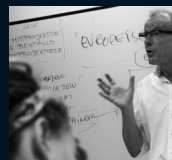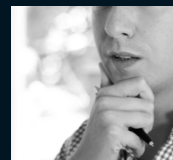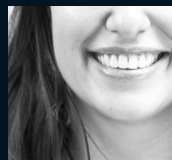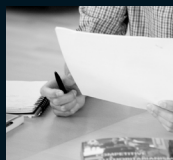# the art of
WRITING & SPEAKING

Statsvetenskapliga Föreningen 2011

Lund University

Preface

The original version of this publication was produced in the academic year 1995/96 through a fruitful cooperation between senior lecturer Gertrud Pettersson of the Department of Scandinavian Languages and tutors at the Department of Political Science in Lund. In this 2011 edition the text has been adapted and supplemented in several places. This revision was produced in cooperation with Susanna Karlsson at the Department of Scandinavian Languages.

In the study of Political Science, particular weight is placed on the student's capacity to produce, both orally and in writing, critical review and presentation of scientific texts. The structure for best achieving this varies between different disciplines, as well as between different tutors/researchers. This publication – The art of writing and speaking – we regard however as a normative and valuable user's guide on all levels in the Political Science discipline, not least in conjunction with thesis writing. The text has been translated from Swedish by Fiona Thesslin.

Jakob Gustavsson and Maria Hedlund

Contents

1   Introduction

1.1   The objective of this publication

When Nils Stjernquist, professor in Political Science, had recently vacated his seat as rector of Lund University in 1983, he gave a speech at what was called Tetradagarna, where among other things he summarised his impression of education at the University. He spoke as follows:

> The greatest concern, as I see it, is a shortfall in one's own language. I have been in the habit of asking people in senior positions in our public and private sectors, what they think of the standard of university education. The most prevalent answer is that the students have good professional expertise but find it hard to write succinctly and to the point, hard also to deliver orally in the same way. (Stjernquist 1983, p.16)

That statement was made nearly 30 years ago, and it is of course possible that today's students have better communication skills than they had in the 1980s. However what remains and has probably even intensified, is the requirement that people with academic education do actually have the ability to express themselves in the spoken and written word. It is largely through speaking and writing that they demonstrate to others what capabilities they possess. Social scientists are no exception. Regardless of where your working life takes you, the ability to communicate through the spoken or written word will be an asset.

It is therefore imperative that during your period of education, you get the opportunity to practice these skills in a realistic context at the same time as you immerse yourself in the relevant subjects. During your studies in Political Science you will be given a series of assignments, which will afford you the opportunity to practice your skills in the spoken and written word. This booklet has been created to give you advice and guidance in that work. The largest section deals with the art of writing, primarily in scientific presentations. At the end of the booklet advice and instructions on the art of speaking is also given, or to use Stjernquist's terminology: the art of oral delivery.

A core function of universities is to teach the students to work scientifically and to report on that work. This is the reason that during the first terms, you will already be getting assignments that give you the opportunity to practice some of the elements in a research process. It could for example be a case of a report or comments on Political Science literature that you have read, which is to be presented in spoken or written form. Later in the course you will carry out independent research assignments, and report them in the form of research papers with different levels of ambition and scope. The manner of working that you will encounter here, will bear strong similarities to the type of investigatory work that you can expect to have to fulfil in your working life when you have concluded

your education. For a political scientist, training in scientific work is thus very much training for a future career.

The writing section in this booklet (chapters 2-4) therefore primarily contains advice and directions on scientific writing. The form of reasoning presented however is often such that it can be transferred to other types of writing assignments. The section that deals with oral presentations (chapter 5 and 6) concerns both the art of public speaking in general, and the more specialist situation of opposing a scientific thesis.

Note that the instructions in chapter 4, on the layout of essays at the Department of Political Science in Lund, must always be followed. To facilitate editing of the theses, the Department of Political Science has created a specific template, which includes such pre-settings as headings, text quotations, reference lists and indentation of paragraphs. The thesis template is based on a layout in Word and can be downloaded from the Department's website.

1.2 Different kinds of writing

Why does one actually write? The usual answer to the question is that one writes because one wants to convey something to other people. It is this type of writing – the communicative type – that is the main focus of this booklet. But it is important to be clear that writing can also have other functions.

To be able to achieve a good communicative text one is required to have thought in depth about the subject to be dealt with in the text, and about the various elements to be included. In the case of a scientific thesis, one should of course also have done some kind of investigative work. Many writers, especially those without a lot of experience of such work, have the notion that they should not sit down to write before thought and work are completed. This is a very risky position. It often happens that the actual writing itself then stalls. To quickly achieve a well-formulated and well-organised text after all the work with the actual investigation is done, is to demand a very high standard of oneself. Meanwhile the day for submission of the thesis approaches with frightening speed, and one soon discovers that the wording going down on paper does not meet this standard. And what is worse: one perhaps discovers that a portion of the investigation should have been done in another way. One gets stuck, and the whole assignment gets progressively more unpleasant and impossible.

Saving the writing until the end of an investigation is therefore not a good idea. Instead the writing should be an integral part of the whole working process. Writing can in fact have functions other than that of conveying a message to another person. For one thing it can have a thought function, i.e. can be used so that the writer can develop his thoughts and come up with ideas. By writing down the loose and unformed thoughts and ideas on the different phases of the work that lies ahead, one has the opportunity to reach a greater clarity on how one should proceed. The texts arrived at in this way, will of course not be read by anyone other than oneself, and they need not be well formulated, well organised or well

thought through. They should only be used to aid the working process. The writing produced in this spontaneous, unconsidered and tentative manner will contain a lot of rubbish, but probably also a number of pearls that can be used as the work progresses.

During the course of a working process one can also use writing to register what is done, how it was done and why it was done in that particular way. One actually forgets the details in the process faster than one can imagine, and a lack of notes causes a great deal more work, not least in scientific work where great weight is placed on precise and detailed documentation of approach and method. Furthermore this continuous note taking can help in time to reveal things that are inconsequential or less well thought out. It is also of great advantage to continuously note complete bibliographic data on the books and theses that one uses during the work (see more on this in chapter 3). In this way one avoids a whole lot of extra work in looking them up again to be able to make the final reference lists.

Through this continuous writing one also gets a steady dialogue with oneself, and this can only lead to a better end result. Our first pieces of advice to you are these:

- Let the writing constitute a part of your work from the beginning!
- Write so as to facilitate thoughts and ideas!
- Write provisionally and do not be hindered by the fact that initially you are not clear what you want to say!
- Make continuous notes on different phases of your work and on how and why they were carried out!
- Always note the relevant bibliographic data on the books and theses that you use while you still have them to hand! Thus when you are finished with your work you will also have completed your reference list.

As you write, read what you write, re-write etc... you will discover that you are continuously getting a clearer perception of both how you should work with the investigation itself and how you should report on it. In this way too you have created a good foundation, not just for a well-conducted investigation, but also for the thesis that you will submit when your work is completed, and which is the only proof that you actually did anything at all. It is this thesis that is dealt with in the writing part of this booklet.

1.3   How does one achieve a good text?

The thesis that you are writing is the only testament to your work with any likelihood of reaching a wide audience. Therefore it is of course vital for you to achieve a text that does your work justice – in other words a good text.

The criterion for a good text is that it functions well in the situation in which it is to be used. Those who wish to create a text, must therefore always begin by

clarifying that situation for themselves. Some of the questions one must answer are:

- At whom is the text aimed – which is the *target group*?
- Why is the text being written – what is the *author's objective*?
- What will the recipients use the text for – what is the *reader's objective* in reading it?
- Are there any good models to follow when it comes to the text's contents and form – what kind of *language* are we talking about?

These are some important factors in the communication situation of the text, and it is this situation that must dictate both what the content of the text will be and how it will be organised so that this content can be expressed. Thus while working with the text one should always keep the communication situation in mind.

To test the text's functionality in this situation one may need to scrutinize it more thoroughly. One may need to look at the *content* from different angles.

- *Material selection*: Is something missing? Is anything superfluous and ought it to be removed?
- *Disposition*: Is the data presented in a clear and logical order?
- *Context*: Is it easy for the reader to understand how the text relates and what the author wants to say?

A text is written of course for the sake of its content, but no text can consist of its content alone – it must have a *form*. When – as here – it is a case of written text, it must have both language and typography. It is this form that the reader first sees, and it is with the help of this form that they are able to grasp the content. Thus carelessness with the form will be problematic in that it also makes the reader suspicious of the content. Therefore the skilful writer always strives to choose language and typography that clarifies and emphasizes the content. Thus when working with a text, one should always ask oneself the following questions:

- *Language*: Is the language correct? Is it understandable and easily read? Is it unequivocal and clear? Does it really convey the content that the writer wants to present?
- *Typography*: Is the text pleasing to the eye? With the help of the typographic messages is it easy to understand the structure of the content?

Consequently a text must meet many requirements to work well. So how should one lay out one's work to achieve this exceptional product? In recent years, educationalists in the field of writing have increasingly begun to emphasise writing as a process that comprises a series of phases:

- determine the task, i.e. identify the communication situation and define the subject

- collect the data, e.g. find out what has already been said and written on the subject
- sift the data, i.e. weed out that which is not relevant
- structure, i.e. decide what pertains to what and in what order the content should be presented
- formulation i.e. write the text
- re-work, i.e. make the necessary changes in what has been written so far, in order that the text works better
- polish, i.e. check that the text has pleasing and consistent typography and the language is correct.

This list of work phases should not be perceived as chronological in the sense that the writer works on one phase at a time and then leaves it for good. It is certainly true that all written work must start with the first phase and must also finish with the last, i.e. with the fine polishing of the appearance of the text. But in the previous section we have already stressed how important it is to begin writing from the very start. The "formulation" phase came into play as soon as one determined the task. Moreover when one is involved in this kind of process, one constantly stumbles upon better ideas, and one must therefore return time and again to what was done previously and supplement or modify it in line with the new insights gained during the progress of work. After a period of work one may for example, need to define the assignment in a different way than that which one had originally thought, one may need to collect new material or rework the structure of the text. Of course this will result in also having to rework the sections of text that have already been formulated.

1.4 Writing in a group

In working life it is common that several people may cooperate in writing a text. In university and high school, written assignments are also often carried out by a group of students. When it comes to essay writing, the essays are often written in pairs, not least at the lower levels.

The cardinal rule for all such group work is that everyone is jointly responsible for the whole completed work and there should be no evidence in the text that several writers have cooperated. In doing this, the conscientious student possibly gives the impression that the various group members sit together throughout the task, formulating every individual sentence in the text. This however is a very ineffective, not to say an impossible way of working. Working to try to formulate perhaps complicated and hard to grasp subject matter, is without doubt best done on an individual basis.

A cooperation that is to result in a written text should instead be organised so that it is an effective interaction between group work and individual work. One cooperates in the situation where group work really can be of help and raise the quality of the result. This means that initially one uses the group to discuss

different phases of the work and then make decisions on what should be done, how it should be done and who should do it. To link the various phases in the writing process, one could specify that the group's work should comprise the following:

- determine the task and define the subject
- discuss what data needs to be collected and distribute the collected tasks amongst the group members
- sift the collected data
- discuss how the planned text should be organised and distribute the task of formulating proposals for different sections of the text to different group members
- rework, i.e. discuss the proposed texts written by the group members and decide how the final text should look
- polish, i.e. make sure that the completed text has a pleasing appearance

Essentially two different tasks fall to the individual group members: to search for particular data, and to formulate proposals for different parts of the final text. For a cooperation to be successful, there must be yet a further phase: the group must begin by jointly establishing a schedule of work, and the various group members must ensure that they follow this schedule. When drawing up the schedule, one should allow that the reworking phase in particular requires a lot of time, if the final result is to be good.

Experience has proved that a successfully functioning group can achieve a result that will far exceed what any group member could achieve alone. And vice versa: a badly functioning group produces a worse result than the individual group members' collective capacity.

1.5   Thesis supervising

Thesis writing is an independent work. The authors must single-handedly formulate an appropriate research assignment, rework comprehensive theoretical and empirical data, and report the study in the form of written text. In comparison to lecture courses, this often means a higher requirement of goal-orientation and work discipline. On the other hand it offers great satisfaction in knowing that from start to finish, the thesis is the result of one's own efforts.

The starting point and basis for thesis work must always be, the knowledge and skills that students have acquired during earlier method and theory courses. Teaching support during the thesis course mainly comprises the appointment of a thesis supervisor by the institution. (In some cases other teachers on the course can provide some guidance.) Additionally thesis students are offered supplementary teaching in method.

The point of thesis supervising is essentially to ensure that the assignments that the authors are taking on, are feasible in terms of problems, data collection

and effort. Through discussion on issues, design, theory and method, the supervisor also aims to ensure that the authors write the best thesis possible. The supervisor's task does not include reading or commenting on long manuscripts. Nor does it include carrying out any previewing of the completed thesis.

The responsibility for the realisation of the thesis work and the final product thus lies with its author. The supervisor's task is to give advice and support through feedback on, and guidance in, the organisation of the thesis work.

Thesis supervising offers partly collective supervising through planning workshops and similar, and partly individual supervising in one-to-one discussion with the tutor. The organisation of thesis supervising varies between different course levels and different supervisors. It is therefore not possible to give a detailed overall description of the supervising process. However, the following phases are normally included in thesis supervising:

- Supervising begins with the authors having *individual preparatory discussions* with the supervisor on the design of the thesis topic.
- The authors write a *thesis plan* where they present their research question and outline how they expect the thesis to be structured (theoretical context, method and materials).
- The thesis plan is discussed at a *planning workshop* where the author will get feedback from the supervisor as well as the other thesis writers in the group.
- At a later stage an opportunity is given for an *individual follow-up discussion* with the supervisor, who then gives supplementary advice and checks that the work is proceeding according to plan.
- Moreover at foundation level, *intermediate seminars* are held where the authors get feedback on parts of the completed thesis text.
- At Master's level one normally has another arrangement, with several different seminars during the period of thesis writing.

The amount of supervision is dictated by the institute's board of finance. Within the allocated time frame the supervisor must manage all of their responsibilities. In practice this means that a significant portion of the time is given to general preparation work, to reading thesis plans and holding planning seminars. The time the supervisor has available for individual discussion therefore, is limited.

There is no model that describes all thesis writers; if the work goes well then contact with the supervisor is less important, if it goes slowly there will perhaps be need of more contact with the supervisor. Those authors who wish to have more contact with the supervisor than is scheduled, must take the initiative themselves. The supervisor is available for discussion on problems that may possibly arise in connection with the work. But, for practical reasons, the supervisor cannot make contact with the author in order to check whether the work is progressing. To make best use of the time, the authors should always be well prepared prior to the discussions with the supervisor, and have thought through beforehand a number of questions or problems that they wish to bring up at the discussion.

There is no model for individual thesis supervision that fits all supervisors either; there are different supervisory styles. Some supervisors prefer primarily to provide advice through discussions with the author of the thesis; some prefer to provide advice (verbally or written) by comments on short portions of text provided by the author.

1.6   Evaluation criteria at examination

When the thesis is graded, the way the thesis writer has handled the different phases in the research process is evaluated. The examiners pose questions such as: Has the problem been well chosen and clearly stated? Is the theory on which the thesis is based, appropriate, well presented and does it lead to the analysis. Is the thesis methodically well followed through? Are there clear outcomes, i.e. does it answer the questions asked? Is there a thread running through the thesis, i.e. does it address the problem presented in the introduction? Is the layout easy to grasp, and consistent? Is the thesis built on satisfactorily presented data, and is it properly referenced in the bibliography? Is the thesis well written? Does the abstract give a good synopsis of the thesis?

To get a 'Good' grade requires special merit in several of the above named respects. Consideration is also given to the likes of originality and autonomy, as well as whether the chosen research assignment has a high degree of difficulty. Conversely the evaluation is negatively affected by such things as the problem being badly formulated, the theory not being used in the analysis, a lack of clear methodology, insubstantial data, presentations containing errors, and whether the text is written and proofread carelessly. Grading is also affected by the author's oral input during the seminars. Good contributions in the defence of one's own thesis and in challenging, is thus considered positive.

