions can be placed. Highlighting of main points can be useful.
8. After class, rewrite the notes and revert abbreviations and symbols into longhand and summarise.
9. For retention purposes, review notes on a regular basis.
10. Compare your notes with other students and formulate a discussion on what their main ideas were. This will help you all to expand on your personal notes. You may also like to expand notes by accessing other literature that is closely linked to the topic.

WHAT TO WATCH OR LISTEN FOR

1. The review that the lecturer makes on the topic.
2. Repetitive use of words and points and the amount of time spent on points.
3. Any written communication on the board.
4. The examples used to illustrate facts or opinions.
5. The summary of the topic.

NOTE TAKING STRATEGIES

NOTE TAKING FOR LECTURES

Page number Date Number of the class Lecturer Main ideas Questions New information	Topic ..... Note taking column
	Summary of the lecture

NOTE TAKING FOR READING

Place the appropriate reference list of any written communication after each of the notes. This will include the author, year of publication and page number. At the bottom of the summary box do another for full reference lists. This will make it easier to cut and paste the references to the back of the assignment. (See the reference section of the Student Study Guidelines for further information on reference formatting.)

Essay question	

Who What	Note taking column Passage of copy noted during the lecture Source: (Williams, 1997, p. 58).
Why Where When	Reference list to be transferred to the back of your assignment on completion Williams, H. W. (1997). *Dictionary of the Māori language*. Reed.
How	Summary

EFFECTIVE READING - IS READING FOR MEANING

'Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested...' – Francis Bacon, Essays, 1625.

Effective reading is active and purposeful, it needs to be focused, selective and follow objectives.

THREE STAGES OF EFFECTIVE READING

The three stages of effective reading a text are:

1. previewing
2. reading for details
3. reviewing

PREVIEWING

You should preview the text before reading for details. This allows you to:

- Gain an overview. Use headings, sub-headings, introductions and conclusions, abstracts, editors' introductions and contents pages to find out what the reading is about.
- Clarify your purpose and jot down a brief reading plan. What do you want to achieve? What specific questions would you liked answered? Can some parts be ignored?
- Survey to decide how to approach the reading. Skip? Skim? Thoughtfully read? Study closely?

READING FOR DETAIL

You should engage actively with the text to get the most from your reading time. A suggested approach is:

- Decide how much to read in a sitting and make it an achievable amount. Always keep your purpose in mind. Look for answers or ideas related to your questions.
- Avoid being side-tracked by the interesting but irrelevant elements. When reading difficult material, focus on what you do understand. If necessary revisit later.
- When possible, photocopy relevant material so that you can underline key words and write notes in the margin. Analyse the reading as you go, writing down any thoughts or questions that go through your mind.

REVIEWING

You should review the material to remember what you have read. A suggested approach is:

- Record key points on the text. Keep notetaking to a minimum
- At the end of each reading session, write a review of what you have read
- If you are researching for an assignment or thesis, use your questions to organise your note taking. Head a fresh page with each question, rather than organising your notes by author.
- Do not copy out long quotes. Record the page number and paraphrase or summarise the main idea.
- Discuss the main points with fellow students. For every two hours of reading, spend 15 minutes reviewing.

TEXTBOOK READING SYSTEMS

The following systems are useful tools to approach your reading. By following one reading system, always keep in mind that you only need to read for a purpose. Qualify where the text is worth reading, or you could save time by moving on to the next book or text. Over time you will learn to read a number of texts in one sitting.

SPEED READING

This technique is for learning to read and understand large amounts of text quickly

- What is your present average reading speed? (test yourself – 250 words per minute is usual)
- Normal upper limit is
  - the speed you can articulate voicelessly as you read (maximum is 500 wpm), and
  - the speed your eyes move along the line and whether they move backwards as well as forwards
- Use a pointer to increase your reading speed. Run a pencil under the line as you read, or down the page as you get faster.
- With practice you can read up to 1000 wpm

ALARM CLOCK READING

Choose an easy, interesting, relatively familiar subject matter for this exercise. You do not want to be fighting your own boredom at the same time that you are trying to increase your reading speed. The simpler paperback novels, based on a theme in which you are intensely interested and written in a fast-moving style, lend themselves well to the development of rapid-reading skills.

1. Select a novel or book of easy non-fiction. Keep the book for this purpose only.
2. Set an alarm clock or timer to go off after 15 minutes of reading.
3. Read the book as rapidly as possible until the alarm rings. Try to get the same feeling of speed you have when under class-time pressure.
4. When the alarm rings, note the number of pages you have read. For example, 5 ¼, 7 ½, etc. Do not count the words. Now close the book.
5. Paraphrase out loud the material you have read. You will be much more conscious of the fact that you did not remember very well if you paraphrase out loud. Remember, speed without recall of what you read is useless.
6. At the next reading, strive for more rapid reading. In order to break the habit of slow, plodding reading on easy material, you must press yourself into reading at an "uncomfortable rate" at the outset. As long as comfortable rates are maintained, no gain in speed is achieved.
7. Allow your eyes to sweep rapidly along each line of print, but do not pause to reflect until a whole section has been completed.
8. Do this exercise everyday. Sporadic and infrequent exercises will have little value. Keep your record up to date so you can see your progress. Try to read a few more lines each time.

EXAM PREPARATION

Exams are often used as a form of assessment for many courses and are often allocated a significant proportion of the total marks for a course paper. As with other assessments, achieving successful results from exams can come from good preparation.

PREPARING FOR EXAMS

- Try to familiarise yourself with the exam structure by looking at previous exams. Ask your lecturer or programme co-ordinator if the current exam is going to follow the same structure. Try to identify familiar themes or questions in old exams. They may provide an insight into what you can be expected to answer. Find out what types of questions may be used for example, essay questions, short answers or multi-choice.
- Prioritise! Time management is important in order to make the most effective use of what little time you may have left before the exam. Be strict – know how to say no to any distracting temptations (for example, going shopping, socialising, watching movies) unless you include them as a break activity within your set routine.
- Set up study groups with other students. This provides an opportunity to share ideas and course material.

STUDYING FOR EXAMS

- If studying for more than one exam, try to divide your time accordingly. Do not spend too much time on one paper. It may be better to adopt a 'little and often' approach.
- Set aside a study area that has plenty of space, good lighting and ventilation. Also it should be an area that is quiet and where you are not likely to be disturbed. An ideal area might be a library, an unused classroom, a bedroom or on a table in a backyard or quiet park.
- Read and summarise your notes into the main points or issues and try to create mind maps that will help you remember and trigger further information during an exam. Double-check your information to ensure you have not made any mistakes or left out important information.
- Continually practise writing sample answers under simulated exam conditions and try practising with past exam papers
- Try not to cram in revision right up until you arrive or are ready to enter the exam

TAKING EXAMS

- Ensure you have eaten prior to arrival. You will need the energy to sustain you through long exams.
- Know where the exam is going to take place and arrive early with any necessary identification documents. Ensure you have the necessary equipment for each exam, for example, pens, pencils, ruler, and calculator (if permitted).
- Know how much time is allowed and how many questions you are required to answer for the entire exam, then allocate accordingly to each question. For example, if your exam is three hours duration and you are required to answer six questions in total, then you should spend *thirty* minutes on each. Take into account the marks or percentage given to each question.
- During reading time, browse over all the questions and plan the order in which you are going to complete the questions.
- Read the question properly and make sure you understand what is required of you by identifying key words e.g. analyse, compare, contrast, describe, evaluate and explain. Brainstorm ideas or topics in your head during reading time. When you are allowed to begin writing, write down these ideas before you begin. This can help structure your essay – you can then write around the main points you have identified.
- Allocate sufficient time for various aspects of the exam and draw up a timeframe which can be checked off against a clock or watch. This will help you avoid spending too much time on one topic and failing to complete all of your chosen exam questions.
- If you have a mind block and cannot generate more ideas for a topic or question, do not panic. Continue with another question and return later. Further questions may help generate or trigger information for the previous question. If, by the end, you cannot remember anything, just write what comes to mind.

GRADING SYSTEM

E	D	C-	C	C+	B-	B	B+	A-	A	A+
0-39	40-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70-74	75-79	80-84	85-89	90-100

SHORTCUT KEYS

FOR MICROSOFT WORD

Do you want to speed up your assignments?

Use shortcut keys!

Press all buttons together

Ctrl a – select all
Ctrl b – bold
Ctrl c – copy
Ctrl d – font box
Ctrl e – centre text
Ctrl f – find
Ctrl g – go to
Ctrl h – replace
Ctrl i – italicise
Ctrl j – justified text
Ctrl k – insert hyperlink
Ctrl n – new document
Ctrl o – open document
Ctrl p – print
Ctrl r – right side of document
Ctrl s – save
Ctrl u – underline
Ctrl v – paste
Ctrl x – cut
Ctrl y – repeat last action
Ctrl z – undo
Ctrl shift < - decreases font size
Ctrl shift > - increases font size

FOR COMPUTER

Alt tab – flick between screens

Note: just tap the 'tab' button while holding down 'alt'.

