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**ESSAY & REPORT WRITING**

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## **EASY START**

**This is a comprehensive guide, and will be hard to absorb at once. Here's an approach which will make it easier:**

- **Download a copy of the essay template from the Faculty web site and type straight into it: this will provide most of the correct formatting.**
- **Refer to sections 2.1 to 2.4 of this guide to structure your writing.**
- **Refer to the sample notes and bibliography at the end of this guide as models for your referencing.**
- **Deal with any remaining problems by going back to the relevant section of the guide.**
- **Finally, check the following:**

**does the essay answer the question?**

**is it clear and logical, arguing from a synopsis at the beginning to a conclusion at the end?**

**does it treat the topic critically and intelligently?**

**does it use an appropriate range of source material?**

**does it properly acknowledge these sources (especially concepts, facts, quotations and illustrations)?**

**is it entirely your own original work?**

## **O. INTRODUCTION**

Writing is about communicating. You may be writing an essay for study purposes, a report presenting the findings of an investigation undertaken as part of your work, or a major research thesis. Whichever is the case, writing well and clearly is essential, and you will find it even more so in your career after you have completed your studies.

The style or *way* in which you write is critically important in conveying your thoughts and information to the reader. There is no idea so interesting, no data so important, and no research so revolutionary, that it will shine through obscure and muddled expression. Your writing style is largely a personal matter, but you will be well advised to consider the guidelines offered here if you want to avoid boring, irritating or confusing your readers.

The word 'style' is used in another sense by editors and publishers, to describe the precise conventions for citing sources, setting out text &c. Whilst these may in themselves seem trivial, they are important whenever your work is to be published, used in a specification, put into legal form, quoted or otherwise used in the real world. Although there is huge variation in prescribed styles, even within this university, we here describe conventions which are clear and sensible, and will be readily understood by your readers. Once you have mastered these you will find it easy to conform to other styles when called upon to do so.

## **1. AIMS**

### **1.1 Purpose of essays**

The purpose of writing essays and reports is:

- to develop familiarity with source material
- to become accustomed to selecting and synthesising the parts of this material which are of relevance to a specific topic or question
- to analyse and criticise this material in a creative and original way
- to support this analysis with reasoned argument and hard evidence
- to place this whole process upon paper in a way which enables the reader to readily understand, assess and make use of it.

### **1.2 Source material**

The writer must become familiar with the relevant source material. Where the lecturer has indicated certain books to be studied, these should of course be used, but this should never prevent other material being referred to if the theme being developed seems to require it. Where no reading list has been given, the

onus is on the writer not only to locate adequate source material, but to make sure that no source of basic importance is omitted. Make use of library catalogues and other finding aids, including bibliographies in the works you first consult.

### **1.3 Clarity and precision**

The major requirement is that the essay should give a clear and precise account of the theme being developed. The principles set out in Section 2, Structure, should assist in achieving this.

### **1.4 Clear thinking and analysis**

The essay must demonstrate the author's capacity for clear thinking and for critical analysis of the source material. No essay should be merely a pastiche or a précis of the thoughts of other writers. It is also important not to confuse it by the use of jargon.

### **1.5 Essay plan**

Essay topics are often broad formulations. This does not mean that your essay should be broad and general. The topics are purposefully general so that you can define a specific argument in response to the essay topic. Many different arguments will be possible for a given topic. It is up to you to define a position or point of view and to develop an argument to support that position. This is where your own critical thinking and originality come into play. As you plan and prepare to write the essay, think about what your argument is going to be.

When you have read the relevant material and taken notes on it, you can begin to plan the essay by creating some kind of outline for it. This stage of the process involves a lot of thinking, reflection and organisation of your notes. Nobody starts this process knowing exactly what to say in the essay. Like all creative endeavours, it takes effort, experimentation and daring. Here are some activities that may help to get your intellectual imagination going.

- Reconsider the topic. Now that you have read your materials, consider what themes or aspects of the material would be required in a good response.

- Go through your notes and highlight sections that seem important or interesting. Try to establish connections between the different works and ideas you have been reading.
- Brainstorm by creating a mind map. Get a blank piece of paper and write in the middle of it a term or concept that is central to your topic. Then write around that central term anything that may be relevant or connected to it some way. This gives you a visual and fluid way of getting ideas out and thinking about the connections between them.

When you have reflected on the material and developed some organisation for the ideas and themes, you can write an outline or plan for the essay. The outline is a hierarchical way of laying out the themes of the essay. You should use the outline to set out a provisional thesis for the essay (this may evolve as you write), distinguish several themes or points to support that thesis and organize the primary and secondary sources according to these themes. An outline that gives an overview and a structure for your essay will make it much easier for you to write with direction and purpose.

## **1.6 Documentation**

No essay can be properly assessed, nor can it be of any use for reference by other people, unless it is properly documented. The reader must be able to refer back to the same source material for the origin of any information, or of any important concept derived from another author. The use of footnotes and bibliographies will be discussed below.

## **2. STRUCTURE & EXPRESSION**

### **2.1 Topic.**

The essay must begin with a statement of the topic.

### **2.2 Synopsis**

The opening paragraph should be a synopsis of what is to follow. This is not a précis in which all the major points are compressed into one paragraph, but an opening statement of the way in which the theme will be developed, so that the

reader does not have to plunge into it blindly. The most important feature of the introduction is that it tells the reader what you are going to say in the essay. What is the main idea that you want to convey? This should be the central focus of your introduction. Many writers compose the introduction last, when they really know what the main idea is. It is always a good idea at least to revisit the introduction after you have finished the essay because your ideas often develop and change over the course of writing, and you may have to realign your introduction to match the essay after it has been written. For example:

Architectural historians in the nineteenth century commonly adopted Choisy's view<sup>1</sup> that the Egyptians had a highly developed sense of mass, but no feeling for volume. A closer look at temple architecture in particular will suggest that this view must be substantially modified. It will be found that the Egyptians applied exactly the same principles to the treatment of space as to the treatment of solid.

(The superscript [raised] number 1 appearing after Choisy's name, would refer to a footnote in which reference would be made to the book and page where Choisy expressed this view. For footnotes see Section 6.)

### 2.3 The body of the essay

Having established the general direction of the essay, this is now developed by detailed argument, by a consideration of the views of the major authorities, and by discussion of individual examples (in this case Egyptian temples). The body of the essay is a sustained argument in support of a position or thesis. The best way to structure the body of your essay is to divide it into sections that correspond to the argument that the essay is presenting. This can be done in a variety of ways depending on the kind of argument you are making and the kinds of evidence you are using.

For example, consider the following topic:

*Discuss the impact of Australian mining operations on the environment.*

An essay on this topic could be organized in a number of different ways depending on your argument. You may identify three major impacts, and organise your essay to discuss each one in turn. Conversely, you may argue that one method of mining has a major impact, but the impact of another method of mining is negligible. In this case you would order your essay according to the methods of mining that you discuss. The organisation of the essay should follow the specific argument that you are making and the kinds of evidence that you are using to support your position.

## 2.4 Strategy for paragraphing

It is a good principle to introduce the theme of each paragraph in the same sort of way as the theme of the whole essay - that is, to begin the paragraph by a brief statement, such as:

Egyptian architecture was designed not only for the use and the enjoyment of the priestly and ruling caste, but also for the domination of the populace.

The statement is then supported by the remainder of the paragraph. In a good essay one can often put together the first line of each paragraph to give a satisfactory précis of the whole argument. A paragraph works well when all of its individual sentences clearly relate to the central idea. Conversely, paragraphs become cloudy and unclear if they include a mixture of different ideas. If you find yourself developing more than one idea in a single paragraph, simply divide the material into more paragraphs so that each idea is properly developed.

## 2.5 Conclusion

The essay should not just peter out at the end, but should be rounded off by a conclusion. Whereas the synopsis set out the manner in which the theme was to be handled, the conclusion should encapsulate the results of the whole exercise in a clear and reasonably pithy manner, for example,

Space is seen to have been an important and positive element in Egyptian architecture. It is merely a defect in the modern mind which has prevented the recognition of this; the modern observer is conditioned to regard space in a sculptural sense, as the creation of coherent volumes and of links between them, the opening and obscuring of vistas, and a host of effects which have a solely aesthetic function. The Egyptian architect used space for didactic and regulatory purposes, as a means of governing the way in which the building was used, and of maintaining the proper divisions of society; moreover his space was sequential - it requires a fourth dimension, time, to understand it.