The difference between theses at different levels is evident in a gradual intensifying of the criteria presented above. At the higher level of theses writing in particular, requirements are tightened in regard to the capability of independent analysis and appropriate use of theory in empirical analysis. The same evaluation criteria also apply in principal to writing papers for lecture courses, even if the application is slightly different depending on the nature of the course. Ultimately these are based on assessment criteria of the learning outcomes listed in the current curriculum.

2   The art of writing a text

Everyone who has written a thesis at university level has heard that a writer should strive to write in correct but also comprehensible language, at the same time as expressing themselves as clearly as possible. If the text is incomprehensible or hard to read, the reader will put it down; the obstacles will quite simply be too great. If on the other hand the author helps the reader by being clear and coherent, by keeping an even and appropriate style, and in following the accepted rules of writing, this will facilitate the reading considerably.

So what does this mean? How does one create an appropriate style, how does one make one's text coherent and how does one find one's way amongst the rules of writing? These are some of the things that this chapter deals with, but first a few words on the nature of the advice. The linguistic problems that occur during thesis writing can be divided into three different categories: those that can be set on a scale **formal/familiar**, those more likely to end up on the scale **good/bad** and finally those that end up on the scale **right/wrong**.

In order to determine what is appropriate or inappropriate in a text, one needs first to determine what sort of language one is working with. Doing this is a way of analysing the communication situation.

2.1   The communication situation

The type of language in focus here is that of a scientific thesis. It often has a very strict framework as to how it should be designed and formulated – that which makes it recognisable as a scientific thesis when we see it. A large part of this booklet deals with the things that enable us to recognise that a text is scientific. In addition to what you can read in the booklet about correct language, reporting techniques etc. scientific theses are characterised by being informative, requiring some prior knowledge and demonstrating that the author is able to conduct independent research. The scientific thesis has a very special communication situation.

One can most easily analyse one's communication situation by considering *who* is writing *what* to *whom*, *why*, *when*, *where* and *how*. *Who* is writing and *to whom,* is the first question one must pose. A thesis has a special target population possessing a certain prior understanding. It addresses those who have approximately the same education as the author himself but do not have any previous knowledge of the current project. At the same time this means that during the entire writing process, the author must ask the question: "Can someone who does not already know what the work encompasses, understand this?"
When it comes to theses that are part of course work, the readers fall into several different categories. First of course one considers the supervisor and the examiner, opponents and other colleagues in the tutorial group. But a thesis written in such a

situation can of course also be of interest to a significantly wider circle of professionals within the prevailing subject area. Many political science subjects are also of interest to people, from outwith the narrow professional sphere, who have an interest in politics. The author also needs to keep this further group in mind during the writing.

The recipients read the text initially to obtain information on the work that is being carried out. The examiner and the opponents are naturally in a special situation: they are obliged to read in order to make a fair judgement on the work. But the other readers read for their own sakes, to learn something, so that they themselves may build on the foundations that the thesis has laid and so on.

The question *what* is about the data dealt with in the thesis. Here the author needs to consider what results, facts, and what earlier research best meets the purpose of the thesis.

The thesis is used to report on scientific work that the author has carried out. With the text, the author aims to report the conditions, implementations and results of the work. That is the answer to the question *why*.

Where and *how* are best dealt with together. They are closely connected with the text's linguistic form and appearance, headings, fonts etc. In other words: what is dealt with in this booklet.

A scientific thesis is consequently a written report that will display the author's capabilities. It is also an informative text that can be read by people with fairly good knowledge of, and interest in, the subject dealt with in the text. Further, it is a text that belongs to a specific language type, which means it will follow certain patterns and meet certain basic requirements.

2.2 Formal and familiar

What is formal or familiar initially concerns **style**. Style is a hard to define concept, but it can be said to be the effect of the linguistic form we choose. If one chooses to use the word *chats* instead of *talks, converses, speaks, shoots the breeze or pontificates*, one makes a specific choice. *Chat* suits certain situations but not others. If in one's thesis one describes a conversation with an informant, one may choose to write "the informant declined to talk about the event" instead of "the informant wouldn't chat about things" Likewise one wouldn't say "the informant pontificated on the matter". *Chat* is spoken language and everyday, while *pontificate* is pompous and further conveys a negative attitude towards the informant. *Talk* is neutral and says nothing about what the author thinks of the informant.

Here it is important to remember that it is not a question of *chat* being a worse word than *talk*. It is an excellent word. But: it is excellent in certain contexts, a context that is not scientific prose. The writer who uses *chat* in his thesis commits what is usually called a **breach if style**. A breach of style means that one uses words expressions or ways of recounting which are not expected to appear in the language style chosen.

The scientific style should highlight the research results in a **neutral** and **coherent** manner. The scientific text, as opposed to fictional literature, should not arouse feelings or affect one: it should purely inform. In other words if one writes scientific text one should as far as possible avoid expressions that are too mundane or emotive. The reader should think more about the content than the form of language. Further the scientific style should be **precise** and **concise**; approximate expressions and fuzzy formulations are thus things that every author of scientific text should make efforts to avoid

2.2.1   Jargon and imported words

It is not just the connotations of the words that affect whether one uses them in a thesis or not. One's vocabulary also contains for example professional and general language, as well as native and imported words.

A scientific thesis addresses a professional public, and that is why it naturally contains the specialist language terms pertaining to the subject. A good specialist language term is precise and well defined, which means that it gives the initiated exact and comprehensive, but at the same time very concise, information. As long as one addresses professionals, it is a labour-saving mode of expression for the author and the reader. It makes the text both more exact and more concise.

It is thus an important concern for the professional body to protect its specialist language terms so that they are functional tools in internal communications. It is for example a benefit if the specialist terms are familiar words in that they can be spelled, pronounced and conjugated in line with the grammatical rules of your own language. Here the English speaking political scientist has the advantage. Political science jargon is very much based on English and used internationally.

> EXAMPLE
> winner take all, fiction, dependence-theory, the free flow-paradigm, broadcasting, social closure, green paper, consociational democracy, patron-client pattern, back to barracks, top-down, bottom-up, hard-liners, soft-liners, main streaming, agenda-setting, gatekeeper-function, gender consciousness, gender awareness, one-man management

2.2.2   Personal style

A common problem with a thesis is that it is not the scientific work the author has carried out that is highlighted, but rather the author himself. The problem most commonly occurs in the introductory sections. Here the author presents the motivation behind the thesis. Not unusually this motivation comes from the author's own interests and preferences.

A report on the author's personal motives explains why he or she has undertaken the research. Meanwhile it says little or nothing on why the subject is interesting for the reader or for researchers. If the author avoids basing the motivation on himself, the text immediately becomes less personal.

In striving to prevent the text from becoming too personal, the perception has arisen that it is forbidden to use *I* or *we* in the text of the thesis. If one can avoid writing *I* then of course one often also avoids having a rather too personal bias. But it is not the word *I* that makes the text personal. In fact the sentence writer being forced to work around the *I,* can lead to the text being both too formal and a little strange.

EXAMPLE
This thesis has the intention to continue in the systematic traditions by giving its view of the complex systems that prevail within international politics.

SUGGESTION
With this thesis I have the intention to continue in the systematic tradition by giving a view of the complex systems that prevail within international politics.

In this example the author of the thesis tried his hardest to avoid writing *I*. Instead the thesis gets both intention and opinion. It is unlikely that the thesis has intention – as it is equally unlikely that it has its own view of something. Then it is better that the author makes himself visible and says that it is he or she who has the aim and intention with the text. It is not of course just about avoiding absurd formulations. It is also about taking credit – and taking responsibility – for the work one has actually carried out!

2.2.3 Formal style

A style that is overly formal or pompous is another danger for the thesis writer. It is common that one is drawn to outmoded or very formal patterns of style in the belief that scientific language is equated with complicated language. But what one achieves with more complicated language is actually just more complicated language, not the natural style that is the ideal for thesis writing. Common examples of how thesis authors make a text more formal than the language requires, is in utilising the long form, *therewith* instead of *with*, and *whomsoever* instead of *whoever*. Another example is that one uses *inasmuch as* to introduce a clause of reason instead of the more neutral *as*.

EXAMPLE
Inasmuch as this discipline was too poor to investigate how one assimilates and memorises information we are forced to turn to those disciplines that have investigated this more closely, particularly psychology and marketing research.

SUGGESTION
As this discipline was too poor to investigate how one assimilates and memorises information we are forced to turn to those disciplines that have investigated this more closely, particularly psychology and marketing research.

2.3 Good and bad

That which makes a text **good** or **bad** respectively is often difficult to put a finger on: a text can be completely correct and meet all the style requirements but still not be good. A good text hangs together and helps the reader to understand what is happening and how the words, sentences and paragraphs relate.

Look closer at the following text. It consists of four completely correct sentences each one of which is reasonably understandable. But as you will quickly see, the entirety that the four sentences make up is difficult to interpret in a meaningful way, without the reader interpreting the context.

EXAMPLE
When reading out loud one can easily see that the eyes run a section ahead of the voice. A range of new words and phrases can probably not be assimilated as quickly. An equally important question is whether I can update the knowledge, the schedules, I actually already have. Japanese children rarely have trouble learning the ground rules of reading.

This text completely lacks explicit markers for how the sentences should be understood together. The only connecting link is that the first, second and fourth sentences seem to be about reading. But other than the subject being apparent, it is almost impossible to understand why the sentences are in the order they are or what the writer wants to say by placing these sentences together.

Presumably the writer knows what he or she wants to say, but the reader does not have the same knowledge. It means that the reader is faced with a fairly extensive analysis job in order to get the message of the thesis. If the reader is forced to work to understand how the text hangs together, the author has missed an important part of the function of writing a thesis, namely to be **clear** and **coherent**.

This section deals with different devices that the writer may use to create and show the cohesion in his text, also some of the most common mistakes thesis writers make that can lead to the loss of this cohesion. Firstly we deal with a couple of methods to signal the text's structure and cohesion: chapter opening and closing, and headings. These are what are usually called **meta-language comments**, which is text that does not contribute anything to the content of the thesis, rather that says something about how the text in question hangs together. Following this are sections on how connections are created by the level of the sentence: sentence structure, coordination, tense and allusion. Additionally gender-neutral expressions are dealt with.

2.3.1 Chapter opening and closing

There is a motto within the rhetoric that says that an effective and coherent way of informing is: "say what you are going to say – say it – say what you have said". This motto applies in the greatest measure to theses. One way of coherently signalling to the reader what a chapter is about, is in fact to let a few introductory lines describe the content of the chapter. If one does this, the reader finds out what to expect of the chapter. One could say that this is the author's chance to give the reader reading instructions.

In the same way it is common that one allocates a paragraph at the end of each chapter to summarises the most important points and arguments from the chapter. It becomes a sort of reading instruction; the reader finds out what the author wants him or her to have understood and take with to the next chapter.

2.3.2 The paragraph

One of the secrets of writing a good text is to organise one's material in to well-formulated paragraphs. Occasionally one sees a text where the author has not created a new paragraph despite the text being several pages long; even more common is that the author creates a new paragraph each or every second sentence. Both ways of managing paragraphs are equally disturbing for the reader. A paragraph should be defined in such a way that it deals with an overall subject, but should at the same time under normal circumstances, be longer than one sentence.

In a good paragraph one can identify a **core sentence**. A core sentence is a sentence that one can use to summarise the whole paragraph. One most often finds this sentence first - or at least very early in the paragraph. The rest of the paragraph is then used to specify, exemplify, confirm or reject the core sentence.

> EXAMPLE
> *Zoonen* (2005) is thus one of the very few books or articles in political science that deals with personalising the media. As this discipline has been too poor to investigate how one assimilates and memorises information, we are forced to turn to those disciplines that have investigated this more closely, particularly psychology and marketing research. I do not intend to undertake a complete research review of these areas, but only to try to pick up on some of the theories and research efforts that can help us understand the personification.

In this example the first sentence is the core sentence: "*Zoonen* (2005) is thus one of the very few books or articles in political science that deals with personalising the media." This sets the agenda for the paragraph, which from sentence two explains what consequences the core assertion has for the thesis.

For the section in which the paragraph is included to be relevant, it is important the reader understands how the different paragraphs relate. Sometimes it is obvious: if one has written in the section's introduction that one will discuss different news mediums, it is natural that one paragraph is about TV, one about radio, one about newspapers, one about internet etc. The link between the sentences comes from the subjects with which they deal.

Sometimes this is not enough or even applicable. Instead one can then express oneself in such a way that it becomes clear what relation one paragraph has to the previous. The writer can for instance imply a causal connection by introducing a paragraph with something like "An explanation could be..." or "This is because...". One who wishes to highlight a contrast or a comparison could write for example. "Similarly with..." or "On the other hand...". A more general link can be implied by "This brings us to...", "When it comes to..." and similar.

> EXAMPLE
> What obstructs a cosmopolitan ethic? The stoics believed that man's self identity and loyalty can be likened to a centre surrounded by concentric circles. Another analogy is an onion: the onion's centre represents one's relationship to oneself; the next layer of the onion represents how one identifies with one's family; next with one's friends; then with the nation and finally with humanity. We can see how our loyalty generally follows these concentric circles; we tend to be more loyal to our family than to humanity as a whole. Here we can imagine that we *prioritise* those who are closest to us in a way that is inconsistent with a cosmopolitan ethic.
> Another perspective is the realistic. Hobbes is well known for having the view of an absence of moral constraints in the state of nature, and given that no world state exists, realists believe that global moral obligations are problematic and unrealistic. Richard W. Millar addresses a related problem concerning how the scope of institutions set the boundaries of morality. Miller says that for institutions to maintain their existence, we must prioritise those with whom we share the institution over others, if we do not do this, it will cause those who were not prioritised to stop contributing to the maintenance of the institution and the institutions will fail, which is in nobody's interests.

In this example the writer creates a connection between the two paragraphs, partly by dealing with two different perspectives on the same phenomena, and partly by introducing the second paragraph with the sentence "Another perspective is the realistic." The sentence signals a contrast to the previous sentence; it shows how the two paragraphs relate to each other.

2.3.3 Headings

One way to make a thesis lucid and easy to find your way around is by making your disposition visible for the reader. This one can do by creating informative and clear **headings**. A heading should mirror a text's contents, but should not be present as a part of the running text. Therefore it should not look like this:

EXAMPLE
2.5.1 The internal political power struggle and dissatisfaction with government
This can surely be identified as the largest internal political question of the six-month investigation

---

The heading should be able to be separated from the text without comprehension being affected. If one removes the heading in the above example, the paragraph that introduces the section becomes incomprehensible; the reader would not be able to understand what *This* means. Instead the writer can formulate it thus:

SUGGESTION
2.5.1 The internal political power struggle and dissatisfaction with government
Probably the greatest internal political question of the six-month investigation was the internal political power struggle. The dissatisfaction with government also received much attention.

When one chooses how to word one's headings, the choice is often between informing and arousing interest. A heading should ideally do both, but sometimes that is hard or impossible to achieve. If one must choose it is probably wise to choose an informative but somewhat drier heading – after all a scientific thesis should first and foremost inform, not entertain. Here is an example of an alluring heading, which could more appropriately be replaced with a more informative heading.

EXAMPLE
2.4 Women hold up half the sky
The new rhetoric after the communist's seizure of power [...]

Here the writer has chosen an example of the new rhetoric as a heading. It is alluring, but says little or nothing on what the text below the heading is about. A heading should cover everything that is dealt with in the text that follows, up to the next heading of the same level. It could look like this:

SUGGESTION
2.4 Women and the new rhetoric
The new rhetoric after the communist's seizure of power [...]

This heading is not as specific as the original, but says somewhat more about the content of the text.

2.3.4 Cross references

Sometimes one wants to show how one section of the thesis is related to another. Perhaps at the end of a chapter one wants to refer back to something one wrote at the beginning of the chapter, or in a paragraph refer to what was stated in the previous paragraph. There are a couple of different ways to do this depending on how far apart the two items you want to reference are.