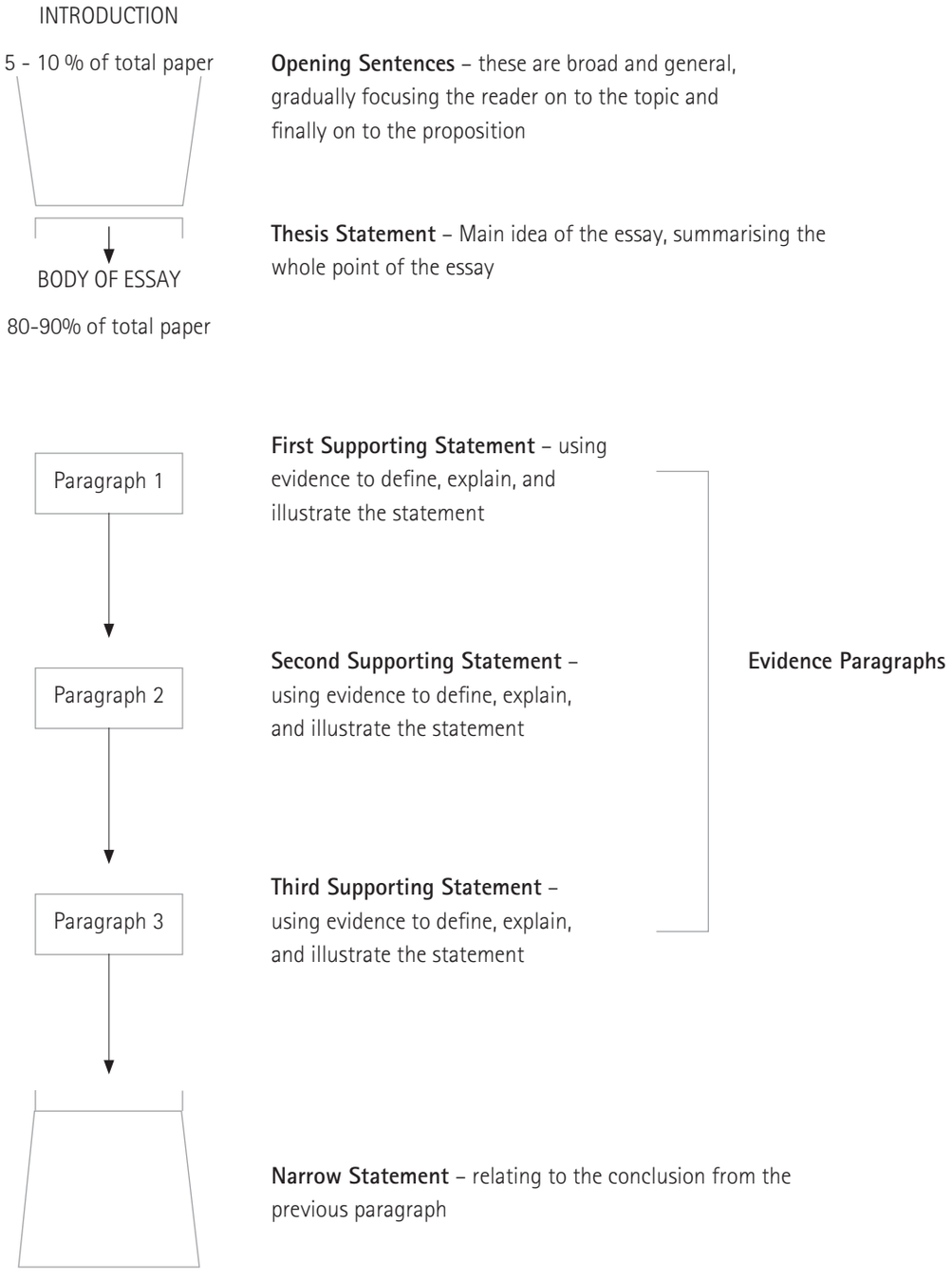
Ctrl roll (middle of mouse) – zoom in and out

ASSIGNMENTS

ESSAY WRITING

Developing a Structure

All essays share the same basic structure, although they may differ in content and style. The essence of an essay is an opinion, supported by academic literature which assists in providing evidence. It is important to include alternative views and interpretations.



THE INTRODUCTION

The Introduction enables you to:

- Introduce the topic and its importance
- State the main argument or issues discussed
- State how you intend to answer the question

For some assignments you may also need to:

- Clarify the topic
- Set the limits to the discussion or arguments
- Define key terms
- Outline research methods
- Briefly review relevant literature or research

General Statement – This includes general comments about subject, important background information or anything that will attract your reader's attention.

Thesis Statement – The Thesis statement forms the core of the essay. After you have interpreted the question you should have some idea on what your *proposition* will be and what point do you want to make, as this will be your conclusion. Therefore your lectures, readings, writings and research should be focused on the main point or conclusion you want to make.

In your thesis statement you will have identified key ideas to support your arguments. Each idea that you identify will be the foundation of every paragraph that you want to construct as part of your assignment.

Example of Introduction

This introduction is from Mikaere (1994). It is two paragraphs long and each has a different purpose.

"It is often assumed that, according to tikanga Māori, leadership was primarily the domain of men and that men in Māori society exercised power over women. However, evidence abounds which refutes the notion that traditional Māori Society attached greater significance to male roles."

General Background Comments

- Clarification
- State main argument

"This paper begins with a discussion of the position of women in Māori society before colonisation. It then considers the position of women under English law, and examines the effects that law has on Māori women as a result of colonisation."

Thesis Statement

Includes:

- Specific topic and scope
- Plan/outline the 'body of the essay'

BODY OF ESSAY

This is where you build an argument through a series of paragraphs. Each paragraph should start with a statement and the rest of the paragraph should contain evidence to define, explain and illustrate the statement. (Please see the Academic Writing section (Page 21) for more information)

THE CONCLUSION

The Conclusion is used to collate all the ideas represented in your essay to support the main idea of your argument with a strong final statement. The Conclusion performs three tasks:

1. It summarises the main points.
2. It restates your argument(s).

3. It provides a final comment on the subject.

Please note the following:

- Avoid begining the Conclusion with "In conclusion…" A concluding signal may be used later in the paragraph, but the reader should be able to see that this is the last paragraph.
- Do not introduce any new material in the Conclusion. Finish strongly with an original and striking statement. Do not end on a cliché or just fade out.
- Avoid finishing with a quote – you should make sure your voice is the last one the reader hears
- A very simple way to start writing a Conclusion is to reword the Introduction and vice versa (Note: this is just a starting point)
- A concluding sentence is especially useful for long paragraphs. It has the same functions and many of the same features as a concluding paragraph.

Example of Conclusion

"With the wealth of historical evidence showing clearly the leadership roles that Māori women have performed over time, why has it become so common for people to assume that leadership in Māori society is traditionally a male preserve and that female roles are considered to be of less value than male roles?

Restate argument or topic

No matter how wide-ranging their iwi affiliations, for some reason the achievements of these women have been marginalised as being 'exceptions to the rule', the rule being that only men could be leaders. The facts give the lie to any such rule of male leadership, relegating it to the category of yet another stereotype. As with any stereotype, it is unfounded. And its potential to become a self-perpetuating truth, makes it extremely harmful.

Summarise main point

The challenge for Māori, women and men, is to rediscover and reassert tikanga Māori within our own whānau, and to understand that an existence where men have power and authority over women and children is not in accordance with tikanga Māori.

Final comment

Such an existence stems instead from an ancient common law tradition that has been imposed upon Māori. A tradition which we have no affinity with and which we have every reason to reject."

Strong Final Statement

LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review is an extensive, detailed survey of relevant research and/or theory related to a specific topic. A good literature review does not just describe previous research, but is analytical and evaluative. It should:

- Demonstrate your understanding of current thinking and research, and any recent developments in your field of study
- Identify key authors and important theoretical, technical and/or methodological issues
- Show any relationships between previous studies and/or theories
- Identify gaps or limitations in previous research
- Show how previous research is related to your own topic (if the literature review is part of a research proposal or project) and provide a justification for your work

STEPS FOR WRITING A LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Define your topic and, more specifically, determine its focus and the parameters.
2. Gather relevant information from a variety of sources, such as books, journal articles, research studies, theses, reviews, interviews, case studies or statistics.
3. As you **read**, make brief notes in your own words. Writing short summaries for each chapter or article, as you finish reading, is useful. However, it is also important to interconnect between the different articles. Focus on understanding and evaluating what you read. Think about what you have learnt from the article; its strengths and weaknesses, and how it might be useful for future research.

Identify important key topic words/headings. Record your personal reflections, criticisms, and any points to follow up or clarify.

4. When writing your literature review, organise the material into key themes or concepts. Do not just present a series of abstracts! Group similar studies, with the most important ones described in detail. Mention less important studies by stating *the results are confirmed in similar studies …* without describing them in detail. Use examples or evidence, such as theories, studies, or statistics, to support the points you make.
5. Think about the wider significance of the material by:

- Discussing the implications of previous research e.g. *Much of the research suggests …*
- Relating this research to important theoretical concepts and to your own insights. For example, *these studies all support the idea that …*
- Pointing out gaps that exist in current knowledge on the topic. For example, *While there has been much research in the area of …, there is a need for more extensive study in …*
- Indicating directions for further study. For example,
  Further research must focus on … There is a need for … It is necessary to investigate …

6. Use internet search engines to find "literature review examples"

GENERAL REPORT WRITING

A report is another accepted form of academic writing used to present information on a researched issue or topic. The basic structure for the body of a report generally follows that of an essay in that it has a beginning, middle and end. These components sometimes consist of numerous sections depending on the specific requirements of the audience or end-user. Reports are divided under headings and sub-headings, and numbered using a decimal system. This helps the reader work through and find specific sections easily using the table of contents. You should check with your course coordinator or tutor for any specific structure requirements, prior to writing.

REPORT STRUCTURE

The basic structure is:

1. Title Page
2. Table of Contents
3. Introduction
4. Methodology
5. Findings
6. Discussion
7. Conclusions
8. Recommendations
9. References
10. Appendices
11. Glossaries (if applicable)

REPORT COMPONENTS

Table of Contents – Shows the breakdown of the report into its main headings and sub-headings, along with their corresponding page numbers. This allows the reader to have easy access or reference to information within the report. The font of headings and sub-headings should appear as they do throughout the report. The table of contents should include or be followed by a list of Figures/Tables/Photos etc. if any are used within the report.

Introduction – Provides information on the content of the report. It may include all or some of the following:

- State the purpose of the report
- General layout or format of the information
- A brief background, to distinguish the context of the report
- Provide scope or boundaries for the report i.e. what aspects of the initial question or main topic were researched and reported

- A timeframe of which specific components of the report were completed
- Highlight any constraints or difficulties experienced throughout the process
- Methodology used in the collection and collation of the report such as qualitative or quantitative research, who was interviewed, how or why they were chosen? how many questions were used? and were they open or closed? The methodology could also be included as a section of its own.

