

Publication Manual

Guidelines for preparing seminar, bachelor and master theses
and presentations

Institute of Media and Communication Science (ifmk)

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Part 1: Research

What kind of literature should you prefer? This question occurs at the beginning of all research activities. But where to look for suitable literature?

There are several sources you can use:

- 1.1 University Library
- 1.2 (Communication Research) Databases
- 1.3 Online Research

1.1 University Library

The University Library of Ilmenau (<http://www.tu-ilmenau.de/ub/>) offers an online catalogue, which comprehends all of its stock. There are additional services like stack order and interlending, which can be directly arranged in the library for a small fee. The library also provides a full amount of databases and electronic journals, which are available on CD/DVD or can be reached directly via link from the library homepage.

The electronic library catalogue

To save time there are several options for an efficient search inside the online catalogue. It is advisable to use the advanced search. Here you can link your search items with the three different operators AND, OR and NOT. For example if you link “games” and “violence” with AND, the database will show you results which include both of your search items. If you link them with OR, you will see literature that is just about games and literature just about violence. If you link it with NOT, you will get results about games which will not include anything about violence. These research functions are same for databases.

1.2 (Communication Research) Databases

An important source for academic studies and projects are databases. Below you will find short introductions about how to use academic databases efficiently.

The University Library offers more than 20 communication databases. To access them via the library’s homepage (<http://www.tu-ilmenau.de/ub/> → Datenbanken → Medien- und Kommunikationswissenschaft) look at the green and yellow items at the end of the table.

 means: online available in the university network

 means: free access – even from home

 means: available on CD/DVD inside the university network

1.2.1 CMMC-Communication and Mass Media Complete

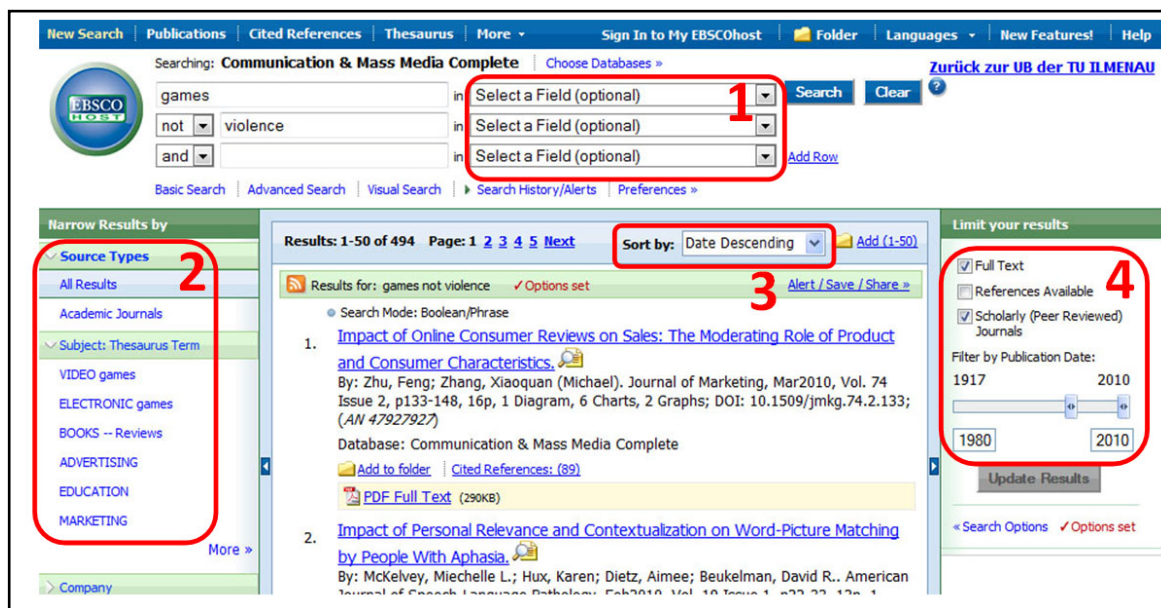
The most useful database for international journals and other academic literature in the field of media is the CMMC - Communication and Mass Media Complete. Note: This database is only available from the university network (or using a VPN-client from home).

One way to get it started:

- Homepage of University Library (<http://www.tu-ilmenau.de/ub/>)
 - Datenbanken
 - Medien- und Kommunikationswissenschaften
 - Communication and Mass Media Complete (via EBSCO Host)
 - follow the link next to “Recherche starten”

Similarly to the University Library’s online catalogue we encourage you to apply to the advanced search function. To quickly find the information you are interested in, it is beneficial to systematically use the operators AND, OR and NOT (described in chapter 1.1). In figure 1 some further options to structure and filter your search are marked. In the fields of mark no. 1 you can classify your search item in different categories, such as author or title. You can also choose specific types of sources (mark 2). Furthermore, there is the possibility to sort the results by date, source, author or relevance (mark 3). You can additionally limit the number of results by using the options marked in no. 4, e.g. by choosing the year of publication or only full text results.

Figure 1: How to use CMMC efficiently



1.2.2 Publizistik und Massenkommunikation

The German language database Publizistik und Massenkommunikation is available on CD/DVD and provides social science literature from 1980 on until today. You can access the CD/DVD-version inside the university network via internet. The access occurs via Citrix-Metaframe-Server. Therefore you have to install the „Citrix Online plug-in - Web" on your computer.

One way to get it started:

- Homepage of University Library (<http://www.tu-ilmenau.de/ub/>)
 - Datenbanken
 - Medien- und Kommunikationswissenschaften
 - Publizistik und Massenkommunikation
 - follow the link next to “Recherche starten”

Note: you need a special software: "Citrix Online plug-in - Web"

(Download under: <http://www.tu-ilmenau.de/ub/574.html>)

! The database is not up to date anymore. Because the database is no longer updated you can only use it to find older literature.

1.2.3 WISO – Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften

WISO is a database especially for university requirements. The archive offers more than 300 professional journals. Additionally, references and full texts from economy, business studies, credit economy and ergonomics are searchable. WISO is actually reachable via PATON TU Ilmenau.

1.2.4 Virtual Library: Medien, Bühne, Film

The virtual library Medien, Bühne, Film offers essays, e-journals, library catalogues. It includes literature in three sub portals: communication and media science, journalism, theatre and film

Note: available under: <http://www.medien-buehne-film.de/medien/>

1.3 Online Research

Of course, sources of the free Internet can also be used for your research. But always keep in mind that for writing scientific papers, journals – printed or online – are the most important sources in the field of science-based theory and research. The reasons are reliability and quality of the contents. While peer-review (cross-reading by other experts for an article in a journal) and a lot of references guarantee a high level of reliability for journals, for the bulk of free websites you do not have any verification for the correctness or about who is the source of these information. Therefore use contents of free websites only if they offer a big additional value or are extremely inimitable.