- Referring to something in the immediate proximity under the same heading, one can write, "as I mentioned above" or similar.
- If one is referring instead to something that lies under another heading in the thesis, one is better to write, "see section 2.3.1" or "as I discussed in chapter 4". Always refer to the chapter and heading number, not to what the chapter has been named.

Generally one uses these sorts of references to refer to previous text, to something the reader has already read.

2.3.5 Sentence construction

In a scientific thesis, sentences should normally be complete. Every sentence should therefore contain at least a complete main clause with a subject and a predicate. Here are a couple of examples of incomplete sentences:

EXAMPLE
Employment and safety legislation obstructs women from getting work. A subtle instrument for making women leave the employment market when the government no longer upholds the principle of full employment.

Women have played an important role in Ethiopia's history. The queen of Saba, empress Eléni and Gudit. These women have played an important role as national leaders throughout history.

In the first case the context is unclear, in the second there is unnecessary repetition. This is how the examples could appear instead – in complete sentences.

SUGGESTION
Employment and safety legislation obstructs women from getting work. It thereby becomes a subtle instrument for making women leave the employment market when the government no longer upholds the principle of full employment.

Women have played an important role in Ethiopia's history. Examples of women who have served as national leaders throughout history are the queen of Saba, Empress Eléni and Gudit.

A sentence can, as suggested above, contain more than one main clause. However there should be good reasons for having several main clauses in the same sentence – they should be related. Moreover they should normally be coordinated with a conjunction of some sort (e.g. *and, but, or*) and separated with a comma. Such is the case in the following two examples.

EXAMPLE
In 1986, yet another state of emergency was introduced in the country, and many union members were arrested by the police.

It would have been interesting to also study the editorials dealing with my subject, but the work required certain limits.

In each of the following examples however, the main clauses are too different in content to be collected in one sentence. Such so called **fused** or **run-on** sentences should be avoided. The easiest way is by replacing the commas after *clarified* and *roles* respectively with full stops:

EXAMPLE
Two and a half years after the stabilisation programme's introduction, the relative prices were still not clarified, high interest rates, high prices for public services and very low real wages are all factors that inhibit economic recovery.

One cannot legislate away inequality fully, however one can change the attitudes towards women and their roles, a lot can be done from grass-roots level and on the initiative of women themselves.

SUGGESTION
Two and a half years after the stabilisation programme's introduction, the relative prices were still not clarified. High interest rates, high prices for public services and very low real wages are all factors that inhibit economic recovery.

One cannot legislate away inequality fully, however one can change the attitudes towards women and their roles. A lot can be done from grass-roots level and on the initiative of women themselves.

Regarding the length of sentences, one can generally say that it is an advantage if the individual sentences in a text vary in length. It can for example be very effective occasionally to let something important stand alone in a sentence. This gives it extra weight. In the same way building a longer sentence if one for example wants to clarify a logical relationship or list a number of facts, functions well. Sentences that are too long – around 40 words – can however be difficult to follow, and there is a risk that one has loaded the sentence with far too much information.

2.3.6 Coordination

In the case of this type of text, the author often needs to coordinate in various ways, i.e. list a number of points and connect them together with the help of a conjunction, e.g. *and, also, or, without*. So that the reader can quickly and

effortlessly understand the text correctly, the author must be careful how the coordination is constructed.

The general rule is that the conjunction is placed between the second last and the last point (it functions to inform the reader that the list will shortly end) and a comma is placed between all the other points. As here:

EXAMPLE
The rapid rise in oil prices, the emerging environmental and nuclear debate and the political instability in the Middle East during the 1970s meant that energy politics during the 1970s largely came to focus on energy housekeeping, oil substitutes and increased oil trading with politically stable countries such as Norway.

This sentence is long (40 words) but is easy to grasp because it is well constructed. It contains two different coordination structures, one at the beginning of the sentence and one at the end. Both contain three points and both are constructed according to the general rule. This also meets the second important requirement of coordination: the different points have the same linguistic form. In each of the coordination examples, three substantive expressions are coordinated. The key expressions are the *rise in oil prices – the environment and nuclear debate – the instability* (all substantives in the definite form) respectively and *energy housekeeping – oil substitutes – oil trading* (all substantives in the indefinite form). The verbal symmetry allows the coordination to be both easily read and aesthetically pleasing to the reader. Breaches of the general rules of coordination are however quite common – when writers have progressed some way into a coordination structure, they easily forget how they began. The following example needs to be tidied up to really be easily read and pleasing.

EXAMPLE
An event has the best chance of being noticed if it is about individuals, is sensational or surprising, affects for example elite nations, is part of a theme that is considered important and is also negative.

It included guidelines for the harmonisation of national laws and how the freedoms of the Treaty of Rome should be implemented.

This has led to reduced power for the civilian sector i.e. political parties, unions and businesses.

As an example:

SUGGESTION
An event has the best chance of being noticed if it is about individuals, if it is sensational or surprising, if it affects for example elite nations or if it is part of a theme that is considered important and is also negative.

It included guidelines for the harmonisation of national laws and the implementations of freedoms in the Treaty of Rome (or: It included guidelines for how the national laws should be harmonised and how freedoms of the Treaty of Rome should be implemented.)

This has led to reduced power for the civilian sector i.e. (for) the political parties, unions and businesses.

When the rules of coordination are broken, it is not just the language that becomes disjointed. Sometimes it can also be very difficult for the reader to grasp the content. What is actually meant by the following example?

EXAMPLE

Sometimes however an attempt is made to preserve national culture within TV only to protect groups like the state or political parties, check programme policy and the budget in public broadcasting institutions.

Menghistu advocated equality, value orientation, to abolish class differences, cultural norms and to reduce the prevailing male chauvinism.

One way to facilitate the reader in finding the various points in a coordination structure is to utilise a construction using *partly,* (or *in part*). It is an excellent technique, but does not free the author of course from the requirements of symmetry. Constructions using *partly* also make other demands. One should first of all be aware that one *partly,* must always be followed by another one. Secondly, that which comes after *partly* in each of the points (including the last) must be able to be read together with that which preceded the whole *partly* construction. The two following examples break with these rules in different ways:

EXAMPLE

Therefore it is interesting to look at how Poland stands, partly from the point of view of Helsinki and partly of Umeå.

Its two assignments have been to partly implement and legitimise the state policy, partly to function as an interest group for women.

Instead, this is how it should look:

SUGGESTION

Therefore it is interesting to look at how Poland stands, from the point of view partly of Helsinki, partly of Umeå.

These two assignments have been partly to implement and legitimise the state policy, partly to function as an interest group for women.

Similarly constructions such as *on the one hand... (and) on the other hand,* and *firstly... (and) secondly* may also be used, but must follow the same rules of symmetry as the *partly* construction. Another technique that can be useful in helping the reader in finding their place in a coordination, is laying it out in point format instead of running text. However this too imposes certain requirements. Firstly that each of the points can be read together with the introductory text, and secondly that they should be similarly phrased. These requirements are not met in the following example:

Here the points comprise three substantive phrases and a phrase with an infinitive verb. The easiest here is to make the last point into a substantive phrase (*streamlining*) – thus satisfying both the coordination requirements and the symmetry.

An advantage with a points format, is that fairly compressed information can be made easily accessible and lucid for the reader with the help of the typography. In the following example however the author of the thesis has not quite decided on whether the text should be running or points format. Samples from both techniques are evident, which has resulted in a disturbing wordiness and over-explicitness:

EXAMPLE
The critiques opposing EU's policy are diverse, but can essentially be grouped around three critical arguments: (1) the first is that the EU applies an economic mind-set instead of a cultural. (2) The second is that small countries and cultural regions will be disadvantaged say critics. (3) The third and final argument is that diversity should be preserved instead of a "European culture"

It would be much better this way:

SUGGESTION
The critiques opposing EU's policy are diverse, but can essentially be grouped around three arguments:
        • EU applies an economic mind-set instead of a cultural.
        • Small countries and cultural regions will be disadvantaged.
        • Diversity should be preserved instead of a "European culture".

The requirement of symmetry can be present even with regard to headings. If one has a number of sections in a chapter dealing with data from the same perspective, it is an advantage if this is also apparent from the headings. The easiest way to see this is when one compiles the index, where the listed contents are next to each other. (See also section 4.2 on heading levels.)

2.3.7 Pronouns

One way of working with references is by the effective use of pronouns. Pronouns are words that are used to replace a substantive that one has already used. This means that they can be used to signal a connection in a text; if one sees an *it, he, she* etc. one knows that there is a substantive earlier in the text that is still under

discussion. By using both substantives and pronouns to refer to the same phenomenon, the writer creates a varied and well-connected text. There are however a couple of occasions when it is difficult to know which pronoun to use and what one should do to avoid an incorrect reference. This is mainly in the use of *one* and the respective use of a pronoun in a non-gender reference.

One

In a number of views on written prose warnings are given about using the word *one*. It must be emphasised therefore that this word, as with other words in the language, has a function, and the problem is rather that it is sometimes incorrectly used. The word *one* is an impersonal pronoun and is useful when one talks in general terms and not when referring to a specific person (as in this paragraph for example). But as soon as one is dealing with people or groups that can be given a more definite description, the word *one* should be avoided. Above all be aware that the word may not be used in different senses in the same sentence or in the same paragraph. This is the case in the following example, where *one* nos. 1 and 3 refer to researchers, while *one* no. 2 refers to the women or men who are the subject of the research:

EXAMPLE
When it comes to gender planning one assumes because women and men have different roles, one also has different needs. Here one looks at two aspects: division of labour in the home and the structure of households with low income.

A good rule is to use other pronouns or a substantive that clearly shows to whom you are referring. In the example above it is fine to use the word *they* instead of *one* no. 2 and possibly *researchers* instead of *one* no. 1.

SUGGESTION
When it comes to gender planning the researchers assume because women and men have different roles, they also have different needs. Here one looks at two aspects: division of labour in the home and the structure of households with low income.

A similar substitution can be made in the following example:

EXAMPLE
One can find another part of the heritage within the Nigerian economy. A pattern for state and regional monopoly was left in the wake of the British, at the same time as one placed impediments to private domestic enterprise.

SUGGESTION
One can find another part of the heritage within the Nigerian economy. A pattern for state and regional monopoly was left in the wake of the British, at the same time as they placed impediments to private domestic enterprise.

In English the word *you* is a common alternative to *one*, as seen in the following text (from a thesis which deals with the freedom of information act within the EU). For most readers, such a mode of expression in a scientific thesis probably seems quite inappropriate and is therefore not to be recommended. This would have been the occasion to use *one.*

EXAMPLE
As a private person you can make use of the freedom of information act in many different ways. If you are going to buy a car you ought to contact the local vehicle registration office and check who owns it and how often it has changed ownership. If you are house hunting, with the help of the freedom of information act you can check house prices and changes of ownership in the area into which you want to move, at the property register.

SUGGESTION
As a private person one can make use of the freedom of information act in many different ways. If one is going to buy a car one ought to contact the local vehicle registration office and check who owns it and how often it has changed ownership. If one is house hunting, with the help of the freedom of information act, one can check house prices and changes of ownership in the area into which one wants to move, at the property register.

The direct approach, as in the first example, can however function well in guidance of various kinds – where the point is that the reader is to do exactly what they are told to in the text.

Gender-neutral references
There is a long tradition in many languages of using the pronoun *he* to refer to a person of unspecified gender.

Today such use of *he* appears very old fashioned, and indeed is virtually out of use. But it does not mean that the problem has disappeared; there are plenty of circumstances when the person one is writing about can be either a man or a woman. English, like Swedish, does not have a good gender-neutral pronoun. A common way to solve the problem is to write *he or she*.

EXAMPLE
The role of the politician is not to argue the matter, but by style, personality and charisma produce a successful interpretation and build mutual trust with the citizens. He or she is not a delegate who faithfully carries the views of their constituents to parliament, rather a person in whom the voters put their trust.

Writing *he or she* or *she or he*, is a solution which effectively solves the problem because it explicitly raises the possibility that the person one is talking about, in this case a hypothetical politician, can equally well be a man as a woman. If one uses this method of expression, one must however remember two things. Firstly that one does not utilise it too many times; it can easily become overused if in every other sentence *he or she* appears. Secondly to write out *or*. Sometimes one

sees that a writer has chosen to write *he/she* instead. This expression is certainly the same thing as *he or she*, but works less well in the flow of text.

Sometimes it does not work to write *he or she*, or one may want to vary ones mode of expression. Then there are alternatives one can adopt. One such alternative is to repeat the key word.

SUGGESTION
The role of the politician is not to argue the matter, but by style, personality and charisma produce a successful interpretation and build mutual trust with the citizens. *The politician* is not a delegate who faithfully carries the views of their constituents to parliament, rather a person in whom the voters put their trust.

The risk in repeating the key word, is that the text can be repetitive and too static to be enjoyable reading; thus one should use this method sparingly. Another solution is to put the key word in the plural instead of the singular. In English we make no differentiation in reference to male or female in the plural. It is quite simply *they.*

SUGGESTION
The role of the politicians is not to argue the matter, but by style, personality and charisma produce a successful interpretation and build mutual trust with the citizens. *They* are not *delegates* who faithfully carry the views of their constituents to parliament, rather *people* in whom the voters put their trust.

2.3.8 Tense

In scientific theses one often needs to quote what other researchers have written, and in the summary refer to one's own main text. Some authors have problems with tenses in these references.

A general rule for tense use can – very simply – be expressed like this: something that has taken place at a specific time in the past and does not have any special relation to other points in time, is expressed in the imperfect (*Last year the whole family travelled to Italy on holiday*). It is however clear that the present tense is a useful versatile tense and has several forms. It can be used in the present progressive (or present continuous), to describe a temporary situation taking place now (*The family is travelling in Italy at the moment*) and in what is known as the historic present i.e. when one relates an event in the past but wants to give the story a more dramatic character (also called narrative present) *(The family goes on holiday!)*. Moreover the present is the normal tense for expressing situations that are continuous, indefinite or permanent (*The family lives in Italy*)

When, as the author of a thesis, one quotes what another has done or written or what one has oneself done in the introductory stages of the work, it is natural to use the present. Of course one should use the historic present consistently: swapping between the imperfect and the present disturbs the reading. In the following example it should therefore be *aims, can* and *amount.*

If one is talking about one's own work in the past, it gives the impression that the text is about *the process* of writing a thesis: the writer talks about how it went. What the text should deal with is essentially *the product* of the work. This distinction becomes clear when one chooses the present to talk about one's own research assignment.

2.4 Right and wrong

To be able to talk about right and wrong there must be a norm expressed somewhere. Comprehensive collections of norms are only found in certain areas. Specialist guidance is to be found in every professional field, but here are some recommended general guides:

- Grammar: *Oxford Modern English Grammar* (2011)
- Use of language: *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage* (2009)
- Writing style: *Oxford Style manual* (2003)

Some of the above mentioned resources may also be found on the Internet. There are additionally many other accessible Internet resources such as:

- Dictionary and writing guide: www.oxforddictionaries.com
- Encyclopedia Britannica: www.britannica.com

Since the middle of the 1900s the Swedish authorities have striven to democratise bureaucratic text by making it less complicated and easier for those whom it affects – the general public – to understand it. Since 2009 a Language Law (SFS 2009:600) has existed which states among other things that language in the public sector should be concise, simple and understandable. In the USA The Plain Writing Act 2010 has recently been signed into law. Though no all-encompassing law regulating language usage in public institutions exists in the UK, there are many guidelines specific to different public domains and such works as *The Complete Plain Words, A guide to the use of English*, written for civil servants and published in 1954, has never been out of print. See also *The Oxford guide to plain English* (2009).
The appearance of the text is important – it is that which the reader first

encounters when they become acquainted with the text. Those who are careless with proofreading and polishing, present an unfavourable picture of themselves and can also cause negativity in the reader toward the content of the text.