Findings/Discussion (Body of Report) – This is generally the greatest section of the report and consists of the facts and evidence relating to the primary topic from which conclusions and recommendations can be drawn and justified. The number of issues discussed will vary depending on certain aspects such as the word count limit or length of report, depth of discussion required, and information available. This main body should be divided under logical headings and sub-headings with the appropriate corresponding decimal number. The use of supporting evidence can be beneficial in conveying the information more clearly to the reader. Optional supplements include: tables, graphs, photos, pictures, maps, diagrams then lists. These visual aids not only help interpret the information but also add to the visual layout of the report. It is important to acknowledge and include all sources of information in the reference list.

Summary/Conclusions – The main points from the results, findings and discussion are summed up in a logical order, then conclusions are drawn in reference to the primary objective of the report. Any limitations or subsequent unresolved questions can be highlighted to the reader as possible areas for further research.

Recommendations – Suggested recommendations are given as possible solutions for solving a problem or situation. These are presented in order of importance and should be clear and concise. The recommendations may be expressed as statements or as specific bullet points.

Reference List/Bibliography – A reference list is not a bibliography. It includes only material that you have specifically referred to in the content of the writing. A bibliography is a list of sources you have viewed or consulted while researching your topic, but have not specifically referred to in content.

Appendicies – Contains supporting information which may not be ideal to add into the body of the report. These may include: tables, graphs, photos, pictures, lists, maps, diagrams, survey or questionnaire sheets. Each Appendix in the Appendicies should be mentioned or referred to in the report. Use internet search engines to find examples of reports.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

An annotated bibliography is a critical analysis of sources about a given topic. These sources can consist of books, journal articles, press releases, conference papers and other works. A brief description (usually 150 words) about that source follows that citation. The information contained within an annotated bibliography will look at a source's credibility. Its authors, publishers, date of publication and references in that source, will determine a source's credibility.

- Think about questions such as: How is the topic approached within the source?
- Is the source appropriate for the intended audience?
- Does any area need to be improved?
- Is the author qualified to make arguments within the source?
- Are the topics covered in depth?
- How recent is the source? Within 2 years?
- Do the arguments make sense?

Example:

Mead, H. M. (2003). *Tikanga Māori: Living by Māori values*. Huia.

Mead provides an excellent introduction to tikanga Māori as he contributes personal experiences when looking at a Māori perspective to the developing world order. Although tikanga Māori could be considered a relatively new subject for teaching institutions, it is a very old subject for Māori who wish to recover knowledge that over the years has been lost.

"Tikanga Māori might be described as Māori philosophy in practice and as the practical face of Māori knowledge" according to (Mead, 2003, p. 7).

Going forward into the future there are still many issues that need to be addressed ...

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

Seminars or oral presentations are another form of assessment used in many academic institutions.

A presentation generally involves an individual or a group delivering a subject orally to an audience and may employ the use of visual aids to supplement the oral delivery. There are several steps that can be followed to help ensure the delivery of an effective seminar or presentation.

PLANNING

It is important to plan your presentation first. This may include addressing issues such as:

- What is the topic?
- What are the aims?
- Who is the audience?

What is the Topic?
This will generally require you to research your topic so that you have enough information and knowledge to confidently develop and deliver a well-thought out, thorough presentation.

What are the Aims?
It is essential there is a clear understanding of the aims or specific requirements wanted by the assessor or people marking the presentation. This understanding will provide some guidance in the preparation process, highlighting what aspects need to be covered or addressed in order to achieve maximum results. In some instances these aims and requirements may be included in the assessment question handout and/or marking criteria.

Who is the Audience?
Knowing who the target audience is will give some indication as to their level of knowledge on the subject, appropriate language, and information which may be of particular interest.

PREPARATION

Your presentation should follow a similar structure to an essay, with a beginning, middle and an end, generally defined by an introduction, discussion and summary/conclusion.

INTRODUCTION

This may consist of information such as:

- Introducing yourself
- The topic of your presentation
- What angle or focus you will take on the topic
- What are the main issues that will be presented
- How long the presentation will take
- Instructions on if/when questions can be asked

DISCUSSION

This is where you actually discuss the topic, which should be broken down into the main issues emphasised in the introduction. The presentation should flow in a logical order with an ease of transition from one main point to another.

SUMMARY/CONCLUSION

The main points or issues of the presentation should be re-emphasised and a final sentence or statement given to summarise or conclude your position on the topic discussed.

USE OF AUDIOVISUAL AIDS

Although some individuals are capable of giving an oral presentation without the need for supplementary tools, the use of visual aids can be very effective in conveying a presentation topic. Some of the various tools available for enhancing an oral presentation include: whiteboard, flipcharts, handouts, props, photographs, maps, audio and visual equipment. Visual and audio aids may be used entirely

throughout the presentation or at specific intervals where considered appropriate and effective. However, please remember:

- Do not over-use audiovisual aids – they are merely supplements. The main focus should be on the presenter.
- Visual aids should not be complex or confusing as this may be too distracting for the audience.
- Do not spend too long on one slide

PowerPoint projector units are common equipment used by many people today. A PowerPoint presentation can be developed relatively easily, and with the ability to incorporate enhancing characteristics such as sound, pictures, photos, and colour.

REHEARSAL

It is always good to rehearse your presentation several times before the actual seminar. This should be done in front of a suitable person or persons, who will be able to provide feedback as to what aspects of your presentation need improving. You should also become more familiar with any technical equipment (e.g. slides) to be used and fine-tune the delivery to the prescribed time limit. Run through the presentation as many times as you feel is sufficient to present confidently.

Even after all the necessary preparation, things may still turn out unexpectedly so you need to keep this in mind. Even just acknowledging this possibility could prevent you from becoming 'freaked out' – maybe unnecessarily – and freezing up. Therefore, have backup plans and alternative delivery options ready if needed.

PRESENTATION DELIVERY

If you are well prepared, you will increase your chances of completing a successful presentation. Therefore, you need to ensure that you:

- Have all the information and equipment ready;
- fully understand your proposed topic;
- anticipate possible questions which may be asked; and
- are in suitable frame of mind.

Remember, most people feel uncomfortable giving public speeches and that it will get easier with time and practice.

Points to remember are:

- Arrive early with all required resources
- Ensure you are not lacking in food or water
- Try to remain calm, and remember, do not rush your presentation
- Maintain eye contact with your audience
- Try to interact with the audience
- Vary your tone of voice – avoid a monotone
- Do not read your presentation, only use notes as prompts when needed

If using aids such as PowerPoint or projector slides, it may be beneficial to utilise another person to change the slides to help minimise distraction. It would be beneficial to obtain feedback following your presentation, in order to get some indication as to how it went. This may be in the form of audience response or assessment marks given. The feedback will provide a basis for improvement with future presentations.

SUBMITTING ASSIGNMENTS

It may be a requirement to attach a cover sheet to your assignment, check with your lecturer. The cover sheet must accompany all assignments handed in to Awhi Tauira for reviewing. This document informs assessors, lecturers, support staff and moderators of your personal details. It highlights critical information like your name, student number and assignment details. Also, very important, is the student declaration text box at the bottom, which aligns with APA requirements around your awareness regarding plagiarism. Example follows:

ASSIGNMENT COVER SHEET

Student's Name	**Joe Bloggs**
Student ID #	**007**
Course Code / Title	**MDA 101**
Assignment #	**Essay**
Lecturer	**Bart Simpson**
Due Date	**28/04/2021**
Assessment word count	**2000**
Actual word count	**1102**

First Submission	**x**	**Resubmission**	
Extension Granted		**Extension Form Attached**	

STUDENT DECLARATION

Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi views plagiarism as a serious matter. Plagiarism is a serious form of academic dishonesty and penalties will be incurred. I therefore declare that the attached assessment is my own work and that I have acknowledged and referenced the sources of information used in this assignment.

Signed: Signature **Date: 14/01/2021**

ACADEMIC WRITING

PLANNING YOUR ASSIGNMENT

Before writing the first word of an essay or assignment topic, take time to plan and plot how you are going to construct your final draft. The need to plan for the writing of assignments is a vital tool for producing quality work. Writing an essay is a lengthy process so spend time on this. You may want to consider the following factors:

Motivation – Identify what are the positive and negative factors in completing your assignment. By starting early you may address some of those things that are holding you back from working on the project.

Interpret the Question – Understand what is being asked. Make a summary in your own words. Check key words and definitions. Define the boundaries in the question. Check the word count.

Plan your Approach – Brainstorm or discuss within a group how the topic should be answered. Create a skeleton outline for your assignment.

Allocate Time – The process of effective writing goes through four stages – preparation, drafting, editing and proofing. You should allocate the following percentage of time to each stage.

- Preparation: 30%
- Drafting: 15%
- Editing: 50%
- Proofing: 5%

Research and Process – Start reading and searching for information relevant to the topic. Make notes as you go and acknowledge sources. Explore other possibilities. Check back on your plan and review your notes from previous lectures and readings. Make sure the information or evidence you use is relevant to the question. Sift and select evidence that will support your arguments.

First Draft – Check for logic, style, clarity, tone, structure and accuracy. Is the question answered? Try to be critical of your work. Rework your first draft a number of times. Have someone else edit your draft. Read it out aloud to yourself. For additional help consult with Awhi Tauira Student Support Advisors.

Final Draft – Check for spelling, punctuation, grammar, the correct format, references and limits of the topic. Keep a soft and a hard copy for yourself when you hand in the final draft.

INTERPRETING THE QUESTION

1. READ THE QUESTION

This sounds simple, but is very easy to get wrong. The following pieces of advice may help:

Look for any key verbs – e.g. discuss, explain, explore. If you are unsure of the definition of these words ask the lecturer or look them up in a dictionary or online thesaurus.

Look out for the kind of assignment you are asked to do – Are you asked to prepare a portfolio, write an essay, present a power point presentation, or paraphrase information? If in doubt, ask your lecturer.

Break the assignment title down into key concepts or ideas – If the assignment has listed bullet points, use these to help you. Keep it simple. Write the question in words you can understand.

