This Style Guide has been compiled by staff in the School of Psychology to assist students during their undergraduate studies and during their initial postgraduate studies. Students beginning their studies in the School of Psychology at Level 100 and other undergraduate students should pay special attention to Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4, which deal with taking notes, answering exam questions, writing essays, and common errors. Postgraduate students will find chapters 5 and 6 most relevant to their needs as these cover writing theses and projects and a summary of the style requirements of the American Psychological Association. The latter are accepted by this university as the guidelines for projects, theses and dissertations submitted to the School of Psychology.

All students should be aware of academic misconduct, including plagiarism, and a discussion of the topic is given in Chapter 7.

Students enrolled for Masters and Doctoral degrees might use Chapters 5 and 6 as a quick reference when writing dissertations. However, it is expected that students undertaking senior postgraduate degrees will read books and papers on dissertation writing and that they will refer directly to the APA Manual for direction.

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1. Taking notes...

1.1 Introduction:

One of the first skills students have to learn at University is how to take notes from readings and from lectures. In learning to do anything it is helpful to begin with an understanding of why one is doing it. Students have access to several resources in full-time study, including books, journals, the internet and so on. A very important resource is the teaching staff who interact with students in a number of ways, such as in lectures, tutorials, practicals, consultations etc. During lectures, lecturers usually try to *interpret, summarise and illustrate* some part of a subject as a supplement to prescribed or recommended reading in textbooks or journals. These interpretations, summaries and illustrations are extremely helpful to students, in that they clarify the readings and make the material "real" through examples. However, lectures are not substitutes for readings. Most subjects are too large and complex to be completely conveyed in one or more lectures. Students have to read and attend lectures. The best way to learn at university is to combine reading and listening to lectures in an optimal way.

1.2 Reading and note taking:

The first step in combining independent reading with lecture attendance is that you should read the material to be covered in a lecture *before* the lecture. This will enable you to appreciate the gist of the topic, to grasp the general issues and questions involved and to recognise and spell technical terms. When the lecturer starts speaking, you will have a general understanding of what is going to be covered. When the lecture is over, you should go back to the prescribed and recommended readings and supplement your lecture notes with notes taken from the readings. In preparing for tests and examinations, it is helpful to *re-read* the prescribed and recommended readings and then to *learn* from your notes.

1.3 Note taking:

Note taking is not transcription; that is, it does not mean taking down, or trying to take down everything that is said or everything that you read. Note taking is selective, and part of being selective is being organised. Lecturers frequently help students to take notes by putting up overhead projections of headings and sub-headings on the topic they are addressing in the lecture. Reading material beforehand also helps to generate headings and sub-headings. If you attend carefully to a lecture, and have read some of the material beforehand, very good notes can be made by writing down the headings and sub-headings and one or two words or phrases under each. You will remember what has been said by association from the notes. If you read the recommend material carefully, the same kind of abbreviated notes can be made from textbooks and journals. For example, a lecture on the effects of poverty on children may have a series of

notes, some of which look like the following:

Poverty effects on children
1. Definitions of poverty
    - Absolute
    - Relative
    - Subjective
2. Direct and indirect effects on children
    - Direct effects
        - Material conditions - eg housing, nutrition
    - Indirect effects
        - Ambient - eg media
        - Personal - experiences
3. and so on .....

Some students find it helpful to use fold-out A4 sheets, like you find in a book, for note taking, rather than examination-type pads. Double sheets allow you to make lecture notes on the left-hand side of the page and notes from your readings on the right-hand side. Other students find it helpful to highlight headings or key concepts in different colours. You will already have some useful skills built up from school or work, and you need to find ways that work well for you at university.

1.4 "You're going too fast"

Students frequently complain that lecturers "go too fast". What they mean is that the lecturer is talking too fast for students to transcribe, word-for-word, what the lecturer is saying. If you feel this, then several things could be going wrong, the two most likely are: you probably haven't read the material before the lecture, and you are trying to transcribe rather than to select and organise the material.

Most lecturers in Psychology give students course and sometimes lecture handouts, which make it clear what material is going to be covered in a lecture and what readings should be done. Many lecturers also make overhead projections of the main headings and sub-headings of their lecture or topic. Increasingly, these lecture overheads are being posted on the School of Psychology web page and students can read, copy or print them in their own time, leaving more energy for careful attention during lectures. The web page is at
http://www.nu.ac.za/department/default.asp?dept=psychunp
Develop your note taking skills early in your university career. It is an invaluable aid to understanding and learning material. Share methods and tips for note taking with fellow students. If you're having problems making notes that help you to learn, ask a fellow student after a lecture if you can see what notes they took, and compare their work with yours to see how you could improve your notes.

If you're starting out in Psychology, be sure to attend the writing tutorials which are offered as part of Psy110 and Psy120. In these tutorials, lecturers will help students to extract relevant information from readings by showing them what is important and salient, and how to organise your thinking about the material.

Approach the Student Counselling Centre for help or ask them to run a session with you and five or six other students who have the same problem with note taking or study skills..

2. Examinations and tests...

2.1 Preparing for Tests and Examinations:

Psychology students are fortunate because a lot of research has been done on learning and we can use that information to help ourselves learn better. For example, the following three principles are well-established aids to learning and performance.

SIMULATE THE REQUIRED BEHAVIOUR
When studying for an exam, the most effective approach is to simulate the behaviour you'll ultimately be required to perform. For example, if you're studying for a difficult exam in Social Psychology, it's important that you practice answering difficult social psychology questions without access to notes or textbook. Similarly, if you are studying for a multiple choice exam, you need to practice answering multiple choice questions (MCQ). You need to practice answering questions that someone else has chosen. Study guides and old exam papers are essential when preparing for examinations - they provide you with difficult practice items that someone else has written for the same purpose as your examination.

Study alone or with others, whichever you find most helpful. During the first phase, review your notes and readings, perhaps creating flashcards to help you remember definitions, theories, and other important material. The SQ3R technique is a well-known and widely-used technique for improving the capacity of students to read attentively and to learn material. The acronym stands for Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review, and each step is described below:

Survey: Look over the topic or section, get a sense of the material covered and the main headings and sub-headings.

Question: Generate some questions for yourself about the material. You can convert headings and sub-headings into questions. For example, a heading *Child Language* can be converted in your mind into the question *How do children learn language*? Also go beyond these kinds of direct questions. If the topic is on the genetics of human development, ask yourself how cloning occurs, for example. Even if such questions aren't answered in the section, they alert you critically to the scope and shortcomings in the material, and they increase your personal interest in the topic by linking it with your other interests and concerns.

Read: Read the material carefully, in sections. Stop to consider how your question/s about that section are or aren't answered in the material.

Recite: Repeat the main points of the material you have read in your own words. You will remember the material better if you personalise it within your own language use.

Review: Review how well you summarised the section in your own words by comparing it to the original material. What did you leave out? What did you get wrong?

Once you feel confident with the material, its sometimes helpful to study with one or more classmates. Use this time to ask each other questions without allowing the person answering to look at the textbook or any notes. This will also help you assess how you might perform in the upcoming test or exam.

To test whether you will cope under time pressures, learn the material, and then use an old exam paper to practice taking the test under exam conditions, (i.e. give yourself as much time to answer the questions as will be available in the exam). You can then assess not only whether you understand the material well enough to answer most of the questions, but also whether you can do so in the allotted time period.

SPACED PRACTICE IS BETTER THAN MASSED PRACTICE
Research suggests that spaced practice for an exam is generally superior to massed practice, crammed in just before the exam. You will usually get more studying done in three 2-hour blocks, for example, than one 6-hour block. Late-night cramming is usually a recipe for poor retention, mental and physical fatigue, and careless mistakes on the exam.

STAY FOCUSSED AND MAINTAIN CONCENTRATION ON THE EXAM
When you carry emotional baggage about the exam and become preoccupied with worries like "I've got to do well or I'll lose my financial aid" or "If I do badly, I'll never get into Honours", performance suffers. The most constructive approach is to focus on the task at hand, do as much studying as you can manage, and then do your best. A certain amount of anxiety is normal when studying for an exam, but if you feel overwhelmed or feel that uncontrollable emotions are interfering with your exam performance, you may be suffering from test anxiety. If you think this is a possibility, you should approach the Student Counselling Centre and ask for help. They may be able to recommend techniques to reduce your anxiety (e.g., relaxation training).

2.2 Taking a test:

LOOK OVER THE TEST AND PACE YOURSELF
Don't just plunge into answering test items. Take a few seconds to settle yourself, and then get an overview of the paper. How many different sections are there? How many questions are there? Is there any choice? Once you've looked through the entire exam, try to estimate what pace you should maintain in order to finish about 10 minutes before the exam time is up. That way, you'll have a little time at the end to check for careless mistakes, skipped questions or misread items.

Problems occur when students forget to check the clock, or spend too much time on one or two difficult items. To prevent this from happening, scribble the desired "finish time" time for each section on the test paper, so that you'll be prompted to check your watch after completing each section.

Read the questions *carefully*. Take time to do this and make rough notes on each part of the question if necessary. It will help you to write a better answer if you understand what it is that you are being asked to do. Later in this section, we define and discuss the terms commonly used in tests and assignments, such as *criticize* or *contrast*.

TAKE SHORT BREAKS

Try taking a few breaks during the exam by stopping for a moment, shutting your eyes, and taking some deep breaths. Periodically clearing your head in this way can help you stay fresh and focussed. Remember, you get no points for being the first person to finish the exam, so don't feel like you have to race through all the items - even two or three 30-second breaks can be very helpful.

CHECK YOUR ANSWERS BEFORE HANDING IN

Many people are relieved to finish an exam and want to hand in the paper the moment they write the last word. However, many marks can be earned by checking your work before you hand it in. Review the questions and make sure you have answered all those required of you. Make sure you have numbered each answer, underlined headings if you have used them, labelled graphs if they were required, identified clearly the answer or end point of a calculation etc. It is silly to loose marks because of these errors. Then read over your questions, make sure you have not made grammatical or spelling mistakes that make what you have said incomprehensible or wrong in terms of the factual material.

2.3 Multiple Choice Exams:

Some of the testing in Psychology in the first year is in multiple choice question format (MCQ). For every question, you will be given four or five alternatives and asked to decide which is correct or incorrect. In MCQ exams you are asked to recognise the answer rather than recall material that you have memorised. The best way to improve your answering of multiple choice questions, is to practice answering old exam papers.

HINTS FOR ANSWERING MCQ EXAMS

1. Note the use of language in the question - it is easy to become confused as to what is required:
   "Which of the following is *least* likely..."
   "Bartlett's *main* theoretical interest was..."

2. Don't mark the answer until you have read all of the options. In some cases you will be looking for the best answer, and will have to read all of the options to find it.

3. It is a good idea to cover up the options and read the question by itself. If possible, underline key words in the question. This can help to prevent misinterpretation of the question.

4. Do not over-interpret the question and look for subtle distinctions among the options which may not be required. The answer is not likely to be deliberately obscure. Look for the most straightforward answer.

5. Don't change an answer unless you are certain it was incorrect. If you take time to think through each question, your initial answer will usually be correct. Although there are always exceptions, the best approach is to carefully answer each question the *first* time you go through the exam, and then change only those answers that are clearly mistakes.

6. There is only one correct answer per question. Selecting two options will result in a score of zero for that question. If there are two options you know are both correct, and a further option is "*all of the*

above", make sure you select that option, even if you are unsure of the other options.

7. If you are unsure of the answer, cross out the options you know are wrong, and make an informed guess from the remaining options.

8. Terms you have never heard in the lectures or come across in the readings are unlikely to be correct and so can be eliminated.

9. When practising old exam papers, try to justify to yourself why incorrect answers are wrong. This will help you to develop the sort of thinking required in MCQ exams.

10. Ensure you use your time effectively. Do not get bogged down on one confusing question and run out of time on the others. You should be answering roughly one question every minute. Skipping around the exam can also waste time, because at some point you will have to spend time searching for the skipped questions and re-reading them. A better approach is to answer each question in order. If you are truly baffled by a question, mark the answer you believe to be right, place a question mark next to the question, and come back to it later if you have time. Try to keep these flagged questions to a bare minimum.

NOTE: There is no negative marking in Psychology tests or examinations. You have nothing to lose by guessing if you are unsure of a question, or run out of time; so ensure that you attempt all questions.

WHAT TO DO IF MORE THAN ONE ANSWER SEEMS CORRECT
If you're stumped by a question, here are some strategies to help you select the correct answer:

1. Ask yourself whether the answer you're considering completely addresses the question. If the answer is only partly true, then it's probably not correct. If you have to make a significant assumption in order for the answer to be true, consider whether this assumption is obvious enough that everyone will make it. If not, the answer is incorrect.

2. Few questions are intended to be deliberately deceptive. If you suspect a question is a trick, make sure you're not reading too much into the question. In most cases, "trick questions" are only tricky because they're not taken at face value.

3. If you cannot choose between two alternatives, vividly imagine each one as the correct answer. You will often feel that one of the answers is wrong. Trust this feeling; feelings are frequently accessible even when recall is poor (e.g. we know how we feel about a person even if we can't remember the person's name).

2.4 Answering Paragraph Questions in Exams:

Some Psychology examinations require answers to paragraph questions for 5, 10 or some other amount of

marks each. Here are some hints for answering paragraph questions:

1. Consider the time and mark allocation carefully. If the paragraph counts 10 marks, spend about 10 minutes on each question and try to give 10 points or introduce 10 ideas or terms in your answer. Examiners usually use this kind of allocation when designing paragraph questions and allocating marks. The length of a paragraph answer for 10 marks should be between a half a page and one page. Attempt every question. After ten minutes, stop and move on, even if you have not said all you wished to. If there is time at the end, you can return to the question.

2. Read the question carefully, taking note of what is required. Take particular note of:
   - Command words like **discuss** or **criticise** which tell you how to approach the question
   - Content words like **Jung's theory** indicate which content area to focus on
   - Words which indicate the limits, or how much to write - **give three points, briefly describe** etc.

3. If there are several parts to a question, make sure you answer all parts. Number the separate parts on the question paper to ensure that you do not omit anything. Try to assess how much to write for each part and divide your time and marks accordingly.

4. Jot down key words before writing, to focus your attention and organise your answer.

5. Give examples where possible to illustrate your understanding of what you are describing, but do not use an example as the basis for your whole answer unless are asked to do so. Rather give a theoretical/general definition first, then support this with an example.

6. If time allows, reread your answers, adding in anything you may have omitted.

7. The best way to improve your writing skills is to practise. Revise using old exam papers. Try to time yourself answering a question, to ensure that you can write speedily. Answers can be given to a friend to check whether they are concise and clearly expressed.

2.5 Essay Exams:

To succeed in an essay exam, a student needs to do two things, in a limited time: firstly determine what the question is, and secondly organize and write the answer.

WHAT IS THE EXAM QUESTION ASKING?
For more details concerning what is required in an exam question, see the section on topic analysis in Chapter 3 on writing essays, and the final section of this chapter which defines and describes common terms used in essay and exam questions. Spend time before you begin writing, underlining key words in the question and jotting down what you think the question requires.

Here is a sample question, and an analysis of what the student should focus on in an answer:
Describe and critically evaluate the theory of Optimal Arousal in relation to other theories of motivation. Include brief mention of the evidence on which the theory is based (30 Marks.).

x. Look for what kind of information you are expected to provide: a list? an example? an opinion? an argument? Here you need to **describe, critically evaluate** and **give evidence** for a theory in relation to other theories. Check to be sure that you have clearly understood what is required by terms such as describe and evaluate.

xi. Make a note of how many parts there are to the question, to be sure that you answer all that is required. This question could be divided into four parts - description of theory; evidence on which it is based; evaluation of theory; comparison to other theories.

xii. Next, work back and focus on the content: which theory must be described? what evidence must be given? Don't rush through when reading a question; you risk making the costly mistake of misinterpreting the question.

iv Look for clues in the question (e.g. "**brief mention**") which indicate how much information to include and try to allocate marks and time accordingly.