## 2.6 Cliché, jargon and ellipsis

Try to avoid clichés, jargon and ellipsis. Among the common clichés are words like 'feature' and 'boast' in the manner of 'The house featured a bay window and boasted a sprinkling of spires along the roof'. This is just a pointlessly elaborate way of saying that the house *had* these things, and it tends to cast

doubt on the quality of thought underlying your writing. Speak of a 'house' or a 'dwelling', not of a 'residence', and certainly not a 'home', which is the language of real estate agents and popular magazines. Don't refer to a 'facility' (unless you mean aptitude - as in 'he had a facility for writing Greek verse') - refer specifically to a factory, plant, airport or whatever it is that you really mean.

Don't use the word 'hopefully' when you mean 'one hopes' or 'it is hoped'. If you write 'Hopefully, the inhabitants will use the garden as an outdoor living area' you are not saying that you *hope* that they will do so, but that they *will* do so, and hopefully is *how* they will do it - in other words, they will do it in an optimistic spirit.

Jargon varies from year to year, and it is impossible to give any definitive guide. But here are some tips. **Do not use 'facilitate', 'empower', or 'access' as verbs, nor 'address' except in its traditionally understood sense. Do not use 'polemic', 'discourse', or 'critique' (especially as a verb) unless you are quite sure of what you mean, and can find no simpler term. Avoid 'the notion of'. Don't use 'concerning' to mean causing concern - it means about, or in relation to** [I am writing concerning your job application].

Ellipsis is the expression in a long-winded and roundabout way of concepts which are essentially simple and capable of being conveyed with brevity - like this sentence. Don't do it.

## 2.7 Shall and will

Architects (in particular) seem to have especial difficulty with the words 'shall' and 'will'. This is doubtless something to do with the convention of the specification-writing imperative, as in 'The contractor shall ensure the security of the site'. It should not be necessary to discuss this in detail here, but only to remind ourselves that 'will' is the normal verb for prediction or intention, and 'shall' for determination or command.

### 3. CONVENTIONS

#### 3.1 Application

The conventions used in essay and report writing in relation to the form of personal names, the use of italics, &c are for the most part THE SAME in the text, footnotes and bibliography. Unless you are instructed otherwise, or it is contrary to commonsense, you should assume this.

#### 3.2 People

People are not generally referred to with honorifics or prefixes, so you will never refer to anybody as 'Mr ..'. It is better as a rule to use the surname only: '... according to the theories of Marx', 'in Boyd's domestic architecture'. However, it is a good idea to mention the person's forename or initials on the first occasion, such as 'Robin Boyd is an enigmatic figure in the modern movement', and this is certainly good practice when the person may be unknown to the reader: 'this was the work of the Venezuelan planner J G Peñero'.

#### 3.3 Publications

Where you refer in your text to a publication, the conventions are just the same as for footnotes and bibliographies, which will be discussed below, though the title is usually abbreviated. The title of a book or journal is in italics, that of an article or chapter is in inverted commas, thus: it appears from Hansman's recent paper 'Diversity and Power in Mentoring Relationships', in *Critical Perspectives in Mentoring ...* (in a handwritten essay, or in any other manuscript, the title of a printed work may be underlined, as a substitute for italics, but underlining should never be used in a typed or printed work).

#### 3.4 Dates

Dates should be cited in the manner '7 July 1856' in the text, footnotes and bibliography, and anywhere else where they appear - that is, the number (7, not 7th), then the month in full, then the year in full.

Decades may be referred to as the 1850s, the 1970s, &c - without an apostrophe, for the reasons explained below - but **do not** refer to the 1800s, the

1900s &c, as this is ambiguous. If the 1920s means the years 1920-1929, then the 2000s means 2000-2009 - or does it mean 2000-2099, the whole of the twentieth century? Or even 2000-2999, the whole of the third millennium? Avoid the ambiguity by referring either to 'the twenty-first century', or to 'the first decade of the twenty-first century', as the case may be.

### 3.5 Measurements

Measurements are always cited in current metric units unless there is a very good reason to vary this. Where the older measurement is important in its own right, say as a module, it may be used with the metric equivalent in brackets. Thus: 'it was normal to build exterior walls in nine inch [230 mm] or eleven inch [280 mm] brickwork, the latter containing a cavity.' In a quotation you will give the original measurement unchanged, but again add the metric equivalent in a square bracket.

Conversions should not be made with spurious accuracy: in the above example 230 mm is the order of accuracy suggested by a nine inch brick, and it would be silly to describe it as 228.6 mm.

### 3.6 Currency

Currency is not converted into modern units, for two reasons. Firstly, the conversion doesn't usually make sense. To say 'An Egyptian labourer of the Middle Kingdom earned \$45 a day' is meaningless in the context of a totally different economic structure. Secondly, even if it made sense, the dollar figure would rapidly become wrong due to inflation. If you are comparing like with like you retain the old currency: 'imports of terra cotta rose from £25,400 in 1855 to £29,600 in 1863'. If it is necessary to give a sense of the value to the modern reader, use a common yardstick like a labourer's wage, or the cost of a loaf of bread, thus: 'the cost of a two room timber cottage was about £240, or seven times the annual wage of a labourer.' Note that most word processing programs have got a '£' sign: you only have to find it.

### 3.7 Coy quotation marks

Avoid coy quotation marks. Many students put quotation marks about any expression which they regard as in any way exotic or clever. For example:

The settler was really 'flummoxed' when faced with the problem of building a bark roof with an internal gutter.

This should never be done. If you use a word like flummoxed, then you must accept responsibility for it, and not pretend that it is a quotation. It is of course perfectly legitimate to use quotation marks about an expression which is a quotation and which is worth quoting.

Analysts now speak of 'market maturity' in the property sector, a condition which is reached when costs ...'

Note that you do not place the term in quotation marks when you use it a second or subsequent time.

### 3.8 Capitals

Use initial capitals for:

- Personal names.
- Names of nationalities.
- Names of organisations like the State Government. However, you use lower case for state, government, national, federal, &c, when used adjectivally or in the abstract, such as government agencies, state control.
- Formal titles such as the Prime Minister of Australia. However, lower case is used when the reference is not specific eg a meeting of prime ministers.
- Geographical designations such as Southeast Asia. Lower case is used if the terms used are purely descriptive, as in eastern Australia
- Topographical names eg the Murray River. Use lower case for 'the river' or for plurals eg the Murray and Darling rivers
- Names of public places and buildings eg the Sydney Harbour Bridge
- Points of the compass when abbreviated eg N, NE, NNE, (without full stops) Use lower case when spelled out eg. north, north-east etc
- Recognised historic and cultural events eg the Great Depression, but not the post-war recovery
- Acts, treaties and government programs when referred to by their correct or even abbreviated title, as in the *Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of*

*Nuclear Weapons.* Use lower case for general or descriptive reference, as in the non-proliferation treaty.

- Titles of books, reports &c - *A Short History of Japan.*
- Names of species, but not of genera, as in *Eucalyptus obliqua.*

### 3.9 Apostrophes

This is another matter which should have been dealt with at primary school, but causes so many problems that a reminder is necessary. *Its* as a possessive does not have an apostrophe (remind yourself that you do not say *hi's* or *her's*), but it's essential to use the apostrophe when you mean *it is*. It is no longer good practice to use the apostrophe in dates, such as the 1950s - after all, this is not a possessive, and nor is any letter omitted.

### 3.10 Hyphens

It is good practice to minimise the use of hyphens - that is, where possible use **either** a single unhyphenated word **or** two distinct words. Generally we still use hyphens:

- after prefixes followed by a capital letter eg. anti-Japanese, neo-Gothic
- for compounds such as up-to-date
- for compound adjectives made up of a noun or an adjective and a present or past participle eg. the decision-making process. Note, though - the process of decision making
- in compounds with well-, ill- and semi-, such as 'a well-known fact', 'a semi-detached house'. However do not use them when the adjective is comparative or superlative eg. a lower income group, or when the past participle is preceded by an adverb ending in -ly, as in 'a frequently used phrase'.

Hyphens are not required for fractions like 'two fifths' or for joining numbers and quantities such as 'a two week period'. Southeast is preferable to south-east, and neoclassical is absolutely to be preferred to neo-classical (this is because the word 'classical' does not necessarily have a capital, as does 'Gothic'). Note that a hyphen is **not** typed with a space on either side (see *Typing*, below).

### 3.11 Full stops

Good practice is now to minimise the use of full stops. They are not required and should not be used in abbreviations like Mr, Mrs, p (for page), &c, RAPI, RAIA, RIQS, *ibid*, *op cit*, am, pm, qv, mm, kg.