To keep this in mind

The common way to generate your findings is using search engines. When you use search engines to get information, keep in mind, that you always find common results. Contents of databases or other “deep web content” cannot be captured. The results offered in search engines (like Google) are almost influenced by the market. To get a higher rank, companies might use dishonest strategies to place their results. Therefore, use search engines just to get a general idea that helps you to structure the basic information, and then use academic databases, (online) journals, and books.

Part 2: Writing and Structuring a Paper

2.1 Manuscript Format

- We recommend to use a serif typeface such as Times New Roman for the text, font size: 12, e.g.:
 - 12-pt Times New Roman
 - 12-pt Courier
- The line space should be 1,5 between each line.

2.2 Parts of a Paper

2.2.1 Title Page

2.2.2 Abstract

2.2.3 Index of Contents

2.2.4 Introduction

2.2.5 Text/Main Part

2.2.6 References

2.2.7 Appendices

2.2.8 Declaration of Autonomy

2.2.1 Title Page

A title should summarize the main idea of the paper simply. It should be a concise statement of the main topic and should identify the actual variables or theoretical issues and be printed on a separate page.

Elements:

- author's name (byline): first name, middle initials and last name
- institutional affiliation
- title: centred and positioned on the upper half of the page
- specifications of the author including name, address, e-mail, register
- date

Example for a title page:

Prof. Dr. Erik Mustermann

Institut für Medien- und Kommunikationswissenschaft

Fachgebiet XY

Seminartyp/Seminarthema

Sommersemester 2010

Öffentliche Meinung:

Ostdeutsche Identität im Internet –

eine suchmaschinenbasierte Internet-Inhaltsanalyse

vorgelegt von:

Felix Fleißig

Siegerallee 1

98693 Ilmenau

E-Mail: felix.feissig@tu-ilmenau.de

Matrikelnummer 12345

Datum 30.06.2010

2.2.2 Abstract

An abstract is a brief, comprehensive summary of the paper's content. It allows the reader to survey the main ideas quickly. Begin the abstract on a new page. Do not exceed 120 words. To make each sentence maximally informative, type all numbers, except those that begin a sentence in arabic numbers, abbreviate liberally and use active voice.

An abstract of a report of an empirical study should describe:

- the problem under investigation, in one sentence if possible
- the participants or subjects, specifying pertinent characteristics, such as numbers, type, age, sex, genus and species
- the experimental method, including the apparatus, data-gathering, procedures, complete test names and so on
- the findings, including statistical significance levels
- the conclusion and the implications or applications

An abstract for a methodological paper should describe:

- the general class of method being proposed or discusses
- the essential features of the proposed method
- the range of application of the proposed method
- the behaviour of the method, including its power and robustness to violations or assumptions

2.2.3 Index of Contents

Use from one to maximum four levels of headings. For most seminar papers two levels of headings are sufficient, for BA or MA theses three levels are enough.

2.2.4 Introduction

Introduce the topic: The introduction of a scientific paper has a central role: *It leads to the topic and clarifies its relevance.* Furthermore, it *states the question(s) the author wants to answer* and therewith *clarifies the goal of the thesis* as precise as possible – the more precise the easier it gets to find a plausible structure within the paper. It is important to really formulate a problem to make sure that the argumentation and, with it, the reader will not get “lost”. The *limitations* (questions that cannot be answered in the thesis) should be defined appropriately. Furthermore, the introduction *justifies the applied structure* and *names the used methods*, which is helpful for the thread of the whole paper. After reading the introduction, the reader should know what to expect. He knows the question, he knows how the author wants to answer it, and he knows why it is relevant to know the answer.

2.2.5 Text/Main Part

The main part of a thesis is subdivided into several parts and consists of a theoretical part, research questions and hypotheses, methods, results and discussion.

The ***theoretical part*** should give a research overview and constitute why the chosen topic has the potential to be analyzed. Depending on the topic of a thesis and the principal it follows, there are several ways to organize the structure within the main part logically:

- Deductively: from the general to the special, recommended in most cases
- Inductively: from the special to the general
- Chronologically: in the order according to the historical development or starting with the most recent events

In between the theoretical and the methodological part, the research questions and hypotheses should be explained.

The ***method*** section describes in detail how the study was conducted. Such a description enables the reader to evaluate the appropriateness of the methods and the reliability and validity of the results.

The ***results*** section summarizes the data collected and the statistical or data analytic treatment used. Report the data in sufficient detail to justify the conclusion. Mention all relevant results including those that run counter to the hypothesis. To report the data, choose the medium that presents them most clearly and economically. Tables commonly provide exact values and, if well prepared, can present complex data and analyses in a format that is familiar to the reader. Figures of professional quality attract the reader's eyes and provide a quick visual impression, and the best illustrate complex relationships and general comparisons. Avoid repeating the same data in several places and using tables for data that can be easily presented in a few sentences in the text. When you use tables and figures be certain to mention them in the text. Refer to all tables as tables and to all graphs, pictures and drawings as figures. Tables and figures supplement the text, they cannot do the entire job of communication. After presenting the results, you are in a position to evaluate and interpret their implications, especially with respect to the original hypothesis.

Open the ***discussion*** section with a clear statement concerning the support or non-support of your original hypotheses or research questions. Similarities and differences between your results and the work of others should clarify and conform your conclusion. You are encouraged to end the discussion section with a commentary on the importance of your findings.

2.2.6 References

(by the authors' names in alphabetical order)

All citations of the manuscript must appear in the reference list, and all references must be cited in the text. The reference list should be succinct, not exhaustive, simply provide sufficient references to support your research. If you want to direct the reader to background information, signal this with phrases such as “for a review, see”; e.g., see (author, year).

2.2.7 Appendices

(additional tables, codebooks, etc.)

Include an appendix only if it helps readers to understand, evaluate or replicate the study. Some examples of material suitable for an appendix are:

- documentation of experimental stimuli
- codebook
- unavailable texts and programs
- transcripts of interviews
- questionnaire
- additional tables and figures
- Note: no SPSS output

2.2.8 Declaration of Autonomy

With the declaration of autonomy you declare that you wrote the thesis without any assistance.

Part 3: Presentations

3.1 Design of Presentations

3.1.1 Slides

To stay in time with your presentation and to not exceed the allotted time, keep in mind:

- plan about two minutes talking per slide
- one image per slide, or
- three to eight lines of text per slide
- do not type long phrases, except for cited definitions
 - reasons: a) the audience wants to follow what the presenter is saying and
 - b) to read complex sentences in a slide gives you an information overload
- keep slides simple – no unnecessary animations or sounds

Speech reflects our thought processes, and an imprecise speaker is often an unfocused thinker. You should carefully analyze the often fuzzy borders that separate experimental or theoretical evidence from speculation. The care with which this intellectual process is performed is reflected in the manner in which you formulate your sentences.