Example:

Description of Optimal Arousal Theory	15 marks
Evidence	5 marks
Evaluation	6 marks
How theory relates to other theories	4 marks

HOW TO ORGANISE YOUR ANSWER

It is often helpful to briefly outline your answers in rough before writing them, to remind yourself what information to include, and to make sure you answer all the parts of the question.

You should write brief rough outlines for each essay answer in an exam, before writing any answers. If you run out of time to write essays for all questions, your outlines may gain you partial marks.

Analyse the question for clues about organization. If you are asked to provide a list or an outline, it is a waste of time to write a formal essay with transitions between paragraphs.

TIME MANAGEMENT

Read through all the questions before you start writing. It is then up to you to decide how to manage your time. Some students prefer to answer the easiest questions first, while others prefer to start with the questions that are worth the most points. A useful strategy is to work out how long you have for each question, and then put a note next to each question indicating the time at which you must begin that question. When you have used the time allotted for that question, stop writing and move on, even if you have not finished. This way you have time to at least attempt every question, and can use any time left over, to go back to the questions you did not fully complete.

2.6 Writing terms used in essays & exams:

The terms below commonly appear in assignments or in essay exam questions:

Account for:
This is similar to *Explain*.
Provide reasons for a phenomenon, theory or an idea, with emphasis on the why and/or the how of the item that is being explained - i.e. why and how it behaves in the way that it does and how it originated, as opposed to a simple statement or description. A description merely tells us what the features of a phenomenon are, while an explanation tells us what the cause of the phenomenon is, how it works, and what its function and purpose is. Hence describing Milgram's study of obedience would lead to an outline of what was done and what the major findings were. Offering an explanation for obedience would lead to a more in depth analysis, perhaps from one or more theoretical positions, of why and how people obey.

Compare:
Write about the ways in which two or more things are similar and the ways in which they are different. Often in the Social Sciences you will be expected to compare contrasting theories, in order to determine which one best explains the subject under investigation.

Contrast:
This is similar to *Contrast*, but requires that you specifically focus on the ways in which two or more things are different.

Criticize/Critique:
Form and offer a consider and detailed judgement of something, in relation to the following questions:
- What are the most important or essential features of the idea, theory or phenomenon?
- How did the idea, theory or phenomenon originate?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of the phenomenon you are judging?
- Is it correct or morally acceptable?
- Does it make sense?
- How have other people studied this phenomenon before?
- What were their claims and what evidence did they provide?
- Did they make any serious errors in their study?

Being critical does not mean simply finding fault with something, but rather involves offering a balanced judgement. Being critical involves questioning the phenomenon under study on a deep level, looking for both its good and bad points, rather than simply repeating the facts that are available about the phenomenon.

Define:
Tell the reader what a term means using words already familiar to the reader. Definitions should be brief and should describe the essential features or properties of the issue defined. The word being defined should not be part of the definition; e.g. stating that "Reinforcement means to reinforce a behaviour" tells one nothing about the meaning of the word reinforcement. A definition should be so clear that it can only refer to the item being described. Defining a caravan as "something people live in" is a poor definition, because the definition offered could equally apply to a house. "A caravan is a home on wheels, which can be towed by a vehicle" is a much better definition, as the definition is narrower and excludes other types of homes. It is helpful to follow a definition with an example, but first define the term at an general, abstract level. In other words do not replace a definition with an example. Saying that a car is "a BMW - like a truck only smaller", does not give a definition but rather an example of the term.

Describe:
Outline the subject in such a way that the reader experiences it second-hand. A description is usually a list of features or characteristics or a summary of a line of evidence.

Diagram:
Present the requested information in a visual way. Diagrams include drawings, charts, and graphs. Labels are needed for the reader to understand the information.

Discuss:
Provide a complete, detailed, in-depth analysis. Discussions often include comparison and criticism, and provide a thorough examination of a topic, usually from different points of view.

Elaborate:
Go beyond a brief statement - include additional comments, descriptions, explanations, or examples, as well as a brief critique.

Enumerate:
This is similar to *List*. Provide your list in brief form using numbers or bullets unless the question indicates otherwise. Be sure to identify what it is you are listing.

Explain:
Provide reasons for a phenomenon, theory or idea's occurrence, with emphasis on the why and/or the how of the item that is being explained - i.e. why and how it behaves in the way that it does and how it originated, as opposed to a simple statement or description. A description merely tells us what the features of a phenomenon are, while an explanation tells us what the cause of the phenomenon is, how it works, and what its function and purpose is. Hence describing Milgram's study of obedience would lead to an outline of what was done and what the major findings were. Offering an explanation for obedience would lead to a more in depth analysis, perhaps from one or more theoretical positions, of why and how people obey.

Evaluate:
Assess something's worth, value or function. An evaluation is similar to a critique, although it may imply a more general discussion of an idea or theory's strengths and weaknesses.

Illustrate:
Provide either a concrete example or a diagram, whichever is appropriate.

Interpret:
Translate or explain the subject in your own words and give your opinion about it. An interpretation is always subjective; it is a personal understanding of something, and so may lead different individuals to interpret the same phenomenon in different ways.

Justify:
Tell the reader why you think your answer or position makes sense, and is reasonable, by providing evidence to support your claims. Hence when you are ill, you will be required to justify your absence from a test, by presenting a medical certificate as evidence of your illness.

List:
Provide your list in brief form using numbers or bullets unless the question indicates otherwise. Be sure to identify what it is you are listing.

Outline:
An outline is a brief, organized overview that includes main points and important sub-points, but omits minor details. Use numbers and letters, or bullets, to organize your outline.

Relate:
This is similar to *Compare*, but you specifically need to describe any connections or associations between two or more items.

Review:
Give a brief, critical overview of important points, and draw a conclusion.

Summarize:
A summary consists of a condensed version of the main points that have been (or will be) covered. In examinations, summaries can be given in a point form, depending on the topic.

Synthesize:
Combine and integrate parts to form a whole. A synthesis goes beyond a list or summary in that you should not only summarize each of the points to be included, but also explain how they relate to each other.

Trace:
To trace means to describe a course of events, in order, from beginning to end.

3. Writing essays…

3.1 Introduction:

Writing an essay is one of the best learning tools in tertiary education, forcing students to think about and digest a topic, read a variety of materials, relate the topic to other knowledge you have and your own experience, and synthesise the information into a form different from that provided in the readings. Each essay has different requirements, but the features common to all are that they should be well planned and prepared, clearly organised, accurately documented and neatly presented.

When planning and writing an essay, bear in mind what your purpose is, and who your readers are. Do not assume that your reader has a thorough understanding of the readings, but rather pretend that your reader is intelligent and interested, but ignorant about the specific topic you are writing about. This way you will be sure that all concepts, ideas and arguments are fully and clearly explained, rather than assuming that your reader can guess how or why you arrived at a given conclusion. Your lecturer will then be able to assess whether you have understood the material. If in doubt, approach the lecturer concerned to clarify any questions you might have.

3.2 Topic Analysis:

A thorough analysis of an essay topic is essential to ensure that you have understood what is expected of you and will therefore include only relevant material:

READ THE ESSAY TOPIC AND UNDERLINE KEY WORDS
This will help you determine what is relevant to the question. Focus on:

1. The content of the question. This will help to guide your reading and keep you focussed on the most relevant information.

2. Terms that indicate how you should approach that content (See section 2.5 *Writing terms*).

3. The weighting given to various parts of the question. In the text you can show that information is important by introducing it with words like “crucial” or “major”, by placing it in a prominent position in the essay, or by devoting more space to it.
4. Examine the logic behind the phrasing of the question. Try to identify exactly what is asked of you. This involves an analysis of the major concepts in the topic, particularly if technical terms are included. If the topic refers to adolescence, you wouldn’t include material or a discussion of childhood except insofar as it illustrates something about adolescence.

3.3 Reading for an Essay:

There are many "correct" things to write about in an essay, but you need to narrow down your choices and clarify the purpose of your essay. Generate and gather as many relevant ideas, and examples as you can, without, for the moment, deciding on their priority . Jot down everything that comes to mind. Keep adding to the list as ideas come to mind. Take a rest and let your ideas percolate. Try to summarise your ideas to see whether you can focus on what is relevant to the topic. Draw on your own experience and what is commonly known about the issue. Then try to diagram your major points. Make an outline or diagram to see a schematic of what you have. You are then ready to begin reading.

3.3.1 CHOOSING READINGS

Students often spend too much time and energy taking notes from books. It is more important to understand what you have read, with notes serving merely as reminders of knowledge you have digested rather than as substitutes for what you have read. It is also important to have the title of your essay in mind at all times, and only make notes that are directly relevant to this title.

Take to the library the reference list given by your lecturer and the brainstorm/outline you have already made. If your lecturer has not supplied a reading list, or if you wish to supplement the list, make use of PsychLit on CD-Rom, Psychological Abstracts, the Internet, or other sources. It is useful to begin with a review article (which reviews all relevant research on a topic over a period of time), to gain an overview of the area, then use the reference list at the end of the article, to suggest other readings.

For each reading, note the forward or preface, the contents page, the index and any reviewers' comments included, considering issues like what audience the book or article is written for, the author's academic position, and whether it is relevant to your essay. If you are still unsure, skim the reading to gain an overview, focussing on titles, subheadings, diagrams, tables and other clues to its content. Also read the introduction and conclusion, to get a sense of the structure of the writer's arguments, any conclusions reached, and a summary of the main issues raised.

If you intend to use the reading in your essay, note down all the bibliographic details so that you can reference the source correctly, as well as the main points about the methods and/or conclusions to which you want to refer.

DO NOT WRITE ON OR REMOVE READINGS. BOOKS AND JOURNALS ARE EXPENSIVE AND THEY ARE INTENDED FOR THE USE OF ALL CURRENT AND FUTURE STUDENTS AND STAFF

3.3.2 STRATEGIES FOR REDUCING THE DIFFICULTY OF READINGS

Some readings are more difficult than others. Several strategies exist to improve your understanding of difficult readings:

1. Prioritise and group readings:

Group related readings and do them together, rather than reading everything in isolation from everything else. Alternatively, order readings in terms of difficulty, starting with the simplest and moving on to more

difficult ones, or from general readings to more specific ones. After this, it may even help to arrange the development of the field you are researching.

2. Re-frame statements in your own words:
Spell out the structure of the argument and main ideas, using diagrams or numbering where necessary. Then restate the article's main thesis, in your own words.

3. Generate examples:
Another useful strategy is to go beyond the information given, using it to generate your own examples, or applying it to new contexts. Try to modify the cases or examples given in the reading, seeing whether the theory or idea still applies to these new cases, or has key limitations. For example, does the material apply to you and your friends and family, and if not why not? Or if Cognitive Therapy is viewed as highly successful in the treatment of simple phobias, does it seem equally successful in treating social phobias or other types of anxiety disorder?

4. Develop a critical approach to reading:
Evaluate what you have read, identifying the strengths and weaknesses of an argument, finding its areas of application, and determining the strength of supporting evidence. Critical thinking also involves an ability to synthesise ideas from various sources into a coherent argument. Students should learn to relate material read in one article to ideas advanced elsewhere.

5. Make your reading absorbing:
Ensure that you are motivated and interested in your reading by remaining active while you read. Take notes, underline details, use colours and draw diagrams, to keep your attention focussed on the reading. Use Robinson's SQ3R described earlier to develop an active reading approach. This consists of a series of steps designed to keep you actively focussed on your reading: Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review (see Section 2.1. on Preparing for Examinations and Tests).

3.3.3 SUMMARISING A RESEARCH ARTICLE

Here are some practical hints on how to summarize articles describing a research study or studies:
1. Scan the article:
Scan the article, beginning with the abstract, introduction and conclusion, and using these to make notes about the main argument and conclusion. Then divide the article into manageable chunks, read each section, and make brief notes. As you read through each section try to identify:

The context of the study in terms of theoretical or societal concerns (stated in the Introduction)
The research question (Abstract and Introduction)
The hypothesis/hypotheses (Introduction)
How the hypothesis was tested (Methods)
The findings (Results, including tables and figures)
How the findings were interpreted and what they mean in terms of the theoretical or societal concerns that gave rise to the study (Discussion and Conclusion).

Underline key sentences or write the key point of each paragraph in the margin. It may also be helpful to write down the key points listed above on a summary sheet as you come across them.

2. Read for depth:

After you have highlighted the question, hypothesis, findings, and interpretations, go back to the article to read about each area in more detail. Expect not to fully understand the article the first time; you will probably have to read it more than once before you can talk about it in your own words. As you read, ask yourself these questions:

Why am I writing this down?
What is especially interesting about this information?
Is there a relationship between this information and what I've already written?
How does the design of the study address the question posed?
What alternative explanations have been considered or controlled?
How convincing are the results? Are any of the results surprising?
What does this study contribute toward answering the original question?
What aspects of the original question remain unanswered?

3. Plagiarism and taking notes:

Plagiarism is presenting someone else's work as your own (see Chapter 7). To avoid it, ensure that all summary notes are written in your own words, in the shortest, simplest manner, rather than copying the author's style. If an idea is relevant to your topic, you should be able to summarize it in your own words. If you can't, you probably don't understand it. To prevent plagiarism, read a section through carefully, and only once you have finished reading, take notes in your own words. If you write notes as you read, you will tend to copy the author's style and wording. Avoid writing complete sentences when note-taking.

If you want to use an original phrase or quote from the article, write it down exactly as it appears in the text and note the page number. You will need this to refer to the quote in your essay, and the quote will need to appear between quotation marks. In your notes, distinguish between what the author wrote and your comments about it (e.g. use different inks or stars next to quoted sections).

3.4 Writing an Outline:

An outline is a formal system used to organize your essay. It helps to clarify whether your ideas connect to each other, where the essay is thin and needs more material, what order of ideas works best, or whether you have sufficient evidence to support each of your points. Outlines are useful because they help you see the overall structure of the essay.

MAKING THE OUTLINE

2. Sum up the point of the essay in a sentence, including a motivation for its importance. This will help you stay focussed on relevant issues.

2. Identify the main categories. What are the main points you will cover?

3. Create the first category. What is the first point you want to cover? If the essay centres around a complicated term, a definition is often a good place to start. For a paper about a particular theory, giving the general background on the theory can be a good place to begin.

4. Create sub-categories. After you have the main points, create points under these that provide support, elaborate or develop the main point. The number of categories you use depends on the amount of information you are going to cover.

5. Distinguish between theory and data, separate opinion from information.

An example of an outline is given over the page.

Television and Children's Violence:

1. Does television cause violence?
   - Societal concerns
   - Brief mention of previous areas of research
   - The difficulty of assigning cause

   Present studies on both sides:
   - Some studies are "for".
   - Some studies are "against".

2. Research "For":
   First study "for":
   Method.
   Results.
   Analysis of the conclusions:
   - Maybe insufficient sample size

   Second study "for":
   Method.
   Results.
   Analysis of the conclusions:
   - Maybe unreliable measures or no control group

3. Research "Against":
   First study "against":
   Method.
   Results.
   Analysis of the conclusions:
   - Maybe good controls, follow-up over one year

   Second study “against”
   Method.
   Results.
   Analysis of the conclusions:
   - Maybe large sample size, real world setting

4. Conclusion:
   - 4.1. Studies "for" generally have poor methodology
   - 4.2. Studies "against" generally have good methodology.
   - 4.3. Research doesn't seem to support the idea that TV causes violence in children.
   - 4.4. More research is needed that addresses the methodological problems identified
   - 4.5 Critical appraisal and recommendations

KEEPING YOUR OUTLINE FLEXIBLE
The format of an outline shouldn't make you inflexible about how to write your essay. Often when you start writing, the essay takes new directions. If you add new sections change the outline - as you would correct a crude map as you become familiar with the terrain. However, when your essay diverges from your outline, it can also mean that you have lost your focus. How do you know whether to change the essay to fit the outline or change the outline to fit the essay? To check, use the essay to recreate the outline after you have finished writing the essay. If the resulting outline covers the main issues in an order that is easy to follow, the organization of your paper has been successful. If you find that it's difficult to create an outline from what you have written, then you need to revise the paper. Your outline can help you with this, because the problems in the outline will show you where the paper has become disorganized.