Be precise – If you have a question about globalization, do not just write down everything you know about the topic. What aspect of globalization are you being asked about? Globalization as it affects who? From whose point of view?

2. INTERPRET THE QUESTION

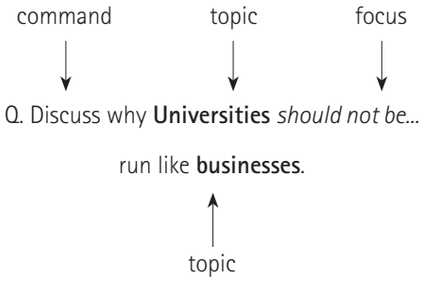
In order to get good grades, you must be able to interpret an essay topic question accurately. When working out what the question really means, there are three things you need to look at:

Command – tells you what you do

Topic – the general area of discussion

Focus – the specific area of discussion

The following question highlights how the three rules can be applied:



Remember: Answer the question. All information included in your assignment must relate to the question being asked.

The **command** word "discuss" means that you are to investigate and present the different aspects of a problem or subject and come to some conclusion.

The **topic** or general area of discussion is:

Universities being run like businesses.

The **focus** or specific area of discussion is whether or not it is OK for universities to be run like businesses.

You can also re-write the question in order to better understand what is being asked.

Q. *Should* universities be run like businesses?

So remember, when writing your essay, you need to answer the essay question directly. Other points to note are:

- Essays involve you constructing a debate around the different arguments in favour of, or not in favor of, a particular issue.
- You have to be able to persuade and convince the lecturer (or the person marking your assignment) of your point of view, while also acknowledging the opposition's arguments, and highlighting its weakness.
- It is always good to be aware of alternative views surrounding an assignment topic and to acknowledge them in your assignment. You do not have to agree with these views but, by mentioning them, you show the marker that you have read widely, you are well informed on the issue, and you are not biased in your position.

WORD COUNT

The word count of your essay will dictate how much space you have on paper to present your argument.

A general rule of thumb when allocating your word count is as follows:

Introduction = 5-10% of the word count

Body of essay = 80-90% of the word count

Conclusion = 5-10% of the word count

Example:

If you were given the following 2000-word essay topic: "*Discuss the History of Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi*" your word count could be allocated as follows:

INTRODUCTION (thesis statement) Introduce the four main points	Number of Words 200
BODY OF ESSAY	
1. Why was Awanuiārangi created?	400
2. What are the aims of Awanuiārangi?	400
3. When did Awanuiārangi begin?	400
4. What is the difference between Awanuiārangi and main stream tertiary institutions?	400
	1600
CONCLUSION Summarise the four main points	200
TOTAL	2000

The same rule of thumb for delegating your word count to the entire essay should also apply to each argumentative paragraph that you use in your essay.

Note: Direct quotations of over forty words do not contribute to the word count. A penalty may be imposed for exceeding the word count by more than ten per cent.

Referenceslist/biblography and Appendices are not included in the word count. You are entitled to 10% +/- the word limit i.e. 2000 word essay means you can have between 1800 - 2200 words.

COMMAND WORDS

When considering an assignment topic, be careful as definitions of command words can sometimes vary, so be sure to check with your lecturer the exact meaning if you are in any doubt. The following is a general list of key words which you will use to interpret an assignment topic/essay.

Ngā whakamārama mō ngā kupu tohu kei roto i ngā whakatuanga

Analyse – *Tātari*
Break down the subject at hand and talk about each point.

Appraise – *Wāriu*
Evaluate, to identify the good points and the bad ones; to assess or weigh up.

Comment – *Whakataki*
Talk about the subject in an organised way.

Compare – *Whakatairite*
Show similarities. Examine qualities or characteristics in order to discover resemblance. The term implies that you are to emphasise similarities, although differences may be mentioned.

Contrast – *Rerekētanga*
Show differences. Dissimilarities or how associated things, events, or problems are not alike should be emphasised.

Criteria – *Whakaritenga*
Standards of measurement or a standard with which something is defined.

Criticise – *Wetewhakaaro*
Express your judgment with respect to the correctness or merit of the factors under consideration. You are expected to present the results of your own analysis and to discuss the limitations and strengths of the plan or work in question.

Define – *Tautuhi*
Tell what this word or phrase means. Supply concise, clear, authoritative meanings. In such statements, details are not required but boundaries and limitations of the definition should be briefly cited. You must keep in mind the class to which a thing belongs and whatever differentiates the particular object from all others in the class.

Demonstrate – *Whakaatu*
Support an opinion with facts, experience, citations, or theories.

Describe – *Whakaatu*
Help the reader understand something, or 'see it' by 'showing'. Recount, characterise, sketch or relate in a narrative form.

Discuss – *Kōrerorero / Wānanga*
Examine, analyse carefully, and present considerations (for and against) regarding the topics involved. Provide a complete and detailed answer.

Evaluate – *Whakamātau (ria) / Arotake*
Make conclusions about the value of something. Present a careful appraisal of the problem, stressing both advantages and limitations. Evaluation implies authoritative and, to a lesser degree, personal appraisal of both contributions and limitations.

Examine – *Whakamātau*
Investigate and analyse in detail the various parts that make up the topic. Present findings with a clear description of the details.

Explain – *Whakamārama*
Talk about the issue and give reasons why it is the way it is. Clarify and interpret the material you present. State the "how" or "why". Reconcile any differences in opinion or experimental results, and, where possible, state causes.

Identify – *Tautohu*
Recognise and describe the required issues, features or qualities.

Illustrate – *Whakaatu*
Explain or clarify your answer to the problem by presenting a figure, picture, diagram, or concrete example.

Interpret – *Whakapākeha*
Translate, exemplify, solve, or comment upon the subject and usually give your judgment or reaction to the problem or topic.

Justify – *Whakamana*
Give strong, compelling reasons or evidence to explain and support an opinion. Prove or show grounds for decisions, opinions, or conclusions in a convincing form.

Outline – *Whakatakoto*
An organised description. Give the main points and essential supplementary materials and present the information in a systematic way.

Relate – *Whakarite*
Integrate or show the relationship between various features, facts, subjects or arguments.

Review – *Arotake*
Provide a critical examination. In an organised sequence, analyse and comment briefly upon the major points of the topic.

Suggest – *Whākina*
Present something as a possibility. Offer your views of the topic or present a sound hypothesis for consideration.

Summarise – *Whakarāpōpoto*
In condensed form, give the main points or facts. All details, illustrations, and elaboration are to be left out.

WRITING

WHAT MAKES A GOOD PARAGRAPH?

The paragraph is the basic unit of any written work. It is used to express one central thought or group of related ideas. Each paragraph in the body of your writing should include the following items:

- Statement of main point
- Exploration or expansion of the main point
- Examples, illustrations or some supporting evidence

THE TOPIC SENTENCE

Generally, each paragraph needs a topic sentence which summarises the controlling idea (one idea only) of the paragraph.

Topic Sentence	=	Statement of the Topic	+	Controlling idea that limits the area of discussion

Example: Driving on the motorway requires skill and alertness at all time

Topic Sentence	=	Driving on the motorway (statement of the topic)	+	requires skill and alertness at all time (controlling idea)

When writing a topic sentence, please note:

- The topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph. It tells the reader what will be discussed.
- A topic sentence is usually, but not always, the first in any paragraph. It may be the last sentence.
- Topic sentences are the most general statements in the paragraph as they do not give specific details – just the main idea.

But some sentences may be too general. For example: *American food is terrible.*
A better way to write this sentence would be: *American food is tasteless and greasy.*

SIGNPOSTS OR TRANSITIONAL WORDS

Connections can be made between sentences and between paragraphs by using signposts to indicate change, comparison, or agreement. This link is called a transition which will introduce the next point or statement you want to introduce in each paragraph.

These signposts tell the reader:

- What is going to be said, what is being said, and what has been said
- How the main ideas support the thesis
- How each group of ideas follows from the one before

Signposts (transitions) make your writing flow more smoothly and make it easier to follow. Your essay should reflect a number of statements (paragraphs) that all link together to support your final conclusion.

The following example is how all the technical requirements of a paragraph can be used to develop one idea.

Example of Signposts

(*Topic Sentence*) **Incorporation** (*topic*) **offers several advantages to business and their owners** (*controlling idea*). For one thing (*signpost*), ownership is easy to transfer. The business is able to maintain a continuous existence even when the original owners are no longer involved. **In addition**, (*signpost*) the stockholders of a corporation are not held responsible for the business's debts (*explanation*). If XYZ Corporation defaults on a $1 million loan, **for example**, (*signpost*) its investors will not be held responsible for paying that liability. Incorporations also enable a business to obtain professional managers with centralised authority and responsibility; (*example*) **therefore**, (*signpost*) the business can be run more efficiently. **Finally**, (*signpost*) incorporation gives a business certain legal rights. **For example**, (*signpost*) it can enter into contracts, own property, and borrowing money.

SENTENCE CONNECTORS AND SENTENCE STARTERS

Introduction

The central theme is ...	... is included	... is identified
Emphasised are ...	... is defined	... is examined
A view on ... range from ... to ...	... is explained	... is analysed
... is explored	... is described	... is discussed
... is briefly outlined	... are presented	... is critiqued

Contrast

However	Yet	That aside,
In contrast	On the other hand	...disputes...
Nevertheless	By comparison	Then again
Nonetheless	Comparatively	All the same
On the contrary	Instead	In any case

Similarity

Likewise ...	Correspondingly ...	Also, ...
Similarly ...	In the same way ...	Complementary to this ...

To add ideas

First, firstly, first of all, in the first place	Besides ...	To elaborate
To begin with ...	In addition ...	Subsequently ...
For one thing ...	Furthermore ...	Another essential point ...
Second, secondly, in the second place	Moreover ...	Finally ...
Third, thirdly, in the third place	Next ...	Last, lastly, last of all

Order of importance

Most importantly ...	Above all ...	Essentially ...
Primarily ...	Most significantly ...	Basically ...