3.1.2 Structure and Argumentation

The presentation must proceed as a logical unfolding of information. Remember that your labyrinth of knowledge, with its familiar shortcuts, alternate routes and interconnections is unfamiliar to the audience listening to your story for the first time. During the presentation, facts must be enumerated in sequential steps, each step firmly founded on the previous one. By recognizing the limits of your explanation (or theory or experiment) and clearly defining the conditions under which your conclusions are valid, you gain the respect and credibility of your audience.

Presentations and reports are ways of communicating ideas and information to a group. But unlike a report, a presentation carries the speaker's personality better and allows immediate interaction between all the participants.

A good presentation has:

- *Content* - It contains information that people need. But unlike reports, which are read at the reader's own pace, presentations must account for how much information the audience can absorb in one sitting.
- *Structure* - It has a logical beginning, middle, and end. It must be sequenced and paced so that the audience can understand it. Whereas reports have appendices and footnotes to guide the reader, the speaker must be careful not to lose the audience when wandering from the main point of the presentation.
- *Packaging* - It must be well prepared. A report can be reread and portions skipped over, but with a presentation, the audience is at the mercy of a presenter.
- *Human Element* - A good presentation will be remembered much more than a good report because it has a person attached to it.

The next step is to prepare the presentation. A good presentation starts out with introductions and an icebreaker such as a story, an interesting statement, a fact, joke, quotation, or an activity to get the audience warmed up. The introduction also needs an objective, that is, the purpose or goal of the presentation. This not only tells what you will talk about, but it also informs the audience of the purpose of the presentation.

The body of the presentation follows next. Do NOT write it out word for word. All you want is an outline. By jotting down the main points on a set of index cards, you not only have your outline, but also a memory jogger for the actual presentation. To prepare the presentation, ask yourself the following:

- What is the purpose of the presentation?
- Who will be attending?
- What does the audience already know about the subject?

A 45 minutes talk should have no more than about seven main points. This may not seem like very many, but if you are to leave the audience with a clear picture of what you have said, you cannot expect them to remember much more than that. There are several options for structuring the presentation:

- *Timeline*: Arranged in sequential order.
- *Climax*: The main points are delivered in order of increasing importance.
- *Problem/solution*: A problem is presented, a solution is suggested, and benefits are then given.
- *Classification*: The important items are the major points.

- Simple to complex: Ideas are listed from the simplest to the most complex. Can also be done in reverse order.

You should include some visual information that will help the audience to understand your presentation. Develop charts, graphs, slides, handouts, etc. The body is followed by the closing. This is where you ask for questions, provide a summary, and thank the participants for attending. Notice that you told them what they are about to hear (the objective), told them (the body), and told them what they heard (summary).

3.1.3 Rehearsal

And finally, the most important part: practice, practice, practice. The main purpose of creating an outline is to develop a coherent plan of what you want to talk about. You should know your presentation so well, that during the actual presentation, you should only have to briefly glance at your notes to ensure you are staying on track. This will also help you with your nerves by giving you the confidence that you can do it. Your practice session should include a "live" session by practicing in front of coworkers, family, or friends. They can be valuable at providing feedback and it gives you a chance to practice controlling your nerves. Another great feedback technique is to make a video or audio tape of your presentation and review it critically with a colleague.

Prepare for each seminar for every individual occasion from the beginning, always with the specific audience in mind.

Prepare - then relax: To give a good presentation it is essential to be relaxed.

3.2 Preparing yourself for the Presentation

This is your project! Be sure you feel good about presenting it. Your enthusiasm for the work can carry you beyond the butterflies most people have when presenting to an audience.

3.2.1 Body Language

Your body communicates different impressions to the audience. People not only listen to you, they also watch you. Slouching tells them you are indifferent or you do not care, even though you might care a great deal! On the other hand, displaying good posture tells your audience that you know what you are doing and you care deeply about it. Also, a good posture helps you to speak more clearly and effectively.

Throughout your presentation, display:

- *Eye contact:* This helps to regulate the flow of communication. It signals interest in others and increases the speaker's credibility. Speakers who make eye contact open the flow of communication and convey interest, concern, warmth, and credibility.
- *Voice:* One of the major criticisms of speakers is that they speak in a monotone voice. Listeners perceive this type of speaker as boring and dull. People report that they learn less and lose interest more quickly when listening to those who have not learned to modulate their voices.
- *Facial Expressions:* Smiling is a powerful cue that transmits happiness, friendliness, warmth, and liking. So, if you smile frequently you will be perceived as more likable, friendly, warm, and approachable. Smiling is often contagious and others will react favorably. They will be more comfortable around you and will want to listen to you more.
- *Gestures:* If you fail to gesture while speaking, you may be perceived as boring and stiff. A lively speaking style captures attention, makes the material more interesting, and facilitates understanding.
- *Posture and body orientation:* You communicate numerous messages by the way you talk and move. Standing erect and leaning forward communicates that you are approachable, receptive, and friendly. Interpersonal closeness results when you and your audience face each other. Speaking with your back turned or looking at the floor or ceiling should be avoided as it communicates disinterest.
- *Proximity:* Cultural norms dictate a comfortable distance for interaction with others. You should look for signals of discomfort caused by invading other's space. Some of these are: rocking, leg swinging, tapping, and gaze aversion. Typically, in large rooms, space invasion is not a problem. In most instances there is too much distance. To counteract this, move around the room to increase interaction with your audience. Increasing the proximity enables you to make better eye contact and increases the opportunities for others to speak.

3.2.2 Tips and Techniques

- To ease into the presentation, a nervous speaker should write down a few opening sentences on a sheet of paper and read them out in verbatim in as natural and controlled a voice as possible at the beginning of the presentation, making sure not to speak too fast.

- Speak clearly and loudly enough for all to hear. Do not speak in a monotone voice. Use inflection to emphasize your main points.
- Speak to the audience, NOT to the visual aids, such as slides. Also, do not stand between the visual aid and the audience.
- List and discuss your objectives at the beginning of the presentation. Let the audience know how your presentation fits in with their goals. Discuss some of the fears and apprehensions that both you and the audience might have. Tell them what they should expect of you and how you will contribute to their goals.
- If you have handouts, do not read straight from them. The audience does not know if they should read along with you or listen to you read.
- The disadvantage of presentations is that people cannot see the punctuation and this can lead to misunderstandings. An effective way of overcoming this problem is to pause at the time when there would normally be punctuation marks.
- Do not put both hands in your pockets for long periods of time. This tends to make you look unprofessional. It is OK to put one hand in a pocket but ensure there is no loose change or keys to jingle around. This will distract the listeners.
- Circulate around the room as you speak. This movement creates a physical closeness to the audience.
- Do not wave a pointer around in the air like a wild knight branding a sword to slay a dragon. Use the pointer for what it is intended and then put it down, otherwise the audience will become fixated upon your "sword", instead upon you.
- Do not lean on the podium for long periods. The audience will begin to wonder when you are going to fall over.
- Listen intently to comments and opinions, the audience will feel that their ideas, comments, and opinions are worthwhile.
- If possible try to vary your techniques (lecture, discussion, debate, films, slides, reading, etc.)
- Be prepared to use an alternate approach if the one you've chosen seems to bog down. You should be confident enough with your own material so that the audience's interests and concerns, not the presentation outline, determines the format. Use your background, experience, and knowledge to interrelate your subject matter.