3.5 Writing the Essay:

3.5.1 ESSAY STRUCTURE
Having decided what to include in the essay and how different sub-topics relate to one another, you are ready to begin writing. Follow a clear structure in the essay, as set out in your outline, to ensure that one idea flows logically into another, and your reader is able to follow the essay easily. All essays have the following basic structure:

1. Introduction:
This lays the foundation upon which the essay is built, and tells your reader what the essay is about. The introduction outlines how you understand and will approach the topic, why the issues under discussion are important, and gives definitions of key terms. It is important that the introduction “hooks” the reader, so that their first impression is of something well researched and thought through. They will then want to read further.

There are several common types of introductions used in essay writing:

"In this essay I will..." - indicates what is to be covered in the essay;
“The HIV/AIDS epidemic is spreading most rapidly among people in the age group ..” - creates interest and stimulates the reader;
“Webster’s Dictionary defines anxiety as ...” - explains a difficult term, the main subject of the essay;
“‘Back to work’ said President Thabo Mbeki ...” - a quote to set the tone for the essay topic.

Some people find it best to write a draft introduction and then to polish it after they have finished the essay; this ensures that your introduction matches the rest of the essay and you have written about what you state you will in the introduction. Remember that the introductory and conclusion paragraphs of your essay form the strongest impressions in your reader’s mind, and deserve to be given careful attention.

2. The body of the essay:
This is the bulk of the essay and consists of one idea, followed by another, each with supporting facts,

arguments or examples. In general, the essay should develop from the general to the specific, like a funnel. The body is divided into a set of paragraphs, each having one central idea. Ensure that there is a clear, logical structure, as set out in your outline, and that one idea links to another. Here the technique of signposting or linking is useful, whereby you state briefly what is about to follow, and then use language to emphasise the aspects introduced; for example: "We will review the project in terms of three factors: timing, cost and staffing. Firstly, timing ..... Secondly, cost plays a role..."

3. The conclusion:
End your essay by presenting any conclusions you may have reached, by pulling together and summarising the content, or by restating the argument. Evaluate the field you have written on; identify any problems you encountered, such as loose definitions or methodological problems. You may also return to the question posed in the title, and ensure that it has been answered, or may stimulate further thought, indicating areas for future research.

3.5.2 STRUCTURING SENTENCES

Explain yourself clearly in your essay, using short, simple sentences. Avoid heavy, confusing jargon, and excess words and phrases, which can clog up your writing and make it less clear. Students often over-use technical terms and jargon in long, complicated sentences with several clauses. Complex language often reflects confusion, and clear writing indicates clear thinking on the topic.

Generally, there are two ways to eliminate wordiness:

1. Compress what you mean into the fewest possible words, writing short, clear sentences.
2. Don't tell your readers what they already know, don't need to know, or can infer.

3.5.3 COMMON TYPES OF WORDINESS

All word processors have grammar checkers. Ensure that the default language for your programme is set to Britain (not the United States which uses different spelling and grammar to South Africans), and use the checking function to help you write clearly.

Unfortunately, we can inflate our prose in so many ways that it is impossible to list them all, but the following suggestions should help you eliminate the most common types of wordiness.

1. Redundant Pairs:
Many pairs of words imply each other. Finish implies complete, so saying that something is "completely finished" is redundant. In the following pairs of words the first word is redundant:

past memories	true facts	future plans	unexpected surprise
various differences	important essentials	sudden crisis	past history
each individual	basic fundamentals	free gift	terrible tragedy
end result	final outcome		

An example of how redundancies can be eliminated is given below:

Original:	Before the travel agent was completely able to finish explaining the various differences between all of the many vacation packages her travel agency was offering, the customer changed his future plans.
Revised:	Before the travel agent finished explaining the differences between the vacation packages her travel agency was offering, the customer changed his

plans.

2. Redundant Categories:
Specific words imply their general categories, so it is not necessary to state both. In the following cases, only the word underlined is necessary:

large in size	of a *bright* colour	*heavy* in weight	*round* in shape
at an *early* time	of a *cheap* quality	*honest* in character	of a *strange* type
unusual in nature	*extreme* in degree		

An example of redundant categories, and their elimination, is given below

Original:	During that time period, many car buyers tended to prefer cars that were pink in colour and shiny in appearance.
Revised:	During that time, many car buyers tended to prefer pink, shiny cars.

3. Meaningless Modifiers:
Some sentences become very wordy when filled with unnecessary modifiers. These words and phrases can be pruned away to make sentences clearer:

kind of	sort of		really	basically
individual		definitely	actually	generally
specific		for all intents and purposes	very	extremely

For example:

Original:	For all intents and purposes, industrial productivity generally depends on certain factors that are really more psychological in kind, than on any given technological aspect.
Revised:	In the main, industrial productivity depends on factors that are more psychological than technological.

4. Stating the Obvious:
Often writers state what is a matter of common sense or can be inferred from the writing.

For example:

Original:	Imagine a mental picture of someone engaged in the intellectual activity of trying to learn what the rules are for how to play the game of chess.
Revised:	Imagine someone trying to learn the rules of chess.

5. Excessive Detail:
Sometimes irrelevant details or more information than readers need to know, are provided.

For example:

Original:	Cricket, one of our most popular summer sports in terms of total attendance at cricket grounds and viewing on television, has the kind of rhythm of play on the field that alternates between the players' passively waiting with no action taking place between the bowling to the batter and exploding into action when the batter hits a bowled ball towards one of the opposing team and he fields it.
Revised:	Cricket, one of our most popular summer sports, has a rhythm that alternates between waiting and explosive action.

6. Phrases for Words:
Another type of redundancy results from using phrases when a single word will suffice.

For example:

Original:	As you read what you have written to improve your wording and catch errors of spelling and punctuation, the thing to do before you do anything else is to correct places where commas, colons and the like have been used incorrectly.
Revised:	As you edit, first correct errors of punctuation.

7. Common Phrases:
Some common phrases that can be compressed, include the following:

because, since, or why can replace:
considering the fact that for the reason that due to the fact that
on the grounds that this is why owing to the fact that
in light of the fact that the reason for
when can replace:
on the occasion of in a situation in which under circumstances in which

about can replace:
concerning the matter that as regards where ..... is concerned
in reference to

must or should can replace:it is crucial that it is necessary that there is a need/necessity for
cannot be avoided

can can replace:
is able to is in a position to has the opportunity to
has the ability to

may, might, could or can can replace:
the possibility exists for it could happen that there is a chance that
it is possible that

For example:

Original:	It is possible that nothing will come of these preparations.
Revised:	Nothing may come of these preparations.

8. Other Unnecessary Words:
There are many unnecessary words that can simply be omitted, including the following:

Unnecessary articles (a, an, the):

For example:

Original:	The evidence we have suggests....
Revised:	Evidence we have suggests....

Unnecessary “that...”, “who...”, and “which...” clauses:
For example:

Original:	All applicants who are interested in the job must....
Revised:	All applicants interested in the job must....

Unnecessary “there is...” and “there are...” sentence beginnings:

For example:

Original:	There are four rules to observe....
Revised:	Four rules to observe are....

Unnecessary use of the passive tense:

For example:

Original:	An account was opened by Mrs. Sims.
Revised:	Mrs. Sims opened an account.

Unnecessary infinitive phrases (infinitive phrase= to + verb):

For example:

Original:	The duty of a clerk is to check all incoming mail and to record it.
Revised:	A clerk checks and records all incoming mail.

3.5.4 STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING SENTENCE CLARITY:
In addition to eliminating the above types of wordiness, there are other strategies you can use to write clear sentences.

1. Ensure that sentences have a straightforward structure:
The idea in a sentence, should flow from beginning to end, rather than moving off into diversions, or into unnecessary parentheses, which leave the reader struggling to remember the core meaning of the sentence.

2. Avoid pomposity:
Good essays are expressed simply, rather than spiced up with pretentious or obscure wording.

3. Go from familiar material to new information:
First give your readers information they know. They can then link this to new information. As new information becomes familiar, it too can link to newer information.

4. Add clauses at the end of a sentence rather than at the beginning or in the middle:
Once readers have the big picture, you can add new information to the end of the sentence where it is both easier to understand and easier to remember.
For example:

Original: (clause embedded in the middle):
Industrial spying, **because of the growing use of computers to store and process corporate information,** is increasing rapidly.
Revised: (clause at the end):
Industrial spying is increasing rapidly **because of the growing use of computers to store and process corporate information.**

5. Use the active voice:
The active voice is usually easier to understand than the passive voice because the active voice explains who is doing the action expressed in the verb. In addition, active voice often results in simpler, shorter sentences.

For example:

Original:	The decision was reached (a passive verb) by the committee to postpone the

	vote.
Revised:	The committee decided (an active verb) to postpone the vote.

6. Use parallel constructions:
When you have a series of words, phrases, or clauses, put them in parallel form (similar grammatical construction) so that the linking relationship can be identified more easily.

For example:

Original:	In Florida, where the threat of hurricanes is an annual event, we learned that it is important to become aware of the warning signs (1). There are precautions to take (2), and deciding when to take shelter is important (3).
Revised:	In Florida, where the threat of hurricanes is an annual event, we learned that it is important to become aware of the warning signs (1), to know what precautions to take (2), and to decide when to take shelter (3).

In the original the string of "things to be aware of in Florida" does not create a parallel structure, and so it is more difficult for a reader to follow the meaning .

7. Avoid noun forms of verbs (nominalizations)
In general, use verbs if possible rather than noun forms of the same verb (nominalizations).

For example:

Original:	The implementation of goals was successful.
Revised:	The goals were implemented successfully.

8. Avoid negatives:
When possible, use the affirmative rather than the negative or a string of negatives.

For example:

Original:	Less attention is paid to advertisements that lack human interest stories.
Revised:	People pay more attention to advertisements with human interest stories.

3.5.5 CONSTRUCTING PARAGRAPHS
Students often make the mistake of either breaking an essay into too many short paragraphs, making the essay seem disjointed, or of writing paragraphs that are too long, making the essay seem wordy and hard to follow. A paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic. To be as effective as possible, a paragraph should have the following features:

1. Unity:
The entire paragraph should concern itself with a single focus. If it begins with a one idea or major point of discussion, it should not end with another or wander between different ideas.

2. Coherence:
Coherence makes the paragraph easily understandable, and can be created by ensuring that the same idea is carried over from sentence to sentence, by repeating key words or synonyms in several sentences, or by using transition words to link ideas from different sentences.

3. Topic or introductory sentence:
A topic sentence is a sentence that indicates in a general way what idea or thesis the paragraph is going to deal with. An easy way to make sure your reader understands the topic of the paragraph is to put your topic sentence near the beginning of the paragraph.

4. Paragraph development:
The topic is introduced by the topic sentence and should then be developed.. Beware of paragraphs that only have two or three sentences, as the paragraph is probably not fully developed if it is that short.

Some methods to make sure your paragraph is well-developed include the following:

Put only one main idea in each paragraph.
Aim for 3 to 5 or more sentences per paragraph.
If you have a few very short paragraphs, think about whether they are really parts of a larger paragraph, and can be combined, or whether you can add details to support each point and thus make each into a more fully developed paragraph.
Use examples, evidence and illustrations to support your ideas.
Define all new terms in the paragraph clearly.

It is important to ensure that each paragraph contains a single idea, rather than having many issues in a single muddled paragraph. It should be possible to go through your essay and determine what job each paragraph is doing in the essay as a whole. This job should be different from that of the paragraph before or the one following. If your lecturer comments that something you have written is too long and wooly, an excellent remedy is to start with a set of sentences outlining what each paragraph will do, and only write the paragraphs after this has been done. This will ensure that each paragraph has a unique job and contributes to the essay as a whole.

3.5.6 AVOID RACISM AND SEXISM IN YOUR LANGUAGE:
Ensure that your essay does not offend your reader with racist or sexist language, and do not adopt a prejudicial tone.

Ways to avoid sexist and racist language include:
1. Denote population group groups by capitals (eg Black, White, Coloured, Indian). This indicates that the terms are proper nouns, or synthetic terms, rather than “natural” or everyday categories. Do not refer to Blacks, Whites etc, but to Black people, White people and so on. It is particularly offensive to refer to people as *the* Blacks, *the* Whites and so on.

2. Avoid using the word *man* in a generic sense.
Although *man* in its original sense carried the dual meaning of adult human and adult male, its meaning has

come to be so closely identified with the adult male that the generic use of *man* and other words with masculine markers should be avoided.
For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
• mankind	humanity, people, human beings
• man's achievements	human achievements
• manpower	human resources
• the best man for the job	the best person for the job
• man-made	synthetic, manufactured, machine-made
• the common man or man in the street	the average person, ordinary people
• man the stockroom	staff the stockroom

3. Occupations
Avoid using *man* when persons holding the job could be either male or female.

For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
•	chairman coordinator (of a committee or department); moderator (of a meeting); presiding officer; head; chair; chairperson
• businessman	business executive; entrepreneur
• fireman	fire-fighter
• mailman; postman	mail carrier
• steward and stewardess	flight attendant
• policeman and policewoman	police officer

4. Pronouns
Because English has no generic common-sex pronoun, we have used *he*, *his* and *him* in such expressions as "the student . . . he." When we constantly personify "the judge," "the critic," "the executive," "the author," and so forth, as male by using the pronoun *he*, we are subtly conditioning ourselves against the idea of a female judge, critic, executive, or author. There are several alternative approaches for correcting this.

Recast the pronoun into the plural:

For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
Give each student his paper as soon as he they is finished.	Give students their papers as soon as are finished.

Reword to eliminate gender problems:

For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
The average student worries about his mark.	The average student worries about marks.

Replace the masculine pronoun with one, you, or he/she, as appropriate:

For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
If the student was satisfied with his performance on the pretest, he took the post-test.	A student who was satisfied with his or her performance on the pretest took the post-test.

5. Indefinite pronouns

Using the masculine pronouns to refer to an indefinite pronoun (everybody, everyone, anybody, anyone) also has the effect of excluding women. Plural pronouns have therefore become acceptable substitutes for the masculine singular.

For example:

Original:	**Revised:**
Anyone who wants to go to the game should bring his money tomorrow.	Anyone who wants to go to the game should bring money tomorrow.

3.6 Editing, Proofreading and Revising:

3.6.1 EDITING AND REVISING: GENERAL CONCERNS

Once a rough draft of an essay is complete, set it aside for awhile, so that you can come back to it with a fresh mind, and more easily see the errors and strengths contained in it. Begin editing by focussing on the general concerns (that is, the sense and coherence), which are aspects of the writing and organisation most responsible for the quality of the paper. Save the lower order concerns, or specific points of grammar, spelling and punctuation, for the last draft.

As you check for general concerns, it is a good idea to read the essay aloud. This way both your eyes and

ears are checking for errors. Reading aloud also allows you to see whether the essay has a logical structure, with one idea flowing into the next, or is overly wordy and difficult to follow. General concerns to check for include:

1. Focus:

Does the essay have a central argument or theme?
If asked, can you offer a one-sentence explanation of what the essay is about?
Ask someone to read the first paragraph and tell you what he or she thinks the paper will discuss.