Linking

With respect to	With regard to	Talking of
Regarding	As regards	As far as ... concerned

Conclusion

In brief,	To review,	Hence,
In summary,	In short,	All in all,
To summarise,	To sum up,	In closing,

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

Other points to note for writing a good paragraph are:

- Paragraphs vary in length but are generally between three and ten sentences long
- Each sentence in a paragraph starts with a capital letter and finishes with a full stop
- Do not leave gaps between sentences
- Use clear visual signals so that the reader can see the beginning of a new paragraph – indent if you are handwriting, or leave a gap of one line between paragraphs and line everything up on the left hand margin
- Paragraphs should be arranged in a logical sequence and should also be well linked.

PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism refers to 'using someone else's work or ideas' without proper acknowledgement.

The following is classed as plagiarism:

- Submitting someone else's work and passing it off as your own
- Replicating words or ideas from another source without giving credit to the original creator
- Failing to use a quote in quotation marks
- Incorrectly giving information on the source of information

Use paraphrasing to help you avoid plagiarism.

PARAPHRASING

Paraphrasing is probably the skill you will use the most when writing university assignments. You paraphrase when you use someone's ideas, but put them into your own words. Although you use your own words to paraphrase, you must still acknowledge the source of the information, which is the author. This is achieved by recording the author's last name and the year in which their work was published, e.g. (Jones, 1999).

When paraphrasing, be sure that you are not just rearranging the order or replacing a few words in the original text. Your words should be substantially different from the original version. Further, make sure that the idea you are paraphrasing is linked back to the assignment question.

A PARAPHRASING CHECKLIST

1. Mention the author and year at the beginning, middle, or end of the sentence e.g. *according to (Smith1990), this issue is about ..., This issue, as identified by Smith (1990) focuses on..., This issue is about..., as pointed out by Smith (1990).*
2. Change the sentence order.
3. Consult with a word list for ideas on how to say things differently.
4. Can you expand and elaborate on what the author is saying? Alternatively, can you simplify and contract what they are saying?
5. Include your personal reflections as you paraphrase. For example, *Gibson's (1978) analysis about...*is useful as it takes into account external factors.
6. It is useful to summarize in one sentence the outcomes of research carried out by several authors. For example, based on the ideas of (Johnson1979), it can be concluded that ...
7. After you have paraphrased information from different authors, you may want to explain links between issues raised. At the end of the paragraph, you could write something like ... Based on what these authors have said, a connection can be made between ... As you have already mentioned the authors' names in your paragraph, it is clear who the "authors" refer to.

FIVE STEPS

1. Write down the paragraph/sentence you wish to paraphrase. For example:

   Park, J. (Ed.). (1991). *Ladies a plate*. Auckland University Press (p. 113). **Marriage was a greater influence** on the course of many of the women's lives than choice of job or career, or even family background. **Yet few women talked about choosing to get married** (although choice may be a misnomer) in the same way they talked about career choices. Relationships are generally believed to belong to the realm of emotion, and 'we fell in love' or 'then I got married' suffices. **The decision to marry is not usually something to be analysed or explained, nor is the choice of a particular man**. Indeed, both **getting married** and marrying a particular man **often appeared to be inevitabilities rather than choices**. Women did talk about how they met their future husbands, however.

2. Bold or highlight keywords, nouns or phrases. Note any alternative phrases or synonyms. For example:

   inevitable – unavoidable, just accepted

   analysed – discussed, considered

   choices – options, opting, selection

   influence – impact

   more than others – significantly

3. Identify the author's main point(s):
   Marriage influences life choice more than other factors. Few women talked about the decision to marry. Marriage was not something to be analysed or explained. It was inevitable.

4. Can this be summarised further? For example:
   Marriage was considered inevitable and impacted women's lives significantly. It was not a decision that was analysed.

5. Now try rewriting the author's main point without looking at the original text.

For example:

> Marriage was considered inevitable by many of the women participants. Although use of 'it' impacted on women's lives significantly, they did not consider their decision to marry, or whom they married, to be topics for analysis or discussion (Park, 1991, p. 113).

THIS IS YOUR PARAPHRASED IDEA!

AVOIDING GENDER BIAS

"Biased language can cause your reader to focus on how you say something rather than what you say. If your language is free of bias, it should offend no one. Ideally, no one should even notice that you have made an effort to reduce sexually-biased words and phrases."

Achieving unbiased language, so that readers will concentrate on what you have to say rather than how you say it, is an admirable goal. It is also a necessity. For example, businesses and individuals have been sued because job descriptions used "he" and seemed to exclude women – whether or not the exclusion was intended. Therefore, gender-free language is a requirement of the workplace and the university.

It may be easy to avoid gender-biased nouns by replacing sexist nouns with more neutral ones: 'chairman' with *chair*, 'mailman' with *paper carrier*, and 'congressman' with *senator* or *representative*. But how can you avoid the pronouns *he*, *him*, and *his* when you refer to nouns meant to include both genders?

FIVE WAYS TO REVISE YOUR WRITING

The following five options will enable you to revise your writing so that your use of pronouns is both gender-free and correct.

As you review this list, compare the biased language of the original sentences with the gender-free phrasing of the revisions.

1. Use the plural form for both nouns and pronouns.

Biased Language – Studying the techniques by which a celebrated *writer* achieved *his* success can stimulate any writer faced with similar problems.

Gender-free Language – Studying the techniques by which celebrated *writers* achieved *their* success can stimulate any writer faced with similar problems.

2. Omit the pronoun altogether

Biased Language – Each *doctor* should send one of *his* nurses to the workshop.

Gender-free Language – Each *doctor* should send *a* nurse to the workshop.

3. Use *his or her, he/she*, or *s/he* when you occasionally need to stress the action of an individual. Such references will not be awkward unless they are frequent.

Biased Language – If you must use a technical term *he* may not understand, explain it.

Gender-free Language – If you must use a technical term *they* may not understand, explain it.

4. Vary pronoun choice when you want to give examples emphasising the action of an individual.

Biased Language – The kitchen can serve as a centre for new experiences, an interesting place where important things happen, and where *she* has a chance to learn about the way big-people things are done.

Gender-free Language – The kitchen can serve as a center for new experiences, an interesting place where important things happen, and where *people* have a chance to learn about the way big-people things are done.

5. Switch from the third-person 'he' to the second-person 'you' or a 'your' understood when this shift is appropriate for what you are writing.

Biased Language – Each manager should report his progress to the undersigned by May 1.

Gender-free Language – Each manager should report his or her progress to me by May 1.

PUNCTUATION

Apostrophe Use '

1. To show possession – use an apostrophe after:

- A person's name: John's bag
- The thing to which something belongs:
  Japan's network
- Indefinite pronouns which are used to identify a person to whom something belongs to:
  someone's bag, anybody's network, someone else's essay
- The thing to which something belongs:
  The book's heading
- The 's' of plural nouns: The businesses' output, the companies', three weeks' wages

2. To denote shortened words – shouldn't

Shortened words are not recommended for academic writing.

Colon Use :

1. To introduce a list or series: An essay has five main parts: introduction, main body, conclusion, reference and bibliography
2. To give additional information that highlights or gives extra detail to the statement: Professional development of the workplace has proven effective: this has enhanced the quality within the departments
3. To introduce a quote: The concept of debate has spiritual links: "Wānanga as a verb means 'to debate or deliberate' and the first example to arise in the cosmos is the Wānanga of the gods" (Aranga, 2002, p. 31).
4. To separate the main title from the sub title of a book, article or play: *Kava in blood: A personal and political memoir from the heart of Fiji.*
5. On the outside of quotation marks: "Give me life and give me freedom": these are words of liberation.
6. To indicate the time: 8:30 pm.

Comma Use ,

1. These are used to show a pause in a sentence. They are used in the following circumstances:
2. To separate items in a series: John bought clothes, shoes, trinkets and jewellery.
3. To separate adjectives in a series: A brief, definite, clear, answer was given.
4. Before a coordinating conjunction that combines two independent statements: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so: The essay was hard, but all the students passed.
5. To separate extra material from the main part of the sentence: The cat, although fluffy, is messy.

Dash Use –

Dashes are not recommended for academic writing. They can work in a similar way to a colon, brackets or comma.

Brackets Use ( )

1. Enclose dates, especially when doing referencing: Thomson, P. (1999). *Kava in blood: A personal and political memoir from the heart of Fiji.* Tandem Press.
2. Separate ideas that are inferior to the rest of the sentence: Before going to work, the car (it was second hand) would not start.

Semi Colon Use ;

1. Emphasise a close relationship between two sentences = Susan is going to camp; she is not going fishing.
2. Separate items in a series where commas are also in place.

Quotation Marks Use " "

1. Enclose direct quotations: She asked, "Will you be going?" "Yes," I answered, "I'll look for you in the foyer."
2. Highlight words that are used in an unusual way: The past and future is marked with the fairness promulgated in the articles of 'The Treaty'
3. Enclose titles (these should be underlined) of books, articles, magazines , chapters of books, poems and songs: In the book "The same worlds" are some interesting ideas.

Note: Commas and full stops go on the inside of the quotation and colons and semi colons go on the outside.

Square Bracket Use [ ]

Where words are cited in context use the [ ] to show that the spelling is not an error on your part: The Māori [sic] are a unique race.

EDITING

The secret to good editing is time. Editing (and proofing) take up a lot of time, because these are the stages when you transform your rough draft from a collection of loosely-arranged parts into a strong, cohesive piece of work.

When editing an assignment:

- You will need time to read each draft of your assignment critically, to think about it and to decide on how to improve it. Content is the thing to work on. Then, look more in detail at your writing.
- Leave a substantial break between your first draft and coming back to edit your work
- You need to edit at least twice – once for structure, and once for expression. Ideally, edit several times, looking for something specific each time. Editing does not mean re-writing. Add to what you have written, rather than being tempted to start again.

EDITING FOR STRUCTURE

Review Content

1. Does your draft follow your plan?
2. Is everything relevant to the topic?
3. Check that your work complies with the marking criteria and question
4. Is the structure of your work logical? Is it in the right order?
5. Write a one-sentence summary of each paragraph, so you can see what the point of each one is. This will tell you what you have actually said, rather than what you intend to say.
6. Is every quote correctly referenced in the text and in your reference list and bibliography?