### 3.12 Italics

Italics are used not only for the titles of publications, as discussed above, but for the titles of Acts of Parliament, ships, species and foreign words not normally used in English. Thus

According to Wittgenstein's *Tractatus*, the Marquis had completed his survey of the distribution of *Quercus robusta*, but had not completed his *catalogue raisonné* of the fungi of the Netherlands, when he landed from the *MV Mermaid*, still subject to the provisions of the *Act for the Sequestration of Enemy Aliens*.

### 3.13 Abbreviations

There are certain regularly used abbreviations, like USA, but even in a case like this it is probably better to say 'the United States' at the first mention. Where you are going to have to use a long name frequently and there is no abbreviation which the reader can be assumed to understand, you will give it in full the first time, with the abbreviation in brackets, then you can use the abbreviation:

The state bodies then met to form the Royal Australian Institute of Architects (RAIA). The RAIA was intended to be more than a professional cartel ...

Never in the text abbreviate ordinary names and words as in 'Melb', 'approx', and so on. For the most part you should not do this in the footnotes and bibliography either, but there may be certain standard forms like NLA - National Library of Australia - which it is useful to adopt. In such a case the bibliography must begin with a key to these abbreviations.

### 3.14 Sexism

You will probably be accustomed already to the use of non-sexist language, but you may get tripped up if you unthinkingly copy material from an older

publication without acknowledging it as a quotation (which of course you should never do anyway).

Avoid the use of 'man' and 'mankind' as generic terms, and use instead words like: 'humans', 'humanity', 'human beings', 'humankind', 'the human race', 'individuals' and 'people.'

Instead of saying things like 'the designer should use his commonsense' (which of course is acceptable when you are talking about a specific designer who *is* male), try 'designers should use their commonsense' or 'the designer should approach the task with commonsense'. If you are desperate you can try 'her or his commonsense', but this is patently clumsy.

None of this should not be taken to the point of being clumsy or over-precious. Where the class under consideration is overwhelmingly of one sex or can reasonably be assumed to be so, then it is fine to say things like 'the mother should feed *her* baby on demand' or 'the soldier should unload *his* gun'.

### 3.15 Americanism.

You are expected to use Australian English rather than American English, and if that means changing your spell check program, please do so. Otherwise you may find yourself being told to delete 'which' from your sentences in favour of 'that', to spell 'aluminum,' rather than 'aluminium', 'center' rather than 'centre', and most seriously 'meter' rather than 'metre' (as discussed below). However, one cannot be rigid, and the language is inevitably becoming more Americanised. You can hardly be criticised if you use 'color' and 'labor' rather than 'colour' and 'labour', for those spellings have long been optional, and in fact are closer to the Latin origins of the word.

Please note that the word 'America' itself does not mean the United States. It refers to two continents containing numerous countries from Canada to Chile. There is little alternative but to use 'United States', when you need an adjective to refer to that country (though Frank Lloyd Wright's term, 'Usonian', would in theory be preferable).

## **4. USE OF SOURCE MATERIAL**

### **4.1 General and special data**

There are two sorts of factual material used in essays. The first is material which is generally known and accepted, such as the dates of important historical events; this sort of material is available in any number of introductory reference works and other obvious sources, and it can be used freely. The second type of information is that which is either relatively unknown, and has perhaps been discovered and published by one specialist research worker, or else is more widely known but not universally accepted as true - it remains the subject of argument by specialists.

### **4.2 Acknowledgment of sources**

The second type of material must be used with great care. It is necessary to indicate its precise origin by means of footnotes, as discussed in Section 5, Documentation, but for the sake of the general reader it is often helpful to refer to the source also in the text of the essay, and/or to give some indication of whether the information is controversial or is generally accepted. For example,

G H Martin, on 'The Town as Palimpsest',<sup>3</sup> has pointed out that English town halls were not impressive until the nineteenth century, because until 1835 the English borough was governed by something more resembling a private club than today's municipal corporation. There were, however, some notable exceptions ...

The way of referring to a publication in a footnote, as indicated here, is discussed in Section 5.

### **4.3 Opinions and concepts**

Another type of material which may be used in an essay is not factual but consists of opinions and concepts developed by other writers. In this case it is even more necessary to identify the source carefully, and to treat the information critically. Here is one example of such an opinion:

Jane Jacobs has argued<sup>7</sup> that cities do not grow up, as is commonly supposed, out of a rural economic base, but rather that rural economies are directly built upon city economies. Her evidence for this is selective, and

she can be challenged both upon historical and upon purely theoretical grounds ...

#### **4.4 Critical treatment of sources**

Students often ask how they can be expected to make sensible criticisms of authoritative works in a field about which they themselves know very little. There are two answers to this. The first is that a critical approach does not require that the authorities are attacked or discredited, for example,

Freeland himself admits that this thesis is applicable only to towns founded before the gold rushes: strictly speaking it should apply to Kyneton, but in fact Kyneton is to all intents and purposes a post-gold rush town.

The second answer is that authorities can be criticised, even by a novice, when they disagree amongst themselves (as they frequently do). For example:

Herman's account of the roots of Australian architecture thus differs markedly from Freeland's. Which of these one accepts will depend upon whether one regards architecture as a creative art with an impetus and an influence of its own, or merely as a pale reflection of the society in which it exists. The answer to this seems to be that ...

#### **4.5 Quotations**

Direct quotations from source material should never be used unless they are placed in inverted commas or indented (and, of course, footnoted to indicate their origin), and they should in any case be used sparingly. One type of quotation is a single word or a phrase which has been coined by another writer, which may be introduced in the essay in inverted commas, and then subsequently used without, for instance:

Burgess described the second area as the 'zone of transition'. The zone of transition is an area immediately adjacent to the central business district where older private houses are being taken over for offices ...

More extensive quotations from modern writers are not usually justified unless they convey something of basic importance to the essay in words of such classic and telling simplicity that it would be sacrilege to paraphrase them. But in a historical essay it may be justifiable to quote one or two sentences of

contemporary writing which really convey the feeling of the time or are basic evidence for the argument of the essay. Thus:

Vitruvius does not use the word 'symmetry' in the modern sense. He describes it as a 'proper agreement between the different parts and the whole general scheme, in accordance with a certain part selected as standard. Thus in the human body there is a kind of symmetrical harmony between forearm, foot, palm, finger and other small parts; and so it is with perfect buildings'.

In the same sort of way one might find it useful in an essay dealing with contemporary issues to quote at length, not from another writer, but from a person being studied, for example,

The sorts of reason for which people in this area are opposed to a move which appears to benefit them are varied, but they are not insubstantial. One 53-year old T P I pensioner in Fitzroy told me:

I have lived in this house for twenty-seven years. Because of my leg I can't get out much, but I can get around the garden, and this is my only hobby. What would I do in one of them high-rise flats?

Note that where a more lengthy quotation **has been indented**, as in this case, **it does not have quotation marks as well**.

#### 4.6 Primary and secondary sources

A distinction is made between 'primary' and 'secondary' source material. This will be readily understood in terms of the quotations above, from Vitruvius and from the Fitzroy pensioner. Both of these are primary source material. But one might also refer to a modern work *about* Vitruvius, or a work *on* housing problems in Fitzroy, and these would be secondary sources.

The **primary sources** constitute the objects that you are writing about. These might be things like a particular construction site, a style of architecture, an urban plan, the work or ideas of a specific landscaper, etc. Your argument will relate to such primary materials by way of *interpretation*. You will take a position on the meaning and significance of these objects.

The **secondary sources** constitute the ideas and writings of other people about or in some way related to the primary sources you are discussing. These will be the books and articles of scholars in a specific field, or perhaps the ideas of social theorists that can be applied to the primary sources. Your argument will relate to

these secondary sources by way of *agreement* or *disagreement*. In essence, your essay will relate your interpretation to the interpretations of others. In many cases this relationship will not be a simple agreement or disagreement. You may agree with someone's ideas in a qualified way, partially, or you may be extending someone's ideas to new material.

#### **4.7 Use of illustrations**

Don't hesitate to use illustrations in the form of your own sketches (however crude) when they will make a useful point. However, use illustrations reproduced from elsewhere very sparingly (and never use illustrations cut out of publications, even if they are unimportant brochures).

Where you use an illustration derived from elsewhere you should exclude the original caption. Give it your own illustration number and caption, including an acknowledgement of the source, as discussed below. Reproducing other people's captions and irrelevant numbers looks amateurish and is confusing to the reader. If you have doctored the illustration in any way (for example, by circling a detail of relevance to your argument) make sure it is clear that you have done this, not the original author.