2. Audience and purpose:

Do you have an appropriate audience in mind? Can you describe them?
Do you have a clear purpose for the essay? What is it intended to accomplish?
No matter how familiar your lecturer may be with the material, s/he cannot "get inside" your head and understand your approach to the material, unless you express yourself clearly. It is therefore useful to ask someone, such as a fellow student, to read through the essay, to check whether your argument is clear and understandable.

3. Organization:

Does the essay progress in an organized, logical way?
Are the major points connected and is the relationship between them clearly expressed?
Does the organization make sense? Should any part be moved?
Go through the essay and jot down notes on the topics of the various paragraphs. Look at this list and see if you can think of a better organization.
Ask someone to read the essay. At the end of each paragraph, ask the person to forecast where the essay is headed. If the essay goes in a direction other than the one forecasted by the reader, is there a good reason, or do you need to rewrite something there?

4. Development:

Are there places in the essay where more details, examples, or evidence are needed?
Does the argument follow a logical progression?
Do any paragraphs seem much shorter and in need of more material than others?
Ask someone to read the essay and comment if something is unclear and needs more description, explanation, or support.

3.6.2 GRAMMAR, SPELLING AND PUNCTUATION

Checking grammar, spelling and punctuation can be left for the final draft of the essay. Some of these errors will be picked up by a computer spell-check or grammar check (set for South African or British, not American, spelling). It is important to follow an automated check with a final reading to note any further errors that have slipped through. Points to check for include:

Keep a list of problems which frequently occur and check for them.
Read the essay aloud to note missing or wrong words or other errors that you can spot.
Check for colloquialisms, such as 'flipped out' and replace them with more formal terms.

1. Spelling:

There are two simple rules to follow here:

Always use a word processor with the spell checker switched on. Make sure the default language in your word processing programme is set to the United Kingdom and no the United States.

Read through your essay to check for any errors missed by the computer (typing “to” as “top”, will not be found by the spellcheck, as “top” is also a correctly spelled word.)

2. Punctuation:

Here you should particularly note the following:

Full Stops:

Ensure that all sentences end in a full stop, and that the letters in an abbreviation are followed by full stops (a.m. not am; e.g. not eg).

Spacing:

Full stops ending sentences should be followed by a space. Commas, colons, and semicolons should be followed by a single space. Do not space after the internal full stops in an abbreviation (a.m. not a. m.).

Commas:

Using too many commas within a sentence creates a disjointed appearance. If you find you are overusing commas, try to break complex sentences into two or three smaller sentences:

For example:

Original:	Psychology, while sharing some links, with Humanities courses, such as Philosophy or Communication Studies, is, in essence, both a Science, in that its claims are based on the gathering of evidence, as well as being a Social Science, in that it explores human behaviour, within a social context.
Revised:	Psychology shares some links with Humanities courses like Philosophy and Communication Studies. In essence however, it is a science, in that its claims are based on the gathering of evidence. It can also be classed as a Social Science, in that it explores human behaviour within a social context.

Apostrophes - Elision:

This refers to the apostrophes used to indicate a missing letter. For example, isn't is used for is not; don’t for do not; won't for will not, etc). These are acceptable in informal writing, but not in a business letter or an academic essay.

Apostrophes - Possessive:

The rules here are simple and can be learned:

The rat's tail = the tail belonging to one rat; apostrophe before s for a singular possessive.

The rats' tails = tails belonging to several rats; apostrophe after s for a plural possessive.

The rats had tails = no possessive, so no apostrophe. Simple plurals do not require an apostrophe; not even if they are acronyms e.g. “the NGOs of South Africa”.

The children's tales = tales told by several children; apostrophe before s with a few irregular plurals. Other common examples are men's, women's, people's and mice's.

It's a long tail = it is a long tail; apostrophe indicates the dropped letter. This is an apostrophe of elision, not a possessive form at all.

Its tail = the tail belonging to it; no apostrophe in the possessive form of it

3. Grammar:

Abbreviations:

Abbreviations are best avoided unless they are common, or the phrase you are abbreviating is so long that

reading it repeatedly will be a worse hindrance than struggling to remember what the abbreviation refers to. Avoid using the abbreviation 'etc.'. If you do use abbreviations, define them the first time they appear in your text, even if they are standard within your field; for example, classical conditioning (CC).

Adverbs:
People commonly put these in the wrong position. "We have carefully examined the evidence" or "We have examined the evidence carefully" are acceptable, but "We have examined carefully the evidence" is not.

Affect/Effect:
These are often confused. If John has an **effect** (noun) on Mary, he **affects** (verb) her. There is a verb "to effect", but it means to bring something about. So if I **affect** your writing habits, I **effect** a change in them. Just to make life more difficult for psychologists, we do of course have a quite different technical use of "**affect**", to mean emotion.

All right (or alright, as it is also spelt):
This is a form of colloquialism, and not acceptable in academic writing, so try not to use it.

Comprise:
"Of" is used with "comprise" when the verb is used passively, but not when it is used actively. So "the test comprised 17 items", and "the test was comprised of 17 items" are both right, but "the test comprised of 17 items" is wrong.

Elicit/emit:
A stimulus may elicit (draw out) a response, but only a person or animal can emit (send out) one. If people or animals elicit responses, they must elicit them from other individuals. Remember in Pavlovian conditioning, responses are elicited (by the conditional or unconditional stimulus), but in operant conditioning they are emitted by the individual (and then may be reinforced).

Former/latter:
Remember that both words can only be used when there are two items being compared, since they are comparative not superlative forms - if there are three or more, use first/last instead.

Principal/principle:
The word is spelt "principal" when it is an adjective, e.g. "in principal components analysis", but "principle" when it is a noun, e.g. "in first principles". The "principal of a school or university" is spelt in the adjectival manner, presumably because originally it stood for "Principal Lecturer".

Program/programme:
Program is the American spelling, and should be avoided unless referring to computer programs.

Supportive of:
"A supports B" is a clearer expression than "A is supportive of B". Similarly, instead of "A is symptomatic of B", write "A is a symptom of B", for "A is indicative that B" write "A indicates that B", and for "A is representative of B" write "A represents B".

Tenses of verbs:
To describe a general method in a research project, use the present tense; to describe your actual experiment, use the past. So, "In the ultimatum bargaining game, participants have to share a fixed sum of money", but in your experiment, "Player A was given a sum of ten pounds". To report statistics for your

research use the past tense, as you are talking about what that happened when you carried out your study; but the present tense can be used to report inferential statistics about descriptive statistics you have just stated, because you are talking about the numbers that appear in the text. So you must state "The mean Literacy score for Group A was 7.2", but can state "The means for Group A and B were 6.2 and 3.2; the difference between these is significant at the 0.05 level". Also use the present tense when describing tables and figures: "Figure 1 shows that trends for age were in opposite directions for men and women".

3.7 Referencing:

Essay referencing must conform with APA guidelines - See Chapter 6

3.8 Criteria for a Good Essay in Psychology:

CONTENT:
Does the essay consist of a critical and logical argument?
Are claims and opinions substantiated with evidence?
Does the essay have unity of thought, with all ideas relating to the main topic?
Has the question been thoroughly answered?

RESEARCH:
Has sufficient and relevant reading been done? (A long reference list is not a substitute for understanding - rather read fewer articles and make sure you understand them than read too broadly, but be unable to integrate your reading into a coherent argument).
Have readings been understood and ideas extracted, without plagiarism?
Have the readings been synthesised into a clear argument, rather than just presenting a summary of readings which appear to have been copied and rearranged into an essay?
Have theories been distinguished from data?

STRUCTURE:
Does the essay have a clear, logical structure and direction and are paragraphs linked?
Does the essay have an appropriate introduction and conclusion that outline the intention and conclusion of the essay without resorting to repetition?

STYLE, PRESENTATION, VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR:
Does the essay have an objective, analytical style? (Avoid writing in the first person “I think...”, or making use of personal anecdotes “In my experience...”).
Is the essay written concisely, with clear language and expression?
Is spelling accurate and handwriting legible (or where required, is the essay typed)?
Are all sources acknowledged throughout the text, according to APA. format, and is there a correctly set out reference list?

MARKING:

Although individual lecturers mark differently, students can be guided by the following principles:

1. To be awarded a first class mark (75+), students have to go beyond the required readings and show unusual insight or integration of the material.
2. Upper second class marks (68-74) are usually awarded for work that is well done. The readings have been used and the student has competently put together a good and interesting essay.
3. Lower second class marks (60-67) are awarded for essays that are generally acceptable, but fall short on one or another criterion set for the essay.
4. A third class mark (50-59) is usually awarded for a piece of work that is acceptable. The student has simply managed to do the bare minimum for a pass on the assignment.

4.Mistakes Made in Academic Writing ...

4.1 The Seduction of Photocopying:

An essential aspect of writing is the ability to translate other people's ideas into your own words and draw implications from them. This process is aided by writing good notes about the literature you read. Access to a photocopier has made note taking a rare skill among students. But there are good reasons to avoid excessive photocopying:

Bulky stacks of unread photocopies provide the illusion of making progress with your work when, in fact, no progress has been made.

Photocopies are a very uneconomical and environment-unfriendly source of information when trying to write up your work - you will have to search to find the information you want.

Photocopies hinder the active translation of other people's ideas into your own words and encourage plagiarism.

4.2 Weakness in Academic Argument:

More detail about academic argument can be found in Bell and Staines (1979).

ILLEGITIMATE APPEALS:
Students weaken their arguments by making illegitimate and journalistic appeals to authority, (e.g. "Among experts the consensus is...") and to facts (e.g. "It is a fact that frustration leads to aggression...."). Support claims by referring to research and not to anonymous experts.

MISLEADING DICHOTOMIES:
Human beings tend to think in bi-polar opposites (good vs bad; right vs wrong etc.). It is a good idea however to avoid dichotomies when arguing seriously. Always be sure that a dichotomy does not conceal a middle view which would be much more reasonable than either extremes.

MISSING LINKS:
Argument in psychology frequently suffers from "missing links". Generalisations are often proposed to explain some aspect of behaviour but neither the explanation nor the aspect of behaviour in question is

described in precise terms. Furthermore, the exact relation between the generalisation and the aspect of behaviour being explained is not spelled out so that it is unclear how the generalisation could explain the behaviour. Bell and Staines (1979) offer as an example the claim that inadequate maternal care leads to psychological maladjustment. Yet when trying to assess research in this area, Rutter (1972) found it necessary to distinguish between:

Types of maladjustment thought to be produced (mental retardation, delinquency, etc.)
The precise aspects of the child's physical, social and maternal environment associated with each of these outcomes (e.g. the disruption of social bonds; the change of environment which might accompany the disruption of social bonds - such as sudden hospitalisation; failure to form bonds specifically with the mother; distorted relationships generally; faulty imitation of models; and other possibilities).

Having made the original theoretical observation much more precise by this analysis, Rutter attempts to

4.3 Common Mistakes made when answering Written Examination Questions:

specify the exact nature of the link between the specific deprivation suffered by the child and the eventual outcome in the child's behaviour. A simple correlation does not indicate cause.

In general, the lesson to be learned from this is: avoid arguing from broad 'common sense' observations unless you are prepared to analyse these observations and to fill in the missing links.

There are several mistakes which commonly appear in answers to written examination questions:

The student has not learnt the material. There is no content in the answer and the student simply guesses and wastes time writing waffle largely unrelated to the question.

The student has learnt too much and too close to the exam. Last minute cramming shows up in answers. Facts are presented without any organisation, so it is difficult to relate one point to another, to see an argument, or to separate theories from evidence. Material from different sections may be jumbled, without making logical connections.

The student doesn't understand the material. The answer is confused and not organized in an intelligent way, or is focussed on trivial aspects of a theory rather than the central idea.

The student doesn't answer the question. The answer is tangential to the question or off the point. Ensure that you have analysed the question thoroughly to ensure that your answer is what is required.

The student attacks the lecturer or adopts a self-righteous approach, such as claiming that the question is a silly one, or picking fault with the course. While intellectual criticism is encouraged, this should be contextualised and appropriately delivered.

5. Writing Research Projects and Theses ..

The purpose of a research project is to communicate what you did, why you did it, how you did it, what you found and what you think it means. It is essential to follow the standard style and format of the American Psychological Association (APA), as described below.

5.1 Getting Ideas for Research Projects:

Topic selection goes hand in hand with collecting articles, because each depends on the other; i.e. reading articles is often the best way to select a topic. Your topic should be narrow, adequately researched, and of current interest. Initially consider several topics. Do not get too attached to any of them before you see what research has already been done on each topic. Doggedly hanging on to a topic about which practically no research has been published is a recipe for disaster. As you get ideas for possible projects, make a note of them - the act of writing them down helps to formulate them more clearly. Also keep a record of your ideas about design and methodology, potential subjects, your desired results, and any doubts you have about potential problems, such as availability of equipment, cost, access to subjects and time constraints.

Once you have developed several ideas, talk to as many people as possible about them - each conversation will reveal a new point of view on the issue. Then begin to focus on one or two issues in depth. Try to identify all possible research questions related to the one or two topics you have chosen, and then use these as a basis for further refining and narrowing your topic. Steer clear of topics to which you are very emotionally close as a result of your prior experiences. If you are too close to an issue, it is easy to lose the neutrality you will need to carefully evaluate an issue.

5.1.1 SOURCES OF IDEAS FOR THESES AND RESEARCH PROJECTS

1. Staff projects

Where possible, students are encouraged to participate in existing staff projects, as the project is likely to be more tightly contained and manageable than if the student begins with a completely new or isolated idea.

2. The library

Look at some of the research articles in several areas. This will give you a 'hands-on' feel for work published in those areas. It's not unusual to find that the articles in some areas will be hard to find or hard to understand once you find them. You won't know until you actually find them. It is also important to choose an adequately-researched and well defined area. There will be more lines of research to choose from and theoretical discussions will be specific rather than vague.

It is especially useful to focus on recent review articles or meta-analyses, which summarise research in an area, as these will give you a sense of what is currently being published in the area (for example, the *Annual Review of Psychology*). Conference proceedings, past theses, and university department research programmes and papers listed on the Internet, can also be useful sources of ideas.

Finding an existing useful article might lead to a research project topic in several ways:

It might stimulate further work within the same content area.

You may disagree with the methodology and wish to test the results using other methods.

You may wish to replicate the study's results.
You may wish to test the results using a different group of subjects.

Use *PsycInfo* to narrow your search until you find a manageable number of citations; 50 or fewer is a good target. A thesaurus of psychological terms can help you pick the right subject headings for your search. A broad topic such as hypnosis, or animal communication, has literally thousands of articles on it, and so you will have to narrow your topic down considerably.

Choose topics of recent interest. You will usually be asked to summarize the current status in a line of research, so it is best to pick a research topic of current interest (about which articles are continuing to be published) rather than a "dead" area. Browse recent issues of journals like *American Psychologist, Psychology Today, New Scientist, New Society* or *Scientific American* to find out what's "hot".

3. Common sense
Another source of ideas are the common sense notions about behaviour and experience we all share. Testing these can be a good way of assessing whether they are accurate, and what the limitations of common sense are. The proverb "birds of a feather flock together" could, for example, lead to studies exploring the level of similarity in a sample of married couples, how successful marriages are when partners are highly dissimilar, or whether the proverb is true across a variety of cultures.

4. Observations
Ideas can be generated simply by observing events around you. Walking outside on a sunny day might, for example, lead you to wonder whether people work harder when it is hot compared to when it is cold. Seeing a group of workers chatting while one worker works hard, might lead to a question whether more time is wasted if people work in teams or alone. Finally, heading back to the library might lead to the question of whether students who work in the library are more likely to succeed with their studies than those who work in residence.