- Get to the presentation before your audience arrives; be the last one to leave.
- Consider the time of day and how long you have got for your talk. Time of day can affect the audience. After lunch is known as the graveyard section in training circles as audiences will feel more like a nap than listening to a talk.
- Most people find that if they practice in their head, the actual talk will take about 25 per cent longer. Using visual aids also adds to the time. Remember - *it is better to finish slightly early than to overrun.*

Dress for success:

- Dressing up for a scientific presentation conveys two important messages: respect for your audience and willingness to conform.

Part 4: References in APA Style

It is important to acknowledge all sources of information and ideas that you have used in your essay, research paper, dissertation or thesis in a way that identifies the original source. This is known as referencing, so references are your literature. Referencing enables you to avoid plagiarism, allows the reader to consult the original source of your information, and acknowledges the author from which the information was taken. There are many styles of referencing. This guide shows you one way. APA is a publication standard of the American Psychological Association, which includes rules for the preparation of manuscripts and articles to give them a common form and style. It is an author-date method of referencing.

4.1 Quotations and Citations

When making *direct quotations* insert the author's name, year of the publication and page number in the running text.

- *Quotations of less than 40 words* should be incorporated in the text and enclosed with double quotation marks. After the quotations provide author, year and page number. The complete reference can be followed up by the reader in the reference list at the end of the paper.

Example:

She stated, "The 'placebo effect,' ...disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner" (Miele, 1993, p. 276), but he did not clarify which behaviors were studied.

In German: (Miele, 1993, S. 276)

- *Quotations with more than 40 words* should be made using a free-standing block quotation on a new line, indented 1,2 cm just like the first line of a new paragraph (hit the 'tab-button' once) and without quotation marks

Example:

Miele (1993) found the following:

The "placebo effect," which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner. Furthermore, the behaviors were never exhibited, even when reel [sic] drugs were administered. Earlier studies were clearly premature in attributing the results to a placebo effect. (p. 276)

In German:

Miele (1993) stellte Folgendes fest:

The "placebo effect," which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when behaviors were studied in this manner. Furthermore, the behaviors were never exhibited, even when reel [sic] drugs were administered. Earlier studies were clearly premature in attributing the results to a placebo effect. (S. 276)

- The quotation must be accurate and follow the wording, spelling and interior punctuation of the original source, even if the source is incorrect. If any incorrect spelling, punctuation, or grammar in the source might confuse the reader, insert the Latin word *sic* (that's the way it is), *italicized* and bracketed immediately after the error in the quotation.
- Use double quotation marks to enclose quotations in text. Use single quotation marks within double quotation marks to set off material that in the original source was enclosed with double quotation marks.

Example:

Miele (1993) found the following:

Miele (1993) found that "the 'placebo effect,' which had been verified in previous studies, disappeared when [only the first group's] behaviors were studied in this manner" (p. 276).

- Changes from source requiring explanation. Use three spaced ellipsis points (...) within a sentence to indicate that you had omitted material from the original source. Use four points to indicate any omission between two sentences.
- For electronic sources (such as web pages) provide the author, the year and the page number (if it is a PDF document), the paragraph number if visible or a heading followed by the paragraph number.

Example:

As Myers (2000, 5) aptly phrased it, "positive emotions are both an end - better to live fulfilled, with joy - and means to a more caring and healthy society."

- If there are headings in the document and neither paragraph nor page numbers are visible, cite the heading and the number of the following

paragraph to direct the reader to the location of the quoted material.

Example:

"The current system of managed care and the current approach to defining empirically supported treatments are shortsighted" (Beutler, 2000, Conclusion section, 1)

When ***referring indirectly*** to another author's work, insert the author's name/ authors' names and year of the publication (the page number is not needed).

- When there is one author include the last name and the year.

Example:

Einstein (1905) explained the theory of relativity...

- If there is a following reference referring to the same source in the same paragraph, it is not necessary to mention the year again.

Example:

Einstein (1905) explained the theory of relativity. Einstein also discovered that...

- If there are two authors include the last name of each and the publication year.

Example:

Mayer and Thompson (1998) stated ...

or

... as proofed (Mayer & Thompson, 1998)...

- If there are three to five authors you might cite all authors the first time. In following citations only mention the name of the first author followed by "et al." (Latin for "and others") and the year of the publication. You can also mention the fist author and "et al." from the first citation on.

Example:

First citation: Jones, Burbeck, Hanson, and Wagner (2006) found that...

or

(Jones, Burbeck, Hanson, & Wagner, 2006)

Subsequent citations: Jones et al. (2006) also underlined that...

or (Jones et al., 2006)

- If there is a text with six or more authors, only cite the name of the first author followed by “et al.” and the year of the publication.

Example:

Magnussen et al. (2003) discovered...

- If there is a group (readily identified through abbreviation) spell out the name of the group the first time they appear. In the following use the abbreviation

Example:

First citation: (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 2000)

or National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH, 2000)

Subsequent citations: NIMH (2003) found out... or (NIMH, 2003)

- If there is a group of authors where the use of an abbreviation would be rather confusing, always use the full name followed by the year.

Example: University of Chicago (2007) or (University of Chicago, 2007)

4.2 Reference List

The reference list at the end of a paper documents the literature and provides the information necessary to identify and retrieve each source. References cited in the text must appear alphabetically in the reference list and additionally in the text in the style: author and date.

Each entry of a reference list usually contains the following elements: author, year of publication, title and publishing data – all the information necessary for unique identification and library research.

Order of references in the reference list

- Alphabetize letter by letter
Brown, J. R. precedes Browning, A. R.
- One-author entries by the same author are arranged by year of publication, the earliest first:
Hewlett, L. S. (1996) precedes Hewlett, L. R. (1999)
- One-author entries precede multiple-author entries
Alleyne, R. L. (2001) precedes Alleyne, R. L., & Evans A. J. (1999)

- References with the same first author and different second or third authors are arranged alphabetically by the surname of the second author or, if the second author is the same, the surname of the third author:

Gosling, J. R., Jerals, K., & Belfar, S. F. (2000)

Gosling, J. R., & Telvin, D. F. (1996)

Hayward, D., Firsching, A., & Brown, J. (1999)

Hayward, D., Firschung, A., & Smigel, J. (1999)

- References by the same author with the same publication date are arranged alphabetically by the title that follows the date.

