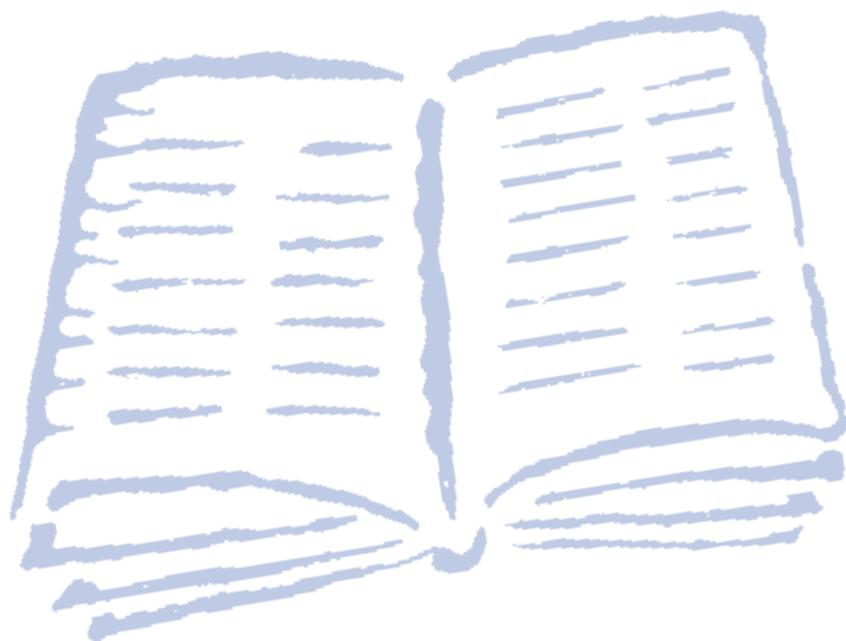


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Introduction

The original version of this booklet marked a new stage in the development of the Learner Support Unit (LSU) at Mary Immaculate College (MIC). In 1997, the unit was established by the former MIC President, Sr. Angela Bugler, with funding from the Higher Education Authority under that body's Target Funding Initiative. The initial brief of the LSU was to audit the challenges facing adult learners on returning to third-level learning and to provide a support service to help overcome those obstacles. The task of building a network within MIC turned out to be a two-way process: the LSU, in attempting to improve, facilitate and optimise learning at third level, learnt a great deal also from its clients. The needs of adult learners at third level are very often similar to the needs of those who come directly from second level schools. This *Study Skills Handbook* addresses that common core and will serve both constituencies. It offers practical advice on day-to-day strategies for successful learning at degree level. Essential 'survival' skills are imparted in areas such as essay writing, referencing, study reading, time management, lecture note-taking and exam techniques.

This new edition of the handbook has been researched and compiled by Geraldine Brosnan, Sheila O'Halloran, James Binchy and Anne O'Keeffe (who has led the unit to its present flourishing state). Its content has been informed by the needs of those who have attended one-to-one support sessions, Academic Writing foundation courses and learner training seminars run by the LSU at MIC over the past four years. I would like to thank most sincerely the four writers/researchers, whose commitment has been very impressive. The handbook should be seen too as a recognition of the dedication of our students who, often against formidable odds, pursue the goal of attaining a third level degree. I hope that through using it they will be assisted in their personal mission. Finally, I would like to acknowledge the support for the Learner Support Unit provided by the College's Fo-Choiste and the Higher Education Authority. I look forward to many more initiatives emanating from this unit in the future.

John Hayes

Chair, Learner Support Unit Steering Group

Co-Ordinating Head, Arts Departments, Mary Immaculate College, Limerick.

Taking Lecture Notes

University lectures are usually quite formal and they are held in large groups. The lecturer speaks for at least 45 minutes and the student takes notes. Note-taking at lectures is an important skill to acquire. This chapter aims to give you some useful advice on how to make the task easier.

REMEMBER!

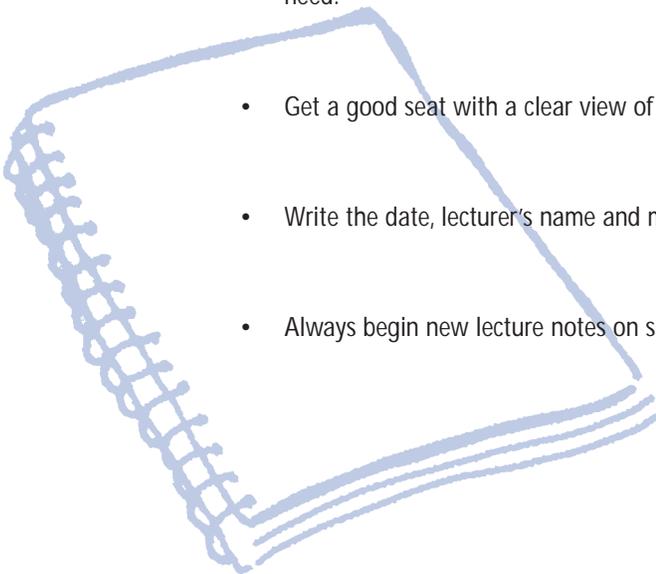
It is impossible to expect that for a period of 45 minutes you will be able to note down everything that is said in a continuous flow of speech.

HOW TO MAKE THE TASK EASIER:

Develop the habit of performing certain tasks before, during and after lectures (see Moran, 1997: 48).

1. Before the Lecture

- Read through previous lecture notes – new information tends to be based on what you have covered in past lectures.
- Be there – it is very important to attend all lectures. Copying fellow students' notes is not the same. Someone else's notes may not be entirely accurate and key information could be missing.
- Be in the lecture theatre early with pen, paper, folders, highlighters or any other equipment you may need.
- Get a good seat with a clear view of the overhead projector, computer screen or blackboard.
- Write the date, lecturer's name and module title/code at the top of the page.
- Always begin new lecture notes on separate pages – this is vital for filing later.



Taking Lecture Notes

2. During the Lecture

Pay attention to lecture structure. Most lecturers use the following, as stated in Moran (1997: 49):

- **Introduction**

This usually includes a summary of what was covered in previous classes and provides an outline of the current lecture and background to the topic which is going to be introduced.

- **Main Body**

The main body of the lecture outlines the principle points of the topic.

Be selective about what you write during the main body of the lecture, but make sure you note key names, dates, and ideas.

Try to think as you listen: this will help you question and understand. Record any thoughts or questions that come to mind.

- **Conclusion**

This usually entails a review of the main points and this is where the lecturer will summarise the most important ideas.

Be aware that after concentrating for 45 minutes or so, your concentration is likely to ebb.

3. After the Lecture

To get the most from your lectures you will need to do some follow up work. Additional reading is nearly always expected. Many lecturers will recommend texts. See chapter on *Reading*.

- Review notes after every lecture.
 - Try to see connections between this lecture and previous ones.
 - Look for concepts that receive regular emphasis.
- Write a summary of your notes.
 - Condense the main points into a short paragraph at the end of your notes.
 - Try to do this immediately after the lecture or at the end of the day – it will help you understand and remember the content.

Taking Lecture Notes

- Go to the library.
 - Find the key references cited by lecturers. See chapter on *Reading*.
- Develop a filing system for your notes/handouts. You are not finished with them yet!

USEFUL TIPS

- Establish a comfortable note-taking style. These are your own notes. What is important is that **you** can make sense of them.
- It can be helpful to use symbols and abbreviations.

Here are some examples of commonly-used abbreviations and symbols:

>	Is greater than	E.g.	Example
<	Is less than	&	And
%	Percent	C.f.	Confer/Compare
B/e	Because	. ∴	Therefore
+	Plus	etc	

- Develop your own shorthand system e.g. T= theory, Dev = development, Ed = education, confirmⁿ = confirmation.
- Notes should be brief. You do not need to write full sentences.
- It is a good idea to leave lines free in between points because lecturers sometimes add to earlier points.
- Be organised and develop a consistent pattern to help you make sense of your notes. Consider using numbers, roman numerals, capital/lower case letters, bullet points, different colour pens etc.
- Using diagrams or drawings can help you retain information.

Taking Lecture Notes

- Most importantly, keep asking yourself questions. Remember it is difficult to concentrate fully for 45 minutes – refocus your concentration regularly by questioning yourself silently e.g. what is the main point here? How does this information relate to what I already know?
- Many lecturers will provide handouts and work through the documents during the lecture. Extra information and examples are often provided and you can record additional information in the margins or on extra paper.
- **If you lose concentration...**
 - Do not panic!
 - Listen for keywords to put you back on track.
 - Try not to glance at your neighbours' notes or ask them questions. This may only be a distraction.
 - Leave blanks – you can follow up after the lecture.
 - Do not give up at any stage of the lecture. Even at the conclusion, the lecturer may refer back in a way that can help to fill in a blank!