The form of language in question here should be invisible in the sense that it should not draw the reader's attention. If the reader gets hooked on *how* you write, they will not see *what* you write. Therefore follow the established rules! Use reference books when you are unsure of spelling, punctuation and abbreviations. Especially useful to have on the desk is *The Oxford Guide To English Usage*.

Modern word processing programmes for computers include tools for spelling and grammar checks. They are excellent aids and should always be used to check the final thesis text. But there are good reasons to warn against an overreliance on the technology. By no means can all language or spelling mistakes be identified this way. If you spell one word wrongly so it becomes another word (e.g. *bear > beer*) the software will not notice it. Nor will the word processing programme understand if one has written two separate words that should be combined. A computer can never substitute for careful personal proofreading of the thesis text.

Presented in this part of the booklet are some linguistic questions, which often cause problems for writers.

2.4.1 Open form compounds

Compound words are words that are always written together in English. A compound word can be heard in the emphasis. One can therefore hear if a person is saying *careless* or *care less*. In *careless* there is just one strong emphasis, while in *care less* there are two equally strong emphases.

It is quite rare that ambiguity actually occurs, but a *spare-room heater* is a very different thing from a *spare room-heater*.

Because open form compounds do not generally lead to real problems does not mean however that there is no reason to keep your text clear of them. Even if open form compounds such as, *black list, life line, note worthy, time keeper* are completely understandable they still result in the text being fragmented for the reader.

2.4.2 Hyphen

When two words are regularly used in conjunction they are sometimes joined with a hyphen, (they may later become closed form compound words). Hyphens are also used in formulations where one of the parts – often the first part – is special in some way. A hyphen is thus used if the first part is:

- **an abbreviation or a number**: ATM-machine, 6-monthly
- **a multiword expression**: do-it-yourself product, out-of-date goods, sixty-year-old men, little-celebrated-artists exhibition.

- **a prefix that must be kept separate**: re-sign, re-sent, (resign and resent have quite different meanings).

2.4.3   Dash

A Dash is a form of punctuation that can be used when one inserts an explanation or an exemplification in the middle of a sentence. As here for example…

> EXAMPLE
> It reached the point that the opposition – the Ibo people, most of the Christian minorities and the majority of the Yoruba people – more or less gave up their efforts.

A dash must always be preceded by and followed by a space. One should be aware that the word-processor one is using is really writing a dash and not a hyphen; the same key is used for both. The character is altered from "-" to " – " as one is writing if spaces are inserted before and after. The automatic changes do not occur however if the character is added at a later time. Then one must check oneself that the character is of the correct length.

2.4.4   Semicolon and colon

Semicolon and colon are the two most difficult punctuation characters to use correctly. It is easy to confuse how they should be used, but in fact they have completely different uses. Semicolon (;) is a dividing character. It indicates that there are two phrases which despite being different entities, are thought by the writer to have such a close connection that they should be written in the same sentence. It is used when a comma would be too small a differentiation, and a full stop too great. The two connected entities must each be able to stand alone as sentences. Colon (:) is however a bridging character that shows that what comes after the colon, is in fact a part of that which came before, but expanded and explained. In the examples below therefore there should have been colons instead of semicolons:

> EXAMPLE
> Through a rough categorising of article writers they can be divided up into 5 different categories; journalists and publicists, lawyers, politicians, others and unknown.
>
> When de Klerk took office, it was uncertain how he would proceed; reconcile with the parties right wing or move forward with reforms.
>
> SUGGESTION
> Through a rough categorising of article writers they can be divided up into 5 different categories: journalists and publicists, lawyers, politicians, others and unknown.
>
> When de Klerk took office, it was uncertain how he would proceed: reconcile with the parties right wing or move forward with reforms.

In the first example, what follows the punctuation is a definition of what "the five categories" are, in the second, of what "how he would proceed" means.

In the following example either a colon or possibly a dash is appropriate punctuation instead of the semicolon.

EXAMPLE
Could this theory be used in my particular case; Peru 1992?

SUGGESTION
Could this theory be used in my particular case: Peru 1992?
Could this theory be used in my particular case – Peru 1992?

There are cases when both a colon and a semicolon are possible, namely when the punctuation stands between two complete main clauses. Then they also mean different things of course. If in the following text one places a semicolon after *different*, one thus indicates that the introductory main clause is a completed entity and that the three main clauses that follow are another entity, though with some connection to the first. If however one places a colon here one indicates that the introductory main clause is explained and clarified by the three phrases that follow.

EXAMPLE
Amongst these, the arguments were divided up somewhat differently; five articles fell into the pro-category, two into the contra-category and three one could say used an argument that fell into the grey-zone.

Amongst these the arguments were divided up somewhat differently: five articles fell into the pro-category, two into the contra-category and three one could say used an argument which fell into the grey-zone.

A semicolon is always followed by a lower-case letter, but after a colon both lower-case and upper-case letters are possible – it is the situation that dictates. A lower-case letter is normally used when the colon stands before a list of some sort and when the listed points cannot form their own sentence. An upper-case letter is used if what follows the colon is direct speech, a question, an exclamation or a quote. An upper-case letter is also needed if what the colon indicates is spread over several sentences.

If you are not absolutely sure how to use a semicolon, avoid it – it is punctuation that one can manage without.

2.4.5 Punctuation

Over the years there have been a series of different principles of punctuation that have been taught in schools. One such is what is known as *clause punctuation*, which means that one places commas between all the clauses in a sentence. Another is *pause punctuation*, which recommends that one place a comma wherever one needs to take a breath. Today it is considered that clause

punctuation leads to overly strict rules: it is not always necessary to the understanding of the text that a comma is placed between the clauses. Pause punctuation is no longer deemed necessary either: it can easily become too personal and in many cases makes it rather more difficult for the reader, which negates the purpose of the punctuation. Today one talks instead about *clarifying punctuation*. Place a comma only when it really facilitates the reader! Very short sentences are seldom made easier by punctuating, even if they ought to be made up of two clauses. There are however certain ground rules to adhere to.

If a sentence contains **two or more main clauses**, one should place commas between them.

EXAMPLE
I do not intend to do a complete research review of these areas, but aim only to try to get to the part of the theory and research contributions that can help us understand the personification.

One also places commas around what is known as **parenthesised insertion**. That is words or phrases that are inserted in the middle of a sentence. There are a couple of different types of insert:

- clarified or precise additions, often introduced by *for instance*, *such as*, *e.g.*, *i.e.*
- parenthesised subordinate clauses

EXAMPLE
Proponents defend the objection that the problem did not lie with the fascist methods, *which here only refers to its personalising and ability to spread their ideas through entertainment*, rather that the democratic powers were unable to enthuse the citizens in a similar way.

A characteristic of a parenthesised insertion is that one can remove it without affecting the rest of the sentence. If one wants to use an insert it is important that one remembers to place commas on both sides of the insert – this makes things much easier for the reader! A similar occasion when one should use a comma is to identify **addressing and emphasised exclamations** from the rest of the sentence.

EXAMPLE
Yes, it is not only possible, it is necessary too.

Commas are also used in **itemisations and lists**:

EXAMPLE
Objectivity should be defined here such that *journalists deal only with facts that are relevant to the news, sources are carefully checked and not just one side is heard*.

Amongst these, the arguments were divided up somewhat differently: *five articles fell into the pro-category, two into the contra-category and three one could say used an argument which fell into the grey-zone*.

Only the last point in an itemised list should be preceded by a conjunction, like *and* and *or*.

The rules mentioned so far are those where the reader is often aided by the presence of a comma. There is a further case where one can place commas if it facilitates the reader significantly, but where it is not a necessity, that is when the sentence is introduced by **long subordinate conjunction clauses**.

EXAMPLE
In allowing celebrities to present a message, one thus gives the recipient something with which to instantly associate the information.

There are a couple of further occasions when one should not add commas. One is when a sentence contains a **necessary subordinate clause**, i.e. a subordinate clause that is needed so that the sentence does not seem strange or incomprehensible. They are essentially:

• subordinate clauses that are governed by the preposition

EXAMPLE
The development of company based welfare systems was facilitated *by the Federation of Swedish Industries pursuing the question at a national level.*

• *'that'* subordinate clauses

EXAMPLE
Only a small proportion of the population is so interested and versed enough in politics *that they can have a direct rational approach to political reporting.*

• relative subordinate clauses

EXAMPLE
When new information is coupled in this way to pictures or feelings *previously registered* it makes it easier to retrieving them later.

2.4.6 Hyphenation algorithm

The main reason for hyphenation algorithms is so the text looks neat. If the last word on a line is very long the programme places it on the next line, which can result in the first line being very short. Therefore to avoid getting lines with lots of spaces in them, it is good to hyphenate. In short every word-processing programme today has hyphenation in its tools menu. But there are certain limitations in allowing the programme to hyphenate. That is to say the programme does not always understand where the natural divisions come in a word. This can lead to hyphenation that is difficult to understand or looks ridiculous. It is always better to hyphenate oneself, or at least carefully check the hyphenation that the software has proposed.

The basic principle in hyphenating is to divide the word up into **meaningful parts**. If it is possible to identify which words the compound word is built from or if the word is built from a root and suffix, this is the place to make the division. Alternatively one divides the word so that a consonant is moved to line 2.

- Compound words divided by word parameters: *news-paper, book-case, sand-paper*
- Simple words divided into root and suffix: *agree-able, liquid-ate, king-dom*
- Simple words divided so that the consonant is moved to line 2: *practi-cal, econo-mist, lami-nate*

Hyphenation should therefore be done only when it is really needed. Over zealous hyphenation can make the text hard to read. There is no intrinsic value in filling every line to the max: for example one never takes hyphenation to the point where there are less than two letters on line 1 and at least three letters on line 2. One should also try to avoid hyphenation that looks comical or makes the text harder to absorb.

Refrain from letting the programme take care of the hyphenation, do it yourself instead, one might think about using what is called a **soft hyphen**. If you make changes in your text so that the word no longer requires hyphenation, a normal hyphen will be left in the word. It is then easy to miss. A soft hyphen however only shows if the word remains in the position on the line where hyphenation is necessary. On a Mac one creates a soft hyphen by the combination [cmd+-]. On a PC one uses [ctrl+-].

2.4.7 Quotation marks

The usual characters for identifying a quote look like this: " ". For quotes within quotes use single quotation marks: ' '.

Quotation marks are mainly used when one writes something verbatim or when one wants to denote that one is talking about the form of the word and not its subject. However they are often used when the writer believes they have used a word or an expression in an incorrect or inappropriate way.

EXAMPLE
It is the "weapons" they have to compete with.
One must discuss what a membership should "cost".
This is one of the most useful books in my "collection".
The Centre Party would take the position of "government" in the municipality.
However it is premature to claim that they seized the political positions within the government to use them to "grab material benefits".

None of the examples above break any linguistic rules, and there is absolutely no reason to excuse oneself for the wording. What the writer did in most of the cases was use the words in a figurative sense, and it is a very common and in fact very useful and practical way to use the words we have in the language. The message

that the reader gets from such quotation marks is that the writer is dissatisfied with their own text or that he or she is unsure of their own language. Such messages don't win any points for the writer! Either one stands by one's words and writes without any apologetic quotation marks, or alternatively one could work out a better way to express what one wants to say.

2.4.8   Abbreviations

Abbreviations in running text should be used sparingly. One should only use those abbreviations that are generally accepted and so common in writing that they are at least as common as the printed words, such as *e.g., i.e.* and *etc.* Unusual abbreviations such as *sc*, *vs* and *cf* however are best avoided.

One group of abbreviations – the international units of measurement such as *cm*, *kWh* – are always written without a full stop. Other abbreviations such as colloquial abbreviations *demo, co-op*, and *decaf* can be written with or without a full stop. However it is still considered in many spheres that the full stop is needed for the sake of clarity. Whichever principle you choose: be consistent throughout the text.

A particular type of abbreviation that is very common in scientific texts is the acronym. These are always written without full stops. In the case of a plural or possessive, this may be denoted directly after the last letter. (*QCs, NASA's,*).

2.4.9   Figures

There are a couple of rules regarding which numbers should be written out in words. Some guidelines state that as a general rule one should write numbers up to 10 in words and larger numbers in figures, others set the limit as high as 100. If a passage contains both kinds however, use either words or figures for all the numbers. Additionally one should spell out the even tens and the words hundred, thousand, million and billion. However there are exceptions. If one is writing down results given in numbers followed by percent symbols, measurements or similar, one always uses figures: 5 %, 3 °C, 7 mm. In numeration figures should also always be used.

Sentences should never be introduced with a figure. Figures cannot be written with a capital letter and therefore do not provide the reader with a signal that a new sentence has begun. The exception to this rule is a year (1923...).

2.4.10   Dating

In an attempt to create an international standard for dating, a model was introduced in the 1960s using numbers only, with the year first, then month and day, (1996-06-13). This form of dating never really caught on internationally – but it has become very common in Sweden. In most other places the shortened

form of date puts the day first followed by month and then year, (13-06-1996), these figures may also be separated by forward slash, (13/06/1996). Note that the exception is the USA where the month comes first followed by the day and finally the year, (06-13-1996).

To avoid any misunderstanding therefore one is best to write out dates in full with the day and year in figures and the month in letters i.e. 13 June 1996, with no internal punctuation. If the name of the day is also included, insert a comma thus: Tuesday, 13 June 1996. One no longer writes "the" and "of" in the date, nor does one use superscript e.g. 13th, even if these are included when reading the date out loud.

Centuries should be written out in full e.g. the fourteenth century. bc and ad are in lower case, bc following the date and ad preceding it: 250 bc; ad 950 and circa should be written before the date as *c.* in italics. Be careful to write "from 1930 to 1945" (not "from 1930 – 1945"), "during the period 1930–1945" or "between 1930 and 1945".

3 The art of writing a scientific text

A scientific undertaking is actually a substantial team effort. Every individual researcher, everyone from the first-year student to the professor, must start from what has already been done in the field in question. This can mean that to a large extent one accepts earlier researcher's theories, ideas and observations, and that one can build one's own work on that foundation. But one can of course also be critical of predecessors' work and carry out one's own research in a different way. However whatever situation prevails, one must in one's reporting deal with what has previously been carried out in the field. This means that one needs to use material of different types.

In the following presentations we use the word *source* as a general label for all the types of material a researcher uses in his scientific work.

In the use of sources there are two requirements that must be met. The readers must be clear on what the writer himself thinks and does, and what he has drawn from others. They must also be so informed that they can themselves identify the relevant source so as to find out more on the subject for example or to check the writer's information. There are therefore two techniques that the researcher must be able to apply: that in his own running text he gives clear directions to the source that has been used, and that at the end of the text makes a list so the reader can identify them.

Even the seasoned researcher must put a good deal of work into meeting this requirement. For beginners it is of course more difficult as it is a requirement that one hardly ever encounters in other writing situations. In this chapter we give advice and guidance on referencing techniques.

One can in principle use a source in two ways in the text one produces oneself: one can *reference* its subject matter, i.e. reiterate what is in the original in one's own words, and one can *quote*, i.e. write verbatim. In both cases one must refer to the source in the text and show it in the final list (section 3.5). Moreover one ought to follow certain rules concerning references (sections 3.1 and 3.2) and with regard to quotations (section 3.3). All this is related to scientific integrity, i.e. that the presentation of research results adheres to scientific requirements and generally accepted ethical standards (section 3.4).

3.1 Objectivity

A reference should reflect the source's content as objectively as possible. In many contexts, such as when one discusses other researchers' methods and results, it is part of the assignment that one should both reference and comment, i.e. evaluate the content of a source. Then it is especially important that one is aware of the need for objectivity. Those who read the reference should get clear information on what belongs to the source and what the reporter's evaluation of its content is. Therefore clearly identify what are references and what are personal valuations.

How then does one write objectively? Firstly the text must be correct – factual errors must not occur. Read the source text thoroughly and ascertain that you really have interpreted it correctly. If accurate factual information is to be reproduced – figures for example – check them against the source before you submit your text.