5.1.2 RESOURCE GUIDES

1. Journals
The contents pages of all Psychology journals in the UNP library are housed in the School of Psychology staff tea room. The journals themselves are kept in the library.

2. The Annual Review of Psychology
This provides an extensive review of major and current theories in Psychology, as well as comprehensive references for most areas of psychology.

3. Psychological Abstracts
This paper resource covers most journals according to areas of psychology, subject, author and content area.

4. PsycInfo
This is an electronic online service and can be accessed from most university terminals.

5. Social Science Citation Index
This is a general abstracting service covering several disciplines in the Social Sciences, including Psychology and Education. It is particularly useful to find multi-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary perspectives

on a topic. The Social Science Citation Index is also available on CD-ROM.

6. The Mental Measurements Yearbook
The Yearbook covers test reviews, standardisation, details of tests in and out of print and problems of psychological testing. Recent editions are kept in the library's reference section.

7. Dissertation Abstracts International
This paper resource lists titles and abstract of doctoral theses around the world.

8. The Internet
This is a resource for articles, bibliographies, opinions, and other information via the World Wide Web. Web material should be carefully evaluated for academic merit.

For details of these and other resources, consult the Psychology Subject Librarian.

5.1.3 TURNING YOUR IDEAS INTO A RESEARCH PROJECT OR THESIS

Once you have chosen a topic, narrow your ideas down. Ensure that aims and goals for the project can be expressed as a set of hypotheses or tight research questions. To determine whether the idea is researchable or whether you have chosen a vague, ill-defined topic, consider the following:

Is there a clear question, or hypothesis and, where appropriate, can the relationship between the dependent and independent variables be stated?
Can the factors of interest (as either independent or dependent-type ideas) be measured?
What type of data is to be collected? There are many possible types of data, including self-reports, psychological testing, extant data bases, observation and documents. Consider the accuracy and reliability of the data you wish to use, as well as the feasibility of the amount of data it is likely to generate.
Are special tests needed, and are these available?
What participants are to be included, and how easily accessible are they?
Is the project affordable (e.g. photocopy costs; tests or equipment to be purchased; travel)?
How will the data be analysed, and am I competent to perform the analysis?
Can the project be completed within the available time frame, usually a year?

5.2 Writing a Research Proposal:

A thorough proposal is essential to any study, as it forms a blueprint from which the investigation will proceed. By outlining your aims, methods and framework for interpretation, any variations you make in the execution of the project, will be logically thought through and consistent with the overall aims of the study, rather than simply being *ad hoc* decisions. The proposal also contains an outline so that in the final report, you will merely have to fill out the details of the proposal.

The proposal should include the following detail:

- A short, but descriptive title. Avoid phrases such as *A study of ...*
- One or two paragraphs describing the study, motivating and justifying the core idea/s, and

summarising the proposed project.

- A brief literature review, locating the study within a body of existing research (about 1 page).
- A statement of general aims and specific objectives, or where possible, hypotheses (about 1-2 paragraphs).
- A description of the methods to be used, including details of design, sample, data collection procedures etc (about 1 page).
- An outline of the type of data that will be collected, and the anticipated methods that will be used to analyse this (about 1-2 paragraphs).
- Brief consideration of any ethical issues relevant to the project (confidentiality; deception; informed consent etc) (about 1 paragraph).
- Projection of costs, resources needed and a schedule of deadlines (about 1-2 paragraphs).
- Some supposition about how you are likely to interpret positive, negative, or nil findings in terms of the ideas driving the study (about 1-2 paragraphs).
- Key references (about ½ page).

The proposal should be approximately 5 and no more than 10 typed pages in length, and must be approved by the supervisor before the student embarks on the study.

5.3 Designing the Study:

Details concerning research design can be found in the many books on research methodology (see, for example, TerreBlanche and Durrheim (1999). Here are some practical tips and issues to consider:

1. Validity:

Three particular aspects of validity need to be considered when designing a study:

Internal validity:

This refers to the extent to which conclusions can be drawn from the data, and depends on factors such as the sampling or the sensitivity of the measures used. Unless the design is purposefully exploratory, the research design should be carefully selected to best answer the question/s posed in the hypotheses or questions.

External validity:

This refers to the extent to which one can generalise from one's participants to the population, and includes the applicability of the data and ideas in the study to wider theory and to other contexts.

Construct validity:

This refers to the extent to which constructs explored are successfully operationalised in the study, that is, in ways which are appropriately measurable.

2. Consider confounding variables:

Identify all factors other than the independent variables which could affect the study's outcome (including self-selecting samples, personal attributes in the sample or time factors). Once these have been identified, explore ways to modify the design to either measure or exclude these.

3. Design a sampling procedure:
If generalization is the aim of the study, ensure that the selected sample shares the same characteristics as the population of interest. Consider whether the methods of sampling may result in unwanted bias, and how this can be dealt with. Also reflect critically on whether the nature and size of the sample is sufficient to warrant conclusions.

4. Consider the ethical aspects of the study:
Consider issues such as informed, voluntary consent; respecting subjects' right to privacy; and ensuring confidentiality. Care should also be taken not to distort or maximise the benefits of the research.

5.4 Collecting the Data:

Once the study has been carefully designed, approval granted by the supervisor the School of Psychology Ethics Committee, and sufficient background reading has been done, one is ready to collect data. Start off with some pilot work to test the site chosen, the sample and the procedures to be used. Then prepare the field site, making sure that permission has been gained from appropriate authorities. If you are using field staff to collect data, spend sufficient time on training and supervision of their work.

Be meticulous and organised in your data collection. Back-up all computer records, to prevent data loss (it happens regularly!). Ensure that you make notes, as you collect data, about any peculiarities (e.g. questions not understood; participants struggling to complete the task; venue problems etc.). Often the situation in which you collect the data will stimulate questions and ideas you had not initially anticipated.

5.5 Analysing the Data:

Once you have designed a data entry procedure using either a spread sheet, data management program or statistical package, clean the data. Ensure that all computer data files are backed-up. Then begin by describing and summarising your data, either numerically by using measures of central tendency and variability, visually by graphing the results, or narratively. Isolate any patterns, non-occurrences, or factors that link the data and the core ideas of the project. Try various alternatives for highlighting trends, contrasting your findings and making comparisons within the data. On the basis of this preliminary work, select inferential procedures to test your ideas. Ensure that you have read about the analytical procedures chosen, and that you understand their purpose, requirements and limitations. Check existing literature, to make sure you know how to describe the technical features of the procedures in your write-up (e.g. what features to describe in the body of the text, and what to put in an appendix; how to use tables and graphs;

how to report various statistics). You are now ready to begin writing the project.

5.6 Sections of a Research Project:

Projects and theses are intended to be read by specialists and by people who know little about your study. For this reason, sufficient information should be provided for readers to make sense of what you have done, as well as to replicate your study should they wish to.

HINT:

Write your report as if the person reading it is intelligent but not knowledgeable about your study and the area of psychology in which it took place. Make sure that you have:

- provided enough background to understand what you did and why you did it.
- spelt out and developed your arguments clearly.
- provided precise details of how you collected and analysed the data.

5.6.1 TITLE:

The title should be a brief, descriptive statement of the topic of the study, and should give a clear idea of the project's central concerns. Many titles state the dependent and independent variables, such as: "The effect of sleep loss on the exploratory behaviour of hamsters". "Keeping hamsters awake" is not an appropriate title since it doesn't provide sufficient information to know what the report is about. Remember that your reader wishes to know whether or not the report is relevant to his/her research interests and will initially use only the title to judge this. The title page must also include your full name, date of submission, and any requirements the thesis fulfils. All postgraduate theses and projects in the School of Psychology are required to state: "Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for Psychology Honours (or Masters), in the School of Psychology, University of Natal." The title page should also contain a declaration: "Unless specifically indicated to the contrary, this project (dissertation or thesis) is the result of my own work".

5.6.2 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS:

On the following page you may wish to briefly acknowledge any individuals or institutions that have contributed to your study - for example, funders, the participants, your supervisor, and so on.

5.6.3 ABSTRACT:

The abstract is a brief, self-contained summary of the main points of the write-up. It enables a reader to quickly determine whether the contents are likely to be of use to him/her. It should contain a statement of the problem being investigated, the context from which this arises, the main question investigated, the design and participants, the materials involved and any important equipment, the main results obtained and their analysis together with the conclusions drawn. You should aim for abstracts which are approximately 100 words long.

HINT:

A quick rule of thumb is to take a sum up sentence from each section of the report.

It is easier to write the abstract last, once you know what the rest of the project contains, even though it appears at the beginning of the write-up.

5.6.4 CONTENTS PAGE:

This is a summary of the headings of the sections with their appropriate page numbers. Your write-up should be organised into a formal outline, which provides a clear, logical sequence and is made apparent through the headings of the contents page.
The format should look something like this:

INTRODUCTION.....1

LITERATURE REVIEW 3
METHOD.....10
Subjects.....10
Measures.....11
Procedure.....12

RESULTS.....14

DISCUSSION.....18

CONCLUSION.....25

REFERENCES.....28

APPENDICES.....34

5.6.5 INTRODUCTION:

The introduction presents the reasoning behind your study. At the same time your introduction should allow someone who is not an expert to understand why you undertook this investigation.

There are essentially five topics to be covered in the introduction which, move from a general discussion of the research that pre-dates your study, to the specific introduction to your study:

1. Set out the general problem area
2. Briefly describe previous research on the subject
3. Point out what issues remain unaddressed or unanswered
4. Outline the method you are going to use to answer these questions
5. Outline the aims of your study.

5.6.6 THE LITERATURE REVIEW:

The bulk of the introductory sections consist of the literature review. The literature review has two purposes: to describe work performed on a relatively limited area of research, and to evaluate this work. It is not acceptable to simply describe past work without evaluating it - and it is not acceptable to just discuss recent theories in an area without describing the work done to test and evaluate those theories. Evaluation of a body of literature is done by identifying relations, contradictions, gaps, and inconsistencies in the literature and by suggesting the next step needed to solve the research problem.

It is unnecessary to describe the entire body of literature within which your study is located, but rather you should focus on those studies most relevant to your particular project, and which demonstrate the rationale for your study. Offer a focussed and critical background for your reader to understand the problem, but do not provide an exhaustive literature review.

1. Collecting articles:
A useful place to start is to find published review articles, which provide an overview of all important research in the area, as well as comparing and evaluating all key theories applied to the area. Follow this with a survey of PsychLit or Psychological Abstracts, to see whether authors cited in an earlier review have continued to do further studies in the area. Also look for lines of research done by the same individual/s. Pinpoint closely related, well defined lines of research; this facilitates the development of a narrow, well defined literature review.

2. Reading the articles collected:
Reading research articles tends to be slow and sometimes frustrating if you are not familiar with the topic and the language of the field. A good understanding of the literature is a necessary prerequisite for a well written review article, and understanding the literature requires you to read, re-read, and mentally digest ideas that are never as simple as you wish they were.

3. Writing the literature review:
Begin with a statement outlining the organization of the review; for example, if there is a major controversy in the literature, you might describe it and then say that you will present research supporting one side, then the other. If different methodologies have been used to address the question, you might describe them and then say that you will compare the results obtained by the three methods. Each article or line of research should then be described, avoiding unnecessary details, and focussing on key findings, relevant methodological issues and major conclusions.

Literature reviews generally read well if they move from the general to the specific (like a funnel shape), developing a rationale for the study to be described. It is a good idea to make short statements which explicitly link each section of the review. Well chosen, organising headings are very helpful to structure the literature review. Be aware of chronology in writing a literature review - the way an idea, design or theory develops over time.

The literature review should lead the reader to a logical and explicit rationale for the study you have chosen, and end with a specific statement of the aims of the study.

5.6.7 METHOD:

The method section describes in detail the operations performed by the researcher, and should it contain enough information for the reader to evaluate the appropriateness of your methods and the reliability and validity of your results, as well as to conduct an exact replication of the study. It should not, however, include irrelevant details. If, for example, you give your subjects lists of words to memorise, you would not explain that they were seated at a desk unless you were specifically studying the effects of furniture on memory. The method section is divided into the sub-sections listed below. These are all separate and are each given a sub-title in your report.

It is a good idea to write the method section as soon as you have completed your data collection. This way, the process is still fresh in your mind, and important details will not be left out.

1. Design:
Describe the design of the study in formal terms, focussing on the following:

The type of design used (e.g. between subjects, case study etc).
Independent variables or major influencing factors.
Dependent variables or outcomes, including details of the units of measurement used.
What the experimental hypothesis or major question was.
What the study procedures were.

2. Participants:
State here the number of participants in the study, how they were selected and any other important characteristics (for example, mean age, age range, number of male and female participants, educational level or occupation). Which characteristics are important will depend on the task you are asking subjects to perform and the conclusions you wish to draw. Who your subjects were is important because it influences the generalisability of your findings - if you only tested undergraduate students, for example, you may not be able to generalise your findings to the elderly.

3. Equipment and measures:
This section describes the equipment and measures used, and usually consists of descriptions of psychological tests and other apparatus. If complex equipment has been used (e.g., a computer running special software), describe it in sufficient detail, using a diagram if necessary, to allow equivalent equipment to be constructed. Words, puzzles and questionnaires are all materials and should be described, including the criteria for how you selected the particular items used. Copies of relevant materials should be placed in an Appendix and referred to in this section. The reliability and validity of measures should be mentioned in your rationale for selecting your instruments.

4. Procedure:
There should be enough information here for readers to repeat your study. Describe, in a series of steps, how the design was implemented and exactly what the participants were required to do.

5.6.8 RESULTS:
This section provides the reader with a concise summary of the data collected and the results of any statistical or other forms of analysis. The sequence of topics in the Results section should follow the sequence of your Aims and Hypotheses - this is also advised for the Discussion section. It is often useful to begin with the demographic characteristics of your sample, where relevant. Try to find clear and informative modes of presentation. Resist the temptation to interpret the results at this stage. Tables and figures should be titled, and clearly labelled (and explicitly referred to in the text) so that they are all self-explanatory. This does not mean that there should be nothing written about the summary statistics - you must include some explanatory text describing what data appears in the table.

In the results section or chapter you should first present the major descriptive statistics or preliminary analysis, using pictorial illustrations such as graphs). From this you can move on to the detailed analyses around particular points of interest or questions relevant to your study. Large amounts of raw data, or detailed calculations of tests should be placed in a separate Appendix and the reader should be informed of their location.

NOTE:

Here are some tips to help avoid some of the more common mistakes made when writing results:

1. Include enough information for the reader to make sense of the results without having to look elsewhere in the report.
2. Include only enough information in this section to enable the reader to reach his/her own conclusions.
3. Include all the data in this section that you wish to comment on in the discussion.
4. Do not interpret your findings in this section.

5.6.9 DISCUSSION:

In this section you should interpret and evaluate the results of the study and discuss their meaning. The Results section presents what you actually observed, while in the Discussion you use the results to answer the questions raised in the Introduction. The sequence of your Discussion section headings should match the questions raised in the Introduction. The results may not have led to clear answers to the questions raised, so your discussion might suggest further research needed. Also discuss any limitations of the study that have come to light, but which were not predicted in advance. Always be explicit as to what questions and problems your research raised, and how you would answer or resolve them. Do not simply conclude that further research is required, leaving your reader to guess what the further research could possibly be.

The structure of the Discussion is often the reverse of that of the Introduction. Begin by answering the specific questions raised at the end of the Introduction, then work backwards to more general issues, stating how the answers you have found relate to the previous literature you cited and the theories mentioned at the start of the Introduction. Only when results are anomalous or unexpected should it be necessary to introduce ideas or cite literature not already mentioned in the Introduction. It is a common error for Discussions to ramble on, embarking on new themes or issues - if these matter, move them to the Introduction; if not, cut them out. On the other hand, discussions should not be devoid of interesting references to other findings and theories.