Managing Your Time

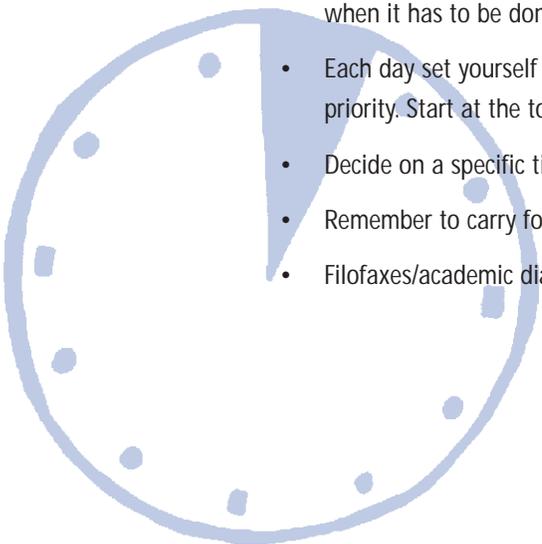
The aim of this chapter is to provide you with some tips to help you manage your time as an adult learner.

How do you spend your time?

- Keep a diary and log how you spend your time every day for a week. Then, examine it and decide if you need to make some changes.
- You may have more time than you think. We waste a lot of time – for example, sitting in front of the television or shopping every day instead of once a week.
- Make sure you have well-defined responsibilities at home. For example, are you spending time doing tasks that could be done by someone else?
- Prioritise your activities – make sure you have clear study objectives, both for the long and the short term. For example, if you have five different assignments to be submitted on week 8, plan carefully to avoid doing all of them in the last week. Read the advice on *Studying* in Chapter 7.
- Manage interruptions – let the people you live with know when you are not to be interrupted.
- Try not to take on too much outside of your college workload.
- Allow time for exercise and other recreation.
- Remember tiredness will reduce efficiency. Try to get adequate sleep; this will help maintain energy levels over your college week.
- Arrange time for socialising.

Getting organised

- Make 'to-do lists' – list everything you can think of that needs to be done, how long it will take, and when it has to be done for.
- Each day set yourself realistic targets of things to do from your list. Rewrite your list according to priority. Start at the top and work down.
- Decide on a specific time when you will review the past day and plan the next.
- Remember to carry forward any uncompleted tasks to schedule for the next day.
- Filofaxes/academic diaries can be very useful and may help you become more organised.



Managing Your Time

Some Practical Suggestions

- Set realistic deadlines and keep them.
- Arrange tasks in a logical order.
- Tackle one task at a time.
- Cluster similar tasks together – for example, research for an assignment could be done in conjunction with extra reading in the library.
- Divide one enormous task into several easier tasks.
- Overestimate the time required for a task. Think in terms of pre-task, task, and post-task. For example, if you have an essay to write, you may need to choose the title from a list, you will need to research it in the library, you will have to develop a structure, you will need to write an introduction, the main body and a conclusion. The essay will require several redrafts. In addition, the essay may have to be typed and photocopied. Do not forget to allow time for submitting it.
- Deal with lecture notes in an organised manner and keep them up-to-date. This will save a lot of time at the end of the semester when exams are approaching.

Remember

One way to beat procrastination is to do tomorrow's work today.

Reading

Most third level courses involve a significant amount of study reading. This skill is one not usually taught in secondary school and once acquired will help you manage many aspects of your university education.

This chapter is designed to provide you with a few tips on reading skills for study purposes.

THE PQRR TECHNIQUE

The PQRR technique devised by Robinson (1961) is widely acknowledged as one of the more successful approaches to developing advanced reading skills (see Moran, 1997: 60).

P	Previewing
Q	Questioning
R	Reading
R	Reviewing

P Previewing

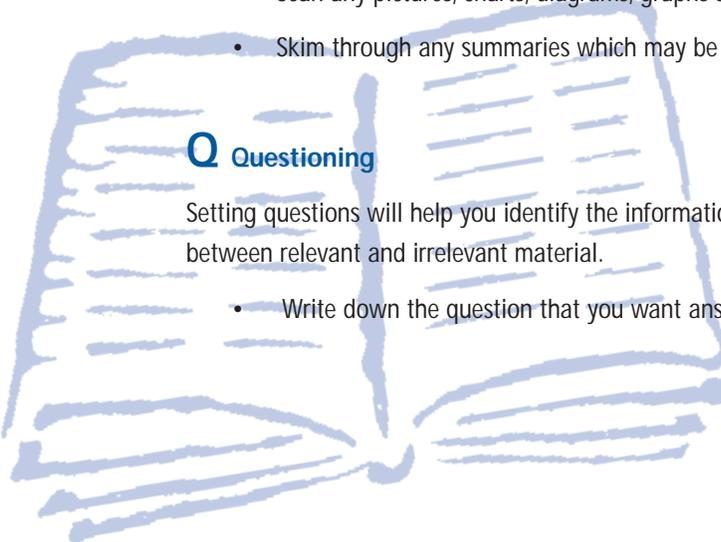
The objective here is to help you set the scene for your reading session and to activate your background knowledge. It will also help develop your memory.

- Survey the chapter briefly for 2 - 3 minutes, skimming through the pages.
- Look at the section headings and the paragraphs to see how the chapter is organised.
- Scan any pictures, charts, diagrams, graphs and tables.
- Skim through any summaries which may be available at the end of the chapter.

Q Questioning

Setting questions will help you identify the information you are looking for and allow you to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant material.

- Write down the question that you want answered from the chapter.



Reading

R Reading

- Read the chapter carefully with your questions in mind. Never read aimlessly.
- Take more time with difficult material.
- Use your dictionary, if necessary.

R Reviewing

Once you have read the material, check your understanding of what you have studied.

- Summarise what you have understood from the chapter.
- Examine your summary notes - do they answer your original study question?

FOLLOW UP ACTIVITIES

- Consult similar textbooks with the same study question in mind.
- Compare summaries, noting the similarities and differences.
- Practise the PQRR method.
- If you do not already have a study group, considering forming one.
- Encourage the other members to practise the PQRR method - you can always set your study question together.
- Explain to the others in the study group what you have learnt and encourage group members to ask you questions on the material.
- The same methods can be applied to reviewing lecture notes, revising for exams etc.

Developing a new skill will take time and effort. However, in the longer term the PQRR method will save you time and make your reading more effective.

Essay Writing

ESSAY WRITING

The ability to master university-level essay writing is central to success in studying for a degree. There are some notable differences between secondary school essays and university essays:

- You will not be asked to write descriptive 'write all you know'-type essays at university. The norm is to either discuss/criticise or compare and contrast.
- The main areas to consider when writing your essay apart from the content itself, are *Structure* (how you organise your ideas) and *Style* (how you write your sentences).

1 STRUCTURE

This section suggests some models for restructuring your ideas for essays and exam questions.

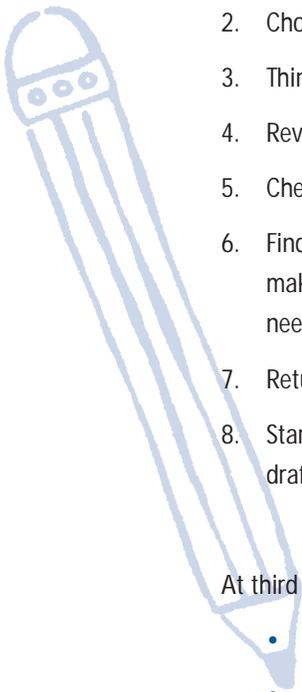
Beginning the Essay

Many students find it very difficult to get started. The best procedure is as follows:

1. Never launch straight into an essay or exam answer. Begin by organising your ideas into a structure.
2. Choose a title as early as possible.
3. Think of the points you will include; jot them down as they come to you.
4. Review your lecture notes; these will provide a starting point.
5. Check your reading list for references to books or articles on the essay topic.
6. Find these books or articles in the library and start reading for relevant points for your essay. When you make notes, remember to write down the name of the book, the author and the page number. You will need this information for referencing later.
7. Return to your list of ideas and add to or change it in light of your reading.
8. Start writing as soon as possible. The process of writing is very important. Research shows that the more drafts you do of your essay, the better the end product.