Exception: if the references with the same authors published in the same year are identified as publications in a series, they are ordered by the year and get a suffix ending a,b,c

Baheti, J. R. (2001a). Control...

Baheti, J. R. (2001b). Control...

- Works with no author, published by institutions or agencies are ordered by the first significant word of the name. For example American Psychological Association is alphabetised by "American".
- Only if the author is anonymous, the entry begins with "Anonymous" spelled out.

General forms of references

Periodical:

<p>Author, A. A., Author B. B., & Author, C. C. (1994). Title of article. Title of periodical, xx, xxx-xxx.</p>

<p><i>Autor, A. A., Autor, B.B. und Autor, C. C. (1994). Titel des Artikels. Titel der Zeitung, Nummer der Zeitung, Seiten.</i></p>

Journal

Kernis, M. H., Cornell, D. P., Sun, C.-R., Berry, A., & Harlow, T. (1993). There's more to self-esteem than whether it is high or low: The importance of stability of self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 1190-1240.

Magazine

Kandel, E. R., & Squire, L. R. (2000, November 10). Neuroscience: Breaking down scientific barriers to the study of brain and mind. *Science*, 290, 1113-1120.

Newsletter

Brown, L. S. (1993, Spring). Antidonation training as a central component of the diversity in clinical psychological education. *The Clinical Psychologist*, 46, 83-87.

Newsletter, no author

The new healthcare-lexicon. (1993 August/September). *Copy Editor*, 4, 1-2.

Daily newspaper

Schwartz, J. (1993, September 30). Obesity affects economic social status. *The Washington Post*, pp. A1, A4.

Books:

Author, A. A. (1994). Title of work. Location: Publisher.

Autor, A. A. (1994). Titel des Buches. Erscheinungsort: Verlag.

Robinson, D. N. (Ed.). (1992). *Social discourse and moral judgement*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Edited books:

Author, A. A. & Author, B. B. (1994). Title of chapter. In A. Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor (Eds.), title of book (pp. xxx-xxx). Location: Publisher.

Autor, A. A. & Autor, B. B. (1994). Titel des Kapitels. In A. Herausgeber, B. Herausgeber & C. Herausgeber, Titel des Buches (S. xxx-xxx). Erscheinungsort: Verlag.

O'Neil, J. M., & Egan, J. (1992). Men's and women's gender role journeys: Metaphor for healing, transition and transformation. In B. R. Wainrib (Ed.), *Gender issues across the life cycle* (pp.107-123). New York: Springer.

Online periodical:

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (2000). Title of article. Title of Periodical, xx, xxx-xxx. Retrieved month day, year, from source.

Autor, A. A., Autor, B. B. & Autor, C. C. (2000). Titel des Artikels. Titel der Zeitung, Nummer der Zeitung, Seiten. Abgerufen Tag Monat, Jahr, unter http://.

Eid, M., & Langeheine, R. (1999). The measurement of consistency and occasion specificity with latent class models: A new model and its application to the measurement of affect. *Psychological methods*, 4, 100-116. Retrieved November 19, 2000, from PsycARTICLES database.

Online document:

Author, A. A. (2000). Title of work. Retrieved month day, year, from source.

Autor, A. A. (2000). Titel der Arbeit. Abgerufen Tag Monat, Jahr, unter http://.

Benton Foundation. (1998, July 7). Barriers to closing the gap. Retrieved October 5, 2000, from <http://www.benton.org/library/low-income/two.html>

Title of document. (2000). Retrieved month day, year, from source.

Titel des Dokuments (2000). Abgerufen Tag Monat, Jahr, unter http://

Electronic reference formats recommended by the American Psychological Association. (2000, October 12). Retrieved October 23, 2000, from <http://www.apa.org/journals/webref.html>

Encyclopedia:

Bergmann, P. G. (1993). Relativity. In *The new encyclopedia Britannica* (Vol. 26, pp. 501-508). Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica.

Doctoral dissertation:

Wilfley, D. E. (1998). *Interpersonal analysis of bulimia. Normal weight as obese*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.

Audiovisual media:*Motion picture*

Scorsese, M. (Producer), & Lonergan, K. (Writer/Director). (2000). *You can count on me* [Motion Picture]. United States: Paramount Pictures.

Television series

Miller, R. (Producer). (1989). *The mind* [Television series]. New York: WNET.

Part 5: Tables and Figures¹

Figures and tables are to be numbered separately in order of their appearance in the text. The results have to be referred to in the text.

5.1 Tables

Tables (Tabellen) are perfect to present a larger amount of data in a small amount of space. Tables are generally used to describe the results of statistical analysis and other pertinent quantitative data, but they can also be used to present qualitative comparisons.

Tables are not simply used to replicate data that has already been presented in the text of the paper and not all data should be presented in a table. If there is only a limited amount of numeric data they should be presented in the text.

To keep this in mind:

- *Numbering:* All tables should be numbered (e.g. Table 1, Table 2, Table 3) with arabic numbers. If tables are used in the appendix, use capital letters with arabic numerals (e. g. Table A1 is the first table of Appendix A).
- *Titling:* Each table has an individual title italicized and presented directly under the title. Use the same font as in the text. Capitalize each word (except *and, in, of, with, etc.*) and do not put a period. For example: *Correlations Between Age and Test Scores*
- *Ruling:* Do not use vertical lines in a standard table. Horizontal lines can be used to make information clearer and more structured.
- In most cases, each table begins on a new page.

5.1.1 Columns and Headings

- Each column has a heading, it is helpful for the reader to bold the text.
- The headings just above the body of the table (column head) identify the entries in the vertical columns in the body of the table.
- The first letter of each heading should be capitalized.
- Standard abbreviations and symbols (e. g. no. for number, % for percent) and for statistics (e. g. S, MD, χ^2 etc.) can be used without explanation, other abbreviations should be explained in a note below the table. Abbreviations do not necessarily need to be capitalized.

¹ All following examples are drawn from the authors' publications.

5.1.2 Body

- If individual cells contain text, capitalize the first word.
- Cells typically contain numbers, not text. Use the number of decimal places that is appropriate for your analysis. This will often be two, but may be more or less depending on the level of precision required by your analysis.
- Be consistent in the number of decimal places you use within a column and within comparable values elsewhere.
- If a cell must remain empty, put in a dash (--) and explain your absence of data in the note to the table.

5.1.3 Notes to a Table

- In a note you can present additional information to a table.
- Notes to the table appear underneath the table being supplemented. Notes begin under the first column and are left-justified and single or double spaced. Each note begins on a new line.
- If the table is reprinted from a journal or book, refer to it with a reference (see Part 4).

5.1.4 Relations between Tables and Text

- Discussing tables in text: in the text refer to every table and tell the reader what to look for. Discuss only the highlights; if you discuss every item in the text, the table is unnecessary.
- Ensuring that every table can be understood in its own: each table should be an integral part of the text but also should be intelligible without reference in the text.
- Citing tables: in the text refer to tables by their numbers:
Example: as shown in Table 5, the responses were ...
Children with pretraining (see Table 5) ...