There are four stages to writing your discussion:

1. Provide a summary of the main results:
2. Account for the findings:
3. Explore the implications of the findings:

4. Explore the implications of the findings:

Think of the discussion as an opportunity to close the circle that you started drawing at the beginning of your Introduction. Essentially your job is to show, critically, how your study has benefited the research community and/or society and how it has improved our understanding of the ideas that you introduced earlier.

5.6.10 REFERENCES:

Include all and only the references you refer to in the text. Ensure that there is a complete match between the citation in your text, and the reference in the reference list. Referencing details are dealt with in Section

5.6.11 APPENDICES:

Additional information, such as raw data, transcripts, statistical calculations, and materials should be placed in the Appendices. Each Appendix should have a title and be referred to in the body of the write-up.

5.7 Evaluation Criteria for Research Projects and Theses:

The university requirement for an
Honours research project is that the student gain basic experience of research practices and methodology. At the Masters level students are required to demonstrate detailed knowledge and competence in the research methods of the discipline. The core requirement for a PhD is that the studentmake an original contribution to the development of the discipline.

In addition to these general requirements, the School of Psychology uses the research project or thesis, to facilitate students' development of specialist areas of interest, as well as to allow for in-depth interaction on a one-to-one level with a supervisor. Students are also introduced to the social-scientific activities of the discipline, with particular emphasis on peer evaluation through presentations, conferences and possibly journal publication.

Some of the criteria that will be applied in the evaluation of your research project or thesis are:

The formulation of a clear idea, question, proposition or hypothesis. It is important that the project is built upon a clearly articulated set of hypotheses or aims.

The development of the idea/s through accurate appraisal of existing theory and findings. This includes a focussed review of existing literature, definition of all important terms, and a clear indication of the relationship of the current study to previous research.

The selection of a design, methods and analytic procedures appropriate to an examination of the ideas chosen. This should include identification of appropriate data sources, and methods of gathering information, details of population, sample and sampling method (e.g. random assignment or matching) and clear description of the design, method and procedures used.

Articulation of the practical limitations, ethical constraints and other obstacles to an idealised design.

Careful execution of all procedures for collecting data, entailed by the method and design.

Understanding of the procedures used for collection and analysis of data, as well as the limits of the analytical methods chosen. This includes description of the validity and reliability of the data-gathering methods, correct application of methods utilized in analysing data, and clear presentation of results of the analysis

Interpretation of the findings within the theoretical, empirical or analytic framework outlined in the introduction.

Critical reflection on the project. Include here details of the contributions made to the field under study, the project's limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Compliance with stylistic requirements of the university and APA recommendations. Ensure that your project is clearly written in an objective, impartial style, and logically organized.

6. Writing in APA Style and Format...

<DIV ALIGN=right>APA style is the style of writing specified in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed., 2001). Page numbers given in italics reference where to find information on the specific topic in the *Publication Manual.*

6.1 Basic Format:

The basic format recommended by APA applied to Masters and Doctoral dissertations. Honours projects in the School of Psychology are formatted differently. Honours students should consult the Honours course booklet for instructions on basic formatting requirements.

- Margins are to be 2.54 cm from top, bottom, and sides *(pp.286-287).*
- Double spaced *(p. 286).*
- Acceptable type face is Courier or Times New Roman, in 12-point size *(p. 285).*
- Justification only on left side of paper - the right side should have ragged edges *(p. 287)*.
- Page numbers begin with the title page *(pp. 287-88).*
- Check with your supervisor for other requirements specific to the School of Psychology.

6.2 Layout of Manuscript:

TITLE PAGE:
In the middle of the paper, type and centre the following information: Full title of the thesis (recommended title is 10 to 12 words), your name, and institution affiliation *(pp. 296-298).*

ABSTRACT PAGE:
This should follow the title page and be page number two. Type the word Abstract centred on the first line of the page. The abstract is a brief, and comprehensive summary of your project and should not be more than 960 characters long, including punctuation and spaces *(pp. 12-15, 298).*

TEXT:
Begin the third page by typing the title of your project (centred), followed by the start of your text *(pp. 298-299)*.

REFERENCE PAGE:
The reference page follows your text. Begin on a new page and type the word References, centred only on the first page of the reference list *(p.299).* Remember, this is a reference list (materials referred to in the text), and not a bibliography (a list of all the materials you have read)

6.3 Rules of APA Style :

6.3.1 QUOTATION MARKS:
Use quotation marks to highlight the title of an article or book chapter, introduce slang, or as an invented expression, for example, "high tolerance" (no quotation marks after the initial usage) *(p. 82, p. 119).*

6.3.2 ABBREVIATIONS:
Use abbreviations sparingly and spell them out the first time they are used [for example, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)]. However, the following abbreviations do not have to be explained: IQ, REM, ESP, AIDS, and HIV *(pp. 103-111).*

6.3.3 SPACING:
Space once after commas, colons, semicolons, after full stops that separate parts of a reference, and after the full stops of the initials of personal names, but not after internal full stops in abbreviations (e.g., a.m.) *(pp. 290-291).* Space twice after full stops at the end of a sentence.

6.3.4 NUMBERS:
Use figures for numbers 10 and above instead of writing out the number ("10", not "ten"). Numbers below 10 grouped for comparison with numbers 10 and above do not have to be spelled out (for example, "in the 2nd and 11th grades..."). Use numerical symbols for all numbers in your abstract. Spell out the number when beginning a sentence ("Ten years ago..." not "10 years ago..."). To make plurals from numbers add 's' with no apostrophe (the 1990s). Combine written and Arabic numerals for back-to-back modifiers (six 2-point scales) *(pp. 122-130).*

6.3.5 ITALICS:
Use italics infrequently. It is permissible to use italics for Scientific Names (e.g. *Macaca mulatta*), introduction of a new term (the first time only), letters used as statistical symbols (e.g. *t* test) and anchors of a scale (for example "the scores ranged from 1 (*poor*) to 10 (*good*)") *(pp. 80-82)*. Italics are also used in the reference list (see later). If italics are not available (e.g. you are working on a type writer) underline instead.

6.3.6 FOOTNOTES:
Keep footnotes to a minimum and try instead to incorporate additional information into the body of the text. In the APA system, footnotes are not used for reference purposes.

6.4 Headings:

Headings show the organization of the manuscript and importance of each topic *(pp 111-117).* Numbers, roman numerals and letters are not used to label headings. Type headings as follows:

Level 1 Heading:
Centred Uppercase and lowercase Heading
Summary of Depression in Adults

Level 2 Heading:
Centered, Italicized, Uppercase and lowercase
Summary of Depression in Adults

Level 3 Heading:
Flush Left, Italicized, Uppercase and Lowercase Side Heading
Summary of Depression in Adults

Level 4 Heading:
Indented, italicized, lowercase heading with a full stop.
Summary of depression in adults.

Level 5 Heading:
Centred Upper Case Heading
SUMMARY OF DEPRESSION IN ADULTS

6.5 Referencing:

All referencing must be in APA format. Please consult either the 4th or 5th edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed., APA, 2001) for more details.

6.5.1 CITATION OF SOURCES IN TEXT:

The citation of sources is a key point in writing in APA format and enables the reader to locate the source of information in the alphabetised reference list at the end of the essay or thesis. This is done through citations in the text and not through footnotes *(p. 215)*.

PARAPHRASING:
Whenever an idea has been taken from someone else's material, even if not a direct quote, you are required to cite the author/s and acknowledge their work.

NOTE:
If your paragraph is entirely taken from someone else's findings or ideas, but expressed in your own words, then at the end of the paragraph insert in parenthesis the author's name and year *(pp.207-214)*. Make sure that everything cited and referred to in your work is cited in your Reference section.

1. Citations of One Author:
All citations in your text contain two parts: the author and year of publication. Enclose the author's surname (no initials) and the year of publication, in parenthesis, after the information, unless the author and/or date are part of the textual discussion. Unless the reference can be confused with another article or book

mentioned in the same paragraph, it is only necessary to insert the year after the author the first time the reference is cited per paragraph.

For example:

	Test scores do not always correlate with IQ scores (Walker, 2000).
OR:	Walker (2000) found that test scores do not always correlate with IQ scores.
OR:	In 2000, Walker found that test scores do not always correlate with IQ scores.

2. Citations of Two Authors:
When a citation contains two authors, always cite both names in the text *(pp. 208-214)*.

For example:

Smith and Jones (1999) found .....
In 1999 Smith and Jones researched .....

3. Three, Four, or Five Authors:
Cite all the authors the first time the reference occurs. In subsequent citations use the first author's surname followed by the words “et al.” (No italics. Place a full stop after “al.”).

For example:

Wasserstein, Zappulla, and Soo (1996) found differences ..... *[first time used]*
Wasserstein et al. (1996) also created tests ..... *[first subsequent citation per paragraph]*
Wasserstein et al. found discrepancies ..... *[further citations within same paragraph - omit year]*

4. Six or More Authors:
Cite only the first surname and follow with "et al." every time the citation is used. In the reference list however, all authors must be listed.

5. Groups as Authors/ Corporate Authors:
For the first citation spell out the group. Thereafter, use the abbreviation followed by the publication year, unless the name is short enough to spell out every time, or the abbreviation is not readily understandable (e.g. University of Pittsburgh, 1997).

For example:

Incidence of depression has increased (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2001). *[First citation]*
Unipolar depression incidence has increased more than bipolar depression (NIMH, 2001) *[Second citation]*.

6. Works with no Authors:
Cite the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. Use double quotations around the title of an article or chapter, but underline the title of a book or journal.

For example:

Successful management of time can lead to marked improvement in academic performance (*Study Finds*, 1997)
Or: According to the book, *Study Finds* (1997), successful time management .....
Or: According to this article, time management correlates with academic performance ("Successful Studying", 1982).

When a work's author is designated as "Anonymous," cite in text the word Anonymous followed by a comma and the date (Anonymous, 1997). In the reference list, an anonymous work is alphabetized by the word Anonymous. *(pp. 210-211)*

7. Authors with the Same Surname:

If your reference list includes works by two or more authors with the same surname, include the authors' initials in all text citations, to avoid confusion.

For example:

A correlation has been found between telic dominance and test anxiety (Sykes, S.E., 1983). Test anxiety has also been found to be related to academic ability (Sykes, B.R., 1990).

8. References to Different Sources at the Same Point in the Text:

If you refer to several articles and books at once, order them **alphabetically**, separated by semicolons, and in one pair of parentheses.

For example:

Several authors (Brown, 1989; Jones, 1991; Smith, 1997) have shown that .....

9. Two or More References by the Same Author in Different Years:

To refer to a body of work by the same author, arrange the references in chronological order, within the same pair of parentheses, but only state the author's surname at the start of the list.

Test anxiety has been found to correlate with gender, self esteem and academic ability (Johnson, 1989, 1991, 1995).

OR: Johnson has done extensive research in the area of test anxiety (1989, 1991,1995).

10. Two or More References by the Same Author in the Same Year:

Distinguish two or more references by the same author written in the same year, by means of small alphabetical letters in both the text and the reference list (In the reference list the small letter will follow the year, and they will be alphabetised according to the first letter of the title).

For example:

Recent research (Smith, 1991a, 1991b; Taylor, 1981) has shown.....

11. Personal Communication:
These include lectures, e-mail, nonarchived discussion groups, electronic bulletin boards, interviews and telephone conversations. They do not provide recoverable data which can be traced from your reference list, and so are not included in the reference list. Cite personal communications in text only. Give the initials as well as the surname of the communicator, and provide as exact a date as possible *(pp.173-174).* One needs to use judgment in citing other electronic forms as personal communications.

For example:

	W. U. Borst (personal communication, April 7, 1997) said that these are not included in the reference list.
OR:	Private communication is not included in the reference list (W. U. Borst, personal communication, April 7,1997)

QUOTATIONS IN THE TEXT:
Quotations should be used sparingly. Use only if the source's exact words are important to the content of the quotation and hence communicate an idea more effectively than you could do using your own words. This is why you are likely to find relatively few quotations in psychological and other scientific publications.

For a direct quotation in the text, give the author, year, and page number in parentheses.

For example:

	Grass (1949) considers his test to be a "more sensitive index of impairment in both concrete and abstract spheres" (p.13).
OR:	This test is a "more sensitive index of impairment in both concrete and abstract spheres" (Grass, 1949, p.13).

NOTE:
Page numbers are only included in citations of direct quotations.
If any material is left out use three ellipsis points (...) within the sentence; use four ellipsis points (....) when material is left out between two sentences.

For example:

Issac (1995) states that bipolar disorder "is not only uncommon but may be the most diagnostic entity in children and adolescents in similar settings. . . . and may be the most common diagnosis in adolescents who are court-remanded to such settings" (p.275).

If inserting explanations in an direct quotation use brackets [ ], not parenthesis ( ).

For example:

"With regard to the etiology of depression [that is unipolar and not bipolar depression] it is..."

If any incorrect spelling, grammar, or punctuation in the source might confuse readers, quote the text exactly as it is written, but insert the word *sic*, in brackets and italicized (i.e. [*sic*]), immediately after the error in the quotation. *(p. 118).*

For example:

Unipolar depresion [*sic*] has many causal influences..."

If you are quoting an author who in turn is quoting someone else (i.e. there is a quotation within a quotation), use double quotation marks for the major quotation, and single quotation marks for the embedded quotation.

For example:

"James (1901, p.5) spoke of a 'blooming buzzing confusion', in the infant's perceptual world" (Meller, 1990, p.103).

With quotes of 40 or more words, set off the quotation in block format, not in quotation marks (Each line of the quotation is indented five spaces). *(p. 119)*.

For example:

Elkind (1978) states: In general, our findings support Piaget's view that perception as well as intelligence are neither entirely inborn nor entirely innate but are rather progressively constructed through the gradual development of perceptual regulations. The chapter has also attempted to demonstrate the applicability of Piaget's theory to practical issues by summarizing some research growing out of an analysis of beginning reading (p. 183).

SECONDARY SOURCES:
(See APA manual pp. 245, 247)

NOTE:
Note the rules for secondary referencing, as this is where students often make mistakes.

1. Citation of a Work Discussed in a Secondary Source:
A secondary source differs from a primary source in that the information comes from one author, writing about what another author has said, rather than directly from the original source. Hence when you use a citation from a source who is mentioned in the book or article that you have read, your reading becomes the secondary source. Try to consult the primary source where possible, rather than cluttering your paper with second hand accounts of ideas and research. However, if the primary source is unavailable, cite both the primary and secondary source in the text. In the reference section, include only the source that you actually consulted (i.e. the secondary source). If you read a paper by Borst (1997), and in that paper he refers to a paper by Weisenmiller (1996), which you did not read then in the text, you would say:

For example:

Weisenmiller (1996, as cited in Borst,1997) recommends the computer industry.
OR: The computer industry is recommended (Weisenmiller, 1996 in Borst, 1997).

In the reference section include a reference for Borst (1997), but NOT for Weisenmiller (1996).

2. Quotations from Secondary Sources:
For quotations from secondary sources, refer in the text to both the primary and secondary source, but in the reference section, include only the source that you actually consulted.

For example:

"In terms of salary, autonomy and opportunities for advancement, there are few jobs to beat work in the computer industry" (Weisenmiller, 1996, in Borst, 1997, p.100).

6.5.2 THE REFERENCE LIST:

Begin on a new page, headed References (not Bibliography). Ensure that all information is properly referenced according to APA guidelines. This helps to establish your credibility as a researcher, while inaccuracies indicate carelessness and will be penalised. Only list the sources you have consulted directly, and to which you refer in your essay or thesis *(pp. 215-281)*.