At third level, the most common essay types are:

- **Discursive essays**
- **Comparative/contrastive essays**



Essay Writing

Discursive Essays

Remember that you will not be asked simply to describe something. When you have finished your essay, ask yourself: *could the title of the essay you have written be changed to 'write all you know about X'?* If the answer is *Yes*, then you will need to go back and address the actual question for discussion in the essay title.

Take this example title: *Discuss the impact of the Vikings on Ireland.*

The most common pitfall at this point is to start writing a description of the impact of the Vikings on Ireland. This is not what is required. The following steps will help you structure this style of essay.

STEP 1 Turn the title into a question.

For example, *Did the Vikings have a positive or negative impact on Ireland?*

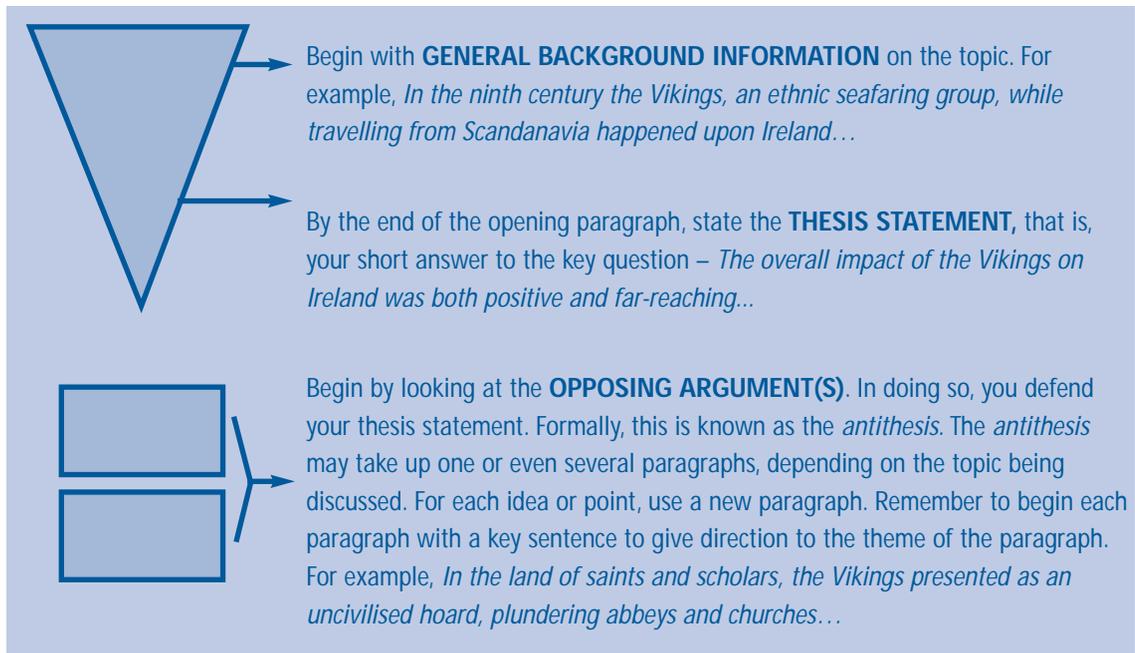
STEP 2 Find a short answer to this question.

For example, *The overall impact of the Vikings on Ireland was both positive and far-reaching.*

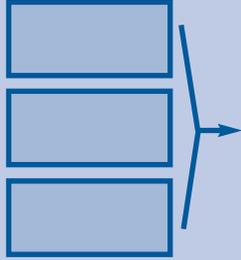
This answer is your **THESIS STATEMENT**, your 'in-a-nutshell' answer. This is what you must prove in your essay.

IMPORTANT! Remember that in most cases, there is no one right answer. You can set up any argument as long as you can support it throughout the essay.

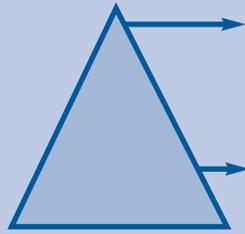
Imagine this shape to the structure of a discursive essay:



Essay Writing



When you have dealt with the opposing argument(s), move on to the **SUPPORTING ARGUMENTS**. This stage is known as the *synthesis*; your thesis statement is stronger at this point, because it has withstood the opposing argument. Now deal with all the reasons why you believe the *Vikings had a positive and far-reaching impact on Ireland*. For example, *The Vikings founded Limerick and Dublin and imported many varied skills such as boat-building and iron crafts*.



Begin the **CONCLUSION** with a review of the **THESIS STATEMENT**. If your essay is well-structured, the expanded thesis statement in the conclusion should be a summary of all the key sentences. For example, *As has been discussed, the Vikings influenced Ireland in many ways, some negative, and many more positive. While they...*

By the end of the conclusion, you should move to more 'general rounding-off' statements. For example, *The Vikings' strong impact on Ireland continued for over four hundred years – an impact which is still evident in the fabric of contemporary Ireland*. Remember never to introduce important new ideas in the conclusion. If they are vital points in the argument, they should be in the body of the essay.

Comparative/Contrastive Essays

Very often, you will be asked in both essays and exams to take two items and compare and contrast them.

Compare = look at the similarities

Contrast = look at the differences

First Steps in a Comparative/Contrastive Essay

STEP 1 When researching the topic, note the points of comparison and contrast.

STEP 2 Organise these points into different general themes. For example, if you were comparing two ballads, you might have general themes such as imagery, language and so on. Under any of these headings, there may be both points of comparison and contrast.

Essay Writing

STEP 3 Order these general themes into a sequence; for example:

- Theme 1 – Historical origins
- Theme 2 – Structure
- Theme 3 – Language
- Theme 4 – Imagery

STEP 4 **Decide on a structure – Horizontal or Vertical?**

- The horizontal structure often suits comparison/contrast of ‘small’ items, involving detailed analysis; for example, two short stories.
- The vertical structure may be more suited to comparing/contrasting ‘large’ areas, such as two philosophical ideas, two historical or political periods, and so on.

The Horizontal Structure

This involves bringing the two items of comparison/contrast into direct ‘contact’; see the diagram below:

- **Introduction** (including thesis statement, as discussed above).

- **Main Body**

Theme 1

e.g. Historical origins of ballads.

Begin with a key sentence that ‘signposts’ the reader as to the theme, for example, ‘The origins of the two ballads differ greatly both historically and socially...’ Explain and develop the point. Support what you have said with examples from the ballads (do not begin with the quotations from the ballads).

Item A

A



Item B

B

Theme 2

e.g. Structure of ballads.

Continue as above, developing the next theme of comparison or/and contrast.

A



B

Theme 3

e.g. Language of ballads.

A



B

Theme 4 etc.

e.g. Imagery.

A



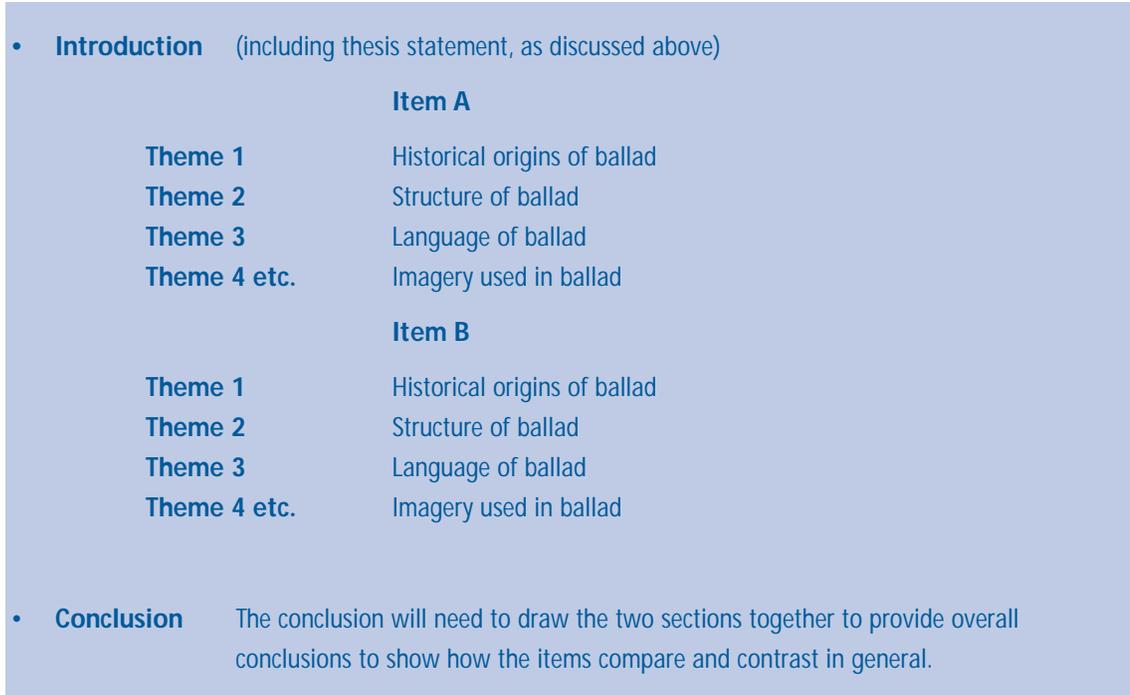
B

- **Conclusion**

Essay Writing

The Vertical Structure

This entails dealing with the items one after the other, or 'vertically'. You first take Item A and discuss it in relation to each theme, and subsequently you apply the same treatment to Item B. See the diagram:



2 STYLE

A clear writing style is necessary, otherwise the value of your message may be lost. Here are some practical tips to improve your essay-writing style:

- **Avoid Repetition of Words**
Using the same words within a few sentences looks careless.
- **Avoid Repetition of Ideas**
Repeating the same ideas is symptomatic of a writer who lacks clarity of thought.
- **Avoid Redundancy**
Redundant words can be deleted. For example, 'Here in this country and in other countries abroad' could be reduced to 'Here and in other countries'.

Essay Writing

- **Avoid Wordiness**

Using too many words can sometimes be a greater problem than using the wrong word. Choose a more direct way of making your point.

Example A below could be reduced to the less 'wordy' form in example B:

Example A

The goal they are working for is not practically so much to produce test-tube babies as to understand what factors there are that are involved in control of the gestation process.

Example B

Their goal is to understand the factors involved in controlling the gestation process.

- **Avoid 'Un-Academic' Language**

Remember that university essays are written in a formal style. This does not mean that they have to contain long and 'difficult' words, but rather that they do not contain features such as:

- *Contractions*: use full forms. Instead of writing "can't", "don't", and so on, always write the full form, for example, "cannot", "do not".
- *Subjective language*: try to sound objective and factual. Here is an example of subjective language in an essay. Notice how it lacks force:

This may be viewed as degrading, but as I heard it argued before, women gained their status from this...

- *First person singular*: In many disciplines, it is the norm not to use 'I'. It is felt that using terms such as *I think, I feel, Now I will conclude*, lessens the objectivity of what is written. However, do consult with your lecturer about this, as in some subjects, the opposite is the case where the writer's personal experience or opinion is very important. Compare these extracts. In the first one, the writer does not use *I* and in the second one s/he does:

Essay Writing

Extract 1

Exaggerated claims have sometimes been made about the degree of power and freedom enjoyed by women in early Irish society. It is true that women feature predominantly in Irish literature, but in reality, the power of women was much more restricted. The Annals provide no instances of a female political or military leader. The society was patriarchal and every aspect of social, political, legal and cultural life was dominated by men, as was the case in every medieval European society.

Extract 2

I believe exaggerated claims have sometimes been made about the degree of power and freedom enjoyed by women in early Irish society. It is true that women feature predominantly in Irish literature, but in reality, the power of women was much more restricted. The Annals provide no instances of a female political or military leader. I feel the society was patriarchal and every aspect of social, political, legal and cultural life was dominated by men, as was the case in every medieval European society.

- *Idioms*: idioms are 'set pieces' or chunks of language; for example, *to kick the bucket* = *to die*. Idioms are too vague to be used in academic writing. Notice the effect of the idiom *to crack the whip* in this example.

Women were controlled by men in all aspects of social and political life in early Irish society, basically, wherever a woman turned there was a male there to crack the whip.

- **Avoid Illogical Sentences**

This probably sounds obvious, but here are some real examples:

Example 1

Only those who were raided had to bear the brunt of the raids.

Example 2

The Irish Literary Movement seems to have remained aloof from the Vikings, and little intercourse on literary as distinct from the popular level seems to have taken place between the two peoples.

Essay Writing

- **Avoid Poor 'Signposting'**

Divide your ideas into paragraphs. The opening sentence of each paragraph should provide the 'signpost', that is, it should signal the essence of the paragraph. Below are two examples. The first one shows a poorly signposted paragraph where the reader is immediately lost. The second example offers a clear indication as to where the paragraph 'is going':

Example 1

Boys began to attend school from the age of six. Formal education was not compulsory. However, most households sent their boys to school for as long as they could afford it. Lessons took place in the open air. Elementary teachers were allowed to charge a fee, like any businessman. As even the poor could afford to send their children to school, it is possible that the Government made some contribution towards educating the young.

Example 2

EMU as a concept has had a lengthy gestation period, during which time global transformations in the areas of trade, finance, technology and politics have radically altered the European continent. The idea of EMU and a single currency was initially mooted during the Treaty of Rome negotiations in 1956, from which the European Community was conceived. With regard to EMU, the treaty was packaged in non-contentious language and it was careful not to threaten in those member states that remained firmly attached to the principle of national sovereignty in monetary matters.

- **Avoid Mixing Tenses**

When you are referring to past, present or future time, be careful not to mix the tenses you use. Here is an example of where a writer moves from past to present, while describing the same period in history. Remember to be consistent:

*But out of the decline of metal work **appeared** stone work. Eventually, there **is** a revival of metal work in the 11th and 12th centuries which **has** a strong Viking influence...*

(Past Simple, Present Simple)

Essay Writing

- **Be Grammatically Parallel**

Good writing style demands that corresponding ideas within a sentence be expressed in parallel grammatical form (for a detailed treatment, see Mohr, 1998: 120). An example of this is the lack of parallel between the nouns 'marriage' and 'unions' in the following example:

*...a detailed description of the many different types of **marriage and unions** that were permitted in Irish law.*

Beware of grammatical 'disagreement'. In the examples below, notice how the words in bold do not agree grammatically.

***Women** were not capable of sale, purchase, contract or transaction without the authority of **her** superior.*

***Women** also had half the honour price of **her** male superior...*

*...e.g. Greece and Rome where women had not as **much rights**...*

*There **was**, however, good **aspects** to their presence...*

***One** of the **situations** that **reflect** that women were fairly treated, was the way in which...*

- **Clarity**

Clarity is usually achieved by expressing a point in the most straightforward way. Avoid very long complicated sentences; redrafting sentences also helps refine ideas. Below are two examples which lack clarity:

[On women in early Irish society]

...Considering the time period we are discussing I feel women emerged well out of it, today in many developing and underdeveloped countries women are shackled and bound to laws which treat them as sub-human and we are citizens of the twentieth century.

In Early Irish Society anybody of any importance was given an honour price, this price represented their status in society a king or Rí had the highest honour price and from the first wife had half the honour price of the husband, this was called a Díre husbands also bought their bride from her father and this bride price or coibche was calculated to the wife's Díre.

Essay Writing

Parentheses (or brackets) can be used in writing to add an explanatory or qualifying phrase within a sentence. However, many writers use parenthesis as a substitute for thinking things through. What sometimes results is a 'premature' idea:

If rape resulted in a child, the rapist was responsible for rearing the child as children were prized in Early Ireland (the whole purpose of marriage was to produce children) this maybe explains the absence of illegitimacy. Punishment for rape was to do with payment.

Referencing in Essays

One of the major differences between a secondary school essay and a university essay is that third level essays must be set in the context of research that has been done in a particular area by experts in the field. This means that in addition to your own ideas, you must also make reference to relevant points from your reading in your essay.

WARNING!
BEWARE OF PLAGIARISM!

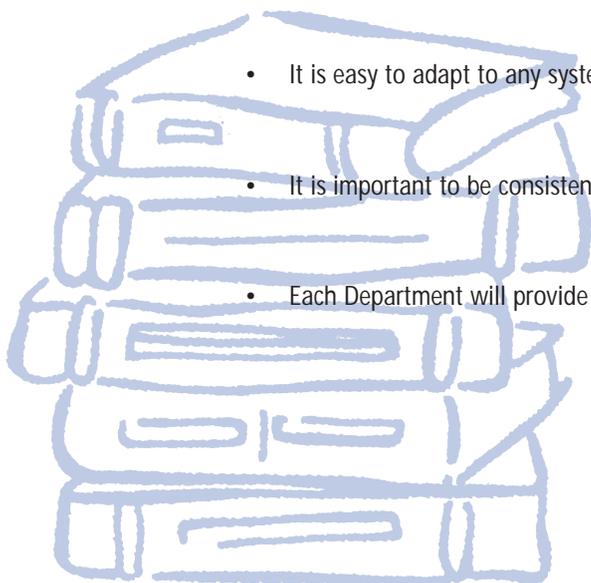
What is Plagiarism?