Secondly the choice of facts must be balanced. One source may report advantages and disadvantages of solving a problem in a certain way. If the reporter themselves is positively set on one particular solution, perhaps he or she is tempted to stress the advantages at the cost of the disadvantages. As a reporter one must be on one's guard against such tendencies and instead strive to achieve the same balance between positive and negative as is reported in the source.

Thirdly the reporter ought to avoid expressing him or herself in such a way that his or her own evaluations are transparent from the reference, through the use of emotive words. In the choice of leading verbs it is important to avoid those that reveal one's own attitude to the reference. If one says: "The Minister of Education *realises* that there should be stricter result standards", one is saying that this is the perception one already holds oneself as the reporter. If instead one says: "The Minister of Education *claims* that there should..." one immediately indicates doubt that it is a sensible requirement the minister has come up with. Such leading verbs must be avoided in a referenced text. On the whole, restraint from exaggeration is a requirement of scientific texts. Also avoid in your comments and analyses, exaggerations such as "sensational", "fantastic" or value judgements like "power-crazy", "disgusting".

When a longer text is referenced, it is necessary to remind the reader that it is a reference. This is especially important when valuations are presented. The reader can otherwise be unsure of whose valuation is being presented, the source's or the reporter's. Moreover one should always try to indicate as clearly as possible, what in one's text has drawn from external sources i.e. where the reference begins and ends.

3.2   Linguistic autonomy

A reference should be linguistically independent from the source. This requirement does not mean that the reporter must use different vocabulary than that of the original text. Many words in a text are tied to the content and should not be exchanged. What one ought to avoid is copying out whole phrases, statements and sentences.

Those who have read the source text carefully and with consideration, find it easy to meet this requirement. They have created that distance which makes linguistic autonomy possible. Those who were careless with preparation work can easily be tempted to copy. A reference is rarely good if the reporter cuts chosen passages from the source and just cobbles these clips together into something that is supposed to be a new text. The result risks being a text that lacks cohesion and is difficult to grasp for the reader who does not know what is in the source.
Sentences that are plucked out of the context of their source are poor building blocks for both content and language. In part because they often contain

information that does not to any great extent bear relevance to the context of the text, and is disproportionate in a condensed reference. In part because their language formulation is in keeping with the context of the original: they perhaps contain words that refer to something that was mentioned earlier in the text but is not included in the quote, or link words of another type (*therefore, on the other hand, however*).

Instead stick to the rule of never copying (or closely paraphrasing) your source's formulation unless you have a very good reason! It cannot be denied that such a reason may exist. Therefore we shall also deal with what requirements exist when copying or quoting.

3.3   Technique of quoting

Firstly one must, when quoting directly, place quotation marks (" ") before and after the quote.

EXAMPLE
The meaning of democracy has been defined by Robert Dahl as "a political system in which the members regard one another as political equals, are collectively sovereign, and possess all the capacities, resources, and institutions they need in order to govern themselves" (Dahl 1989, p. 1)

If the passage in the source text that you want to quote already contains a quotation, change your source quotation marks to single quotation marks (' ') and surround your own quotation with the normal characters:

EXAMPLE
"Parsons criticised Wright Mills for interpreting power 'exclusively as a facility for getting what one group, the holders of power, wants by preventing another group, the "outs" from getting what it wants', rather than seeing it as a facility for the performance of function in and on behalf of the society as a system'" (Lukes 1974, p. 28).

(Be careful to use these particular characters (" and ') and not the straight forms (" and '), which are used to represent an inch and a foot respectively.)

Alternatively it may be an advantage to separate longer quotations into their own paragraph with indented margins, smaller font size and narrower spacing. In this case no quotation marks are necessary. The quotation below from a public inquiry has been dealt with in this way.

Secondly one must quote literally. The general rule is that no changes may be made to the original text (see below however) – word order cannot be reversed, nothing can be excluded or included. One may not even correct a typing error.

When one uses a quotation it is important to adjust one's own text to the quote. One can of course also begin at a point in the source text that fits into one's own text. Let us consider the following situation: You want to quote some of the last sentence in the following text (from a public inquiry, SOU 1974:31, Young Offenders):

It is essential to prevent the unfortunate personality development that has here been described. A more widespread attitude among parents that care of children during their first years of life is a major and essential task, also that it is a pleasure and a privilege to follow their children closely, should in all truth be a positive factor. How such a change should come about is harder to say. Conventional information campaigns risk reaching only those already convinced and interested. A high prioritising of the psychological work among parents with small children would however mean a step forward. Furthermore one would wish that the financial support could be extended so that the mother, or possibly the father, could be home at least for the child's first year of life.

Then you can do one of the following:

EXAMPLE
The investigators believe also that it would be good if "the financial support could be extended so that the mother, or possibly the father, could be home at least for the child's first year of life."

Moreover the investigators say: "Furthermore one would wish that the financial support could be extended so that the mother, or possibly the father, could be home at least for the child's first year of life."

But not like this:

EXAMPLE
The investigators "also wish, that the financial support could be extended so that the mother, or possibly the father, could be home at least for the child's first year of life."

The investigators believe also that it would be desirable "that the financial support could be extended so that the mother, or possibly the father, could be home at least for the child's first year of life."

In these last two examples, what is inside the quotation marks is not identical to the original text, which is not permitted. Sometimes however the quotation must be altered in order to be useable in its new context. Each alteration must then be indicated clearly with square parentheses [...]. The advantage with these parentheses is that they are unusual and therefore cannot be as easily misinterpreted as parentheses that the original writer placed in his text. The following symbols for alterations in a quotation are common:

[...]	A part of the source text has been removed. A quotation that does not include a complete sentence however need not be introduced in this way.
[my italics]	Italics in the text is not from the source, but is inserted by the thesis writer.
[sic!]	Means "intentionally so written", "so" in Latin and can be used for example to point out that the quotation is actually reproducing the source exactly with any spelling or grammatical errors from the original text. One often sees it in italics: [*sic!*].

If one wishes to quote the second last sentence in the example text above, one may need to make certain changes. The result can then look like this:

EXAMPLE
"A high prioritising of the *psychological work* [my italics] among parents with small children, would [...] mean a step forward."

Square parentheses can be used in two additional ways, on one hand to mark an inserted explanation to clarify a quote, and on the other to highlight that the capital has been exchanged with a lower-case letter:

EXAMPLE
"He [the prime minister, my note] did"
"[t]his confidentiality of sources"

As shown a quote can include longer or shorter sections of the source text, and there are also some, albeit limited opportunities to make changes in the quote. However a general rule must always be adhered to: the quote must give a fair picture of what is in the source.

Another thing one must be careful with when quoting, is seeing to it that the quote and your own text hang together and follow the normal linguistic rules. The following case is an example of when the writer (apparently) has been true to the original, but has constructed his own text so that it breaks the rules for the use of capital letters:

EXAMPLE
Carl Norström says that "This confidentiality of sources is of great importance..."
Lång writes that the freedom of information principle is threatened through membership in the EU because "The Swedish constitution applies in Sweden but must in a case of contention submit to the EUs legal system."

For the passage to be linguistically correct, the text before the quote must be altered, like this for example:

EXAMPLE
Carl Norström says that this confidentiality of sources "is of great importance..."
...through membership in the EU. His reasoning is: "The Swedish constitution applies..."

The formulation in the following text reveals that the writer did *not* write verbatim. The passage marked as a quote quite simply cannot have looked like this in the original.

When is it appropriate to quote? Three situations can be identified. The first is when the original author has expressed a central concept in such a clear, concise and perhaps even striking way that the reporter's own formulation would not be of equal quality.

The second situation is when it is for some reason important to report the source's exact wording. For example they could be of such emotive value that they have to be reproduced exactly as expressed.

A third situation is when the source's formulation is so ambiguous that the reporter, despite all efforts cannot grasp the content. In this situation some reporters do this to feign understanding. They stay close to the original without transcribing and thus passing on (and sometimes even making worse) the ambiguity. Instead the reporter ought to openly admit that they have not been able to clarify the content from the source. However to give the readers of the reference the opportunity to build their own perception of the content, it could be appropriate to quote the unclear section.

3.4 Scientific (dis)honesty

The goal of scientific undertaking is to produce new knowledge. This places great demands on the researcher's ethics and thoroughness in the research process. It is expressed in a governmental inquiry, *God sed i forskningen* (Good practice in research), that the researcher's first duty should be to seek, to be factual and objective and to constantly endeavour to convey a reasonably certain and as universal a knowledge as possible. (SOU 199:4, p. 52). Research must be documented so that it is possible for outside auditors to monitor the entire research process; the scientific text must report how the author worked, what material and what methods he or she has used. Readers of a scientific text must themselves be able to judge the soundness of the results. The recommendations in this publication aim, amongst other things, to raise awareness of the importance of form in the communication of research results.

Here however we shall focus on ethical aspects in the research process. With the inquiry on good practice in research as the starting point, some basic standards for scientific work and what conduct is contrary to these standards are discussed.

Dishonesty in research means, according to the inquiry that a researcher deliberately and in a misleading way deviates from the scientific requirements or knowingly violates generally accepted ethical standards (SOU 1999:4, p. 53). The inquiry presents five categories of dishonesty:

1. Dishonesty in relation to data/source material collection and scientific methods.
2. Plagiarising.
3. Dishonesty in relation to publication.

4. Dishonesty in relation to conflict of interests.
5. Lack of judgement and inappropriate conduct.

In relation to thesis work and authorship of course papers in undergraduate studies, the first two categories are those that are applicable and those which will be discussed here.

- You should not attempt to get someone to believe something that you know is not true!

An example of dishonesty in relation to collection of data/source material and scientific methods is basically fabrication and falsifying of data and source material, but the researcher who withholds or tampers with data or omits scientific information that contradicts theory/hypothesis, also behaves dishonestly. Therefore the researcher must not make their selection of data so that it only supports their own theory. When interpreting data the researcher must avoid knowingly over-interpreting or misinterpreting data or source material. One may not destroy other people's data either or misrepresent other researchers scientific results or contributions.

- Those who make scientific contributions should be acknowledged for them!

The reader of scientific text must always be clear on what the writer him or herself thought and did and what was drawn from others. One must never present "the results of the efforts of others as the results of your own work" (The Association of Swedish Higher Education 1997, p. 1). This specifically means that the researcher may not use another's data for their own purposes without permission, or reproduce without authorisation the unpublished scientific works or results of others, as if they were one's own. If one references published scientific works or results, one must clearly indicate the source or the originator. Here use of notes/references in theses plays a central role in differentiating between what the author has drawn from others, as opposed to his or her own ideas and analyses. Presenting data, ideas or anything that another person wrote or expressed as it if it were one's own contribution, is called plagiarism.

It ought to be noted that the Department of Political Science is connected to the control system Urkund. Thus theses and other texts that are submitted electronically have the content compared automatically with sources on Internet, a wide range of journal and encyclopaedia articles, as well as work submitted by other students. If similarities are found a report is sent to the Department, which facilitates the examining tutor in detecting plagiarism. On Urkund's homepage are examples of acceptable and unacceptable uses of sources.

Finally it must be stressed that scientific dishonesty such as research misconduct and plagiarism is not just unethical conduct. It is also explicitly forbidden and leads to a fail marking on the thesis and results in a report to the university's disciplinary committee.

3.5   References and reference lists

Those who have used a source must indicate this to the reader in some way. The purpose in indicating references in a text is partly so the reader knows on which sources the work is built, and partly so the reader can find the sources that the writer has used. When one references, and has just a single text as a basis for one's reference, the problem is easily solved: one introduces the reference in question by presenting the source. But those working with a scientific study have generally used quite a number of sources, and therefore require a more advanced reference technique. Moreover the requirement to clearly indicate sources is very stringent in scientific presentations. One is therefore obliged firstly to indicate within the text where the information was found, and secondly to place a list of the relevant sources at the end of the running text. Several different traditions have also developed in this field, which can easily confuse even the seasoned researcher.

One way to indicate sources is to use **footnotes** (known as *the Oxford Referencing System):*

EXAMPLE
The founder of the political system, which is the basis of our modern democratic government, held that this was contrary to democracy.[1]

At the bottom of the page, indicated thus: author, title, year of publication and page number.

In some scientific texts the notes at the bottom of each page are replaced by a collected list of notes at the end of the main text. This collected list of notes is uninviting to the reader and therefore not to be recommended. Even an ambitious reader will finally tire of continually flipping between the list of notes and the main text.

But footnotes are not especially practical for the reader or the writer either. One has to break off reading and go to the foot of the page to see what the notes contain. In a text such as the following, the reader gets very little in return for the constant interruptions to his reading – moreover the author is forced to repeat things that have already been said in the running text.

---

[1] Manin, Bernard, *The principles of representative government,* 2002, p. 13.

Urban regime theory is a theory tradition within American Political Science. It was originally a comment in the so-called local power debate.[2] This debate took place between the so-called elite revisionists and the pluralists, and starting during the 1950s came to shape American political science for a long time. The elite theory began with Floyd Hunter's classic study of Atlanta,[3] which showed that the city was governed by a small and close-knit elite. Pluralism, with Robert A Dahl's study of New Haven to the fore,[4] was in polemic controversy with the elite theory and argued instead that power was equally distributed because many different groups have influence over the local politics.[5]

If the guidance for footnotes is conscientiously followed, the writer must also repeat the same bibliographic information each and every time the same reference is quoted.

There are therefore a number of reasons to abandon the old footnote system for indicating sources. We therefore recommend another system, namely *The Harvard system of referencing*. This requires that one places the citing of sources in parentheses notes in the running text. The texts on democracy and local power debate *will look like this:*

EXAMPLE
The founder of the political system, which is the basis of our modern democratic government held that this was contrary to democracy (Manin 2002, p. 13).

Urban regime theory is a theory tradition within American Political Science. It was originally a comment in the so-called local power debate (Baldersheim 2005). This debate took place between the so-called elite revisionists and the pluralists and starting during the 1950s came to shape American political science for a long time. The elite theory began with Floyd Hunter's classic study of Atlanta (1953), which showed that the city was governed by a small and close-knit elite. Pluralists, with Robert A Dahl's study of New Haven to the fore (1961), were in controversy with the elite theory and argued instead that power was equally distributed because many different groups have influence over local politics (Judge et al. 1995, p. 11–12).

Here the reader gets a more comprehensive presentation of the source: the author's surname, the year of publication and the page number. (Page references in parentheses may also be written with a colon immediately after the year. The reference to Judge et al. at the end of the above example would look like this: Judge et al 1995: 11–12)

The condition required for a parentheses system to work is if there is a reference list that the reader can consult to get complete information – and a thesis writer must as mentioned, always create such a list, no matter which reference system is used. It is of course important to see to it that the information supplied

---

[2] Baldersheim, Harald, "Lokalmaktsdebatten – fra nessekonger till nettverksstyre" in Baldersheim, Harald & Lawrence E. Rose (ed.), 2005, *Det kommunale laboratorium: Teoretiske perspektiver på lokal politikk og organisering*, p. 87–111.

[3] Hunter, Floyd, *Community Power Structure: A Study of Decision Makers*, 1953.

[4] Dahl, Robert A., *Who Governs? Democracy and Power in an American City*, 1961.

[5] Judge, David – Gerry Stoker – Harol Wolman, "Urban Politics and Theory: An Introduction", p. 11–12, in Judge, David – Gerry Stoker – Harold Wolman (ed.), *Theories of Urban Politics, 1995*, p. 1–12.

in the parentheses notes is sufficient for the original to be identified in the reference list. Generally the author's surname and the year of publication suffices. It is not however unusual that in a thesis one might need to cite several works from the same year by the same author. In such a case one adds a letter to the year of publication (1995a, 1995b) and of course also shows them in the reference list.

What are the advantages of a parentheses system? One might think that it is no easier to look through a reference list than to read foot-notes. The advantage is that without having to raise the eyes from the text, the reader can ascertain *that* a reference has been used. This is in most cases sufficient for those reading the text. It is not usually until later that one might wish to look up the original to check out or read more on the subject.