NOTE:
All references should be double-spaced and indented.
The references should be listed in alphabetical order, by author's surname, or for multiple authors, by the surname of the first author. Names are given in inverted order, with surname followed by initials (i.e. Clark, P. rather than Clark, Peter).
For two or more references with the same author, list these in chronological order.
For authors who have written works alone and with colleagues, first list all of their single author works, in chronological order. Follow these by the multiple author citations listed alphabetically in terms of the second author.

For example:

Smith, E.R. (1981). *Helping people.* New York: Harper Collins.
Smith, E.R. (1984). *Group counselling.* New York: Harper Collins.
Smith, E.R., & Jones, B. (1979). *Counselling psychology.* Los Angeles: Prentice Hall.
Smith, E.R., & Taylor, R. (1970). *Group skills.* New York: Harper Collins.

If there is NO Author, the title moves to the author position, and the entry is alphabetized by the first significant word of the title. *(pp. 221-222).*

For example:

Careers in South Africa. (1995). Pietermaritzburg: Department of Manpower.

For two or more references with the same author and year, alphabetise these by using the first word of the

title, and differentiate them by placing a, b, c, d, etc. after the year.

For example:

National Institute of Mental Health. (1994a). *Bipolar disorder* [Brochure]. Indianapolis: Dista.
National Institute of Mental Health. (1994b). *Depression* [Brochure]. Indianapolis: Dista.

List different authors with the same surname, alphabetically in terms of the first initials.

For example:

Smith, A.G. (1991).
Smith, D.R. (1980).

PERIODICALS:

1. Periodicals with One Author:

Required Information:

Author's surname, Initials. (Year of publication). Title of article. *Journal title and volume number,* inclusive page numbers.

For example:

Jones, R. (in press). Teacher empowerment. *Journal of Education.*
Teri, L. (1982). Depression and self-image. *Journal of Child Psychology, 11*(2), 101-106.

NOTE:

The title of the article is not underlined, italicised or placed in quotation marks. Only the first word of the title, the first word of any subtitle , as well as any proper names are capitalised.

The journal and volume number are italicised whenever possible. If italics are not available (e.g. typewriter), underline journal and volume number. Each significant word is capitalised.

Only if each issue of a journal begins on page 1, give the issue number in parentheses immediately after the volume number, but do not underline this.

Give inclusive page numbers. Use p. for single pages or pp. for more than one page only in reference to articles in books, newspapers or magazines, (*The Natal Witness*, pp. 8-12) but not in reference to journal articles (*Journal of Educational Psychology, 12*, 123-132.).

If no publication date is available, write "n.d." in parenthesis after the author. *(p. 226)*.

If the article has been submitted to a journal, but has not yet been published, write "in press" after the author, in both the reference list and in text citations (Smith, in press).

2. Periodicals with Two or More Authors:

List the authors in the same order in which they appear in the article heading.

For example:

Son, J. L., & Pope, K. S. (1991). Victims of therapist-patient involvement. *Psychotherapy, 28,* 174-187.

3. Entire Issue of a Journal:
To cite an entire issue of a journal, give the editors of the issue as authors, and the title of the issue where the title of the article would normally be placed, followed by [Special Issue].

For example:

Glaser, R., & Bond, L. (Eds.). (1981). Testing: Concepts, policy, practice and research [Special Issue]. *American Psychologist, 36*, (10).

If the issue has no editors, move the issue title to the author position.

For example:

Testing: Concepts and research [Special Issue]. (1981). *American Psychologist, 36,* (10).

4. Citing an Abstract Only:
If only the abstract and not the entire article is used, cite the abstract as if it were an article, followed by the collection of abstracts in parenthesis at the end of the entry.

For example:

Misumi, J. (1982). Organisational development. *Japanese Journal of Social Psychology, 21,* 93-111. (From *Psychological Abstracts*, 1982, *68*, Abstract No. 11474)

5. Magazine Articles:
Use the exact date for weekly publications, but the month only for monthly publications. Include page numbers, preceded by p. for a one page article, or pp. for more than one page.

For example:

Arn, M. (1996, October 8). Protecting yourself from evil E-mail. *PC Magazine, 15,* p. 19.

6. Newspaper Articles:
If the article has a corporate author, alphabetise this by the first significant word of the name.

For example:

S.A.P.A. (1998, January 2). Professionals face tax rises. *The Natal Witness*, p. 4.

If there is no author, alphabetise by the first significant word in the title.

For example:

Professionals face tax rises. (1998, January 2). *The Natal Witness*, p. 4.

(In text use a shortened version of the title, in double quotation marks - ("Professionals", 1998).
For a letter to the editor, use the writer as author, and follow the title by [Letter to the editor].

For example:

O'Neill, G. (1997, January 5). Textbook crisis [Letter to the editor]. *The Natal Witness*, p.6.

BOOKS:

1. Books - General Rules:

Required information:
Book author's surname and initials, (date of publication). *Book title*. City of publication: Publisher.

NOTE:
Italicise the book title. If italics is not available (e.g., typewriter) underline the book title.

For example:

Elkind, D., Jr., & White, E.B. (1978). *The child's reality: Three developmental themes*. Mattville: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

NOTE:
Only the first word of the title, first word of the subtitle, and proper names are capitalised.
If the place of publication is not well known, or if there are two or more cities in the world with the same name (e.g., Cambridge), include the state, province or county (e.g. Austin, Texas).

2. Edited Book:

The author'/s' surname/s and initials is/are followed by (Ed.) for a single editor and (Eds.) for more than one editor.

For example:

Smit, F., & Kibbs, H. S. (Eds.). (1996). *Freedom to learn*. Atlanta: Make Believe Publications.

3. Article in an Edited Book:

Required information:
Article author's surname and initials, (date of publication). Article title. In book editor's initials and surname(Ed.), *Book title* (page numbers). Place of publication: Publisher.

NOTE:
Italicise the book title. If italics is not available (e.g. typewriter) underline the book title.

For example:

Duckworth, J. C., & Levitt, E. E. (1994). Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2. In D. J. Keyser & R. C. Sweetland (Eds.), *Test critiques: Vol. 10. Vocational Testing* (pp. 424- 428). Austin, Texas: Pro-Ed.

NOTE:

If you have included references to the articles used in an edited book, it is not necessary to include a separate reference for the book itself.

When the editor's name is not in the author position, do not invert the name (i.e. use initials followed by surname).

If an article has been reprinted from another source, published with a different date, include details of the original publication at the end of the reference.

For example:

Jones, R. (1980). Family therapy research. In A. John (Ed.), *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 1-5). New York: Norton. (Reprinted from *Journal of Family Therapy,* 1970, *12,* 50-59)

[In text, cite as (Jones, 1970/1980).]

4. Editions of Books:

For revised books, include edition details after the title, in parenthesis, but not underlined.

For example:

Wade, C., & Tavris, C. (1996). *Psychology* (4th ed.). New York: Harper Collins.

5. Groups as authors:

For example:

American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

NOTE:

If a group has written a book/article, use the group name where you would list the author.
If the group is also the publisher of the book or article, use "Author" for the publisher.

6. Separately Titled Volume in a Multivolume Edited Series:

Give the volume number and title of the volume after the title of the series, all underlined.

For example:

Code, C.F. (Ed.). (1977-1978). *Handbook of physiology: Vol. 2. Control of food and water intake.* Bethesda, MD: American Physiological Society.

[In text, cite as (Code, 1977-1978)].

7. English Translation of a Book:
If an English translation of a non-English book is used as a source, cite the English translation.

For example:

Luria, A.R. (1969). *The mind of a mnemonist* (L. Solotaroff, Trans.). New York: Avon Books. (Original work published 1965)

[In text, cite as (Luria, 1965/1969).

If an English translation of an article or chapter in a book is used as a source, but reprinted from another source, give the English translation and details of the original source.

For example:

Sluzki, C. (1977). Symmetry and complementarity. In P. Wheatland (Ed. and Trans.), *The interactional view* (pp. 70-77). New York: Norton Press. (Reprinted from *Acta Psiquiatrica,* 1965, *11*, 321-325)

[In text, cite as (Sluzki, 1965/1977).]

If an original version of a non-English book is used, cite the original version, and in brackets, give the English translation.

For example:

Piaget, J. and Inhelder, B. (1951). *La genèse de l'idée de hasard chez l'enfant* [The origin of the idea of danger in the child]. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.

UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPTS:

1. Unpublished Manuscript with a University Cited:
The title follows the author and year, underlined, with only the first word capitalised, followed by Unpublished manuscript/masters thesis/doctoral dissertation, as appropriate, the name of the university and the city.

For example:

Bors, W. (1996). *Writing in APA style.* Unpublished manuscript, Troy University, Phoenix.
Rogers, C.E. (1997). *Adjustment of ex-detainees.* Unpublished masters thesis, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.

2. Doctoral dissertation abstracted in Dissertation Abstracts International (DAI) and obtained on university microfilm:
Following the author, year and title, state the abstract and microfilm numbers.

For example:

Bower, D. L. (1993). Employee assistant programs supervisory referrals. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 54,* 534B. (University Microfilms No. AAD93-15947)

3. Publication of Limited Circulation:

For publications of limited circulation, such as newsletters, committee minutes or minor reports, give in parenthesis after the title, a name and address from which the publication can be obtained.

For example:

Bailey, A.C. (Ed.). (1998, February). *Newsletter of Smithstone Primary School*. (Available from A.C. Bailey, Smithstone Primary School, P.Bag X104, Scottsville, 3209)

TECHNICAL/ RESEARCH REPORTS:

1. Research Reports:

This is referenced similar to a book. If a report or contract number is assigned, this is given in parenthesis after the title.

For example:

Newport, E.L. (1975). *Motherese: The speech of mothers to young children* (Report No. 52). San Diego: University of California, Centre for Human Data Processing.

2. Educational Resources Information Centre Document:

Following the title, report number and publication details, include the E.R.I.C. number in parenthesis.

For example:

Simms, H. S. (1996). *Programme planning* (Report No. NRT-X-9-1). Lansing, MI: Centre for Research on Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 888 096)

REVIEWS AND INTERVIEWS:

1. Book Review:

Include the name of the book in brackets, after the title of the review.

For example:

Carmon, T.P. (1982). A new look at medicine from a social perspective [Review of *Social contexts of health, illness and patient care]. Contemporary Psychology, 27*, 208-209.

If the review is untitled, use the material in brackets in place of a title, but retain the brackets to show that the material is a description of content and not a title.

2. Published Interview:

Use the format appropriate for the published source of the interview (either book, journal or newspaper). Use brackets to indicate the material is a description of content and not a title.

For example:

Newman, P. (1982, January). [Interview with William Epstein, Editor of *J.E.P.: Human Perception and Performance*]. *A.P.A. Monitor*, pp.7, 68.

PROCEEDINGS OF MEETINGS AND CONFERENCES:

1. Published Contribution to a Conference:
Capitalise the name of the conference, as it is a proper name.

For example:

Chaddock, T.E. (1992). Tutoring the tutor. In C. Bowey (Ed.), *Proceedings of the seventh conference of the South African Association for Academic Development* (pp. 105-110). Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth.

2. Unpublished Contribution to a Meeting or Conference:

For example:

Singh, R. (1980, February). Multiplying versus differential-weight averaging as integration rule in attribution of weight size. In C.M. Bhatio (Chair), *Dimension of information processing*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of the India Science Congress Association, Calcutta.

3. Unpublished Paper Presented at a Conference:
For example:

Brener, J. (1979, October). *Energy, information and the control of heart rate*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Psychophysiological Research, Cincinnati.

ELECTRONIC SOURCES:
The two guiding principals in citing internet sources are
Direct readers as close as possible to the referenced material (where ever possible giving the direct link to the document cited.)
Make sure the address works.

1. Internet articles based on a printed source:
Required information:
Author's surname, Initials. (Year of publication). Title of article [Electronic version]. *Journal title and volume number,* inclusive page numbers.

For example:

VandenBos, G., Knapp., S., & Doe, J.(2001). Role of reference elements in the selection of resources by psychology undergraduates [Electronic Version]. *Journal of Bibliographic Research, 5,* 117-123. Retrieved October 13, 2001, from http://jbr.org/articles.html

2. Article in an Internet-only journal:

Required information:
Author's surname, Initials. (Full publication date). Title of article. *Journal title and volume number,* inclusive page numbers. Retrieval date, Protocol and address(Site/Path/File)

For example:

Fredrickson, B.L. (2000, March 7). Cultivating positive emotions to optimize health and well-being. *Prevention & Treatment, 3*, Article 001a. Retrieved November 20, 2000, from http://journal.apa.org/prevention/volume3/pre0030001a.html

Crow, T.J. (2000, March 7). Did *Homo sapiens* speciate on the y chromosome? *Psycoloquy,* 11. Retrieved March 25, 2001, from ftp://ftp.princeton.edu/harnad/Psycoloquy/2000.volume.11/psyc.00.11.001.language-sex-xhromosomes.1.crow

Note:

Use the full publication date if given.
Sometimes the page numbers or volume are not given. If they are not used the name of the periodical shall suffice.
If the URL runs over one line, break after a slash or before a period.
If the online article is merely an electronic for of a printed journal article, all that is required is that you add [Electronic Version] after the Title. No URL or retrieval date is required.
Protocol refers to the retrieval protocol e.g., http, ftp and telent.

3. Multipage documents created by private organisations:

Required Information:
Organisation's Name, (Publication Date). Title of article. Retrieval date, Protocol and address(Site/Path/File)

For example:

Greater New Milford (Ct) Area Healthy Community 2000, Task Force on Teen and Adolescent Issues. (n.d.). *Who has time for a family meal? You do!* Retrieved October 5, 2000, from http://www.familymealtime.org

Note:

Write "n.d." when the electronic publication date is not available.
When the Internet document comprises multiple pages, provide a URL that links to the home page.
Protocol refers to the retrieval protocol e.g. http, ftp and telent.

4. Stand-alone document, no author identified, no date:
Required Information:
Title. (n.d.). Retrieval date, Protocol and address(Site/Path/File)

For example:

GVU's 8th WWW user survey. (n.d.). Retrieved August 8, 2000, from http://www.cc.gatech.edu/gvu/user_surveys/survey-1997-10/

What Breed of Dog are You? (n.d.) Retrieved March 5, 2002, from http://www.emode.com/dog/authorize/register.jsp?url=/dog/index.jsp

5. Documents available on university program or department Web site:
Required Information:
Author's surname, Initials. (Publication date). *Title of article.* Retrieval date, host organization or department Protocol and address(Site/Path/File)

For example:

Ian Neath (n.d.). *Models of Memory.* Retrieved March 5, 2002, from Perdue University, Cognitive Psychology departments Web site: http://rumpole.psych.purdue.edu/models/index.html

Chou, L., & McClintock (1993). *Technology and education: New wine in new bottles*. Retrieved August 24, 2000, from Columbia University, Institute for Learning Technologies Web site: http://www.ilt.columbia.edu/publications/papers/newwine1.html

5. Message posted to newsgroup or discussion group
Required Information:
Author and Initials. (Full Date). Title [message number]. Postage address.

For example:

Chambers, D. (2000, November 17). Seeing with sound [Msg 1]. Message posted to news://sci.psychology.consciousness

Simons, D.J. (2000, July 14). New resources for visual cognition [Msg 31]. Message posted to http://groups.yahoo.com/group/visualcognition/message/31

Note:
Be careful when citing an electronic discussion source. They are generally not referenced in formal

publications because they are not peer reviewed and are not archived for a significant length of time. If no archived is maintained it can not be retrieved and so can not be referenced. At best it can be cited as personal communication.