WORD LIMIT

Assignments usually state the number of words required for an essay answer. Take note of this. You may be allowed to go over or under the word limit by ten per cent, but not more. If you do, the marker may penalise you, so always check this point with your lecturer. If you are well under the word limit, you probably have not done justice to the topic or research. Block quotes of more than forty words do not contribute to the word count.

Paragraph Checklist

Paragraphs are an important part of the structure of your writing as they are the framework on which your ideas are built. If you can write a good paragraph you are on the way to writing a well-structured essay. Use the following checklist, to assess their success:

Are your ideas in a logical order?

Jot down a two or three word summary of each of your paragraphs in the margin. This will help you to determine if your material is presented in a logical order. If your summary for several paragraphs is similar, it is likely that you are repeating ideas or information.

Is the connection between each section clear?

Paragraphs dealing with separate aspects of a main topic should be connected so that they do not look like completely independent pieces of writing. Each should be linked with the paragraph before and after, so that there is a clearly defined line of argument running through the entire piece of writing. It should also be clear to your reader how each point relates to the topic or question you are answering.

Linking can be achieved in several ways:

- Use a "link" word to indicate a connection with the previous paragraph. e.g. consequently
- Repeat some words or phrases from the last few lines of the preceding paragraph. For example, from the end of a paragraph: ... *something unique in his style and technique that appealed to British audiences. At the beginning of next paragraph: British audiences were first introduced to Delaroche's work at the annual exhibition of Ancient Masters' in 1938 ...*
- Carry on an idea from the end of one paragraph into the opening lines of the next paragraph. For example, from the end of a paragraph: *leading to a serious level of social dissatisfaction and instability within the community*, to the beginning of next paragraph:
  The first reforms after the 1978 uprising generated imbalances ...

Does each paragraph have one idea and is it expressed clearly in a topic sentence?
A good topic sentence states both the topic and the central idea of the paragraph. It is neither too general nor too specific; it states the main idea clearly, but does not give the specific details. The topic sentence is usually, but not always, the first sentence in the paragraph. The topic sentence acts as a signpost to your reader, letting him/her know the direction the essay is now taking. For example: *As grave goods commonly contain symbols of status and wealth, burials are one of the most important sources of discerning social rank.*

Are all sentences in the paragraph relevant to the main idea?
Check that all of your sentences support the topic sentence and are relevant to the development of your point. Cut out any sentences which may be relevant to the general topic, but not strictly relevant to the idea you are developing.

Is there variety in the types of paragraph used?
Not all topic sentences have equal need for development. Varying the length of your paragraphs adds interest to your writing. Is the length of the paragraph consistent with the relative importance of the idea? The paragraph is a unit of ideas, not a unit of length. The relative length of a paragraph is determined by the complexity and importance of the paragraph's main point.

However, a series of short paragraphs may give the impression that you have not adequately developed or substantiated the topic. Short paragraphs are best used to announce a change of subject or approach, or to explain how the following part of the essay is organized. While there is no strict answer to this question, most paragraphs should be between 6 – 12 sentences long (100 – 200 words).

Have you used examples in your paragraph?
Is your discussion of theory and concepts balanced by the use of examples? It is good practice to demonstrate that you understand theoretical principles by linking them to examples or practical applications.

EDITING FOR EXPRESSION

Are the sentences complete; do they make complete sense?
It can be helpful to get someone else to read your work. Reading it aloud to yourself can also help to identify passages which are not well written. Try also cutting and pasting your writing into the Google translator to check the flow of your essay.

Is there variety in your sentence construction?
A variety of sentences adds interest to your work. Avoid using too many long, complex sentences. It is better to write simply and clearly. Use the active rather than the passive voice. For example, *this paper will argue* ...rather than *it will be argued that*...

Are your pronouns straying too far from the noun they are replacing?
Check that every time you use a personal or relative pronoun (it is, they, them, this or that) in your work that it is clear to what they refer.

Mind your punctuation.
Keep in mind that punctuation provides the 'intonation' of writing. It also indicates separate ideas in a sentence.

Check your spelling.
Do not rely totally on a computer spell check; computers do not help with similarly spelled words in different contexts.

Check your referencing.
Have you been careful to paraphrase and acknowledge the ideas of other authors in your work? Are your citations appropriate? Adhere to departmental guidelines as to how references should be presented.

EDITING FOR STYLE

What you say should not be obscured by how you say it. Academic prose should not be pompous and difficult to read. Some people mistakenly believe they should use complicated language – in fact you use the most appropriate word, which may not necessarily be the longest. Do not use three words if you can say it in one word. It is worth remembering that simplicity in writing is generally a sign of clarity of thought. Good academic prose is clear, concise, unambiguous and accurate.

Unless you are directed otherwise, it should also be as objective as possible, avoiding slang and emotionally-charged words. Check your vocabulary choice for accuracy and appropriateness, and avoid making generalisations.

Academic writing is quite formal and your writing should reflect the style of the discourse adopted in your subject area. For example, the writing style common in psychology is objective, the passive voice is used and it is inappropriate to use personal pronouns. However the writing style in Art History is more subjective and it is appropriate to use personal pronouns or to incorporate personal reflections in your work.

Style Checks

1. Is your writing precise and accurate? Cut out repetition or waffle.
2. Does your introduction state the purpose of the assignment clearly? Does it "hook" the reader in?
3. Are the main points clear and easy to follow? Try reading the draft aloud to someone else and see if they can follow your essay easily.
4. Does your writing flow? Is the language and tone consistent and appropriate?
5. Have you used your own words?
6. Is the conclusion an effective summary of the main line of argument? Does it leave the reader with a strong, memorable final statement?

PROOFING

Proofing is the final polish stage. It should only take about 5% of the time you spend on your assignment, but it is still important. If your work contains spelling, punctuation or grammatical errors, the marker will think you are careless. First impressions count, so make sure your assignment is and looks thorough and professional.

Proofing is more than a quick read-through. It requires:

- Intense concentration
- Attention to detail
- The ability to remain focused
- Good knowledge of spelling, punctuation and grammar

Before you proofread, prepare yourself by making notes of your own weakness in language use. Note words you frequently misspell, bad habits like sprinkling commas around instead of full stops, and any points of grammar you are unsure of such as writing "affect" when you mean "effect".

A Step-By-Step Approach to Proofing

1. Read your work slowly, once, to get a feel for the sense of it.
2. Read the assignment silently again, ignoring the sense and looking carefully at spelling, punctuation and grammar. Correct any errors.
3. Read it again, this time aloud. This is a good way to pick up areas where your writing is clumsy or repetitious. Smooth out any rough patches.
4. Ask someone else to read your work aloud to you.

If the reader hesitates or stumbles, your writing may be awkward or not make sense. Rework it until another person can read it aloud confidently and with reasonable understanding.

FORMATTING

Consider the way your assignment is presented. You will be judged on the standard of your work. While this is mainly the quality of the content, general appearance is important too. Remember, the first impression the reader gets of your work is visual and first impressions can be very influential. Care taken in presentation indicates a serious approach and gives your work credibility.

TEXT FORMAT

- Space once after a comma, colon, semi-colon, space single after a fullstop
- Space once after the full stop which follow the initials of an author's name
- A hyphen is a single dash (i.e. "-"). There should be no space before or after the hyphen
- Do not break up a word with a hyphen (-) at the end of a line. Place the word at the beginning of the next line. If you are using a word processor, ensure that the hyphenation function has been turned "off".
- Texts in Māori must include macrons
- Type numerals under 10 (1-9) as words. For example, one - nine
- Do not begin a sentence with a numeral. For example, Three people were present

PAGE FORMAT

(Note: an already formatted assignment template can be found on the Awhi Tauira eWānanga page)

- Use black type: it is expected that all assignments will be word-processed or typed. This means they will be clear and easy to read and mark. You will need permission from your lecturer if you are not able to produce your assignments in this way.
- Font options include: Times New Roman 12-point, Arial 11-point, Georgia 11-point, and Lucida Sans Unicode 10-point
- Margins - use a 2.54 cm margin on all sides of the page.
- Line up the left hand of your text (left justified). The right margin should appear "ragged" Indent the first line of every paragraph to 1.27cm.
- Use double line spacing for the entire document. Note: This includes the reference list.
- Use plain white A4 paper and print only on one side of the page.
- Number each page at the bottom centre.
- Please note that no marks will be given for colourful decorations or attractive borders unless the lecturer specifically asks for them.
- Written assessments can be submitted in te reo Māori.
- Blank space inserted above and below direct quotations of more than forty words – see example below.

We all begin life as motivated learners, not as passive beings. Children learn by interacting and experimenting. They use play to internalise the meaning of words and experience.

> But year by year their dynamic learning erodes in passive classrooms not organized around their cultural background, conditions or interest. Their curiosity and social instincts decline, until many become non-participants. It is not the fault of students if their learning habits wither inside the passive syllabus dominant in education (Smith, 1992, p. 17).

How in New Zealand did we end up with a two-tier system? We need to dip back into history starting with the Education Act of 1867.

FINAL PRESENTATION FORMAT

(Note: an already formatted assignment template can be found on the Awhi Tauira eWānanga page)

1. The Official Cover Sheet – Your name, student ID, the course number, course title, assignment title, lecturer's name and the due date should be on an Awanuiārangi cover sheet and attached to the front of your assignment.
2. Title Page – Your name, course code and course title, assignment number, lecturer's name and due date of the assignment should appear in a header at the upper right of the page. The assigned question should be written in bold and must be word for word as it appears in your course outline. Centre the assignment question in the middle of the page.
3. Contents Page (if applicable)
4. Essay Structure should include:

- Introduction
- Body of text
- Conclusion
- A reference list (centre the heading 'References' at the top of the page.)
- Bibliography list of background reading if requested.
- Appendices / Notes / Tables / Figures /Statistics (if applicable)

Note – You should then make an additional hard copy (paper copy) of the final version of your assignment. Do not rely solely on the computer hard drive or data memory sticks. In respect of students work, there is a chance that an assignment may be misplaced or lost, resulting in no marks regardless of who is responsible for the loss. In the case of handwritten work, photocopy the full assignment before submitting.