However the parentheses system does not preclude the possibility for the writer to use footnotes for supplementary information and comments. Such items generally take more space and are not appropriate in parentheses within the text. There is another advantage with the Harvard system of referencing: when the reader meets a foot-note number in a thesis using this system, they know that in the foot-note is information of real substance and it can therefore be worth reading. This type of foot-note should however be rationed and not be allowed to spread all over the page.

Another advantage of the parentheses system, which is also shown in the example above, is that it gives the writer the option to present certain information about the source **directly in the written text**, and supplement with the rest in the parentheses:

EXAMPLE
Urban regime theory has several theoretical protagonists, but Clarence N. Stone with his highly influential study of Atlanta (1989) is often nominated as the originator (e.g. Stoker 1995, p. 55).

In references in a scientific text one sometimes comes across Latin **abbreviations**: ibid (ibidem = in the same place as the previous reference), passim (= in several places) and op. cit. (opus citatum = the work is already cited). In this way the author avoids repeating the title of a work that has already been cited in an earlier note. It can perhaps be good to know what these words mean, but there is no pressure to use them. They have the disadvantage that they are incomprehensible to the uninitiated. When parentheses are used, this type of abbreviation has no function to fulfil. The main reason is because it creates work for the reader. Another reason is that when one is moving paragraphs and sentences around when editing one's text, there is a risk that the reference can indicate a different source to that intended.

Abbreviation *et al.* (et alia = and others) one often sees in English language texts in references to work with three or more authors, when only the first author's name is given.

As soon as a reference refers back to a particular sub-section in a longer passage it must be provided with **information on the page number**. If that which is being referenced is spread over two pages, the abbreviation *f.* (folio = following page) is used. When more than two pages in the original are present, the

abbreviation *ff.* (folios = following pages) is used. Better however, that is clearer for the reader, is to state directly on which page the section in question finishes in the source. (e.g. p. 172–176). (Sometimes one sees written p. 172–6 meaning p. 172–176. It is doubtful that the writing space saved offsets the loss of clarity.)

It is generally the case that the information on the author and the year of publication should appear in the reference in accordance with the Harvard system of referencing. Establishing whom the author is or which year the text was published is seldom a major concern for books and journal articles. There are however a variety of other sources that can be used in scientific work where this information is not always obvious or in some other way causes a headache for the author. In sub-section 3.5.1–3.5.12 below, guidance on how one references such sources is given. Here guidance is also given on how one sets out one's references in a reference list.

The referencing within the text is the first step toward the reader being able to identify and find the sources on which the presentation is founded. The second step is a list of all the sources used in the thesis. The objective of a **reference list** is that the reader should be able to find the reference referred to. Reference lists should therefore include all sources that are quoted or cited in the thesis – but no others – and furnished with such bibliographic information that the reader is able to find each and every source, for instance in a library directory.

Sources are listed alphabetically in order of the first author named, or other index word if the author's name is missing. Under the same author's name (or index word) sources should be written chronologically, starting with the oldest.

Surnames that are prefixed by for example "von" or "de" are listed by the actual surname. The abbreviation "et al.", is not used in the reference list; all of the authors' names are always written out.

If the reference list is long, it may sometimes justify division into different parts with the help of sub-headings, for example primary data and secondary data. Such divisions can result in difficult borderline cases and should only be used when it is justified, i.e. when it facilitates the reader to find their way. Books and journals however should never be split up.

As for other guidance for reference lists, there is a large diversity in the academic world. The design is often directed by the rules utilised by leading research journals within the field. One should also be prepared to adapt to the current situation when compiling one's reference list.

3.5.1 Books and journals

As we described above, one references one's sources in accordance with the Harvard system of referencing in the running text, by writing the authors surname followed by the year of publication and page number in parentheses:

In reference lists the general principle is that the following information should be given for **books**: author's name, year of publication, title (in italics), place and publisher:

For **journal articles** give the author's name, year of publication, title of the article (within quotation marks), the name of the journal (italics), volume, possible number and information on the relevant pages:

One often sees that information on the volume number and page is written in the style shown below:

No matter which model one chooses, it is important that one is consistent throughout the text. The examples so far have referred to books and articles from journals with one author, the most common type of source for political science research and thesis writers. Guidance follows with examples of what is applicable to other types of source, on the one hand when applied to references in running text, and on the other hand when it applies to the list of references.

3.5.2 Several authors or absence of author.

If a source has **two authors**, one indicates in parentheses, both authors' surnames with a dash or with an *et or ampersand*-sign (&) between them, followed by the year and page reference:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN A TEXT

Since the beginning of the 1990s the use of the regime theory has increased dramatically and it has come to be the dominant paradigm within American political science's urban research (Mossberger – Stoker 2001, p. 810).

Supplementing resources to one policy area does not necessarily mean reducing resources to the other (Hall & Hubbard 1996, p. 155).

In the reference list, both the authors should be included, as well as the information on the year of publication, title, place, publisher and possibly page numbers:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST

Mossberger, Karen – Gerry Stoker, 2001. "The Evolution of Urban Regime Theory: The Challenge of Conceptualization", *Urban Affairs Review*, vol. 36, no. 6, p. 810–835.

Hall, Tim & Phil Hubbard, 1996. "The entrepreneurial city: new urban politics, new urban geographies?", *Progress in Human Geography*, vol. 20, no. 2, p. 153–174.

Because the first author's surname is given as the index word, it should appear first. The other author's name is then written with the forename first. One separates the authors with a dash or an & sign. The important thing is consistency.

In referencing sources that have **three or more authors**, one writes the name of the author that comes first, followed by *et al.*, plus the year of publication and page number.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

King, Keohane and Verba emphasise that logical inferences on causation are not possible from only one observation (King et al. 1994, p. 209–211).

In the study *Network seeks anchorage: Östersund region in a democratic perspective* the degree of democracy in regional projects within the context of the emerging policy in the Östersund region is investigated (Hall et al. 2005).

Goldstone et al. (2010) has developed a model for predicting which country could be affected by violent civil war and a regression from recently achieved democracy.

In the first example above, the page reference indicates the sub-section in the current text where the authors state what is said in the text. In such a case as with quotations, the page reference must always be provided. The last two examples lack page references, as the text refers to a whole book or article, and not to one specific page. All authors should be counted in the reference list, the first with

surname first, the others with first name first. Either one puts a dash between the different authors' names, or separates them with commas until one reaches the last two names, between which one puts an & sign:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
King, Gary – Robert O. Keohane – Sidney Verba, 1994. *Designing Social Inquiry: Scientific Inference in Qualitative Research.* Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Hall, Patrik, Kristian Sjövik & Ylva Stubbergaard 2005. *. Nätverk söker förankring: Öresundsregionen i ett demokratiperspektiv.* Lund: Student literature.

Goldstone, Jack A., Robert H Bates, David L. Epstein, Ted Robert Gurr, Michael B. Lustik, Monty G. Marshall, Jay Ulfelder & Mark Woodward, 2010. "A Global Model for Forecasting Political Instability", *American Journal of Political Science* vol. 54, no. 1, p. 190–208.

When the information on an author is missing, one references the title and the year of publication instead. When the title replaces the missing name of the author, it should be in italics, as long as it is not an article or a book chapter where the title should be placed within quotation marks:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
Staffing issues is highly relevant to "present day problems and to job satisfaction or the lack thereof in our daily practice" ("How do we find a solution to staffing issues?" 2010).

If it is explicitly stated that the author is anonymous, one writes "anonymous" in the reference list:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
"How do we find a solution to staffing issues?" 2010. Anonymous. *Critical Care Nurse* vol. 30, no. 1, p. 14–15.

For guidance on referencing unsigned articles in reference books, see sub-section 3.5.5.

3.5.3   Organisation as author

If no particular author is identified and an organisation is behind a publication, the organisation is given as the author.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
During field trials carried out in Germany there was inadvertent regrowth of gene-modified potatoes in over a third of the controlled hectares (Greenpeace 2010).

It is then also the organisation that functions as the index-word in the reference list.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
Greenpeace 2010. *Bakgrund till BASF:s genmanipulerade potatis Amflora.* Greenpeace Nordic, March 2010. [Electronic] Available: http://www.greenpeace.org/sweden/rapporter-och-dokument?page=2. Download date 15-09-2010

(On this occasion the document is downloaded from the organisation's homepage. For further guidance on referencing electronic sources, see sub-section 3.5.8.)

If the organisation's name is long, one can abbreviate it, but with **abbreviations** one must always when naming the organisation for the first time, explain the abbreviation. The norm is to write out the whole name and put the abbreviation in parentheses, but it can be done in different ways:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
Sweden particularly supports OSCE – The Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe – which is the only organisation of political security cooperation in Europe where all the European states, as well as the USA, Canada, and countries in Central Asia, participate on equal terms.

Sweden is a member of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), where the world's countries negotiate the terms of international trade.

The prerequisite is that the reader is not required to guess. This applies also to the reference list. If in the text one refers to a source from an organisation with a long name, e.g. The Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe, it is generally convenient to be able to use the abbreviation in the reference. To facilitate the reader, the abbreviation should act as the index-word in the reference list, followed by an equals sign and the organisation's full name. Then one specifies the information pertaining to the document in question (see sub-section 3.5.6 on public documents):

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
OSCE = The Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe, 2010. *Astana Declaration*, CIO./GAL/111/10, 30 June 2010.

If many abbreviations occur in the text one ought to provide a list of abbreviations in order to further facilitate the reader (see sub-section 4.1.2).

3.5.4 Several dates or absence of dates

For **texts that are translated** or have been **republished**, both the date of the original publication and the date of the publication in question should be provided in order to place the reference in the correct historical context. There are different principles for the presentation of these dates. Either one places the date of the work in question before the publication year of the original, or one does the

opposite, and places the year of the original publication first. Another variation is to give the date of the present publication as the reference in the running text, and only in the reference list give the original publication date within square parentheses. The most important thing as always is to be consistent throughout. In the example below, references are shown applying each of these principles:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

If a principle, a law or an action is to be accepted, it must be based on the considerations of all concerned (Benhabib 2004/2002, p. 181).

For a review of different ways to theorise about power, see Clegg (1989/2002).

"Rather than concentrate on simplistic single variable system-level analysis, the best work will continue to investigate (1) multiple determinants *within* the state actors and (2) *interactions* between these factors and identified features of the external setting" (Allison & Zelikow 1999, p. 404).

In line with the different principles for showing several dates, the above sources should be placed in the following way in the reference list:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST

Benhabib, Seyla, 2004/2002. *Jämlikhet och mångfald: Demokrati och medborgarskap i en global tidsålder.* The Claims of Culture: Equality and Diversity in the Global Era. Transl. Sven-Erik Torhell. Göteborg: Daidalos.

Clegg, Stewart, 1989/2002. *Frameworks of Power.* London: Sage.

Allison, Graham & Philip Zelikow, 1999 [1971]. *Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile Crisis.* New York: Longman.

The main principle with respect to referencing **the classics**, such as the ancient Greeks or the Bible, is that one does not specify the year or page reference, even for direct quotes, but that one provides as accurate information as is possible on the sub-section to which one refers.

EXAMPLE: REFERNCING WITHIN THE TEXT

Aristotle also dealt with the question on philosophy's value in the Nicomachean Ethics, where he wrote: "They can get no honour which will balance their services, but still it is perhaps enough, as it is with the gods and with one's parents, to give them what one can." (Aristotle, ninth book, sub-section 1).

If one has used a reprint or a collection edition, one ought to also give the information that will make it possible for the reader to find. It is however sufficient to give this information in the reference list:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST

Aristotle, 2009 [350 B.C.]. "The Nicomachean Ethics" in Halberg, Peter – Maria Jansson – Ulf Mörkenstam (ed.), *Tretton texter i politisk teori*, 2nd edition. Malmö: Liber, p. 29–45.

3.5.5 Anthologies and encyclopedias

Anthologies are collection volumes with one or more editors and chapters written by different authors. When one references a chapter in an anthology, one should provide the name of the author who wrote the chapter in the running text followed by the year of publication of the anthology and the page or pages to which the reference applies:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
The "remarkably few alternatives actually under debate" can be those that well suit society's cultural values. (Bosso 1994, p. 184–188, 199).

Bosso's text, which is referred to in the above example, is included as one of many chapters in an anthology edited by David A. Rochfort and Roger W. Cobb. In the reference list, it is information on Bosso's text that is provided, i.e. the author's name, the year of publication and the title of the text within quotation marks. After this information one writes "in", followed by information on the anthology in which it appears – name of the editor or, as here, the editors, followed by the abbreviation "ed" in parentheses, the title, plus the information on the place of publication and publisher. Finally one provides the page number within the anthology where the chapter is to be found:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
Bosso, Christopher J., 1994. "The Contextual Basis of Problem Definition" in David A. Rochefort & Roger W. Cobb (ed.) *The Politics of Problem Definition*. Lawrence, Kansas: University Press of Kansas, p. 182–203.

Articles in **encyclopedias** with specified authors are dealt with like articles in anthologies. This means that one references the author of the article in the text.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
"Social constructivism means that the concepts and classifications that constitute reality as a recognisable arrangement are the result of the social conventions which are expressed in and through linguistic behaviour, and that reality therefore is ultimately commanded by these conventions" (Bartelson 1997)

Anti-Semitic thinking was fairly widespread in Sweden in the 1920s and 1930s, but most of the attempts to build anti-Semitic parties were short-lived (Illman 2010).

If no date is given at the end of the article, the encyclopedia's year of publication is provided.

In the reference list one provides information on the text followed by information on the encyclopedia in the same way as for articles and anthologies. As with the title of an anthology article, the index word is placed within quotation marks after the author's name and date. Here there is therefore no point in providing the page number:

Additionally, if one has used an electronic encyclopedia, one provides the web address and the download date.

For encyclopedias on the Internet such as *Nationalencyklopedin* (The National Encyclopedia) in the above example, different editors are often responsible during different periods and for different sections. In these cases it can be difficult to know who the current editor is, and the information in such cases can be left out.

When an article in an encyclopedia lacks the name of the author, one references the encyclopedia and the index-word instead:

In the reference list, information is included on the title of the encyclopedia, year of publication, index-word, editor (if known), place of publication and publisher:

3.5.6 Public documents

Public documents such as laws, legislative proposals, investigative directives, reviews and reports of various kinds, published by parliament, the government, national authorities and other public bodies, are items that political scientists often have reason to refer to. The general rule with regard to such documents is that one refers to the type of document and the designation or sequential number, which makes it possible to identify the correct document. The reviews which are published within the framework of the **Statens Offentliga Utredningar** (=Public

Inquiries Office), abbreviated to SOU, and the directives given by parliament to these inquiries, one references appropriately in accordance with this principle. In the example below the Genetic Engineering review, *Genteknik – en utmaning* (Genetic Engineering – a challenge), is referenced with the designation SOU 1992:82:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
In the spring of 1990 the Ministry of Justice appointed a parliamentary committee with the task of producing a comprehensive overview of the use of genetic engineering (dir. 1990:16). The review, which emerged two years later however, only touched on previous genetic engineering pertaining to humans. This was because it was believed that the question concerning the use of genetic engineering on humans had already been investigated as a result of the new legislation in the field (SOU 1992:82, p. 185).

In the reference list this document is presented in the following way:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
Dir. 1990:16. *Frågor med anknytning till användning av genteknik.* Committee directive of the Ministry of Justice.

SOU 1992:82. *Genteknik – en utmaning* Genetic Engineering Advisory Council's review.

An alternative way to reference committee reviews is to reference the committee behind the review instead. Similarly one can reference a committee directive by referencing the initiator, i.e. the department who wrote the directive. Thus the above example would look like this in the running text:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
In the spring of 1990 the Ministry of Justice appointed a parliamentary committee with the task of producing a comprehensive overview of the use of genetic engineering (Ministry of Justice 1990) but the review that emerged two years later dealt predominantly with the genetics of animals and plants and only touched on applications of genetic engineering in humans (Genetic Engineering review 1992).