### **5. CITATION OF SOURCES**

#### **5.1 Reference systems**

Under this heading come bibliographies and footnotes or end notes, which are the scholarly apparatus to ensure that the essay is:

- (a) reliable and possibly
- (b) useful,

for they ensure that the reader is readily able to check back to your sources.

There are some variations in the manner of using these, but students in this course should adopt the principles which are set out below, and which generally accord with the style adopted by Melbourne University Press.

You should understand clearly that the rules which follow are not some pointless academic exercise, but are for the convenience of the reader. It is

important that there should be some sort of standard conventions, and while the standards differ between different institutions and publishers, and you may at different times have to adopt different ones, it is essential that you are able to conform to a prescribed set of conventions. We have chosen the set which we think will be most useful. If you think something will not be clear to the reader, and it is necessary to modify them, please do so - especially if this can be done by some sort of explanatory note in square brackets. But variations which result only from laziness and ignorance are not acceptable.

## 5.2 Citing a work

In citing a work such as book, it is broken up into its major parts by commas. The author's name is given first, **without** any honorifics, such as Mr, Dr, Prof, Sir, and with either one forename **or** a set of initials. This is followed by a comma, then the title, followed by a comma, possibly the edition (if this is unstated it is usually the first edition, but don't take a guess at this), followed by a comma, the number of volumes, followed by a comma, and then finally the place (**town or city**, not country, state or county) and the date of publication (not divided by a comma). When the city is not a well-known one - such as the capital of a state or county, it should be clarified, as in 'Nedlands [WA]', Harmondsworth [Middlesex], or 'Paris [Texas]'. There are further requirements for citing other works such as articles in journals, as will be explained.

## 5.3 Bibliographies

A bibliography must always give the full details of the work, such as:

Malcolm Morgan, *Essay Writing*, Melbourne 1991.

You must clearly identify the edition you have used, as both content and pagination will probably differ from other editions. However, where you have referred to a late edition of the book, but know the date of the first edition, it is helpful to cite that as well in a square bracket, as this will help the reader to understand the nature and status of the work, thus

Alan Birch & D S Macmillan, *The Sydney Scene*, Sydney 1982 [1962].

Here there are two authors, and both names are cited. Even three authors' names may be cited if you wish, but for greater numbers simply give the first or principal author followed by 'et al', meaning 'and others'.

M Cegielski et al, *Economic value of tourism to places of cultural heritage significance: a case study of three towns with mining heritage*. Canberra 2001.

#### 5.4 Inversion of names

Publications are usually listed in alphabetical order of authors' surnames, unless there is a good reason for using some other basis, such as chronology or geographic area. For this reason you put the surname first (and you must decide whether the surname is 'Gogh' or 'Van Gogh'), but there is **no need** to invert the second author:

Garvey, B. & G Alred, 'Developing Mentors', *Career Development International*, vol 5 (2000), pp 216-222.

If the list is not alphabetical, then you will not invert the name.

#### 5.5 Bracketed information

If you have used a facsimile edition you can cite it just as if you had used the original work, but again it will be helpful to indicate the fact in square brackets after the original publication details, eg '[facsimile, London 1986]'. Square brackets may be used to explain other parts of the citation as well, such as to identify the named author as being an editor rather than the actual writer of the whole work; identifying the reviser, translator or editor (where the editor is not regarded as *being* the effective author); conveying the real name of a pseudonymous author (the pseudonym will be in inverted commas); giving the name of the series if the publication is part of one; giving the former title, if this has been changed; and giving the original date of publication, if known:

Listokin, D [ed], *Housing Rehabilitation*, New Brunswick [New Jersey] 1983.

'Garryowen' [Edmund Finn], *The Chronicles of Early Melbourne*, 2 vols, Melbourne 1888 [facsimile, Melbourne 1990].

Alfred Wildcamp. *Thermal Properties of Sealants* [CSIRO technical bulletin 8.3]. Sydney 2002.

G F Middleton [revised Bob Young], *Build Your House of Earth*. Birregurra South [Victoria] 1979 [1953].

Jane Jacobs, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*. Harmondsworth [Middlesex] 1975 [1961].

Neither in these examples nor in the body of the text does a bracket change any of the punctuation - it is simply an interpolation within the existing structure. Where there is already a punctuation mark, the bracket **precedes** it.

In some bibliographies the name of the publisher, suitably abbreviated where appropriate (MUP, OUP, Faber, Macmillan) is included before the place and date, but this is not recommended for student work. Do not cite the publisher unless there is a particular reason for doing so, but if you feel that you **must** do it, then do it consistently for every book you cite.

## 5.6 Newspaper references

Reference material other than books is cited in a different way. A newspaper is quoted as, for example:

*Property Investor*, 17 July 2005, p 3.

Sometimes column numbers are quoted for large format newspapers.

## 5.7 Journal articles

An article in a journal is cited in the form:

Austin, J, et al. 'Property rights and economic efficiency: a survey of institutional factors', *Journal of Real Estate Literature*, 4(2) (1996), pp 137-159.

The volume is given in Arabic numerals and the number of the particular issue in Arabic numerals in brackets. You may come across an earlier convention of citing the volume in Roman numerals and the number in Arabic: 'IV, 2', but this can no longer be recommended, for today even some university students are unable to interpret Roman numerals.

## 5.8 Theses

A thesis may be cited:

J G Wight, 'The Land Policy of the La Trobe Administration in Victoria, 1847-1854', BA, University of Melbourne 1954.

Note: this form of citation includes the degree for which the thesis was presented, and the institution.

## 5.9 Reports

Consultant reports, typescript documents, &c, are generally not regarded as publications, and just as for theses the title is given in inverted commas, not in italics. However, the division between what is a publication and what is not has now become very fuzzy. As a general guide a publication will bear an ISBN or International Standard Book Number at the front, in which case it should be cited as for a book. Printed notes issued by a lecturer will generally will not bear an ISBN, and should be cited as for an unpublished report.

## 5.10 Other sources

There are other conventions for dealing with Acts of Parliament, parliamentary papers, information collected by means of an interview (always give the full name and address of the interviewee, and the date of the interview), diaries, letters and other manuscript documents (always give the location of these). Many of these conventions are illustrated in the *AGPS Style Manual* (see below). Material noted in lectures may be cited with the lecturer's name and affiliation, and the date and subject of the lecture, much the same as for an interview.

## 5.11 Encyclopaedias and reference works

When you use a reference work such as a dictionary to check spelling, or an encyclopaedia to check an important date, you are of course not required to record the source of the information. But if you have made continuous use of a really specialised work, such as the *Oxford Dictionary of the Christian Church*, this should appear in your bibliography.

Generally speaking you should not have occasion to cite popular encyclopaedias, but sometimes they do provide critical information. In the nineteenth century the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* [**please note the correct spelling - two ns and one t**] drew upon a number of highly qualified contributors, and included very specialised information which is now historically useful. If you do use encyclopaedia material you must cite the article in the normal way, with its title and the number of the volume in which it appears, page(s) &c. You should also if possible name the author of the article: in some cases only a set of initials appears, but there is a key to them elsewhere in the publication. There may be an author as well as an editor, as in:

Sara Lehrman, 'Antonio dall'Abacco', in A K Placzek [ed], *Macmillan Encyclopedia of Architects*, 4 vols, New York 1982, vol 1, pp 13-14.

**Unsigned material is necessarily suspect, and should be used only as a last resort.**

### **5.12 Selectivity in bibliographies**

A bibliography should be select: that is, it should list only works which you have found relevant and helpful for the particular topic. It should not include general background material or basic references like dictionaries and encyclopaedias. It should never include material which you have heard of, but not yet seen. It should be as brief as is sensibly possible, but if it must be long - say, more than twenty items - it should be classified according to subject matter or in whatever way will be useful to the reader. Don't hesitate to annotate items, for example in a bracket at the end, where you may care to point out that the illustrations are useful but the analysis has been discredited by another authority, or any such comment.

## **6. NOTES**

### **6.1 Computer programs for referencing**

There are two main conventions for referencing, the footnote system and the Harvard system, both of which you should understand, though we recommend the footnote system for general use when there is no countervailing reason. You should be aware, however, that there are computer applications such as *EndNote* which enable references entered in the correct format to be presented in either of these formats (or any other predetermined format) at will.

### **6.2 Location of Footnotes**

A footnote number appears at the relevant point in the text in superscript form (that is raised above the line) and preferably in a face one point size smaller. It **follows** rather than precedes any punctuation mark at that point. Most word processing programs have automatic footnoting which will do this, and which will also maintain the numerical order - that is, if you insert a new footnote, all those following will change their numeration automatically. They will also considerably reduce the amount of typing and checking required as you work.