6. Messages posted to an electronic mailing list

Required Information:
Author and Initials. (Full Date). Title. Mailing list name, archive address

For example:

> Hammond, T. (2000, November 20). YAHC: Handle Parameters, DOI Genres, etc. Message posted to Ref-Links electronic mailing list, archived at http://www.doi.org/mail-archive/ref-link/msg00088.html

Note:
You must provide the name of mailing list and the address for the archived version of the message.
LISTSERV is a trademark name for a particular software programme. Rather use the generic "electronic mailing list"

7. Searchable Databases

Required Information:
Author and Initials. (Publication Date). Title. *Journal, volume, inclusive page numbers*. Retrieval Date, Database.

For example:

> Borman, W.C., Hanson, M.A., Oppler, S.H., Pulakos, E.D., & White, L.A. (1993). Role of early supervisory experience in supervisor performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78,* 443-449. Retrieved October 23, 2000, from PsycARTICLES database.
>
> Fournier, M., de Ridder, D., & Bensing, J. (1999). Optimism and adaption to multiple sclerosis: What does optimism mean? *Journal of Behavioural Medicine, 22,* 303-326. Abstract retrieved October 23, 2000, from PsycLit database.

8. Computer programes and software:

Large commercial software packages are not required to be referenced. In the text simply give the proper name of the software along with its version number. Some such programes would include Microsoft Word, Excel, Java, Adobe Photoshop, SPSS.

7. Academic Misconduct...

Cheating harms the scholarly, and especially the University, community in many ways. For example, the public begins to mistrust the work of scientists and intellectuals. Honest students are frustrated by the unfairness of cheating that goes undetected and therefore unpunished. Cheaters also cheat themselves of a real education. They rob themselves not only of general knowledge, but also of the experience of learning how to learn. The reputation of the University and the worth of a degree also suffer if employers find graduates lacking the abilities their degrees should guarantee. The university takes disciplinary actions

against students and staff found guilty of academic misconduct.

7.1 What is Academic Misconduct?

You are guilty of academic misconduct or cheating whenever you present as your own, work that you did not do, or if you help someone else to cheat. Academic misconduct is of several types:

7.1.1 MULTIPLE SUBMISSIONS:

This refers to submitting the same or a similar essay or piece of work in two different courses. A student might write an essay on the effects of violence on children for a course in social conflict, and then submit a similar paper, based on the same readings, for a course in child development. Alternatively, a student might do a research project on decision making, and submit an essay on group polarisation, based on a significant portion of the thesis's literature review. It is dishonest to claim credit more than once for the same piece of work, and doing so will lead to disciplinary action by the department and/or university. In addition, it deprives you of the opportunity of researching and gaining information on a wide variety of topics, one of the goals of a university education.

Ensure therefore that each essay you write is on a significantly different topic to work submitted elsewhere. If you wish to mention work you have submitted elsewhere, ensure that you cite yourself as author, and include a full reference to the essay or thesis you wish to mention.

7.1.2 EXAMS:

Copying from someone else's exam, using notes (unless expressly allowed by the lecturer in an open book exam), getting an advance copy of the examination, or hiring a surrogate test-taker are all flagrant violations of University policy and may lead to suspension or expulsion.

7.1.3 COLLABORATION:

You are guilty of cheating any time you copy the work of another student, whether this involve collaboration without permission on an assignment or test, copying the work of another student, or submitting an old assignment written by a previous student. Students also illegally collaborate on essays by creating a detailed outline together, then writing separate papers from the outline. The final papers may have different wording but share structure and important ideas. This is cheating because the students have failed to hand in something that is substantially their own work, and because they haven't cited the ideas that they've borrowed from each other.

The only time collaboration is permitted, is when your lecturer has specifically assigned a group project. Group projects require careful division of responsibility. Collective work degenerates when some students see it as a way to complete an assignment with the least amount of effort. Group work calls for a different kind of effort, not less of it. When group projects are assigned, the lecturer is usually interested in your mastery of group process as well as the subject. Ask the lecturer to clarify individual responsibilities and to suggest a method of proceeding. Ensure that you have understood whether separate write-ups are to be submitted, or whether one paper should be written jointly by the group. Also clarify how the paper will be marked - whether each individual's contributions will be assessed, or whether there will be a shared group mark.

7.1.4 PLAGIARISM:

1. WHEN DOES PLAGIARISM OCCUR?

Plagiarism occurs when you use the ideas or writings of another as your own without giving due credit to the other person. When a plagiarised essay is submitted, the lecturer recognises words, phrases and sentence patterns completely unlike the rest of the student's writing, with no quotations to indicate that the material comes from another source. When the lecturer checks the source he finds that the uncharacteristic sentences and phrases are taken directly from the source, often with only minor modification. This is therefore a form of "literary theft" for which there are serious penalties.

There are several ways in which plagiarism occurs:

Using another writer's words without proper citation:
If you use another writer's exact words, you must place quotation marks around the quoted material and include a citation noting the author, year and page number, as well as a full reference in your reference list.

For example:

> The goals of psychology are "to (1) describe, (2) understand, (3) predict, and (4) control or modify behaviour and mental processes" (Coon, 2001, p.11).

Using another writer's ideas without proper citation:
When you use another author's ideas, theories, research or opinions, you must use a citation to indicate where this information can be found. Your lecturer wants to know which ideas and judgments are yours and which you arrived at by consulting other sources. Only if the idea is part of general knowledge does it not require a citation.

For example:

> Psychologists study human and animal behaviour and experiences (no reference required).
> Psychologists study the observable behaviour of man as it is dependent on consequences of reward or punishment in the external environment (Skinner, 1960).

Reproducing the exact words of a printed source without quotation marks:
Even if you include a citation, you give the impression that you have paraphrased rather than borrowed the author's exact words.

Adapting the material you have read by making only minor changes:
This includes borrowing the structure of another author's sentences, combining the author's sentences while keeping the same wording, or simply changing the word order. This plagiarism usually occurs out of laziness or due to lack of understanding of what you have read. It is also commonly due to an over-reliance on one single reading - having to integrate the arguments form several papers forces you to rely more heavily on your own wording. It is a common but serious error to hand in an essay consisting of a pieced-together collection of writings from various sources, in which only a few words have been altered from the original. Even if you cite the author, this is still plagiarism, because there is nothing to indicate to the reader that the phrasing and style of writing are those of the author and not the student.

For example:

Original:
If the existence of a signing ape was unsettling for linguists, it was also startling news for animal behaviorists (Hacker, 1989, p. 171).

Unacceptable borrowing of words:
An ape who knew sign language unsettled linguists and startled animal behaviorists.

Unacceptable borrowing of sentence structure:
If the presence of a sign-language-using chimp was disturbing for scientists studying language, it was also surprising to scientists studying animal behaviour.

Acceptable paraphrasing:
When they learned of an ape's ability to use sign language, both linguists and animal behaviorists were taken by surprise (Hacker, 1989).

Borrowing all or part of another student's essay or using someone else's outline to write your own paper.

Having someone else write the essay for you, or alter large sections of the essay:
It is permissible to have a friend comment on your work, to determine whether the essay is easy to follow, but it is not permissible for another person to rewrite part or all of your essay.

2. HOW DO YOU AVOID PLAGIARISM?

Paraphrasing:
The first step to avoid plagiarism is to ensure that you have adequately understood the material, and can paraphrase it in your own words. Often students will copy entire sections of a reading because they don't really understand what they are writing. If you can't put the information into your own words, you aren't ready to write about it. To paraphrase correctly, read the article thoroughly before taking notes, and then put the article aside while you write a summary of the major ideas. This will remove the tendency to copy large sections of the text, using the author's words. You could also try to explain the article aloud, to yourself or to a friend, to again see whether you have fully understood it and can explain it using your own words.

When taking notes, distinguish your ideas from those from the source you are reading. For example, write information obtained from another source in brackets or parenthesis, and write your own ideas without brackets. Alternatively, use different colours of ink to distinguish between original and non-original ideas.

The following three principles apply to the art of paraphrasing:

Wherever possible, paraphrase instead of quoting. Quoting is only appropriate when the original source's exact words are important to the content of the paper.

Paraphrasing means more than changing a few words here and there. A paraphrase is in your own words - the kind of thing you could write two days after reading an article, without having the article in front of you. If you must quote, follow the appropriate format for quotations (see b. below).

Here is a paragraph to be paraphrased:
"Long-term memory, that immensely complex storehouse, has also been most extensively studied with the use of verbal materials, usually presented in the form of long lists. As we shall see, this approach has resulted in some extremely important findings, but it has also been a bit misleading." (Klatsky, 1975, p. 17).

Here is an inadequate paraphrase:
Long term memory is a complex storehouse that has been studied extensively using verbal materials in the form of long lists. While this approach has resulted in some extremely important findings, it has also been misleading. (Klatsky, 1975).

Here is an adequate paraphrase:
We usually store long term memory by having subjects to recall aloud items from long lists. Because such a task is different in important ways from the kinds of tasks long term memory is usually called upon to perform, our findings are somewhat questionable (Klatsky, 1975).

The inadequate paraphrase has simply taken Klatsky's words and rearranged them, with a few words omitted. This is an act of plagiarism, even though a reference has been cited, as the person has copied Klatsky's sentence structure and phrasing. The author of the adequate paraphrase on the other hand, must have understood the original reading, as s/he has been able to express the ideas using his/her own words and phrasing.

Quotations:
Short quotations, of fewer than 40 words, are incorporated into the text and enclosed within quotation marks, while long quotations are displayed as a free-standing block of type, indented five spaces from the left margin, without the quotation marks. In both cases the quotation is followed by a citation listing the author, year of publication, and page number (APA, 1994, p.95).

Use quotation marks whenever you are using someone else's words exactly, but use direct quotations sparingly. An essay consisting almost entirely of quotations will probably be failed, as your lecturer expects far more of you than simply arranging quotations into a meaningful order. S/he expects the depth of understanding that can only be demonstrated by synthesising others ideas into a logical argument and expressing these ideas in your own words. Quotations should therefore only be used to support your point with the words of an authority, or when the original wording is unusual, strong, or characteristic of the speaker.

Writing in your own words, using a few quotes to strengthen your main points, shows that you understand your topic. Stringing quotes together suggests that you don't understand the material or are simply trying to fill up space in an essay because you haven't read very widely.
Arguments made in scientific writing rarely focus on the specific words used in the source material - unlike arguments made in literary criticism, for example - so students may find that they use quotes less often in scientific papers.

For example:

Here are two extracts from Myers' 1993 textbook *Psychology*:

"Although some psychoanalysts believed that girls experience a parallel Electra complex, Freud (1931, p.9) said no: 'It is only in the male child that we find the fateful combination of

love for the one parent and simultaneous hatred for the other as a rival.'" (Myers, 1993, p.48).

"The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire has been given to people in 35 countries around the world from China to Uganda. When answers are analysed the extroversion and emotionality factors emerge as basic personality dimensions (Eysenck, 1990)." (Myers, 1993, p.57).

In the first example, Myers is discussing a disputed theoretical issue and trying to express Freud's own views on the issue, and so a direct quotation is justified to avoid the problems of misrepresenting Freud's ideas. In the second example however, Myers is simply describing the results of Eysenck's research and so a paraphrase is acceptable.

Citations:

Anytime you quote someone, you must refer to the source and page number. If you are paraphrasing another writer's ideas or opinions, or referring to someone else's research study, you must cite the source. Citations are important, not only because they give credit to the original author, but also because they allow your reader to find the original information.

For example:

"Literature on play is full of the benefits of play for children's psychosocial development. Horner (1983) for example, found extensive evidence of cognitive benefits to preschoolers exposed to educational toys as opposed to a control group lacking in such exposure. In an observation of children at a nursery school, Busch (1978) witnessed the many social benefits of play in terms of interpersonal interaction, communication and gender role development. Piaget (1932) suggests that through play, children experiment with a variety of roles and behaviours, exploring the reactions of themselves and others to these behaviours. This exploration leads to a decrease in egocentrism and an increased sensitivity to others."

This excerpt contains three citations. The first two refer to research studies, and tell the reader who did the studies being described. The citation to Piaget (1932), refers not to a specific study, but to Piaget's ideas. The citation tells the reader that although the words are mine, they are describing the Piaget's ideas. If I had used Piaget's wording however, I would have had to enclose the quotation in quotation marks, and include a page reference. Failure to do so would constitute plagiarism as I would be claiming to have written something which I did not write.

Secondary Sources:

While secondary sources, if properly acknowledged are acceptable, it is recommended that you use primary sources wherever possible. Even if you use your own words to describe a review article summarising a body of literature, for example, you are still describing someone else's analysis of the issues and not your own. Any ideas you include are therefore unoriginal. Rather use a review article to gain an overview of the area and to find a list of references to the primary literature which you can then consult directly. This will demonstrate your ability to reflect critically on, and organise the literature in your own, original style.

Ensure that when you do use secondary references, these are properly referenced [e.g. (James, 1901 in Smith, 1990)]. By not indicating that you are using a secondary source, and instead citing a large number of papers, none of which you have actually read, you create the wrong impression of having read widely. Instead, all of your citations are from a review article or textbook, and it is this textbook or review article which is the real source of your information. Hence to avoid plagiarism, ensure that you accurately cite the

secondary sources you have used:

For example:

> Melzack (1973) has reviewed the work of Livingstone (1901) and Gerald (1929), and concludes .....
> According to Skinner (1970), the approach used by Maslow (1957) .....
> Evidence suggests that ..... (Myers, 1980 and Johns, 1982, in Smith, 1990).

7.2 What are the Consequences of Academic Misconduct?

The School of Psychology and the University take a very serious view of cheating and plagiarism. Students caught cheating in a test will receive 0% for the test, while those plagiarising an essay or practical will receive 0% for the assignment. In both cases the student may be referred to the University Disciplinary Court, who may expel or otherwise sanction a student found guilty. Any disciplinary sanction becomes part of the student's record and will be reported to other universities should the student apply to transfer elsewhere. Furthermore, the process of being brought up on charges of dishonesty - of having one's character and integrity questioned - is invariably a deeply embarrassing and troubling experience for a student, and one that leaves a painful memory.

7.3 Preventing Academic Misconduct:

The first step to preventing plagiarism and other forms of academic misconduct, is to familiarise yourself with the rules for referencing, quoting and paraphrasing as outlined above. In addition, the temptation to cheat can be removed by practising good study skills, and by making use of the academic development resources at the university. Certain patterns in student behaviour increase the temptation to cheat: falling behind in course work; leaving large projects until the last minute; taking too many difficult courses at once and encountering emotional or health problems. Staff at the Student Counselling Centre can help you deal with these problems by helping you determine your educational goals, plan courses and keep your load manageable.

Deal with personal and health problems, rather than denying that you're overloaded or unable to cope. You may need to re-negotiate a deadline with your lecturer, drop a course, or you may decide to leave university for a semester. If a personal problem is keeping you from concentrating on your studies, discuss the situation with a counsellor or lecturer and work out a solution.

You will be expected to live up to the University's standards of academic honesty no matter what temptations you face. The good news is that this standard is not hard to maintain. It only requires that you clarify assignments and procedures with your lecturers, that you study diligently, and that you seek help when you need it.

8. REFERENCES:

American Psychological Association (2001). *American Psychological Association publication manual* (5th ed.). Washington, D.C.: Author.

Bell, P.B., & Staines, P.J. (1979). *Reasoning and argument in psychology.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Darling, C. (1998). *Guide to grammar and writing*. Retrieved 5 March 2002, from http://webster.commnet.edu/HP/pages/darling/grammar.htm.

Lea, S. (1997). *Psychological writing*. Retrieved 5 March 2002, from http://www.ex.ac.uk/~SEGLea/psy6002/writing.htm

Purdue University On-Line Writing Lab (1998). *OWL handouts: An outline of all the documents*. Retreived 5 March 2002, from http://owl.english.purdue.edu/writers/by-topic.html.

TerreBlanche, M., & Durrheim, K. (Eds.).(1999). *Research in practice*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.