If you read a relevant point in a book, you may want to use it in your essay. This is normal practice. However, beware that if you reproduce a point from a book without referencing it (i.e. saying where it came from), you are breaking rules. To use someone else's ideas in this way is seen as intellectual theft, and it is more commonly referred to as plagiarism.

Referencing systems

- There are established systems for referencing the work of others. Many systems exist, but in this chapter two main types will be illustrated:
 1. The Harvard System (also known as the 'name/date' system)
 2. The Footnoting/Endnoting system

- It is easy to adapt to any system of referencing once you know the basic components.
- It is important to be consistent in how you reference. In other words, do not mix systems.
- Each Department will provide details of which referencing system they require you to use in your essays.



Referencing in Essays

What are the basic components of any referencing system?

Every time you read a book or an article, note the following details. These can then be worked into the reference style that your Department requires.

- 1. Author(s)**
- 2. Editor(s)** – sometimes books are compiled by an editor or editors whose name(s) will be on the cover of the book. In an edited book, a different author normally writes each chapter.
- 3. Author of chapter** – note the author of the chapter you are reading if it is in an edited book, as well as the chapter title and the page numbers.
- 4. Year of publication** – you will find this information in the first few pages of the book. Look for the © symbol; the year of publication is usually next to it.
- 5. Title of book**
- 6. Publisher** – the company that published the book, for example, Cambridge University Press, Penguin etc.
- 7. Place of publication** – where the book was published. This information is usually located in the pages immediately inside the cover of the book. Very often, there will be a list of three or four locations, for example, London, Sydney, New York. In such cases, note down the location nearest you, as you can assume that the edition of the book that you are reading has come from the nearest point of publication.
- 8. Article** – if you are reading an article from a periodical or journal, note the:
 - author of the article,
 - title of the article,
 - page numbers of the article,
 - title of the journal,
 - the volume and/or issue number of the journal.

How to reference the work of others in the body of your essay

When you want to include a point you have read in a book or article in your essay, you have two options:

- (1) Paraphrase** – reporting the information indirectly.
- (2) Quotation** – quoting the words directly from the book.

1. PARAPHRASING

- Paraphrasing involves reporting a point an author makes in a book or article etc. in your own words rather than in direct quotation.

Referencing in Essays

Below are examples of paraphrase in both Harvard and Footnoting referencing systems

System	Harvard	Footnoting
Example	According to Turner and Ash (1997: 34), the well-being of tourists and the safety of their property are threatened by terrorism, disease, accidents, theft, cheating and even local law enforcement.	According to Turner and Ash, the well-being of tourists and the safety of their property are threatened by terrorism, disease, accidents, theft, cheating and even local law enforcement ¹ .
Notes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1997 = the year in which the book was published. • : 34 = this number refers to the page from where the point was taken. Giving the page number is optional in paraphrasing in the Harvard system, but it is a good idea to insert the page number throughout as it will save you trying to recollect later. • In the Harvard system there are no footnote or endnote references. However, footnotes may be used to give extra information². • The full details of Turner and Ash's book will be given at the very end of the essay in the <i>Reference</i> section (sometimes called <i>bibliography</i>). There is no need to mention the title of the book in the body of the essay. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In this system, you insert a number next to the mention of the author or at the end of the relevant sentence. • This number corresponds to the number at the foot of the page (<i>hence footnote</i>). • Start with number 1 and continue numbering throughout the essay. • You also have the option of putting these numbers at the end of the essay (<i>endnotes</i>). Your lecturer may specify a preference. • There is no need to mention the title of the book in the body of the essay as it will be in the footnote and again in the <i>Reference</i> section at the end of the essay. • Footnotes may also be used to give extra information².

¹ Michael Turner and Sharon Ash, *Tourism and Crime in the USA*, (New York, 1997) p. 34.

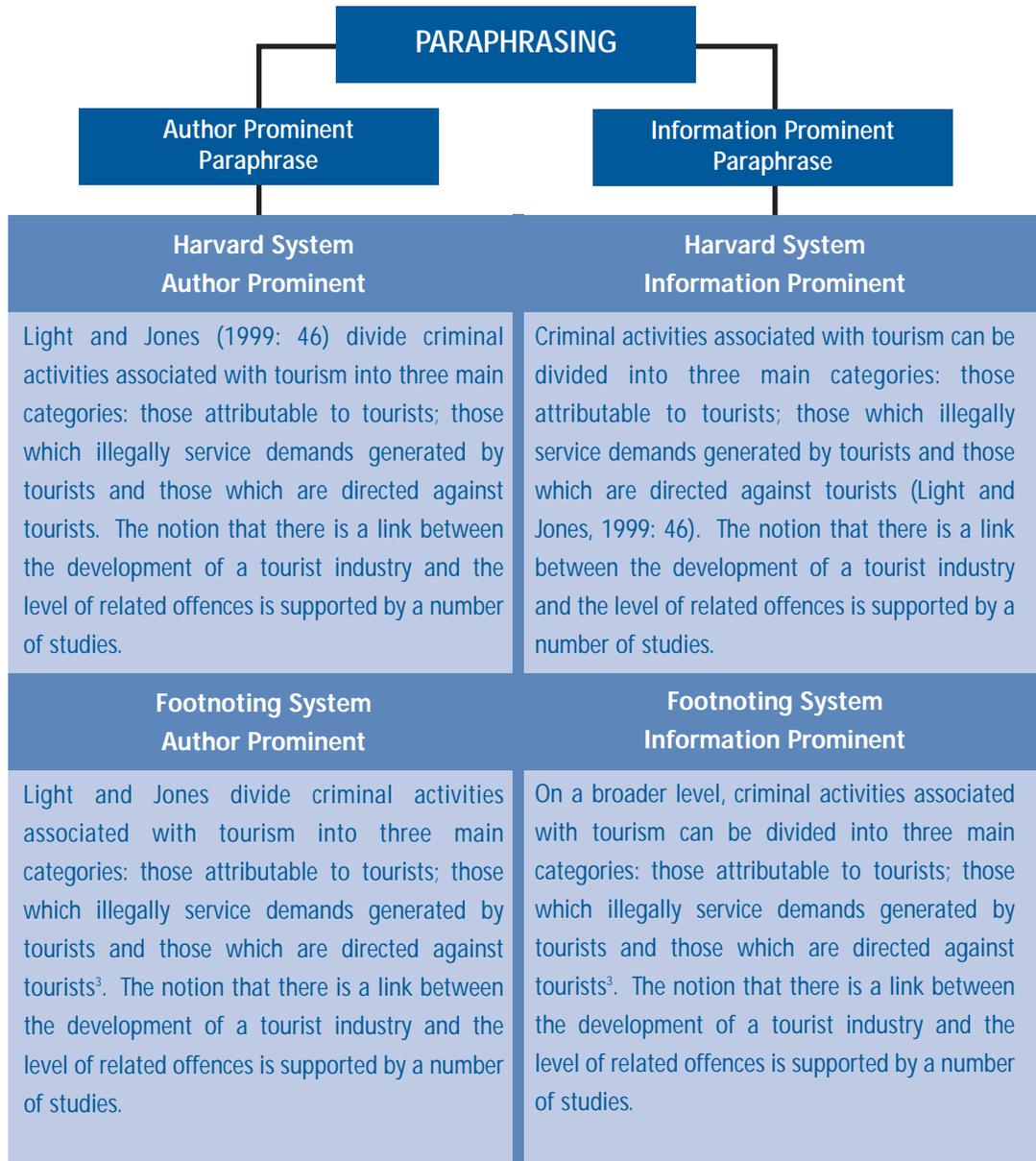
(or Michael Turner and Sharon Ash, *Tourism and Crime in the USA*, (New York, 1997) p. 34).

² This a footnote giving extra information!

Referencing in Essays

Two options when paraphrasing: Author Prominent V Information Prominent

When you report what an author writes in your essay, you can: (1) mention the author and then report the information (**Author Prominent Paraphrase**) or (2) you can report the information and then refer to the author (**Information Prominent Paraphrase**). It is worth considering the effect of these formats. Examine the examples below:



³Patricia Light and Jim Jones, *Paying the Price of Tourism*, (New York: 1999), p. 46.

(or Patricia Light and Jim Jones, [Paying the Price of Tourism](#), (New York: 1999), p. 46).