Footnotes should be placed at the bottom of the page unless there is a very good reason for doing otherwise. Many reputable publishers have in the past located all the notes at the end of the book, and some still do, but this is a relic of pre-computer days, and is less convenient for the reader. If for some reason you are obliged to do this, make sure that the notes carry a running heading on each page indicating the chapter and page of the text to which they relate. It is infuriating for a reader not to be able to tell immediately which note is the relevant one. Never - in a longer work such as a thesis - put the notes at the end of each section or chapter, as this makes them unnecessarily hard to find, and has no advantage of any sort.

### 6.3 Citations in footnotes

If a work is referred to in a footnote, it will be followed by a page number or numbers:

17. C R Dobson, *Masters and Journeymen: a Prehistory of Industrial Relations 1717-1800*, London 2003, pp 21-3.

The footnote is divided up by commas as already described. Note that 'p' is the abbreviation for page, and 'pp' for pages.

Note also that in the footnote itself the number '17' is not superscript (that is, not raised above the line), although it is superscript in the main text above. Unfortunately some word processing programs do for some unknown reason raise the number. The Faculty will accept superscript numbers in the footnotes, but it is best to correct them if possible. You can change each number manually, or better still, if you are using Microsoft Word, when you have finished the essay, select all the footnotes and reformat the characters to eliminate the superscript format.

For clarity the footnote number is kept to the left and **all** the text is aligned to its right.

In most cases (unless it is of really incidental relevance) the work will be described in full in your bibliography, and you may therefore in the footnote omit the author's forename or initials, abbreviate the title in a sensible way, and omit the publication details :

17. Dobson, *Masters and Journeymen*, pp 21-3.

There is **no reason** in a footnote to put the author's surname before the forename or initials.

#### 6.4 **Ibid, op cit, loc cit, &c**

**We do not recommend the use of these forms**, for the very good reason that they depend upon a particular order in the footnotes. Work on a computer can easily be re-ordered, including the footnotes, and your *ibid* will then refer to the wrong work. However, you should understand them, and you may use them if you wish.

If Dobson's book, as in the previous example, was referred to again in the immediately following footnote, it would be sufficient to cite it as:

18. *Ibid*, p 42.

'*Ibid*' is an abbreviation for the Latin *ibidem* - 'in the same place' - and simply means that the same work is being cited again. If not followed by a page number, then it means the same page of the same work.

If after a few intervening footnotes, the same book is referred to again, it may be cited as:

23. Dobson, *op cit*, p 17.

'*Op cit*' stands for *opere citato* - 'in the work cited' - and it saves repeating the full details.

If not only the same book, but the very same page is being cited, then it might appear as:

23. Dobson, *loc cit*.

'*Loc cit*' or *loco citato* means 'in the place cited'.

If the last reference to Dobson's book was made some pages back, or if you have been referring to more than one work by this author, then the reader will not easily know what you mean by '*op cit*' or '*loc cit*', so these are no longer an

option. It is necessary to give the title of the work again, though again a sensibly abbreviated form is adequate:

56. Dobson, *Masters and Journeymen*, p 29.

The recommended alternative is to repeat this abbreviated form in **each** footnote - that is, a short author/title/page reference, as discussed above. In any case, whichever convention you decide upon, you must be consistent.

Some other conventions you may need to understand, even if you don't have occasion to use them, are:

*passim* - 'throughout': put this instead of page numbers when your reference is to the whole content of a paper or publication, not just a particular part of it.

'sv' - *sub voce*, or 'under the word', is used instead of giving a page number. In an alphabetically organised work such as a dictionary, this may be a more convenient way of citing a reference (especially if the work is not paginated).

## 6.5 Sources of Illustrations

You must give the source of every illustration unless it is a schematic diagram of your own creation. It is usually simplest to do this as part of the caption, using an abbreviated publication title, as in the example in the previous section, 5.6. Otherwise you may provide a separate list of sources of illustrations at the end of the essay.

## 7 THE HARVARD SYSTEM

### 7.1 The principle of the Harvard System

The main alternative to the method of citing works described in section 6 is the Harvard system, which was convenient to use in the days before computers, and is still the main system used in some of the disciplines represented in this faculty. This system is commonly used in the sciences and pseudo-sciences, where a given author may write many papers on essentially the same subject, and the important thing is to know the author and the year - hence they are cited in a bracket in the text itself, with or without the page number, thus (Pevsner 1965, p 13).

The disadvantage is that this interrupts the text more than a single footnote number does, and gives information which may be of little value. In the case of the works of Nikolaus Pevsner one is likely to want to know the title of the work, but the precise date of publication is of little help, especially if it was revised at different dates.

## 7.2 Form of citation

Generally in the Harvard system, citations in the text should follow the following pattern:

- Whenever possible, the citation should be placed at the end of the sentence before the concluding punctuation, as in:

The theory was first propounded in 1995 (Larsen 1996).

If the sentence is long and the citation only refers to a section of it, then the citation should appear at the end of the relevant clause.

- The author's name may be integrated into the text, in which case the year of publication only should appear in brackets immediately following, thus:

Larsen (1996) was the first to propound the theory.

- But you will normally need to refer to a specific page or pages then the citation should appear thus:

The theory was first propounded in 1995 (Larsen 1996, p 245).

or:

Larsen (1996, pp 245-7) was the first to propound the theory.

Note the punctuation.

Note that there is as much need for precision as in the footnote system. It is a bad habit amongst some users of the Harvard system to omit page numbers. **This is not acceptable** (unless the reference really *is* to the work as a whole).

Always cite the author of the chapter or section, not the editor.

### 7.3 Multiple authors

When a work by two or three authors is cited then the textual reference should follow the pattern below. Note that when the authors' names are incorporated in the text the ampersand is replaced by 'and' as in the second pair of examples below.

(Larsen & Green 1998, p 282)  
 (Larsen, Green & Withers 1998, p 282)  
 Larsen and Green (1998, p 282)  
 Larsen, Green and Withers (1998, p 282)

Where a work has more than three authors, only the surname of the first-listed author is cited in the text followed by the expression 'et al' ('and others'), but this sort of abbreviation is not acceptable in the text:

(Larsen et al 1998, p 282)  
 Larsen and others (1998, p 282) have found...

Note that if there is subsequently a citation of the work of another group of authors also with Larsen's name appearing first, then, in this instance, the names of all authors should be given to avoid confusion.

Where more than one work is cited the citation should appear as follows:

(Larsen 1971; Haddon 1969)  
 Larsen (1971) and Haddon (1969)  
 (Larsen 1971, p 11; Haddon 1969, vol 3, p 734)

Note use of semi-colon in the first and third example.

### 7.4 Personal communication

There is a tendency by Harvardists to cite 'personal communications', but this is a pompous term which does not really explain whether the source is a letter, verbal comment or formal interview. Therefore you should instead follow the principles discussed in *Other sources*, above.

The theory was first propounded in 1970 (A E Larsen 1996), but since then many of its elements have been refuted (see, for example, M K Larsen 2001, II, pp 157-93). I understand that certain aspects of the theory remain the subject of investigation (J A Lethbridge verbally, 2 May 2005).

Note that the authors' initials are used in this example. These should only be included when it is necessary to distinguish between authors with the same surname as in the Larsen situation above, or when referring to information gained through personal communication. There is no reason to put the initials after the surname, and you should not do so, even though, regrettably, this is commonly done by others.

## 7.5 Coeval works

References to works published in the same year should be distinguished from each other by using lower case letters of the alphabet attached to the publication date. The order of the letters is established on the basis of the letter-by-letter alphabetical order of the titles. If the texts concerned are cited at the same time they should appear as follows:

Bell (2001a, 2001b)  
 (Bell 2001a, 2001b)  
 Bell (2001a, p 327; 2001b, p 272)  
 (Bell 2001a, 1981b; Malinowski 2002)  
 (Bell 2001a, p 327; 2001b, p 272; Malinowski 2002, pp 89-99)

## 7.6 Newspapers

In textual reference to articles in newspapers where the author is named, the same pattern as outlined above should be used. When the author is not named the citation should appear as follows:

(*Canberra Times*, 24 January 2006, p 6)  
 ... the *Weekend Australian* (24-25 January 2006, p 19) reported...  
 (*Financial Review*, 23 January 1999, editorial)

## 7.7 References and Bibliography

It is common to have a list of references containing only those works cited in the text (and not including personal communications), and usually you will not need to list any other sources than those you have cited. However it is cumbersome to have to create a separate bibliography, and it is better, if there only a few additional works, to include them in the same list. In any event, the

same method of presentation is used for both a list of references and a bibliography. Works are listed in alphabetical order by author or source name. For books, the information required is listed in the following order:

author's surname and initials or given name  
 [editor, reviser, compiler or translator, if other than the author]  
 year of publication  
 title of chapter or section, if the author is responsible for only part of  
 the publication  
 editor of the publication, if any  
*title of publication*  
 [title of series, if applicable]  
 volume number or number of volumes, if applicable  
 edition, if applicable  
 place of publication  
 page number or numbers, if applicable.