5.1.5 Tables – examples

Example: Simple cross tabulation (no test of significance, from Publizistik)

Tab. 3: Öffentliche versus private Kommunikation (alle Angaben in %)

	Gesamt (n=1.005)	1999–2000 (n=90)	2001–2002 (n=206)	2003–2004 (n=241)	2005–2006 (n=241)	2007–2008 (n=201)
öffentliche Kommunikation	92,5	94,4	97,1	96,7	88,8	87,1
private Kommunikation	3,5	5,6	2,4	1,7	4,1	5,0
beides	4,0	0,0	0,5	1,7	7,1	8,0
Gesamt*	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,1	100,0	100,1

*Rundungsfehler

Example: Comparing means between three groups (oneway variance-analysis; from an edited book)

Tabelle 1: Drei Onliner-Typen und ihre Nutzung ausgewählter Onlinedienste und -inhalte

<i>Alter</i>	unter 60 Jahre		ab 60 Jahre	
	<i>alle Onliner</i> (n=34)	<i>Internet-Einstieg vor 60</i> (n=39/40)	<i>Internet-Einstieg ab 60</i> (n=61-63)	
<i>Onlinenutzung</i>				
E-Mail	3,38 ^a	3,50 ^a	3,00 ^b	
Chatten & Diskussionsforen	1,38 ^a	1,10 ^b	1,13 ^b	
Einfach so surfen	1,47	1,38	1,66	
Onlinemedien besuchen	2,38	2,28	1,98	
Suchmaschinen-Recherche	3,41 ^a	3,33 ^a	2,79 ^b	
Onlinebuchungen (Tickets, Hotels usw.)	2,26	2,33	2,00	
E-Banking & Behördenkontakt	2,44 ^a	2,05 ^{ab}	1,62 ^b	
E-Shopping & Versteigerungen	1,94 ^a	1,66 ^{ab}	1,33 ^b	

Mittelwerte auf einer Skala von 1='nie' bis 4='sehr oft'; Gruppen mit unterschiedlichen Kennbuchstaben unterscheiden sich signifikant (Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $p < 0,05$). English translation: Mean values on a scale from 1="never" to 4="very often"; values with dissimilar superscripts significantly differ (Duncan's Multiple Range Test; $p < .05$)

Example: Comparing the influence of multiple independent variables on one dependent variable (multiple regression analysis from an edited book)

Tabelle 4.1: Erklärungsfaktoren für die Nutzungshäufigkeit von Suchmaschinen (multiple Regressionsanalyse)

	Beta
Suchmaschinenkompetenz: Fortgeschrittene/Experten (im Gegensatz zu Anfängern)	+0,22***
Computer mit Internet-Zugang im Haushalt vorhanden (im Gegensatz zu nicht vorhanden)	+0,15***
Internet-Zugang an Arbeitsplatz/Universität/Schule vorhanden (im Gegensatz zu nicht vorhanden)	+0,12**
Suchmaschinenerfahrung seit mindestens fünf Jahren (im Gegensatz zu kürzer)	+0,08*
Geschlecht: Mann	+0,08*
Alter in Jahren	-0,08*
Internet-Zugang zuhause (im Gegensatz zu ausschließlich an Arbeitsplatz/Universität/Schule)	-0,05
Schulbildung: Abitur (im Gegensatz zu kein Abitur)	+0,04
Anteil Suchmaschinenrecherchen zu beruflichen Fragen	-0,01
<i>erklärte Varianz</i>	$r^2=0,13$ ***

Abhängige Variable: Rangvariable der Suchmaschinenrecherchen pro Woche; N=761 Suchmaschinennutzer; *** p<0,001; ** p<0,01; *p<0,05

Example: Factor analysis (Publizistik)*Faktorenanalyse zum Informationsverhalten*

Tabelle 1

<i>Faktor</i>	<i>Faktor 1</i>	<i>Faktor 2</i>	<i>Faktor 3</i>	<i>Faktor 4</i>	<i>Faktor 5</i>	<i>Faktor 6</i>
	<i>aktiv & dynamisch</i>	<i>Informationsüberlastung</i>	<i>kognitive Flexibilität</i>	<i>intuitive Entscheidung</i>	<i>linearer Denkstil</i>	<i>gemütlich & geduldig</i>
(Ich bin) dynamisch	+0,74	-0,07	+0,15	-0,01	+0,10	+0,02
(Ich bin) unternehmungslustig	+0,71	-0,04	-0,02	-0,10	+0,04	+0,15
(Ich bin) spontan	+0,67	-0,03	+0,09	+0,32	-0,94	+0,01
(Ich bin) schnell	+0,67	-0,10	+0,16	+0,23	+0,12	-0,25
(Ich bin) immer auf dem Sprung	+0,62	+0,08	0,00	+0,19	-0,03	-0,31
(Ich bin) experimentierfreudig	+0,60	-0,09	+0,25	-0,02	-0,24	+0,24
(Ich bin) kontaktfreudig	+0,57	+0,07	+0,01	-0,28	-0,25	+0,26
Manchmal ignoriere ich neue Informationen, weil es mir einfach zu viel wird.	-0,06	+0,75	-0,18	+0,09	-0,02	0,00
Manchmal habe ich das Gefühl, mit Informationen überschüttet zu werden.	0,00	+0,69	+0,08	-0,08	+0,05	-0,05
Manchmal brauche ich etwas länger, um mit Veränderungen zurecht zu kommen.	-0,05	+0,68	-0,20	-0,13	+0,04	+0,05
Oft ist es mir zu anstrengend, über Dinge länger nachzudenken.	-0,05	+0,52	-0,24	+0,39	-0,12	+0,11
Ich habe eine sehr schnelle Auffassungsgabe.	+0,08	-0,06	+0,74	+0,03	0,00	-0,21
Ich finde mich in jeder neuen Situation schnell zurecht.	+0,17	-0,25	+0,67	+0,18	-0,04	+0,12
Es macht mir Spaß, über komplizierte Dinge nachzudenken.	+0,07	-0,13	+0,66	-0,17	+0,04	+0,17
Ich nehme mir für Entscheidungen viel Zeit und überlege gründlich.	-0,03	+0,12	+0,11	-0,73	+0,24	+0,05
Entscheidungen treffe ich am liebsten schnell und intuitiv.	+0,25	+0,10	+0,44	+0,67	+0,05	+0,08
Ich erledige Aufgaben am liebsten hintereinander.	-0,03	+0,24	+0,12	-0,13	+0,69	+0,07
(Ich bin) ausdauernd	+0,39	-0,14	+0,07	+0,05	+0,62	+0,17
Ich mache meist mehrere Dinge gleichzeitig.	+0,24	+0,08	+0,20	+0,15	-0,55	-0,05
(Ich bin) gemütlich	+0,09	+0,11	+0,05	+0,05	+0,02	+0,76
(Ich bin) geduldig	-0,03	-0,12	0,00	-0,04	+0,40	+0,63
Erklärte Varianz	16,0%	9,6%	9,3%	7,4%	7,4%	6,8%

Hauptkomponentenanalyse mit Varimax-Rotation; erklärte Gesamtvarianz: 57%; n = 382

Table Checklist:

- Is a table necessary?
- Are all comparable tables in the manuscript consistent in presentation?
- Is the title brief and exploratory?
- Does every column have a column heading?
- Are all abbreviations and special symbols explained?
- Are notes in the following order: general note, specific note, probability note?
- Are vertical rules eliminated?
- Will the table fit across the width of a page?
- If you are not the owner, did the notes give a full copy right?
- Is the table referred to in the text?