Referencing in Essays

Which is better? Author Prominent or Information Prominent?

- It really depends on your goals.
 - If you wish to draw attention to the research you have read, then front the reference to the author(s).
 - At times, it is in your interest to highlight the information, for example, if you want to add a point as an extension of your own ideas. As long as you reference the information at the end of the relevant sentence or chunk of sentences, then this is fine.
- Keep both formats in mind and vary according to your needs.
- Remember that if a point is not referenced, then it is assumed to be your idea.

2. DIRECT QUOTATION

- Only use direct quotation sparingly. Placing large amounts of quoted material in an essay has a very negative effect on the reader. It gives the impression that the writer has not really thought about what is being reported.
- Only use direct quotation if you need to quote from an authoritative text; for example, a government report, a respected author in the relevant area or an original source such as an historical document etc. Direct quotation can also be used to clarify any point that might appear confusing if paraphrased.
- You may also wish to use a quote because it has a punch line value and cannot be improved upon, as in the following example:

Harvard

'Nervous writers', according to Pirie (1995: 107) 'prefer to dress each concept in at least two words as if one on its own might fail to prevent indecent exposure'. He refers to this as the *belt and braces strategy*; that is, making the same point more than once, lest one idea should fail to function.

Footnoting

'Nervous writers', according to Pirie 'prefer to dress each concept in at least two words as if one on its own might fail to prevent indecent exposure'⁴. He refers to this as the *belt and braces strategy*; that is, making the same point more than once, lest one idea should fail to function.

⁴David B. Pirie, *How to Write Critical Essays – a guide for students of literature*. (London, 1985) p.107.

(or David B. Pirie, [How to Write Critical Essays – a guide for students of literature](#). (London, 1985) p.107)

Referencing in Essays

Guidelines for Direct Quotation

(1) Quotes of three lines or less

These should be kept in the body of the text and surrounded by single quotation marks.

See below:

Harvard

In 1944, the Minister for Industry and Commerce stated that 'the Great Southern Railway had saved £1.25 million in expenditure and brought a reduction in fares of between 10 and 12 per cent' (Barrett, 1982: 3). The Railways Act 1927 gave railway companies permission to operate their own road services.

OR

Barrett (1982: 3) points out that in 1944, the Minister for Industry and Commerce proclaimed that 'the Great Southern Railway had saved £1.25 million in expenditure and brought a reduction in fares of between 10 and 12 per cent'. The Railways Act 1927 gave railway companies permission to operate their own road services.

Footnoting

Barrett points out that in 1944, the Minister for Industry and Commerce proclaimed that 'the Great Southern Railway had saved £1.25 million in expenditure and brought a reduction in fares of between 10 and 12 per cent'⁵. The Railways Act 1927 gave railway companies permission to operate their own road services.

(2) Quotes of more than three lines

These should be indented from both margins and reduced to a smaller font size and to single line spacing. No quotation marks are used:

Harvard

Newman (1995: 58) points to European birth rates, which, he claims, are now below replacement level. Informed opinion expects the present low level of fertility to be maintained. The most obvious outcome of this decline is the expectation that there will be a smaller working population and more elderly people. In so far as tourism is concerned, Newman (1995: 59) predicts that:

... this may lead to a more mobile market of younger people, while at the other end of the scale, surveys at present are fairly unanimous in showing a decline in the incidence of holidaying with advancing age ... there will be no additional demand created out of an expanding population base and in fact the reverse may well apply. Population will in general be a negative factor affecting the development of travel demand.

Footnoting -

see example in point (5)

⁵James Barrett, *The Great Southern Railway*, (Dublin, 1982), p.3. (or: James Barrett, *The Great Southern Railway*, (Dublin, 1982), p.3.)

Referencing in Essays

(3) Footnotes for articles in journals/periodicals

An example is given in footnote 6 below. The order is as follows: author's first name/surname/ 'title of article'/ in *title of journal* / volume number/ (month, year), page number.

(4) Footnotes for chapters in books

An example is given in footnote 7 below. The order is as follows: author's first name/surname/ 'title of chapter'/ in editor's first name/surname/ *title of book* / volume number/ (place of publication, year)/page number.

(5) Repeated Footnotes

Notice the shortcut in the example below when the same reference is repeated (see footnotes 8 and 9 for Newman).

Footnoting

Newman points to European birth rates, which, he claims, are now below replacement level⁸. Informed opinion expects the present low level of fertility to be maintained. The most obvious outcome of this decline is the expectation that there will be a smaller working population and more elderly people. In so far as tourism is concerned, Newman predicts that:

... this may lead to a more mobile market of younger people, while at the other end of the scale, surveys at present are fairly unanimous in showing a decline in the incidence of holidaying with advancing age ...there will be no additional demand created out of an expanding population base and in fact the reverse may well apply. Population will in general be a negative factor affecting the development of travel demand⁹.

⁶Jennifer Ryan, 'Management Marketing – a case study of Grafton Printers plc', in *The Irish Marketing Journal*, Vol. 23 (December, 1998), p.12.

(or: Jennifer Ryan, 'Management Marketing – a case study of Grafton Printers plc', in [The Irish Marketing Journal](#), Vol. 23 (December, 1998), p.12.)

⁷Howard Lemontree, 'Discourse markers - a comparative study across varieties of British English' in Joseph Keyes (ed), *Discourse across Varieties*, (Oxford,1980), p.45.

(or: Howard Lemontree, 'Discourse markers - a comparative study across varieties of British English' in Joseph Keyes (ed), [Discourse across Varieties](#), (Oxford, 1980), p.45.)

⁸Thomas Newman, *Declining European Demographics*, (London, 1995), p.58.

⁹ibid, p.59

Referencing in Essays

(6) Shortcuts with Authors' names

- When there are three or more authors

A book, report or article etc. may have been written by various authors. If there are three authors, only refer to all three authors in the first reference. Subsequently, the term *et al*, meaning *and others*, may be used after the first author's surname, for example:

Byrnes, Fern and Grice (1998: 42) admit that future development of tourist facilities might require substantial investment in infrastructure. The expansion of areas, in which tourism is the predominant industry, would involve the development of travel corridors to tourist entry points. It might be felt that such a trend would be undesirable since it implies the creation of an artificial environment which contradicts the 'natural' image of Ireland (Byrnes et al, 1998: 45).

If there are more than three authors, it is normal to use *et al* right from the first instance

(7) Shortcuts in footnoting

As we see in footnote 9 on the previous page, the Latin word *ibid* (from *ibidem*, meaning in the same place) can be used when the reference **immediately before** is from the same source.

(8) Other shortcuts:

If a book has a very long title, the title can be abbreviated in second and subsequent footnotes, for example,

Noel Alm, Jason Trunk and Anne Neville, *Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics in the Design of a Conversation Prosthesis*, (Oxford, 1998), p. 14

Could be shortened to:

Alm et al, 'Prosthesis', (Oxford, 1998), p. 15

(9) Page Numbers

The page number **must** be given when direct quotation is used.

Referencing in Essays

Harvard

The reference can come before the quotation, as shown above, in the example for Harvard in point (2), or it can be placed below it in brackets, next to the right margin; see below:

Newman (1995: 58) points to European birth rates, which, he claims, are now below replacement level. Informed opinion expects the present low level of fertility to be maintained. The most obvious outcome of this decline is the expectation that there will be a smaller working population and more elderly people. In so far as tourism is concerned, Newman predicts that:

... this may lead to a more mobile market of younger people, while at the other end of the scale, surveys at present are fairly unanimous in showing a decline in the incidence of holidaying with advancing age ... there will be no additional demand created out of an expanding population base and in fact the reverse may well apply. Population will in general be a negative factor affecting the development of travel demand.

(Newman, 1995: 59)

(10) Leaving out words and sentences.

Three dots ... (just like these) may be used to indicate where part of the quotation has been left out. Avail of this option whenever you can, as it helps reduce the amount quoted to its most relevant elements. Look at the last example again – see how three dots were used at the beginning of the quote and in the middle.

Bibliographies or Reference Lists?

The list of books, articles etc. which you have referred to in your essay or footnotes must also be listed in full at the very end of the essay. This list is often called a *Bibliography*, but in fact it is more accurate to call it *References*. Bibliography literally means: list of books published on a specific subject or by a particular author.

How to Write your Reference List

- A reference list comes at the very end of an essay.
- The author(s) of the book(s), chapter(s) or article(s) referred to in the body of your essay are entered in alphabetical order of surname (see the reference list at the end of this book).
- If an author has more than one entry, the oldest publication date is entered first.
Green, H., 1996. ...
Green, H., 1999. ...