The author's surname appears first, separated from the initials or given name by a comma. As a general rule, only the author's initials are used, unless it is thought useful to the reader to spell out the given name - that is, 'Manning Clark' is instantaneously recognisable whereas 'C M H Clark' may not be. Explanatory elements are in square brackets. All other elements of the citation are separated by commas, and the citation concludes with a full stop. The following list gives examples of entries in a list of references or a bibliography; for more detailed information refer to the *AGPS Style Manual*, but note that some of the other conventions differ from those set out here.

Adam-Smith, Patsy, 1978, *The ANZACS*, Melbourne.

Adams, Phillip, 1987, 'Black and white and read no more?', *Weekend Australian Magazine*, 7-8 February, p 2.

Global Properties Ltd 2004, *Annual Report 2003-4*, Melbourne.

Armitage, LA 1995, 'Internationalisation of property market processes: emergence of the Bangkok prime commercial office market', *1st Pacific Rim Real Estate Educators' Conference*, Melbourne, pp 157-72..

Baxter, M, 2001, 'Social class and health inequalities', in C Carter & J Peel [eds], *Equalities and Inequalities in Health*, London.

Bligh, Beatrice, 2000, *Cherish the Earth*, Sydney.

Cocteau, J [translated R Lehmann], 1961, *Les Enfants Terribles*, Harmondsworth [Middlesex].

Crowley, F K, 1949, 'Working class conditions in Australia, 1788-1851', PhD, University of Melbourne.

Raymond, R, & C Watson-Munro, 1990, *The Energy Crisis of 1985*, no place.

Russell, B, 1967, *The Autobiography of Bertrand Russell*, 3 vols, vol 1, 1872 - 1914, London.

## **8. FORMAT**

### **8.1 Essay template**

Subject to the requirements of the lecturer, you may be able to save time by downloading the essay template from the Faculty Web site and typing straight into it. This way most of your formatting will be done for you.

### **8.2 Paper size**

An essay or report must be on international A4 size paper (210 x 295 mm) available from the Bookroom.

### **8.3 Legibility**

The essay should be legibly written, or preferably typed, on one side only of each page, and using upright format only. Do not use fancy or eccentric typefaces.

### **8.4 Margin**

Provide a margin at the left hand side of not less than 25 mm, and preferably more, especially where you are using punched paper, which leaves little room for marker's comments. In a handwritten essay there is no need to rule a line for the margin.

### **8.5 Stapling**

The pages should be firmly stapled together at the top left-hand corner.

## **8.6 Face information**

A front page should be attached bearing the following information:

- (a) The name, address and telephone number of the student,
- (b) The subject for which the essay is submitted,
- (c) The title of the essay, and
- (d) The lecturer and/or tutor to whom it is submitted (preferably spelled correctly, as academics are sensitive to minor slights).

## **8.7 Pagination**

The essay or report **must** bear page numbers at the top of each page, and a running heading with an abbreviated title is highly desirable. If through omitting these things you submit work with pages missing, out of order, or mistakenly included, you will get little sympathy!

## **8.8 Illustrations and tables**

Illustrations and tables should if possible be upright on the page. If they must be placed sideways, the bottom should be at the right hand side. If they must be folded, then they should be placed upright on the page and should fold out to the right and, if necessary, downwards. Ensure that the folded part is well clear of the left side and will not be stapled or punched.

## **8.9 Typing**

The Faculty Web site has an MS-Word template document with the appropriate styles, margins, page numbering, footnoting and other standards contained within it, which you can download and type directly into, if your lecturer indicates that it is suitable for the assignment in question.

It is good practice to leave two spaces after full stops, colons and semi-colons, but not after commas. Do not confuse the dash and the hyphen - the same key may be used, but the dash has spaces before and after it, thus: 'In Neo-Egyptian design - for better or for worse - it was the custom ...'

## **9. TECHNICAL REPORTS**

## 9.1 Principle

A technical report is not different in principle from an essay, in that the importance of familiarity with the source material, selection and synthesis, analysis and criticism, and documentation is the same. There is a difference in emphasis in that a report must be concise and businesslike rather than discursive and creative, and it may contain a greater proportion of tabulated material.

## 9.2 Types

It is impossible to describe all the precise types of report which may be required for professional purposes. A useful guide is found in:

'Reports, Content and Compilation', in Australian Property Institute, *Professional Practice*, 5<sup>th</sup> ed, Deakin [ACT] 2006, pp 391-405.

This describes three basic types: the 'self-contained or comprehensive' report, which conveys detailed information about the topic under investigation, the 'summary or short form style' which summarises the information, possibly by reducing it to tables or abbreviated paragraphs, and the 'restricted or pro-forma' type which conforms to a predetermined format, often prescribed by a client who wishes to obtain directly comparable reports from different sources.

## 9.3 Tables

It is difficult to refer to schedules or tables used horizontally and bound in a vertical text. If these are unavoidable, arrange them so that head movement from the vertical is kept to a minimum, that is, horizontal pages on the right hand side have the heading at the binding margin, and on the reverse or left hand side, heading is on the outer page margin.

It is a frequent mistake, when collating horizontal pages, for some of the text at right angles to the longer 297 mm dimension to be upside down.

## 9.4 Numbering of Content

It is common in technical report writing to adopt a decimalised numbering system. The version of this which distinguishes heading, sub-headings and sub-sub-headings (eg 3.4.2) is not favoured, and you should confine yourself to a single sequence within each section (as in these notes):

1. 1.1 1.2 1.3 ..... 1.n
2. 2.1 .....2.n

## 9.5 Footnotes and Bibliographies

The conventions are the same as for essay writing, but Harvard more commonly than footnote.

## 10 LEGAL REFERENCING

### 10.1 Legal Authorities

Citations for legal authorities must include the following:

- name of case, in italics
- abbreviated name of reporting service
- volume number, if applicable
- date, when required to locate the volume, enclosed by square brackets: []
- beginning of page reference

eg *Taylor & Sons Pty Ltd v Brival Pty Ltd* [1982] VR 762

This reference does not have a volume number and that is why the date is essential in order to locate the case.

eg *Super Pty Ltd v SJP Formwork (Aust) Pty Ltd* (1992) 29 NSWLR 549

This reference is found in volume 29, although the date is not necessary to locate the case it is nevertheless usual to quote the date.

### 10.2 The name of the case

Citation of a case will normally only include the first-mentioned party on each side. The name of the plaintiff / claimant / appellant is given first, while the name of the defendant / respondent is given second. Additional parties are indicated by the phrase 'and others' (or '& ors'), or 'and another' (or '& anor'). If the party is a real person it is usual to give only the surname, and if a corporation its name is given in full.

eg Smith v Jones

eg Smith & ors v Taylor and Sons Pty Ltd

### 10.3 Reference written into the body of the text

Generally when references are written into the body of the text, standard abbreviations are used, enclosed by parentheses. However in legal text the reference is not normally abbreviated :

eg That was the opinion stated by Beach J. in *Taylor & Sons Pty Ltd v Brival Pty Ltd* [1982] VR 762 at 765.

### 10.4 Later references in the text

The first citation of an authority in a text must be given in full. An abbreviated form abbreviated form or the name by which the case is commonly known **may** be given in parentheses following the first citation. Thereafter the abbreviated or common form may be used alone.

eg *Taylor & Sons Pty Ltd v Brival Pty Ltd* [1982] VR 762 (the *Brival case*)

Allowing later references to be simplified

eg That was the opinion of Beach J. in the *Brival case*.

### 10.5 Reference to the presiding judge

The name of the presiding Judge is sometime included when reference is made to an authority, as shown in some of the above examples. In citing the

presiding Judge the surname is given followed by 'J' to denote 'Justice'; 'JJ' to denotes 'Justices', if there is more than one; or 'CJ' to denote 'Chief Justice'.

## 10.6 Reporting services

A decision at law can appear in more than one reporting service, therefore more than one reference may be given. For example, a case may appear in the official state reports, such as the New South Wales Law Reports and also one of the private reporting services such as Building and Construction Law Reports. Such a case may then be cited as :

*Super Pty Ltd v SJP Formwork (Aust) Pty Ltd* (1992) 29 NSWLR 549; (1993) 6 BCL 54.