FINAL CHECK LIST

1. Official cover sheet
2. Title page
3. Karakia, mihi, pepeha (if applicable)
4. Contents (if applicable)
5. Assignment – Introduction
   – Body of text
   – Conclusion
6. Reference list (on a separate page) – only material used in the body of the text
7. Bibliography (on a separate page) – background reading
8. Glossary (if applicable)
9. Appendices (if applicable)
10. Notes (if applicable)
11. Tables (if applicable)
12. Figures (if applicable)

REFERENCING

Part of the process of completing assignments requires that you utilise other people's ideas, writings, and work within your assignments. It is crucial that you acknowledge all sources of information. If this is not done, you could present the work of someone else as your own, therefore opening yourself to the act of plagiarism. Plagiarism is a serious form of academic dishonesty.

To prevent plagiarism, you must acknowledge anything that comes from another source.

The academic method for acknowledging sources of information is referencing. Referencing is the method for:

- Acknowledging sources of information
- Meeting an academic requirement
- Supporting your views with concrete evidence
- Adding to academic credibility
- Preventing plagiarism

There are different types of referencing, these include:

- In-text Referencing
- Reference Lists
- Bibliographies

There are various formatting styles for referencing such as APA, Harvard, and MLA. Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi follow the American Psychological Association's (APA) Manual, Seventh Edition.

IN-TEXT CITATIONS

Any sources that you refer to within the body of your assignment must be acknowledged both in-text (when you are referring to other people's work) and in your reference list. In-text citations includes paraphrasing and direct quotes. In-text citations support your discussion, are a record of where you found the information and acknowledge other writers' data, ideas and theories.

PARAPHRASING

Paraphrasing is using your own words to describe the ideas of others. All paraphrases require an author and year of publication. You could paraphrase a paragraph or sentence. Here is an example of paraphrasing a sentence.
Original: When analysing Indigenous research there has been a significant rise in both the quantity and quality.
Paraphrase: There has been an upsurge in Indigenous research (Smith, 2012).

DIRECT QUOTES

A direct quote is a passage from an original text which you are including in your assignment and must be the exact words. All quotes require: an author, year of publication and page number.
When analysing Indigenous research there "has been a significant rise in both the quantity and quality" (Smith, 2012, p. 249).

IN-TEXT CITATION FORMATS

In-text citations can be presented in two different formats, either as a parenthetical citation or a narrative citation.

PARENTHETICAL CITATION

Parenthetical is another work for brackets, therefore give the authors surname and the year of publication in brackets. In a parenthetical citation the emphasis is on your discussion.
For example: There has been an upsurge in Indigenous research (Smith, 2012).

NARRATIVE CITATION

In a narrative citation the authors surname is weaved into the sentence and the year of publication appears in brackets immediately after. A narrative citation emphasises the author.
For example:
According to Smith (2012) there has been an upsurge in Indigenous research.

CITATIONS FROM SECONDARY SOURCES

Used when you need to cite an author who was mentioned in another author's work. For example:

Smith and Nikora (2003, as cited in Gardner & Jones, 2008, p. 40) argue that the Mātaatua Canoe landed in Ngā Puhi originally.

Or

Research indicates that there is more than one story relating to the landing of the Mātaatua Canoe (Smith & Nikora, 2003, as cited in Gardner & Jones, 2008, p. 40).

This ensures that you are referencing the source correctly. However, if possible, find the original source, in this case Gardner & Jones (2008), and reference that source directly.

MULTIPLE AUTHORS

When quoting from publications with one to twenty authors – list all authors in the reference page. If there are more authors – list the first TWENTY authors followed by an ellipsis and then the last author in the reference citation for example

Miller, T. C., Brown, M. J., Wilson, G. L., Evans, B. B., Kelly, R. S., Turner, S. T., Lewis, F., Lee, L. H., Cox, G., Harris, H. L., Martin, P., Gonzalez, W. L., Hughes, W., Carter, D., Campbell, C., Baker, A. B., Flores, T., Gray, W. E., Green, G., ... Nelson, T. P. (2018).

To reference a multi-author source:
Miller et al. (2018) found . . .

or (Miller et al., 2018)

Two authors:
(Dancey & Reidy, 2004). or Dancey and Reidy (2004) said...

CITING FROM THE INTERNET

Be aware that citing material can be difficult because citation information can be difficult to locate. Include the same elements as for a book except exclude the publication information and add a retrieval statement. Use retrieval dates **only** when sources are likely to change.

DIRECT QUOTING

A quotation is a passage from an original text which you are including in your assignment. All quotes require: an author, year of publication and page number. The quote must be exact.

BRIEF QUOTATIONS

Quotations of fewer than 40 words should be incorporated into the text of the document and enclosed by double quotation marks. A page reference must be supplied at the end of the sentence. The page reference is in brackets and is preceded by the abbreviation "p."
For example: It was said that "Goldie took the trouble to learn the Māori language and speak it fluently" however, there was hardly any Māori language material found among his papers (Blackley, 1997, p. 55).

LONGER QUOTATIONS

- Quotations of 40 words or more should be presented in block quote form. The block quote is indented 5 spaces from the left margin and the text is not enclosed within quotation marks. Line spacing follows the same format as the rest of the assignment.
  For example:

> To the New Zealand Māori, the art of moko was not only for chiefs and ariki of each tribal area. Women of rank in New Zealand were tattooed on their lips, and a special tanga ngutu was marked by ceremonial procedure and feasts. There were also some women who, because of genealogical connections, outranked any male of their generation. These women were usually regarded as men, with the rights and privileges of male chiefs, and their position was often marked by part of a male moko (Simmons, 1986, p. 127).

- If you want to leave out words from the original quote you must use three dots (the ellipsis) to show you have.
  Note: use one space before and after the ellipsis.
  For example:
  - Original quote: "The cow jumped over the moon and then the spoon ran after the cat."
  - Use of ellipsis: "The cow jumped over the moon . . . the spoon ran after the cat."
- If you are adding material to a quote use square brackets [ ]. This is done to make sure your quote makes sense within your text.
- When using a quote, introduce it with discussion and follow a quote with your own comment to justify its significance to your argument.
- Make sure your quote is relevant to your discussion.

REFERENCE LISTS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

A reference list contains all the references cited in the assignment.
Points to note are:

- Use double line spacing, within and between references
- The reference list should appear after the conclusion of the paper, and before the appendices
- The reference list must begin on a new page
- The reference list precedes the bibliography
- All references within your assignment must appear in the reference list, and all references must be cited in the text. Personal communications, which other scholars cannot access, do not appear in the reference list.
- It is not required to use "Retrieved from" before a DOI or URL
- Where an item has no author, it is cited by its title and ordered in the reference list or bibliography, in sequence, by the first significant word of the title
- The reference and bibliography list is arranged in **strict alphabetical order** by author's surname or title if no author.
- Author's surnames are followed by their initials. The reference list entry must list all authors and their initials.
- If the reference list contains two or more studies authored by the same individual(s), the earlier study precedes the later
- If the same author has produced more than one study within the same year, then 'a','b' etc is added after the year, for example Smith, J. (2000a) ... and Smith, J. (2000b).
- The second and following lines of the reference should be indented five to seven spaces from the left hand margin, to highlight the alphabetical order.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCING

BOOKS

Bibliographical details are arranged in the sequence:

Author/editor(s)
Year of publication
Title
Edition (if not the first edition)
Volume number
Publisher
(Not all of these details will necessarily be applicable)

PUBLICATION INFORMATION

The "Place of Publication: Country of Publication" fields are no longer required. Do not include words like Publishers, Co., Ltd., or Inc. **However, keep words like Books or Press.**
If there are multiple publishers list them all and separated using a semi-colon.

Example

Liu, J. H. (2005). History and identity: A system of checks and balances for Aotearoa/New Zealand. In J. H. Liu, T. McCreanor, T. McIntosh & T. Teaiwa (Eds.), *New Zealand identities: Departures and destinations* (pp. 69–87). Victoria University Press.

In-text citation (Liu, 2005, p. 10).

One Author

Jennings, F. (1984). *The covenant chain of confederation of Indian tribes with English colonies: The ambiguous Iroquouis empire.* W. W. Norton.

In-text citation (Jennings, 1984, p. 10).

Thomson, P. (1999). *Kava in the blood: A personal and political memoir from the heart of Fiji.* Tandem Press.

In-text citation (Thomson, 1999, p. 41).

Book by three or more Authors

Books and articles with three or more authors.

Momona, M., Tuna, T., Inu, R., & Paraowa, A. (1999). *Te hii ika* (2nd ed.). Grossman.

In-text citation

(Momona, et al., 1999, p. 100).

Multiple Authors note

Surnames and initials for up to 20 authors (instead of 7) should be provided in the reference list.

In-text citation used

Miller, T. C., Brown, M. J., Wilson, G. L., Evans, B. B., Kelly, R. S., Turner, S. T., Lewis, F., Lee, L. H., Cox, G., Harris, H. L., Martin, P., Gonzalez, W. L., Hughes, W., Carter, D., Campbell, C., Baker, A. B., Flores, T., Gray, W. E., Green, G., ... Nelson, T. P. (2018).

First and subsequent times in-text citation used

(Miller et al., 2018, p. 324).

No Author

When there is no author or editor, list the book by title first.

Medical and health encyclopedia. (1985). Good Books.

In-text citation (Good Books, 1985, p. 101).

Edited Book

Write the editor/s name/s (followed by the abbreviation Ed., or Eds. in brackets).

Winiata, M., & Fraenkel, M. (Eds.). (1967). *The changing role of the leader in Māori society: A study in social change and race relations.* Blackwood & Janet Paul.

In-text citation (Winiata & Fraenkel, 1967, p. 30).

Chapter or Selection in an Edited Book:

This type of entry has five parts:

1. the author of the selection;
2. the year in brackets;
3. the title of the selection;
4. identification of the edited volume, beginning with the word In, the name of the editor, and the abbreviation Ed. (or Eds.) followed by the book's title and the page numbers of the selection in brackets; and
5. the book's publication information.