Referencing in Essays

- If a publication has no author, establish who commissioned the book or report (for example, Dept of Justice) and enter this body in the alphabetical order of the reference list. For example,

Society for the Environment, 2000. *Review of Environmental Policy in Ireland 1997-2000*, Dublin: Lutter Press.

Formats for Referencing

The first step is to identify the type of publication, and then just follow the formats shown below. Examples are given in both referencing systems:

BOOK	
Harvard System	Footnoting/Endnoting System
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ONE AUTHOR (Sequence = surname/first name initials/year of publication/book title/place of publication/publisher) Pirie, D.B., 1985. <i>How to Write Critical Essays – a guide for students of literature</i>. London: Methuen. • MORE THAN ONE AUTHOR (Notice the inversion of first name – surname sequence after the first author's name) Richards, J.C., J. Platt and H. Platt, 1992. <i>Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics</i>. London: Longman. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ONE AUTHOR (Sequence = surname/first name initials/book title/place of publication/year of publication) Pirie, D.B., <i>How to Write Critical Essays – a guide for students of literature</i>. (London, 1985). • MORE THAN ONE AUTHOR (Notice the inversion of first name – surname sequence after the first author's name) Richards, J.C., J. Platt and H. Platt, <i>Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics</i>. (London, 1992).
EDITED BOOK	
Harvard System	Footnoting/Endnoting System
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ONE EDITOR Lynch, H.M., (ed.), 1978. <i>Communication and Culture</i>. Oxford: Oxford University Press. • MORE THAN ONE EDITOR Rice, T. and B. Nolan, (eds), 1994. <i>Children's Rights</i>. Dublin: Link Press. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ONE EDITOR Lynch, H.M. (ed.), <i>Communication and Culture</i>. (Oxford, 1978). • MORE THAN ONE EDITOR Rice, T. and B. Nolan, (eds), <i>Children's Rights</i>. (Dublin, 1994).
JOURNAL ARTICLE	
Harvard System	Footnoting/Endnoting System
<p>White, S., 1989. 'Backchannels across cultures: a study of Americans and Japanese'. <i>Language in Society</i>, 18: 59-76.</p>	<p>White, S., 'Backchannels across cultures: a study of Americans and Japanese' in <i>Language in Society</i>, Vol. 18 (1989), pp. 59-76.</p>

Referencing in Essays

CHAPTER IN EDITED BOOK

Harvard System

Sequence = author of chapter/author's initial/year of publication/title of chapter (no inverted commas)/names of editor(s) (note first name + surname)/title of book/place of publication/publisher/page numbers of chapter.

Green, B., 1994. Children's rights – a case study of Romania. In: T. Rice and B. Nolan, (eds), *Children's Rights*. Dublin: Link Press, 65-87.

Footnoting/Endnoting System

Sequence = author of chapter/author's initial/ title of chapter /names of editor(s) (note first name + surname)/title of book/place of publication/year of publication/page numbers of chapter.

Green, B., 'Children's rights – a case study of Romania', in: T. Rice and B. Nolan, (eds), *Children's Rights*. (Dublin, 1994), pp. 65-87.

NEWSPAPER ARTICLE

Harvard System

Daly, D., 1995. "Will Passengers benefit?", *Sunday Times*, January 31st, p.19.

Footnoting/Endnoting System

Sunday Times, 31 January, 1995

WEBSITE

Harvard System

• SOURCES WITH AUTHORS:

Parmentler, R., 2003. 'Iceland, Greenpeace and whales.' Greenpeace International Homepage, <http://www.greenpeace.org/international> (accessed 07/10/2003).

• WEB SOURCES WITH NO AUTHOR:

'UN inspectors read WMD report on the web', 2003. <http://www.greenpeace.org/international/324477>, (accessed 06.10.03).

• WEBSITE (NO AUTHOR, NO HEADING):

Greenpeace International Homepage, 2003. <http://www.greenpeace.org>, (accessed 06.10.03).

Footnoting/Endnoting System

• WEB SOURCES WITH AUTHORS:

Parmentler, R., 'Iceland, Greenpeace and whales.' Greenpeace International Homepage, <http://www.greenpeace.org/international>, 2003, (accessed 07/10/2003).

• WEB SOURCES WITH NO AUTHOR:

'UN inspectors read WMD report on the web', <http://www.greenpeace.org/international/324477>, 2003, (accessed 06.10.03).

• WEBSITE (NO AUTHOR, NO HEADING):

Greenpeace International Homepage, <http://www.greenpeace.org>, 2003, (accessed 06.10.03).

Giving Oral Presentations

Oral presentations are commonly required at third level and often count as a percentage of a grade in the same way as an essay. They involve researching and preparing a topic which you subsequently present in front of your tutorial or class group. The presentation is graded on this performance.

The following steps may help you prepare; each item is explained in detail below the grid.

1	IDENTIFY AIMS
2	IDENTIFY AUDIENCE
3	CHECK TIME ALLOCATION
4	CHECK OUT ROOM
5	COMPILE YOUR MATERIAL
6	DECIDE ON STRUCTURE
7	MAKE YOUR NOTES
8	PREPARE YOUR VISUAL AIDS
9	PREPARE FOR QUESTION SECTION
10	COMBATING NERVOUSNESS
11	BE ORGANISED ON THE DAY

1. IDENTIFY AIMS OF PRESENTATION

- Identify the purpose of the presentation.
- Choose a title/topic.
- Turn the title/topic into a question. The objective of your presentation is to answer this question.

2. IDENTIFY THE AUDIENCE

- Who will the audience be?
- What will they expect? Do they need the information for an essay/exam?
- How many people will be present?
- What is their level of background knowledge on the topic of the presentation? Will certain terms need to be explained or illustrated with examples?

Giving Oral Presentations

3. IDENTIFY TIME AVAILABLE

- Allow time for the audience to settle at the beginning.
- Allow time for questions and/or discussion at the end.

4. CHECK OUT THE ROOM

- Check what seating is available.
- See what equipment is available. Check that it works. Do you need to have more equipment?
- Are there enough power points?
- If you are using a video clip, always do a test run so that you are familiar with the settings.

5. COMPILE YOUR MATERIAL

- Research your topic thoroughly, keeping your research question in mind. See chapter on reading.

6. DECIDE ON STRUCTURE

- Write out the main points of the topic to get an overview.
- Structure this material into introduction, main body and conclusion to see what should be included in each. Read the chapters on *Taking Lecture Notes* and *Essay Writing*.
- It is a good idea to catch the audience's attention at the beginning. This can be achieved in a number of ways: for example, ask a focusing question, tell a story, make a provocative statement, start with a quotation, use a visual aid, show a cartoon or display a surprising statistic.
- Make the structure clear to the audience. For example, you could begin by showing an overhead slide of the areas that you will be covering.
- Ensure your points are well structured. This means that they should fit together logically.
- When concluding, summarise the main points, examine future implications and/or make recommendations.

Giving Oral Presentations

7. MAKE YOUR NOTES

- Avoid clutter.
- Write the main points on index cards numbered sequentially.
- Keep your writing large and clear.
- Remember that notes are to help you remember. Avoid reading from a script in an oral presentation.

8. VISUAL AIDS

- Try to use some visual aids, (for example, overheads with written headings, diagrams, tables, pictures, slides, graphs or cartoons).
- Visuals will attract and hold the attention of the audience.
- Visual material clarifies points and helps the audience understand.
- Visuals are also supportive if you are anxious – the audience looks at the aid, not at you!
- Make your visuals big and bold. Everyone should be able to see them. If you are using overheads, the recommended minimum font size for text is 20.
- Use strong colours in diagrams etc.
- Use only key words. Having too many words on the overhead defeats the purpose of conveying information with clarity.
- Cue video clips. Make sure to check the counter readings on the actual video recorder which you are using in the presentation, as the numbers vary from one machine to another. Keep the clips brief.
- Interact with any visuals you may use, except in the case of video clips. You should not talk over them when they are playing.

9. DEALING WITH QUESTIONS

- Try to anticipate any awkward questions and prepare answers in advance.
- Check you have understood the question. Never be afraid to ask for the question to be repeated.
- If you cannot answer a question, do not be afraid to admit it.
- Check back with the person who asked the question to see if you have answered his/her query.