Lists of the abbreviations used for various reporting services can be usually found in legal libraries and some legal dictionaries. However, citing more than one report is usually redundant, and it is not recommended under normal circumstances. If only one reference is given, it is preferable to use the official reports.

## 10.7 Lists of References

Legal authorities do not generally appear in a list of references. If a list of those authorities which are significant to understanding the work is desirable these may be set apart from the body of the reference list and listed alphabetically under a subheading 'Legal authorities'.

# 11 ELECTRONIC REFERENCES

## 11.1 Types of Electronic Sources

Electronic sources must be used with great care. The greatest difficulties are the variable quality of the information they contain, the fact that sites alter or disappear, the possibility of mistaking unofficial or crank sites for official ones, and often the lack of ascription to authors. Information which is not ascribed to an author, should be treated with reserve, and information which does not appear to be scholarly, that is deriving from an appropriate institution or electronic journal, should be treated even more care, if used at all. You should establish which of the following three categories applies to the source you are using.

## 11.2 Journals and similar sources

Many sources including reputable journals, appear and remain on the Web indefinitely, and carry a date of publication. These can be freely used and if they are in pdf format can be cited just as if they were used in the hard copy without referring to their Web location. If they are in a more fluid format you should cite the author, title, journal &c, and also the URL.

Richard Matthews.& Brian McDonald, Cities under siege: urban planning and the threat of infectious disease, *Journal of the American Planning Association*, vol 72, no 1 (1976), pp 109-117.

OR

Richard Matthews.& Brian McDonald, Cities under siege: urban planning and the threat of infectious disease, *Journal of the American Planning Association*, vol. 72, no. 1, [www.csa.com.ezproxy.lib.unimelb.edu.au](http://www.csa.com.ezproxy.lib.unimelb.edu.au).

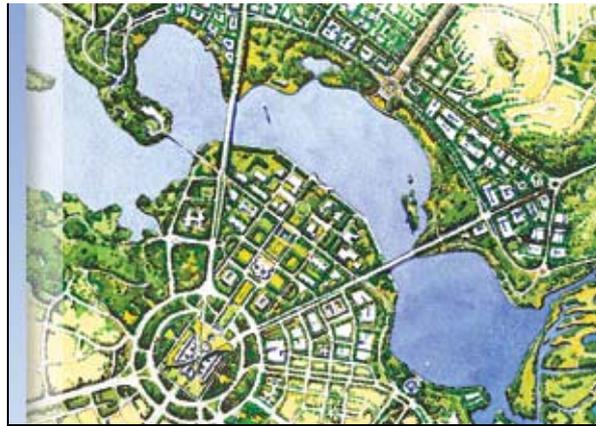
## 11.3 Other acceptable reference sources

Other sources, such as government statistics, are from reputable origins, but are impermanent or are regularly updated or revised. To cite such a source it is necessary to give the URL, and the date you accessed it. If it is an encyclopedia or similar reference work you should try establish the author (of the article, not the work as a whole). If there is no author it must be regarded as suspect. Generally you can take a basic fact, such as the longitude of Mexico City, from these sources without much risk, and you would not need to cite the source for such a fact. Illustrations can also be taken from such a source, but must be fully cited.

Royal Australian Institute of Architects, *Submission to the Review of Higher Education Financing and Policy*. (Manuka [ACT] no date), <http://www.dest.gov.au/archive/highered/hereview/submissions/submissions/R/RoyalAustInstArchitects.html/>, retrieved 10 July 2006

'Councils to fight for better roads', *Age*, 7 July 2006, retrieved 4 July 2006 from <http://www.theage.com.au/news/NATIONAL/Councils-to-fight-for-better-roads/2006/07/04/1151778915529.html>.

[But if you have the page number you can cite this like a normal newspaper item with no reference to its electronic source].



The Griffin Legacy: A Strategic Vision. *National Capital Authority*, <[http://www.nationalcapital.gov.au/planning\\_and\\_urban\\_design](http://www.nationalcapital.gov.au/planning_and_urban_design), 2006> (accessed 9 July 2006)

#### 11.4 Dubious reference sources

Some works are not from reputable sources, notably the *Wikipedia*, which is compiled by public input and is not reliable at all (though the information **may** be accurate, and it may give you clues as to what to look for in a more reliable source). Illustrations from such sources can be used if you cite them fully.

#### 11.5 World Wide Web sources in general

The world-wide web is subject to little or no regulation on publishing standards or authenticity. Even where the requirements described above are not met you may wish to cite it to illustrate something – the rise of neo-Nazism, or anti-development propaganda. Unless a document has some reference to indicate that it has been published officially, it should be treated as an unpublished work, citing author, title of document, URL, place of publication, date, as in:

M Gray, 'Wow, The Web is BIG',  
<http://www.mit.edu:8001/people/mkgray/wow-its-big.html>,  
Cambridge [Massachusetts], 1994.

Note that the length of an URL, and the ambiguities involved in introducing hyphens, may make it necessary to break the line before and/or after it. Although this is unsatisfactory, no solution has yet been found.

### 11.6 Unusable reference sources

Yet other sources are completely ephemeral, are trade or promotional material, private blogs &c, and are useless.

### 11.7 CD-ROM Sources

CD-ROMs are basically a publication medium, therefore, the normal citation methods apply to the type of document being referenced. There will usually be a publisher of the CD-ROM itself.

## 12 MAJOR REPORTS AND THESES

### 12.1 General requirements

A major report or thesis is something closer to a book than an essay, and correspondingly more elaborate. Of what follows, only the cover, title page, contents, introduction, the text itself, the conclusion and the bibliography are essential. The other items are not required, and are in some cases undesirable.

### 12.2 Cover and binding

The cover should be durable, presentable, and capable of keeping the contents secure. It should bear the author's name and the title, and preferably the name of the subject and the lecturer. If the submission is to be lodged in the Branch Library or elsewhere, the **spine** should also bear the author's name and the title. If it is necessary to write this sideways, it should read **from the bottom upwards**.

It is now normal university practice for theses to be submitted in a removable binding so that corrections indicated by the examiners can be made to the relevant pages, without the whole work being retyped and/or recopied. This is recommended for all major reports, providing only that the binding used - even if temporary - is durable and will keep the pages secure. It must also be capable of opening out flat to allow the work to be read, and none of the text should disappear into the gutter [the centre] so as to be unreadable.

### 12.3 Frontispiece

A frontispiece may be a portrait, map or other illustration of general relevance to the topic, but it is not necessary, and in most cases it is undesirable for work submitted in this Faculty. Where a frontispiece *is* used the source must be given, just as for other illustrations, either on the same page or in a list of illustrations.

### 12.4 Title page

A title page should always bear the title, author, publisher, place of publication and date of a document and, if it is a bona fide publication, the International Standard Book Number [ISBN].

In the case of a student report it should include not only the title, but the name of the subject for which it is submitted. It should include the author's name plus his/her student number and address. It should bear the date in the form prescribed in these notes (that is, 25 June 1995), but there is of course no publisher, and the place is implicit and need not be stated.

For a thesis you should consult the issued requirements in relation to that degree, but, broadly, the title page should bear the title, the name of the degree for which it is submitted, the name of the faculty, the name of the university and the date (usually month and year).

### 12.5 Copyright & acknowledgment

A copyright statement may be required by the copyright owners of material which you have reproduced, and this acknowledgment is usually best made (in whatever form has been prescribed) on the reverse of the title page. More generally, any very major use of a single source should usually be acknowledged either in a separate statement here or in the preface. Apart from this it is best to make detailed acknowledgments in the text, footnotes and captions, as the subject matter arises.

### 12.6 Dedication and foreword

A dedication is an archaic conceit and not appropriate. A foreword is not appropriate for university submissions either. It is a piece written by

somebody other than the author, such as a leader in the relevant field, or the representative of a company which has sponsored the work. It may amount to a sort of endorsement (which will not cut any ice in an academic context), set the work in context, or explain special circumstances surrounding the publication.

### 12.7 Abstract

An abstract is usually required in a thesis or longer work. It includes a short statement of the aims and methods employed, and the conclusions reached, but it is not a summary of the whole content. It is typically 100 to 300 words in length, and should appear before the contents page.

In a professional consulting report the abstract is often replaced by an 'executive summary'. This lists the recommendations arising out of the report, and is therefore a quick guide to the proposed course or program of action.