In the reference list one then places the Ministry's respective committee's name as the keyword:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
Ministry of Justice, 1990. *Frågor med anknytning till användningen av genteknik*. Dir. 1990:16. Committee Directive.
Genteknikberedningen, 1992. *Genteknik – en utmaning*. SOU 1992:82. Committee review.

Both of these forms of referencing signal that a document in a public inquiry is concerned and not a research report, but the first example also has the advantage that the designation is given directly in the text which makes it possible to find the right document; a Ministry produces numerous documents and a committee often produces several reviews during the period of the inquiry work. This is of less importance to the reader who also consults the reference list however, as sufficient information to make it possible to identify the correct document is always included there. Presentation in the reference list will therefore look

different depending on which referencing model one uses, because the keyword in the reference list must always be identical to the reference word in the text. It is however a good rule of thumb to always make it as simple as possible for the reader, we therefore recommend that references to public inquiries are constructed in accordance with the first example.

Laws always have a name such as the Freedom of Information Act and the Official Secrets Act, Education Act or the Genetic Integrity Act. Moreover laws are provided with a sequential number in the Svensk författningssamling (=Swedish Statutes) abbreviated to SFS, which is preceded by the date of the law, e.g. SFS 2006:351. When one makes reference to a law within the text, it is this SFS number that one provides:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
In the spring of 2006 the Swedish parliament voted through the new law on Genetic Integrity (SFS 2006:351).

In the reference list the SFS number is the index word followed by the name of the law.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
SFS 2006:351 *Lag om genetisk integritet m.m.*

Bills ("Propositioner" in Swedish, abbreviated to prop.) are designated with the parliamentary year during which they were produced plus a sequential number. When referencing bills this designation is provided plus a possible page number:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
The government also refers to Sweden's signing of the European Convention and that the ratification of this convention requires "legal regulation of the research ethics review" (prop. 2002/03:05, p. 87–88).

In the reference list one provides the bill's designation as the keyword, followed by the title:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
Prop. 2002/03:50. Etikprövning av forskning.

One treats **motions** in a similar way, where the combination of letters before the sequential number indicates to which committee the particular matter belongs:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
There is a worrying development, according to the members of Folkpartiet (The Liberal Party) that "children come to feel that they are born with the purpose of serving as donors for another individual" (mot. 2005/06:So21, p. 2).

Centerpartiet (The Centre Party), which suffered a disastrous election result in September 1998, tabled for the first time during the period for general motions, a motion on so-called digital public access rights (mot.1998/99:T808).

Note that the motions accompanying bills and motions tabled in the period for general motions are listed differently in the reference list:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS

Motion 2005/06:So21 by reason of prop. 2005/06:64 *Genetisk integritet*. Erik Ullenhag et al. (fp).

Motion 1998/99: T808. *En digital allemansrätt.*

The first of the examples above refers to an accompanying motion, the second example a motion written during the period for general motions.

One also references directives, statements, committee reviews and other types of public documents from parliament and the government by providing the documents designation, which normally comprises an abbreviation of the document's category, followed by the date and sequential number and where appropriate the committee membership. Here are examples of a **committee review** (bet.), a **departmental directive** (Ds) and a **parliamentary protocol** (prot.):

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

After the matter had been dealt with by the Education committee (bet. 2002/03:UbU18), parliament decided that a law on ethics review in research involving humans, would come into effect 1st January 2004.

All such research must according to the government's proposal be examined by a regional ethics review board, appointed by the government, before permission is given to commence. (Ds 2001:62, p. 6).

Moderaten (The Moderate party member) Bertil Persson also said in debate that it was "necessary to change the law", something he believed that everyone was in agreement on (prot. 1996/97:77, 1§, anf. 5).

In the first example no page number is provided, because it is the issue that has been dealt with by the Education Committee that is being referred to here rather than some individual phrase from within the review. The second example is referenced to the page in the departmental directive where the government's proposal may be read. The third example is referenced to the paragraph in the parliamentary protocol where the matter has been dealt with, and to the statement number (anf.).

In the reference list the designation becomes the index-word:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS

Bet. 2002/03: UbU18. *Etikprövning av forskning*. Education Committee's review.

Ds 2001:62. *Etikprövning av forskning som avser människor* Ministry of Education's memorandum.

Prot. 1996/97:77. Parliamentary protocol 12th March 1997.

When official documents from other countries and from the **European Union** are concerned, it is a general rule that in the references within the running text one also references the initiator, e.g. EU-Commission, date and possible page numbers. Just as with Swedish public documents, it is the specific reference situation which determines whether one references the initiator, or the document's designation. An example follows of references to documents from the EU-Commission and the EU-Parliament respectively:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

The aim of the initial Commission proposal was clearly to increase legitimacy and transparency in the decision-making process (EC 2000/0032(COD)).

The appointed Rapporteur, the Swedish Member of Parliament Maj-Lis Lööw, made an important contribution to the openness discussion with her initiative on transparency and freedom of information (EP 1998, A4-0476/98).

The EU-Commission has described experts as "key actors of governance" (EU-Commission 2001:2).

Regardless which model one chooses, what matters, is consistency in that the index-word in the reference list exactly matches the referencing within the text.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS

EC 2000/0032 (COD) = European Commission, 2000. "Proposal for a regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council regarding public access to European Parliament, Council and Commission documents". Brussels: European Commission.

EP A4-0476/98 = European Parliament, 1998."Preliminary report on openness and citizens' access to EU documentation", the Institutional Affairs Committee. Author: Maj-Liis Lööw.

EU-Commission, 2001. "Report of the Working Group 'Democratising Expertise and Establishing Scientific Reference Systems' ". Brussels: European Commission.

Public documents are often available electronically on the Internet and many wonder if in these cases one should reference the web address. It is feasible to give the web address where the document was found in the reference list (and in this case provide the download date). However this serves no purpose if the information on the document's designation is not supplied, since it is this that makes identifying the document possible. Whereas a web address indicates a database. To reference the web address only is similar to referencing that a document is available at certain libraries, or on a specific bookshelf. Besides the web address can quickly become obsolete.

3.5.7 Newspapers

Referencing articles in the press and daily newspapers mainly constitutes two different types of text, on the one hand news articles, reports and similar, and on the other hand opinion forming texts such as editorials, debate articles and letters to the editor. The general rule is that one references the contributor, which can either be a named writer or failing that the newspaper, and the time of publication. Normally the year is sufficient, but if one has many references to the same source, it would be appropriate to provide the date. The particular situation will dictate. In the example below, reference is made firstly to a newspaper article without a named author, and secondly to a signed editorial:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
According to an article in Dagens Nyheter (Swedish national broadsheet), many foreign berry-pickers have double contracts: one that guarantees a minimum wage, another in which they surrender their guaranteed wage (Dagens Nyheter 2010).

"The political oppressors in George Orwell's big-brother society would have rejoiced", writes Dagens Nyheter editorial column on the grounds of the amount of information on all of us that is easily available on Internet (Wolodarski 2010).

The above also applies if articles are downloaded from the Internet. The source is still the newspaper, and web addresses can quickly be out-dated. However it should be indicated in the reference list if the reference refers to an article on the Internet.

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS
Dagens Nyheter, 2010 "Bärbolag gör stora vinster" Newspaper article. 2010-08-14. [Electronic] http://www.presstext.se/online/display.php?set=S1&xid=DN201008140237059775. Download date 24-09-2010.

Wolodarski, Peter, 2010. "Förföljd av digitala fotspår" *Dagens Nyheter.* Editorial 15-08-2010.

It should also be apparent in the reference list which type of article the reference refers to.

3.5.8 Internet sources

The principle for referencing electronically transmitted information, which is downloaded from the Internet, is the same as for other sources: the contributor should be identifiable and the content of the reference should appear in identical form in the reference list. The contributor is the organisation which is behind the website, e.g. an authority or a party, and it is the name of this organisation that should be placed in parentheses. If one references different pages on the same website one should reference appropriately, by numbering them or by adding a, b, c etc.

Also with regard to the reference list, the same information should be provided as with other sources, i.e. author's name, year of publication and titles. Additionally the Internet address of the document should be given. Normally this means that one provides the document's URL-address, i.e. a direct link that makes it possible to retrieve the document in question. If the document is to be found low down in the file hierarchy, the relevant address can resultantly be several lines long. When this is the case it can thus be more practical to provide a shorter domain address, i.e. the address of the homepage from where one can find one's way to the document.

A problem with a URL address is that it can sometimes be temporary: a document can be moved within a website and thereby acquire a new address. This is another reason why it may sometimes be better to provide the website's portal address. This is one of those occasions when the thesis writer must trust his or her own judgement. However the guiding principle should always be to make it as simple as possible for the reader to retrieve the document in question.

As the data published on the Internet often has a shelf life, one must, as opposed to when dealing with books, articles and other printed material, also provide in addition to the year, the date the document was accessible.

The above example can be listed in the following way in the reference list:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS

Data Inspection 1 = Data Inspection Board's website, Questions and answers on social networks on the web. [Electronic] Available: http://www.datainspektionen.se/in-eng.pdf Download date: 24-09-2010.

Data Inspection 2 = Data Inspection Board's website. Questions and answers on social networks on the web. [Electronic] Available: http://www.datainspektionen.se/in-eng.pdf Download date: 24-09-2010.

A proportion of data that is found on the Internet is also published in printed form. This applies for example to journals and official print-outs from the government, parliament and public bodies. In this case it is primarily the printed source that should be listed (see sub-section 3.5.6).

For newspaper articles that are published both electronically and in printed form (which currently is the case for most of the journals that are available on various databases) it is primarily information on the printed version that is provided (see sub-section 3.5.1). A rationale for this is that the web address can change, for example if a new publisher takes over the publication of the journals.

If the web address is supplied (which is not necessary) information on the date of download must be included.

For articles and journals that are only published electronically, references should be made to the author of the article, the year and possible page number (or other location indicator) similar to referencing books or printed newspapers.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
> "Dreyfus and Dreyfus have offered a model of professional expertise that plots an individual's progression through a series of five levels: novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient, and expert" (Peña 2010, p. 1).

The difference between electronic and printed journals will first become apparent in the reference list.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS
> Peña, Adolfo, 2010. "The Dreyfus model of clinical problem-solving skills acquisition: a critical perspective", *Medical Education Online*, vol. 15, p. 1–11. [Electronic]. http://med-ed-online.net/index.php/meo/article/view/4846/pdf_3. Download date: 24-09-2010.

3.5.9   Verbal sources

When one references a verbal source, e.g. an interviewee, one should reference the person's surname and the date of the communication in parentheses. If it is not clear from the text in question that it is an interview, one can also add this in the parentheses.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
> Back to work from paternal leave, he found out that he had been displaced, which he saw as a punishment: Törnman states that they wanted to point out that a real miner doesn't change babies' nappies. There, he explained, began his first battle with the establishment, a battle which he subsequently won when he was given his normal duties back (Törnman 2003, interview).
>
> Member of Parliament Barbro Westerholm (fp) says in an interview that the Research Council's view on stem cell research was very well founded and had crucial significance for the decision. (Westerholm 2006).

The verbal source's surname functions as an index-word in the reference list, where more detailed information on the interviewee and the interview situation should be included. One should also detail the communication situation, and add that it deals with a telephone interview, a lecture or whatever other form of verbal communication has taken place. The capacity (e.g. position) the person furnishing the information holds and possible title should be provided, likewise the time that the information was conveyed.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LISTS
> Törnman, Lars, 2003. Initiator and founder of the Kirunapartiet in the Kiruna municipality.
> Interview 28th March 2003.
>
> Westerholm, Barbro (fp). Member of Parliament 1988–1999, 2006–. Member of the Social
> Committee 1994–1998, 2006–. Chairwoman of the Committee on Research Ethics. Member of the
> National Medical Ethics Council 2006–. Telephone interview 20th June 2006.

The amount of information that should be included on the interviewee will be determined by what is relevant in the context.

Sometimes the interviewee wishes to remain **anonymous**, which must of course be respected. There are various methods. If the interviewee does not want to have his or her name in the text and thus be associated with certain statements, one must compose one's text so that it is not possible to identify the person concerned.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
> A good decision, as one of the local politicians expressed it, "is of course when the result is what
> people want", no matter how it is achieved (interview).

In that variant the arrangement of the reference list is not affected, but one presents it in the same way as described above. If there are very few interviews done, there is a possibility that the initiated can nevertheless draw a conclusion as to who may have made certain statements. This is difficult to completely avoid, but the writer must to the best of his or her ability try to protect the identity.

Another variant is that the interviewee does not want his or her name to be included in the thesis at all. This could be if a person is giving sensitive information, that one as the author could not get in another way. This must always be weighed against the reduced inter-subjectivity, which will be the case when one cannot provide one's source. If despite this one decides to make use of the information that one has acquired from a totally anonymous source, then one must be even more diligent in how one formulates the text, and also consider the requirement of anonymity in the reference list. In extreme cases one may not be able to record the interviewees at all.

More often the person agrees to appear in the reference list without a name, but specifying their role (e.g. official) or position (e.g. manager). Another way to get around this is to number one's interviewees and in the text refer to interview 1, interview 2 etc. The record of these interviewees in the reference list can look like this for example:

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST
> Interview 1 = Municipal officer of a mid-sized Swedish town. Interview. 17th May 2007.
>
> Interview 2 = Manager within the state authorities. Telephone interview 19th May 2007.

3.5.10 TV, radio and film

Sometimes it can be pertinent to refer to what has been said on a TV or radio programme. On referencing within the text, one provides the programme's title (in italics), followed by the year:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

Mismanagement in geriatric care was the subject for a comprehensive debate, and was discussed in *Kalla fakta* (1999) as well as elsewhere.

In a radio debate on privatising care the participants raised strong arguments both for and against private hospitals (*Studio ett,* 2004).

If one has several references to broadcasts in one series of programmes, one also provides the date in the referencing within the text, so as to differentiate between the references.

In the reference list the programme's title (in italics) and the year (as well as possibly the date), followed by the TV or radio channel must be provided. If one has not already provided the date in the introduction to the reference, one writes the date of broadcast last:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST

Kalla fakta, 1999. "Vanskötsel i äldrevården" TV4, 14th October.

Studio ett, 2004. "Privata sjukhus" Swedish Radio, 11th February.

It can sometimes be pertinent to refer to films. Here too it is the title that will appear in the reference within the text, followed by the year:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT

Kay Pollack's film *Så som i himmelen* (2004) (As It Is in Heaven) was nominated for an Oscar in the Best Foreign Film category, but was never awarded an Oscar.

If one, as in this example, names the film in the text, one does not need to repeat it in parentheses.

In the reference list the film's title (in italics) and the year is the index, followed by the information that it is a film. Then the director, country of production and the film company are furnished:

EXAMPLE: REFERENCE LIST

Så som i himmelen, 2004 [film]. Dir: Kay Pollack. Sweden: GF Studios.

3.5.11 Third party references

Sometimes one has reason to make a third party reference, i.e. one has not read the source one is referring to oneself, but one is referring to what someone else has had to say on the source in question. When one makes reference to a third party source i.e. makes reference to what another has cited or referenced, it is that text that one has read oneself that one should refer to. In the reference within the running text this is shown by referring to the person who cited or referred to the source in question. In the example below the writer read a text by Steven Lukes, who in his turn has quoted Robert Dahl.

> EXAMPLE: REFERENCING WITHIN THE TEXT
> Dahl states that it is "a remarkable, even startling fact that neither professor Mills or professor Hunter have taken the trouble to conduct a number of case-studies to prove their hypotheses" (Dahl cited by Lukes 2008).

In the reference list, the aim of which is for the reader to be able to find and verify the source that the writer has used, there should consequently only be the source that one has read oneself indicated. In the example above, it is therefore Steven Lukes who is the source. In the reference list it is consequently the text by Lukes that should be indicated:

> EXAMPLE
> Lukes, Steven, 2008 [2004]. *Maktens ansikten*. Orig. title *Power: A Radical View*, trans. Henrik Gundenäs. Gothenburg: Daidalos.

There are at least two reasons for this arrangement. Firstly it has to do with scientific integrity – one may only refer to sources that one has actually read. Secondly it is about not being liable for possible errors in the source you have used.