Raureti, M. (1992). The origins of the Ratana movement. In M. King (Ed.), *Te ao hurihuri: Aspects of Māoritanga* (pp. 144—161). Reed.

In-text citation (Raureti, 1992, p. 9).

Book by a Corporate Author or Institution:

Te Puni Kokiri. (1994). *Ma te Māori e puri te maimoatanga Māori: Managed care by Māori.* Te Puni Kokiri.

In-text citation (Te Puni Kokiri, 1994, p. 24).

JOURNAL ARTICLES

Bibliographical details are arranged in the sequence that follows:

Author of journal article
Year of publication
Article title
Title of journal
Volume of journal
Issue number of journal
Page numbers on which the article appears

Write out the full name of the journal. Capitalise all words except prepositions and articles that do not begin the title or follow a colon. Italicise both the periodical title and the volume number.

One Author:

Hargreaves, R. P. (1963). Changing Māori agriculture in pre-Waitangi New Zealand. *Journal of the Polynesian Society, 72*(2), 101—117.

In-text citation (Hargreaves, 1963, p.102).

No Author:

Anorexia nervosa. (1969). *British Medical Journal, 1*, 529—530.
Note: Article title comes first.

In-text citation (Anorexia nervosa, 1969, p. 530).

Newspaper Article:

Melville, K. (2002, March 8). Wānanga expansion fuels Manor Inn deal. *Whakatāne Beacon*, p. 1.

In-text citation (Melville, 2002, p. 1).

Magazine Article:

Revington, M. (2002, March 16-22). True colours. *New Zealand Listener*, pp. 26—27.

In-text citation (Revington, 2002, p. 22).

THESES AND DISSERTATIONS

Print Version

Jones, L. J. (2011). *I am Pākehā: An exploration of Pākehā identity in an ethnically determined education environment.* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi.

In-text citation (Jones, 2011, p. 100).

Electronic version

Jones, C. D. (2007). *Rocks can turn to sand and be washed away but words last forever: A policy recommendation for New Zealand's vilification legislation.* [Master's thesis, University of Waikato]. Research Commons Waikato University. http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10289/2350/thesis.pdf?sequence=1

In-text citation (Jones, 2007).

ELECTRONIC BOOKS

With no **DOI (Digital Object Identifier)**

Jackson, S. T. (2005). *Exploring identity in Aotearoa.* Ebrary database.

Note: If you are submitting work to a publisher and there is no **DOI** you are required to give the URL of the Ebook's homepage (eg. http://www.ebrary.com/corp/).

In-text citation (Jackson, 2005).

With **DOI (Digital Object Identifier)**

Jackson, L., Beardman, S., & Cunningham, J. (2011). *Exploring sport in New Zealand.* http:// doi:11.1118/CB08876587658654

In-text citation (Jackson et al., 2011). Or Jackson et al. (2011) states....

Music Recording – a song in an album

Howard Morrison Quartet. (1975). Hoki mai. On *Māori songs.* Sony Records.

In-text citation (Howard Morrison Quartet, 1975, track 5).

Note: Include side and band or track numbers

PODCAST

Dingman, S. (Producer). (2010, January 18). *On the scene in Haiti* [Audio podcast]. New Zealand National Radio.

http://www.nationalradio/post.com

TELEVISION SERIES

Papa, P. (2016 - present). Ōpaki [TV series]. Māori Television.

In-text citation (Papa, 2016) or Papa (2016) states...

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Personal communication includes letters, memos, lecture notes, conversations, electronic mail, or private interviews that you conducted with another person. An entry is not added to your reference list because the information, text messages, online chats, is not recoverable, but an in-text citation is still required. See example below:

In-text citation (W. Nikora, personal communication, 19 January, 2008).

TRADITIONAL KNOWLEDGE OR ORAL TRADITIONS

For information that has not been recorded, provide readers with detail to describe the content and its context regarding the origin of the information:

Full name
Nation of specific Indigenous group
Location
Other relevant details
followed by the words "personal communication"
Date of communication

In-text citation

We spoke with a local Rangatira, Te Kei Merito (Māori, Ngāti Pūkeko, Poroporo, Aotearoa, personal communication, November 2017) about the traditional understandings of Ngāti Rangataua. He described...

Note: It is imperative the person agrees to their name appearing in your paper and confirms the mātauranga you presented is both accurate and appropriate.

An entry is not required in your reference list because the information is not retrievable.

FILM OR VIDEO

You will need to provide the names of principle contributors, with their function in round brackets; indicate the medium in square brackets after the title; and write the location and name of the distributor. The title of the item is italicised and followed by [Motion picture] for a film or hard copy video, and [video file] for an online video.

Young, T. (Director), & McClory, K. (Producer). (1965). *Thunderball.* [Motion picture]. Warner Home Video.

Jackson, P. (Director). (2001). *The lord of the rings: The fellowship of the ring* [Film; four-disc special extended ed. on DVD WingNut Films; The Saul Zaentz Company.

In-text citation (Jackson, 2001) or Jackson (2001) ...

YOU TUBE OR OTHER STREAMING VIDEO

The person of group who uploaded the video is credited as the author for retrievability, even if they did not create the work.

SunFM 106.5. (2013, March 19). *Te Manuka Tutahi opening* [Video]. You Tube. http//youtube.com/watch?v=EkfBPiEkiek

In-text citation (SunFM 106.5, 2013).

WEBPAGES AND WEBSITES

The variety of material available on the Web, and the variety of ways in which it is structured and presented, can present challenges for creating useable and useful references. Several types of works can be retrieved online, this includes books, articles, reports and journals. To cite these examples use the relevant reference category where possible. For example to cite a report from a government website follow the report category conventions. If the type of work does not fall into the reference categories then cite using the following three guidelines:

1. The core principle of citing electronic sources is to follow the rules for print sources and to include enough information to allow the reader to find the cited item if it still exists.
2. Direct readers as closely as possible to the information being cited; whenever possible, reference specific documents rather than home or menu pages.
3. Provide addresses that work.
4. It is no longer required to included the retrieval date unless web content is likely to change over time.
5. Documents available via the Internet include articles from periodicals (for example, newspaper, newsletter, or journal); they may stand on their own (for example, research paper, government report, online book or brochure); or they may have a quintessentially web-based format (for example, web page, newsgroup). At a minimum, a reference of an Internet source should provide a document title or description, a date (either the date of publication or update or the date of retrieval), and an address (in Internet terms, a uniform resource locator, or URL). Whenever possible, identify the authors of a document.

Internet Article based on a Print Source

Frideres, J. S. (1996). The Royal Commission on Aboriginal peoples: The route to self government? [Electronic version]. *Canadian Journal of Native Studies, 16*(2), http://www3.brandonu.ca/cjns/16.2/frideres.pdf

World Wide Web Homepage

Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. (2001). http://www.wananga.ac.nz/

World Wide Web Page

Marieb. E. (2000). *Essentials of human anatomy and physiology: AWL companion web site.* http:/occ.00awlonline.com/bookbindpubbooks/marieb-00essentials/

World Wide Web (no author)

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

Educating America for the 21st century: Developing a strategic plan for educational leadership for Columbia University - 1993-2000 (Initial workshop draft. (1994). http://www.ilt.columbia.edu/CONF/EdPlan.html

World Wide Web (no publication date)

An early fragment from Central Nepal. (n.d.). http://www.ingress.com/~astanart/pritker/pritzker/html

Online Discussion

Davidson, L. (2008, June 10). Jumping ahead [Online forum comment]. http://groups.google.com/education/future

In-text citation (Davidson, 2008).

NOTE: DO NOT ITALICISE TITLES OF UNPUBLISHED WORKS.

SOCIAL MEDIA

Facebook post

Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi. (2019, November 21). Are you interested in a military and historical inquest of the 28th Māori Battalion in Monte Cassino? He Rau Aroha. Facebook.

https://www.facebook.com/366593136805670posts/1710682015730102/

In-text citation (Te Whare Wānanga o Awanuiārangi, 2019).

Facebook page

Te Papa. (n.d.). Home [Facebook page]. Facebook. Retrieved January 16, 2020, from https://www.facebook.com/TePapa/

In-text citation (Te Papa, n.d.).

Blog Post

Note: Use the screen name if you do not know the poster's real name.

Thrupp, Hattie, Crooks & Flockton. (2009, November 23). Open letter to the Minister of Education, Hon. Anne Tolley: Warning about the new National Standards system [Blog message].

http://www.natinalstandards.org.nz/profiles/blogs/academic-join-the-fray

In-text citation (Thrupp et al., 2009) or Thrupp et al. (2009) describes...

Images and Figures

Figures include drawings, graphs, photographs and maps that cannot be printed by traditional typing. When using images ensure maximum clarity. The source must be acknowledged in full *beneath* the figure as a figure caption (*"Figure 1 ..."*).

Tables

Tables are a useful addition to academic writing especially in material of a technical nature. Readers can be directed to a table using numerals to respond to the table ("See Table 1").

Further examples of referencing:

For additional referencing examples refer to: http://ewa.wananga.ac.nz, All courses, Awhi Tauira Student Support, APA 7th Edition Book.

REFERENCE LIST VS BIBLIOGRAPHY

A **reference list** refers to a list of sources that have been referred to directly in your assignment/document. Any source that you used or quoted from within your work will appear in the reference list.

A **bibliography** refers to a list of all sources used to compile your assignment/document. Within a bibliography, even sources that you used, but did not physically appear in your assignment/document, will be seen in the bibliography. A bibliography gives recognition for all sources you used to formulate your ideas and opinions within your assignment/document. Reference lists and bibliographies are formatted exactly the same, the only difference being the information contained within them.

Acknowledgement

The Student Study Guidelines is based on contributions from all staff. Material is updated each year by Awhi Tauira Student Support. Please email any suggested updates/amendments to:

Awhi Tauira Student Support. awhitauira@wananga.ac.nz

NOTES

NOTES

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