### 12.8 Contents

The contents page should be headed 'Contents' and list the main divisions or chapters, in the same form as they appear within the text, with the page numbers upon which they commence. It should present the whole structure clearly, including any appendices and distinct blocks of illustrations. For example:

<b>CONTENTS</b>	
<b>PREFACE</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1. ORIGINS OF BATCH MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>2. PROBLEMS IN CURRENT PRACTICE</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>3. THE JAPANESE APPROACH</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>4. A COMPUTER MODEL FOR BATCHING</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>. .....</b>	
<b>11. CONCLUSION</b>	<b>152</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b>	
<b>A. Batch modules in current Australian projects</b>	<b>158</b>
<b>B. Cost breakdown of batching operations</b>	<b>161</b>
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	<b>167</b>

Provide that it does not detract from the clarity it may in some cases be useful to include a brief note under each section or chapter heading, summarising its contents (especially when, as is usual, there is no index at the rear):

<b>CONTENTS</b>	
<b>PREFACE</b>	1
<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	3
<b>1. ORIGINS OF BATCH MANAGEMENT</b>	5
The Fordian model and economic rationalisation; the evolution of linear streaming; the impact of the critical path; the failure of the Belgian system.	
<b>2. PROBLEMS IN CURRENT PRACTICE</b>	23
The modularity/economy conflict; labour difficulties; redeployment and training; imputed tax penalties.	
<b>3. THE JAPANESE APPROACH</b>	41
The Shen Jo-Yi principle; .....	
.....	

## 12.9 Preface

A preface is not usually required. It can however be the place where the author makes her/his views known and explains what has been attempted, how it was done and what was achieved. It may include acknowledgments to people and institutions who have helped (without repeating any more formal acknowledgment made earlier). It may explain in general terms some of the problems in the area, or the opportunities for further research. Although this is not universal, good practice is to place the preface after rather than before the contents page.

## 12.10 Introduction

The introduction is the beginning of the main text and its purpose is to orient the reader and focus attention on the topic of the document. The introduction should relate clearly to the title and make its relevance clear.

The introduction to a report will normally incorporate:

- indications of the aim and purpose of the document
- details of the terms of reference

- any necessary explanatory information, such as that relating to why the document was prepared
- a statement about any assumptions made which are relevant to the choice of content and the structure of the argument.

Depending on the length of the entire document it may also include details of the context and the background material. In longer documents these may warrant separate subdivisions or chapters.

Recommended reference: Windschuttle & Windschuttle (p 153) for more detailed material on the writing of introductions to essays.

### **12.11 Conclusion**

The conclusion is a coherent and logical statement of the endpoint of your argument. It is the point towards which the rest of the document has been leading. The conclusion should provide a brief and accurate overview of the most important aspects of the preceding argument with a clear account of the results, the outcomes and, if appropriate, the recommendations. The conclusion should relate clearly to the aim of the document expressed in the introduction.

### **12.12 Appendices**

Included in this section is material supplementary to, but supportive of, the text. It may include material too lengthy to include in the text, supporting tables, illustrations, copies of relevant documents.

Each appendix is numbered and each begins on a new page.

### **12.13 Bibliography**

See the guidelines elsewhere in these notes.

## 12.14 Index

Useful though it is, an index is not required and is very rarely provided in academic submissions. The preparation of an index is a time-consuming and rather specialised task, and though there are computer programs now available for the purpose, considerable work is still required to produce a sensible result. Where there is an index, it is located at the very end, so that the reader can instantaneously find it.

## 13. FURTHER REFERENCE

### 13.1 Morgan on essay writing

A useful guide to general questions of how to write essays and assignments is:

Malcolm Morgan, *Essay Writing*, Melbourne 1991.

This discusses questions like pre-planning, taking notes, writing a first draft, and so on.

### 13.2 Evans on theses

The best general guide on this topic is:

David Evans, *How to Write a better Thesis or Report*, Melbourne 1995.

### 13.3 Other useful references

J R L-B Bernard, *A Short Guide to Traditional Grammar*, Sydney 1975.

H W Fowler, *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, 2nd ed, Oxford 1975.

Stephen Murray-Smith, *Right Words: a Guide to English Usage in Australia*, 2nd ed, Melbourne 1989.

Keith Windschuttle & Elizabeth Windschuttle, *Writing, Researching, Communicating*, Sydney 1988.

*Your Guide to Writing Reports* [Victorian Government Printing Office], Melbourne 1986.

### 13.4 The AGPS Style Manual

Another reference which may be helpful is the former Australian Government Publishing Service style manual (now published privately but still commonly referred to as the AGPS Style Manual):

*Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 6th ed, Milton [Queensland] 1992.

This is helpful on all sorts of questions to do with writing and preparing manuscripts, especially for publication. The book is the best authority on what it refers to as the 'Author-Date' system, otherwise known as the 'Harvard' system, but some of the conventions differ from those which have been described here. A copy is available in the branch library.

**SAMPLE****Footnotes**

1. Morgan, *Essay Writing*, pp 21-3.
2. Morgan, *Essay Writing*, p 42.
3. Blair Gardiner, lecture in Existentialist Aesthetics 2, Faculty of Architecture, Building & Planning, 5 June 2005.
4. Alexander Sutherland [ed], *Victoria and its Metropolis* (2 vols, Melbourne 1888), II, p 314.
5. *Property Weekly*, 17 July 2006, p 3.
6. Interview with Professor Kim Dovey, Faculty of Architecture, Building & Planning, University of Melbourne, 16 August 2006.
7. R Bell, 'The impact of detrimental conditions on property values', *Appraisal Journal*, 66 (4) (1998), p 385.
8. Morgan, *Essay Writing*, p 31.
9. Bell, 'Impact of detrimental conditions', p 387.
10. Australian Taxation Office, 'Good Tax Guide', [pdf file], at 'Australian Taxation Office Home Page', <http://www.ato.gov.au/home>, November 2001 [18 October 2000].
11. Wight, 'The Land Policy of the La Trobe Administration', *passim*.
12. J Pochon, 'Biological factors in weathering of stones', in *Study of the Weathering of Stones* [conferences held in Brussels 1966-7, International Council of Monuments and Sites] (Paris 1967), pp 103-4.
13. Guo, *Visual Dictionary of Chinese Architecture*, sv Pishi Zhuang.

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- 'Australian Taxation Office Home Page', <http://www.ato.gov.au/home>, November 2001 [18 October 2000].
- R Bell, 'The impact of detrimental conditions on property values', *Appraisal Journal*, 66 (4) (1998), pp 380-391
- B Dickey, 'Health and the State in Australia, 1788-1977', *Journal of Australian Studies*, XII, 2 (November 1977), pp 50-63.
- Lynne Armitage, 'Meaning in the Built Environment', lecture notes issued in the Faculty of Architecture, Building & Planning, University of Melbourne 2005.
- Jane Jacobs, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*, Harmondsworth [Middlesex] 1975 [1961].
- Sara Lehrman, 'Antonio dall'Abacco', in A K Placzek [ed], *Macmillan Encyclopedia of Architects*, 4 vols, New York 1982, I, pp 13-14.
- Melbourne Sights and Sounds*. Melbourne 2002.

Malcolm Morgan, *Essay Writing*, Melbourne 1991.

Qinghua Guo, *A Visual Dictionary of Chinese Architecture*, Mulgrave [Victoria] 2002.

Derryn Hinch, Unpublished diaries of Derryn Hinch, 1997-2002, held in the Melbourne University Archives, Parkville, Victoria.

J G Wight, 'The Land Policy of the La Trobe Administration in Victoria, 1847-1854', BA, University of Melbourne 1954.

### ESSAY WRITING CHECKLIST: COMMON ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

The following questions are frequently used to determine the mark your essay will receive:

- Is the essay structured around a clear central argument which is stated in the introduction, developed in the body of the essay and summarised in the conclusion? [sections 1.5, 2.3-2.5]
- Does the central argument respond directly to the essay question? [1.5]
- To what extent does the essay engage with the critical literature? [1.2, 4.4]
- Does the essay have a thoroughly researched and well presented bibliography? [5.12]
- Are footnotes used to acknowledge the use of critical literature? [4.3, 6]
- Are well-chosen examples incorporated, where relevant, to support the arguments being expressed? [4.6]
- Is the essay divided into well-formed paragraphs ordered logically with topic sentences, examples/discussion, analysis of the point. [2.4]
- Are arguments expressed clearly and concisely? [1.3. 1.4]
- Is the essay presented carefully, avoiding grammatical, spelling and similar errors? [2.6, 3]
- Does the assignment adhere to the formatting requirements and the set word limit? [8]