5.2 Figures

Any type of illustration other than a table is called figure (Abbildung, Schaubild). They can provide a visual representation of complex data or statistical results. A figure may be a chart, graph, photography, drawing or depiction. Figures convey a quick glance on overall patterns of results. They are especially useful to describe an interaction or nonlinear relation.

5.2.1 Identify and cite Figures

- *Numbering*: All figures must be numbered (e.g. Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3) with arabic numbers. Italicize but do not bold the word '*Figure*' and the number.
- Figure captions have to be placed directly below the figure. Immediately following in the same line is a brief description of the image.
- Each figure begins on a new page, include the figure caption on the same page.
- In the text refer to figures by their numbers

Example: As shown in figure 2, the relationships are ...

Data are related (see figure 2) ...

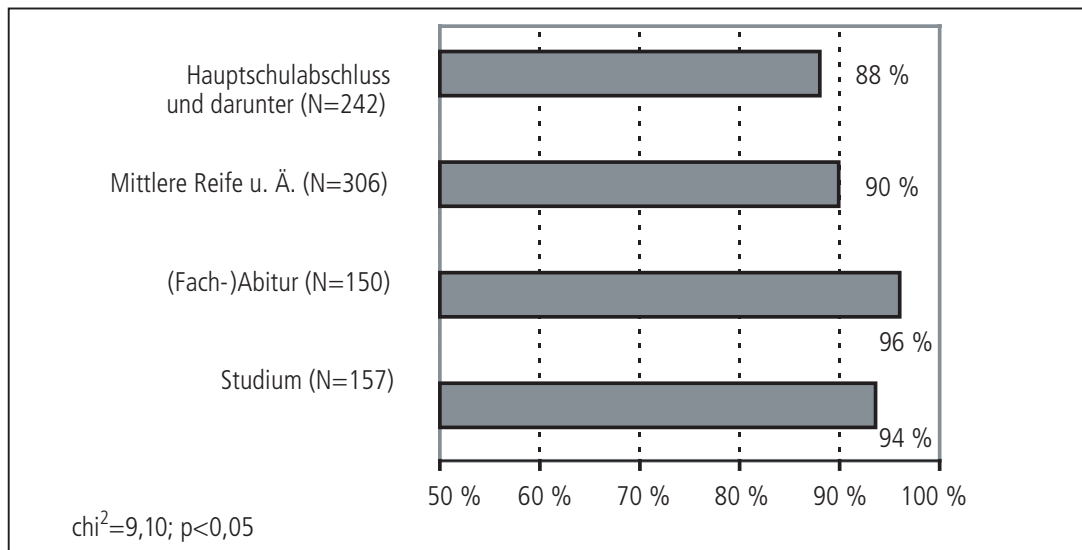
- Never write "the figure above" or the "figure on page 12", because you never know where the figure will end up in the final version of the document!

5.2.2 Illustrate Figures

Graphs show relations – comparison and distribution – in a set of data and may show, for example, absolute values, percentages, or index numbers

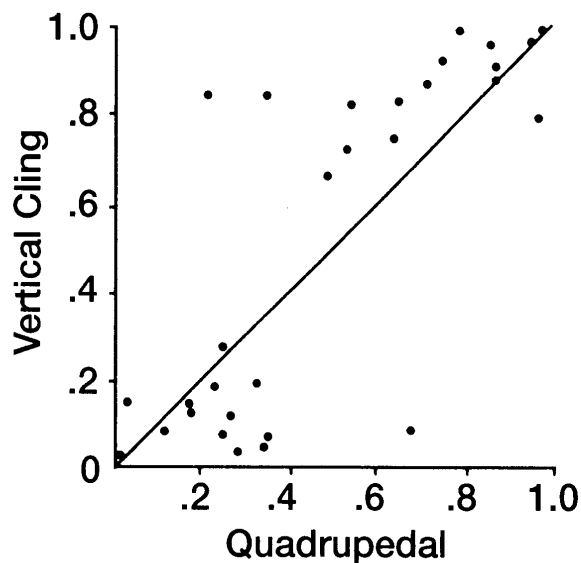
Example: Crosstabulating a binary variable (search engine use – yes/no) by groups (from an edited book)

Abbildung 4.6: Suchmaschinennutzung nach Bildungsniveau



Example: Scatter plot

A scatter plot consists of single dots plotted to present the values of single events on the two variables scaled on the abscissa and ordinate.