Giving Oral Presentations

10. COPING WITH NERVES

- Prepare, prepare, prepare!
- Rehearse, rehearse, rehearse! Try recording yourself.
- Remind yourself that feeling nervous is normal – especially in a new situation.
- Ask yourself what is the worst thing that could happen and prepare for it.
- Practise deep breathing, tensing and relaxing muscles.
- Have a glass of water nearby.
- Gestalt therapy, a model of psychotherapy, suggests that anxiety is repressed excitement, so instead of feeling anxious, allow yourself to feel excited!!

11. ON THE BIG DAY ...

- Organise seats in advance.
- Have your notes and any aids at hand and in the correct order.
- Check the equipment.
- Place a watch where you can see the time.
- Watch your time carefully.
- Change the pace, rhythm and tone of your voice, use pauses for effect and variety. Be aware that when you are anxious, you may speak more quickly and at a higher pitch!
- Project your voice – pretend you are speaking to the back of the room.
- Be careful of mannerisms, for example, playing with fingers, hair...
- Always face the audience.
- When speakers are nervous, they often tend to shuffle around on their feet, moving to and fro. Find a central spot and try to relax.
- Make eye contact with the audience – scan the group.
- Try not to read your presentation. Written language is very dense, so when you read out your text, the audience will very soon tire of its density. Prepare your script in note form, as discussed above.
- Do not forget to thank the audience.
- Seek feedback on your performance from your lecturer. This will help for future presentations.

Studying

Suggestions for effective study sessions:

- **STUDY TIMETABLING**

- Be realistic when devising a study timetable. It can be frustrating if you realise you cannot stick to it.
- Draw up a blank timetable and make lots of photocopies of it.
- Keep time free for recreation/relaxation.
- Fill in what you intend to study on a weekly basis. Be specific.
- Allow one flexible session.
- Begin each study session with a quick revision of the previous day's work.
- Lapses can happen for one reason or another, but just return to your timetable as soon as possible. Use your flexible session to make up the lost time.
- Do not study any one topic for more than 40 minutes at a time. There are very good reasons for this. Psychologists have been studying how we learn for years and this model is based on such research.
- After each session take a 10-minute break. Leave your desk, walk around, and get some fresh air. Do not read anything. A complete break is vital for you to process the information.
- When you return to your desk, spend five minutes revising what you did before the break.
- Change the topic for your next session and repeat the above procedure.
- Normally four topics are sufficient for any one study session.
- Try not to cram – it is ineffective as a study technique and is stressful and tiring.

- **WHERE TO STUDY**

- Choose a quiet corner, away from people and noise.
- Use a comfortable desk and chair.
- Make sure you have suitable lighting.
- Study in a well-ventilated, moderately-heated room.

Revising

Revision is a form of reviewing your understanding of what you have already learnt. It does not mean learning something for the first time, nor does it mean learning by heart.

As outlined in Moran (1997: 140), effective revision involves a sequence of four steps:

1	REVIEWING
2	CHECKING
3	SUMMARISING
4	TESTING

1. REVIEWING THE SCOPE OF THE COURSE

Your review should be guided by the following:

- **The scope of the course**
Read through course outlines and reading lists. See what topics are examinable. Make sure you know the number of questions to be answered, the duration of the exam and whether there is internal choice.
- **The topics and questions that have been examined in recent years**
Survey past exam papers. These are normally available in the library.
Check for patterns evident in the type of questions asked from year to year.
- **Your notes**
Use separate folders for all relevant notes, handouts, photocopied articles and any other material for each section of the course.

2. CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF CONTENT

- Clear up any questions with lecturers and/or tutors.
- Form study groups, if possible. Group learning greatly enhances your powers of retention. However, study groups are not meant to replace individual study.



Revising

3. SUMMARISE KEY POINTS IN THE FORM OF POSSIBLE EXAM QUESTIONS

- Construct summaries for each examinable topic on the course.
- These summaries provide skeleton answers that can be developed in the exam itself. They should contain the following:

- a concise statement of the question underlying this topic/issue/theory.
- key definitions and assumptions.
- a list of important features/relevant research findings.
- a summary of points of disagreement/controversies.
- a brief list of criticisms/evaluative comments.
- conclusions.

Moran (1997: 142)

4. TEST YOURSELF UNDER EXAM CONDITIONS

- Recall your summaries.
- Answer questions from a past exam papers, then correct them.
- Check your ability to define a technical concept or definition without notes. Compare your answers with your notes.
- Try reproducing diagrams from memory.
- Many students find it useful to record themselves reading their notes or summaries onto a tape and then to replay it while they relax. If you learn better by listening, this might be a very useful strategy.

Effective revision involves studying material frequently. Ideally, you should look at the material 24 hours after studying it, then one week later, one month later and at other regular intervals. Revision will become easier and quicker as you become more familiar with material and consequently, you will become more confident with your study skills.

Doing Exams

This chapter should be read in conjunction with the chapter on *Revising*. At university, it makes sense to develop your examination technique since your success depends so much on your performance in formal exams.

This chapter focuses on three main areas:

- | | |
|----------|---|
| 1 | SOME PRACTICAL TIPS TO HELP YOU PREPARE FOR EXAMS. |
| 2 | HOW TO ORGANISE AN EXAM TIMETABLE. |
| 3 | WHAT TO DO ON THE DAY OF THE EXAM. |

1. SOME PRACTICAL TIPS

- Make sure you know the date, time, duration and location of each exam.
- Check you know what subject and what part of the course is being examined.
- Be familiar with previous exam papers.
- Determine how many questions you will have to answer.
- Work out how much time to allocate to each question.
- Draw up a timetable for the exam.
- For each examinable area, make sure that you know the key points you wish to make and what evidence you can cite to support your arguments. See chapter on *Revising*.
- Resist the urge to 'cram' new material at the last minute. You will only confuse yourself and raise your stress levels.
- Make a list of the materials you will need for each exam and pack well in advance.
- Try to get plenty of fresh air and exercise! Exercise helps eliminate excess adrenaline and will help you manage stress levels.

2. HOW TO ORGANISE AN EXAM TIMETABLE

- Make out your timetable before the day of exam!
- Check the time allowed for the exam.
- Check the number of questions you have to answer.
- Subtract 15 minutes from your time – 5 minutes at the start to choose your questions, 10 minutes at the end to review your answers.
- Divide the remaining time into the number of questions to be answered.
- Allow 3 minutes per question to plan your answer and a further 2 minutes at the end to revise your answer.

Doing Exams

SAMPLE TIMETABLE FOR A TWO-HOUR EXAM WHERE YO HAVE TO ANSWER THREE QUESTIONS

- 9.00 Choose questions to answer.
- 9.05 Plan your first answer. See chapter on *essay* structure.
- 9.08 Write your first answer.
- 9.38 Review first answer
- 9.40 Plan second answer.
- 9.43 Write second answer.
- 10.13 Review second answer.
- 10.15 Plan third answer.
- 10.18 Write third answer.
- 10.48 Review third answer.
- 10.50 Review entire script.
- 11.00 Finish

3. ON THE DAY OF THE EXAM

PRE EXAM

- Eat a breakfast, even if you do not feel like it! Food will keep the blood sugar levels high and will help maintain energy levels during the exam.
- Check that you have a watch, pens, ruler, calculator etc.
- If you wish, briefly skim through your notes, but do avoid looking at any new material.
- Remember that you must have your identification in order to sign in to the exam hall!
- Arrive at the exam hall in plenty of time. Do not partake in pre-exam panic with your class-mates.

WHEN YOU RECEIVE YOUR PAPER

- Do not look around for the reactions of your class-mates.
- Check that you have received the correct exam paper – mistakes can happen!
- Write your name and any other necessary details on your script as instructed.
- Check both sides of the exam paper for questions.
- Try to avoid questions that contain a word or a phrase you do not understand. You could guess incorrectly!

Doing Exams

ANSWERING YOUR EXAM PAPER

- It is better to start with your best questions and to leave the more difficult questions until the end.
- Be aware of the marking scheme so that you do not spend too much time on parts of a question that may be worth very few marks.
- Stick to your timetable.
- Do not reproduce your notes, rather use them as skeletons on which to build your answers.
- While writing exam answers, always keep the question in mind.
- If a question has several parts, make sure you deal with all of them in your answer.
- Reread the section on *style* in the *Essay Writing* chapter.
- Label any charts, graphs and diagrams carefully.

AT THE END OF THE EXAM

- If you run out of time, write down your main points.
- Keep writing until the examiner asks you to stop.
- If you finish writing before the exam is over, review your work to see if there is anything else you can add. Check grammar, spelling and punctuation.
- After the exam, avoid post-mortems. You cannot change the past.
- Take some exercise and focus on the next paper.

References

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