Example: Time-series/Longitudinal analysis

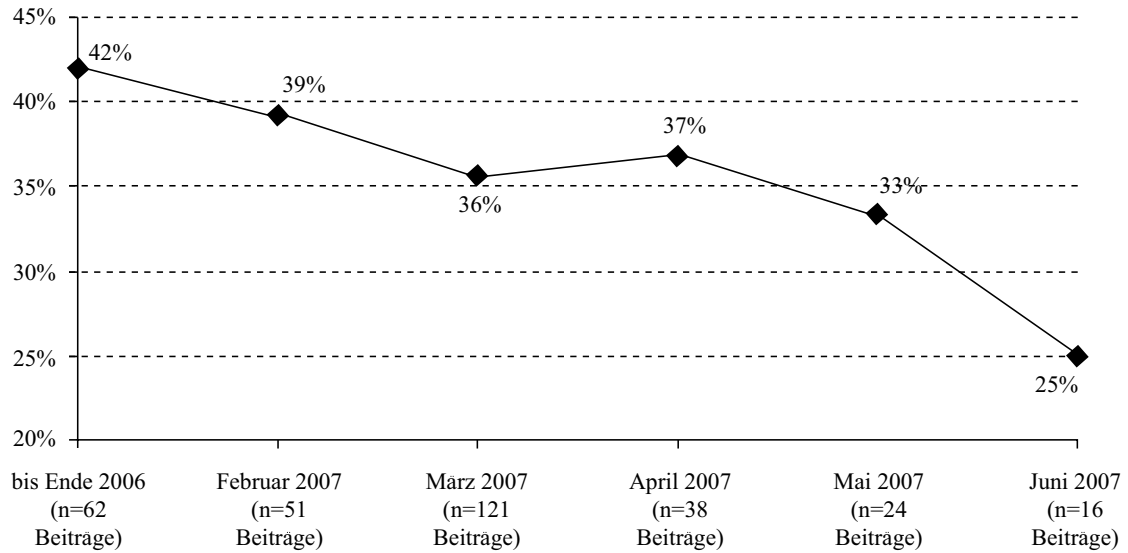
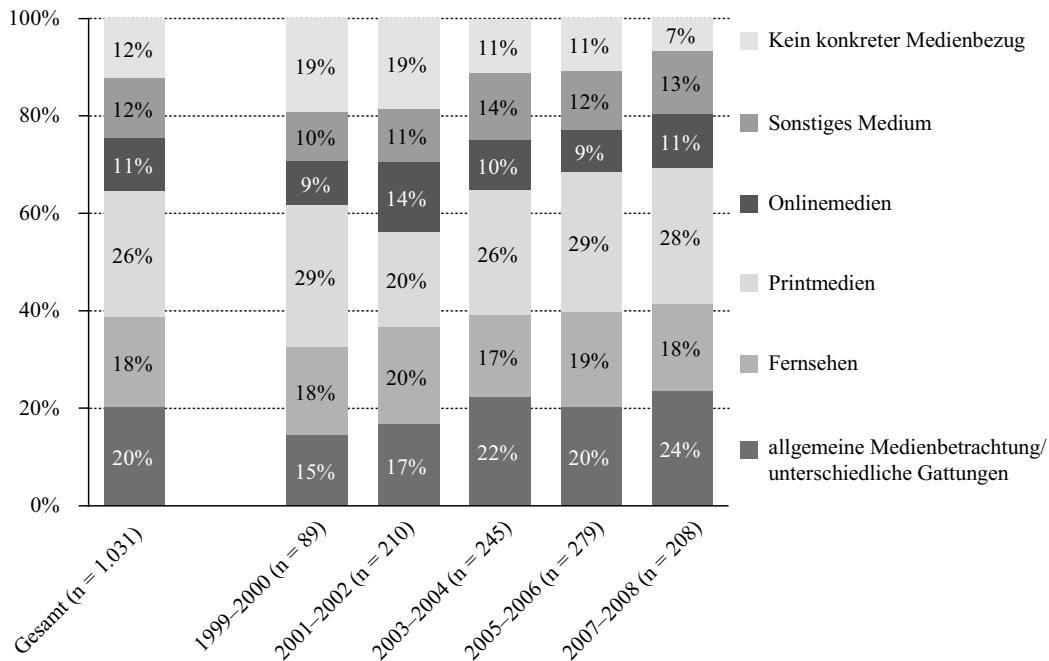


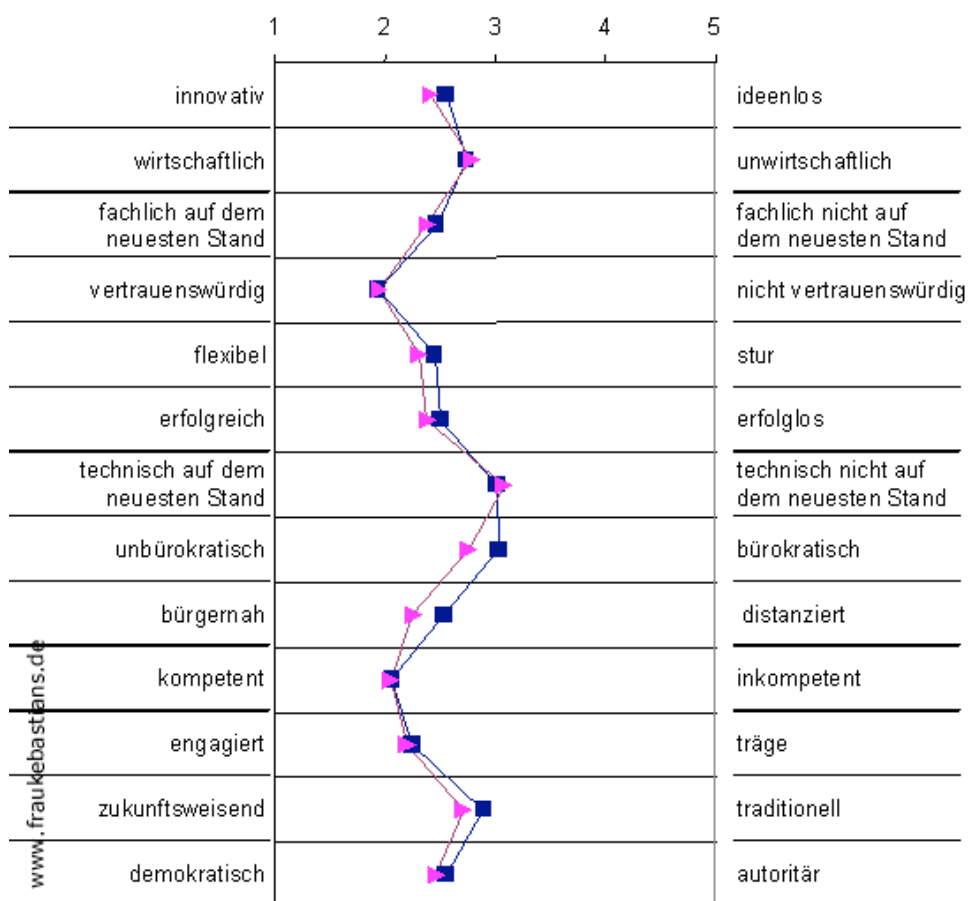
Abbildung 3: Raucheranteil in der diskursiven ÖM im Internet im Zeitverlauf

Example: Visual version of simple crosstabulation (from Publizistik)



Example: Semantic differential

A semantic differential is used for measuring the connotative meaning of concepts by having an individual rating of each concept on a series of graduated scales, each scale defined by a pair of polar adjectives, as good–bad or strong–weak.



Cycle:

A cycle is used to show percentages and proportions. Compare not more than five items. Order the segments from large to small, beginning with the largest segment at 12 o'clock. A good way to highlight differences is shading them from light to dark.

Figure Checklist

- Is the figure necessary?
- Is the figure simple, clean, and free of extraneous detail?
- Are the data plotted accurately?
- Is the grid scale correctly proportioned?
- Is the lettering large and dark enough to read? Is the lettering compatible in size with the rest of the figure?
- Are parallel figures or equally important figures prepared according to the same scale?
- Are terms spelled correctly?
- Are all abbreviations and symbols explained in a figure legend or figure caption? Are the symbols, abbreviations, and terminology in the figure consistent with those in the figure caption? In other figures? In the text?
- Are the figures numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals?
- Are all figures mentioned in the text?

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