3.5.12 Other types of document

There are several other types of document that are not covered by the examples above. It is general that in the references in the running text one should provide such information as is needed for the reader to easily find the source in the reference list, and that in the reference list one gives sufficient information for the reader to identify and find the actual source. It is therefore very important that the referencing within the text correlates with the index-word in the reference list, so that the reader can identify the correct source. For certain types of document it can however be difficult to know exactly what information should be included. If one is unsure, it is therefore better to include too much rather than too little. Here finally follows guidance on what applies to some specific types of document that may be present in a political science research paper.

Whether a book is a doctoral thesis or a report of conference proceedings, is important information for the reader. It relates the content's level, relevance, reliability and quality but also the possibility to access the document. It is therefore important that such information is in the references. **Doctoral** and **licentiate theses** should have the information on the university where the examination was taken. You use the abbreviation diss. for a doctoral or licentiate thesis.

EXAMPLE

Erlingsson, Gissur Ó, 2005. *Varför bildas nya partier? Om kollektivt handlande och partientreprenörer*. Diss. Lund: Department of Political Science, Lund University.

Nilsson, Joakim, 2004. *Offentlighetens tribunal: Drevkarlar och demokrati.* Diss. Lund: Department of Political Science, Lund University.

Conference proceedings are collected volumes, often in book-form, where the lectures from conferences and seminars are published. To be able to identify the correct conference, the time and place of the conference should be included, likewise the year of publication and the year of the conference. When one references a conference contribution one refers to a section of a book, and deals with it as with an anthology contribution (see sub-section 3.5.5). Sometimes such contributions are published in journals and are then dealt with as straightforward journal articles. In this case the information on the conference venue and conference year is a service to the reader and not necessary for finding the correct publication.

EXAMPLE

Herget, Josef, 1992. "Towards a dynamic approach to information marketing" in *Teknologi och kompetens* (Technology and Expertise) Proceedings of the 8th Nordic Conference on information and documentation, 19–21 May 1992, Helsingborg, p. 163–168.

Watson, Ian, 1998. "Internet, intranet, extranet: the hype and the hope". based on a contribution at the TLS Autumn Conference 1997. *Tidskrift för dokumentation,* (Journal for documentation) vol. 53, number 1, p. 1–7.

Reports nearly always appear in a report series. It is important the series information is present:

EXAMPLE

Karlsson, Boris, 1996. *Begreppsmodellering: ett stöd vid perspektivförändring*. Borås studies in information systems: 6. Borås: University, School of business and IT.

Pettersson, Rune, 2001. *Trovärdiga bilder*. Report from the Swedish National Board of Psychological Defence: 180. Stockholm: Swedish National Board for Psychological Defence.

There are two kinds of **unpublished work**. Companies, organisations, authorities and associations often publish reports, compendiums, information etc. intended

solely for internal use. Such documents have the phrase "unpublished manuscript" after the title. The other type of documents are manuscripts which have not yet been published but have gone to print. In this case the term "gone to print" is used.

EXAMPLE

Selme, Anna, 1998. *Databaser – sökteknik – referenser: en lathund från biblioteket.* Unpublished manuscript. Borås: University library.

Björkdahl, Annika (gone to print). "Building Peace – Normative and Military Power in EU Peace Operations" in Richard Whitman (ed.) *Normative Power Europe: Empirical and Theoretical Perspectives.* London: Routledge.

Finally a few words on the use of **pictures** in theses. Pictures are not very common in political science theses, but sometimes one may choose to illustrate one's reasoning or for some other reason have a picture in one's thesis. Here it is important to check that it is permitted to use the picture in this way, otherwise as the author of the thesis one may be liable. The easiest way is to use pictures from websites that permit free downloading e.g. Wikipedia Commons (http://commons.wikimedia.org/).

4   Thesis design

This chapter contains guidance on the components of the thesis and its exterior form – typography. The work involved in achieving a well-executed text, can in certain respects resemble the work involved in building a house. In both cases one must start by clarifying for oneself what sort of product is to be produced, what it will be used for and who will use it. This initial operation and its importance to the whole writing process have already been addressed. Then the actual construction is to formulate a plan, select appropriate material and give it a form such that the finished product is as pleasing and functional as possible.

In the question of thesis typography there are several alternatives that can be equally functional. At the same time both the reader and the writer would benefit if a standard in the field were established. This is the reason that journals for example give very precise instructions on the typographic design of the contributions to be published. Instructions are rules that must be followed by the thesis writer. The instructions below are an adaptation to this situation, and should be seen as the nominal standard for theses at the Department of Political Science at Lund. Students at other institutions and/or universities should ask advice of their thesis director so that these instructions do not conflict with local regulations.

An easy way to assure oneself that a thesis is coherent and correctly formulated is to work with the Department of Political Science template for thesis writers. The thesis template is based on a Word template and contains pre-settings that follow the typographic guidelines presented below. We therefore recommend that thesis writers download the thesis template from the institution's homepage and write their thesis text within this framework. The teaching material that you are now reading is printed from this guideline and can therefore serve as a typographic model.

4.1   Components of the thesis

Here we describe the various components that comprise a thesis, in part the text itself and what it contains, and in part the elements that make a text into a thesis. We deal with items such as title, reference list, abstract and much more, which together contribute to making the text into more than just a text.

4.1.1   The text

The **main text** of the thesis should report the conditions, implementation and results of the work. This should be done in such a way that the reader gains on the one hand clarification on how the work relates to previous scientific research, and on the other the opportunity to check the work that was carried out. To be able to meet this basic requirement the author of the thesis should:

- present the political science problem to be investigated
- report previous research into the problem
- identify the purpose of the thesis, i.e. which aspects of the problem will be dealt with by the thesis in question (which questions will be answered)
- present this or the political science theory, which is the starting point for the work
- report the methods and the motivation for them
- report the principles for data collection
- report and analyse the collected data and present the results of the investigation
- draw conclusions and discuss them
- present proposals for continued research within the field

The above list should not however be followed slavishly. Research theses within the subject of political science can be of very different characters, and therefore it is not possible to give general recommendations on obligatory components. How one presents a thesis and which components it should contain are dependent on the subject's nature and the character of the assignments. The discerning author cuts out of the above list that which is not relevant to the particular situation, and perhaps has to add to it things that appear to be important in meeting the basic requirements of the thesis.

In accordance with the tradition that has been developed for the scientific thesis, the different components are presented for the most part in the order given above. In recent years however there has been some criticism of this disposition. Critics have suggested that researchers hide the text's treasure, i.e. the result of the investigation, until the end and weary the reader with lengthy descriptions of that which is not especially interesting. They have instead recommended a disposition in accordance with what is called the banner headline model. This means that, in the way journalists do, one begins with the most interesting, and allows the rest to come in order of diminishing interest.

Something can certainly be said for this criticism in the sense that it is never good to weary one's reader. But a couple of objections can still be made. The traditional disposition is basically chronologically structured and as such is easy to follow and find one's way around. If this disposition is clearly marked then the readers are able to find their own way to the passages in which they are most interested. They will already have formed an idea of which ones these are from the summarising thesis abstract (see below). Nonetheless something that the thesis author would do well to consider and spend some time on, is making the introduction to the thesis appealing to the reader.

The disposition of a thesis must be adapted to the specific situation. What theses writers must always ensure is that the elements of the thesis relate in a logical manner. The objective must be linked to the problem that has been formulated. Theories, methods and the principles of data collection must be used to meet the objective. The final results must be such that the objective is met and that the problem that was formulated at the beginning becomes clarified.

The introductory chapter is an important part of the thesis. Here the author should in part arouse the reader's interest for the subject, and in part present the aim of the work and how it is structured. A well-structured and well-written introduction is not just there for the sake of the reader but also is of great use to the author himself during the creative process. It is therefore that which is stated in the introduction that will direct the on-going work. In *appendix 4* some good examples of introductions to theses are given.

An equally important part of a thesis is the final chapter. Here the author should draw together the threads from the different analysis sections of the thesis and present a comprehensive answer to the initially formulated problems or issues. In addition to drawing conclusions, the author ought to discuss and problematize the analysis results in a broader perspective. There can for example be proposals for continued research within the field or a discussion on the possibility to generalise from the thesis results. There is a significantly higher demand placed on the skill to discuss and problematize conclusions in a thesis at a higher level of study than one at a lower level.

4.1.2   The components that make a text into a thesis

For a text to be something more than just any text, or in other words to make a text into a thesis, requires a number of components beyond just the text itself. Following the main text is a **reference list**, i.e. a list of the scientific works and other material that the author has referred to in the main text. There are a number of different principles for creating such a list, and an author of a thesis must always be prepared to adapt to the norms that apply to that particular situation. The guidance that applies to theses in political science at Lund University is presented in more detail in chapter 3

There should be as an introduction to the actual thesis text, a **list of contents**. This fulfils the role of giving the reader an overview of the heading system in the text and thus also a breakdown of how the text is constructed. It should be structured so as to make it easy for the reader to find what they are looking for in the text. The list should include all the headings in the subsequent thesis (therefore also the list of references and possibly appendices) and moreover give the page on which they are found. Before you submit your thesis, check thoroughly that you have all the headings, that the page numbers tally and that the headings in the list and those in the text are completely identical in their linguistic form. The typography of the contents list should be such that the reader can easily understands how the different headings relate to each other. For closer discussion on this and on formulating headings, see section 2.3 on the linguistic form of headings and section 4.2 on their typography.

The **title** of the thesis should be formulated so that it clearly shows what the thesis is about. A common way to formulate the title is to have a short main title and a longer, descriptive subtitle. The title functions as a screening tool for the potential reader, and no matter whether one chooses to have a subtitle or not, it is important to keep in mind that the title should also be comprehensible for those

who have not read the thesis and only see the title e.g. in a database. Presented in section 4.2 is how the thesis title page should be formulated. An example of a title page is given in *appendix 1*.

Immediately after the title page comes a page with what is called the **abstract** (short summary) of the content of the thesis. This summary is a very important part of the thesis. This is the text the reader first meets, and it is this that in many cases determines whether the rest will be read or not. The aim of an abstract in itself is that those who have the thesis to hand can quickly decide if it is of interest to them. A good abstract should therefore summarise all the essential information on the study in question. The reader wants to know what the subject matter is, what theories, methods and types of data have been used, and above all what results the author of the thesis considers have been reached. To present this in a precise way requires a great deal of consideration. It will not do to edit together several sentences from the main text of the thesis; rather the text of the abstract must be formulated from its own merits. Note that the character of this introductory abstract differs significantly from the summary of the thesis results, which is normally found in the final chapter of the thesis (see section 4.6). Directly after the abstract the keywords are given and the length of the thesis in a word count (see section 4.6).

A Master's theses should – in addition to the abstract – contain what is known as an Executive Summary. This should be 1,200-2,000 words and be inserted after the main text and immediately before the reference list.

In addition to these obligatory elements, a thesis can also contain other components specifically required of a particular situation. It can sometimes be warranted to have for example **lists** of the abbreviations that are used in the thesis, or of tables etc. In this case these should be placed between the list of contents and the main text. This is also appropriate for maps.

The documentation of work that is too detailed or space consuming to leave in the main text but which is still needed for the reporting to be complete, can be placed in the **appendices**. Appendices are numbered, and their pages numbered, preferably consecutively along with the rest of the thesis. A general rule is that there is always a reference for each appendix somewhere in the main text (otherwise there is a risk that the reader completely misses the fact that an appendix exists). Appendices are placed last in theses and are not given chapter numbers.

In academic papers a **preface** is very common. This is placed before the actual text (i.e. immediately after the list of contents). It is written initially to thank those who were of particular help in the work and is the only time in a scientific text where the author has the opportunity to touch on personal relationships. In a thesis however the preface has virtually no purpose. Possible thanks can instead go in a footnote on the first page of the main text.

4.2   Indicating the building blocks of content

A thesis is generally quite a demanding text content wise for the reader. The people the text is aimed at are certainly both experienced readers and knowledgeable professionals, but they are also often people with limited time. If one wants to succeed with these readers one ought therefore to formulate the text in a way that they can quickly and effortlessly orientate themselves, and easily find what they are looking for in the text.

The well-constructed text comprises a series of content building blocks of different sizes, and indicates which are which by using clear typographic signals. The smallest content building block is the graphic **sentence**, i.e. the portion of text introduced with a capital letter and concluded with a forceful punctuation mark (full stop, question mark or exclamation mark). The sentence is an important unit when we read. We assume that every sentence contains a complete thought and some new content is introduced when a new sentence begins. When that pattern is broken, it disturbs the reader. (See also section 2.3.5 on sentence construction.)

The next unit on the content scale is the **paragraph**. This normally comprises several sentences, each of which share a mutual content. The paragraph can be indicated in two different ways, either with a blank line or with an indentation from the left-hand margin. We recommend that you use indentation from the left-hand margin. Above all: never combine these two principles in your text! Recommendations on the paragraphs in political science theses can be summarised thus:

- Divide your text into paragraphs in order to tell the reader how the sentences are related to each other.
- Consider the sentence as one type of unit and the paragraph as another. It is therefore only justified in exceptional circumstances that a single sentence constitutes a paragraph.
- Indicate new paragraphs with indentation. Never begin just with a new line. If the previous sentence happens to fill the previous line it will thus appear that no new paragraph has begun.
- The indentation should be large enough that it creates an empty rectangle at the start of the line, of at least 0.5 cm. Following headings, tables, examples and configurations of various kinds, where the text has of course been preceded by a blank line; there should never be indentation.
- A pleasing way to formulate the paragraph for the reader is to allow one sentence to summarise the content (often the first or possibly the last sentence in the paragraph). In the following example the introductory sentence functions in this way:

Only a small portion of the information that the mass media and journalists utilise is based on their own direct presence and observation of events, or situations that they chose to note (Hvitfelt – Mattson 1992, p. 137). For most of the media, the news agencies are the most common suppliers of international news (Hadenius – Weibull 1993, p. 249). Another method the press utilise to cover international events, are overseas correspondents. Yet a further method for the press and others to gather information is to use the article services that are offered by the large broadsheet newspapers, such as those in the USA and Great Britain. This supply of articles also functions internationally and as such can be used by the Swedish press for example.

The next unit up on the scale of content blocks we can call a **sub-section.** A sub-section normally comprises several paragraphs and can be identified typographically in different ways. In political science theses it is common to use sub-headings, i.e. headings that are placed on a line of their own between paragraphs in the running text. When one writes longer texts one may need even larger blocks than a sub-section: a **section** or **chapter**. In this case these also contain sub-headings. This means that a text can have headings of different levels.

For there to be some purpose to the sub-headings, there must be more than one heading on the same level. This is how it should not look (an example taken from an actual contents list):

EXAMPLE
2. The international flow of television
    2.1 Import and export of TV programmes
        2.1.1 Films and fictional programmes on TV
    2.2 Why is the flow unbalanced?
    2.3 TV-flows effect on culture
        2.3.1 Different approaches to studying effect

Headings 2.1.1 and 2.3.1 are considered quite unnecessary to the contents list. Their content seems to be covered by heading 2.1 and 2.3 respectively as no other sub-heading exists in these sections. What the author can do here is either add further sub-headings at the lowest level, or drop the headings on the lowest level:

SUGGESTION
2. The international flow of television
    2.1. Import and export of TV programmes
        2.1.1 Films and fictional programmes on TV
        2.1.2 TV viewing in Sweden and other countries
    2.2. Why is the flow unbalanced?
    2.3 TV-flows effect on culture
        2.3.1 Different approaches to studying effect
        2.3.2 Effects in other parts of the world

2. The international flow of television
    2.1 Import and export of TV programmes
    2.2 Why is the flow unbalanced?
    2.3 TV-flows effect on culture

Whichever alternative is appropriate in each individual case must be determined by what is actually in the text.

A thesis should therefore be equipped with a system of sub-headings of up to three **levels of heading**. This can be formulated according to what is known as the decimal system with a number for the chapter heading, two numbers for section headings and three for sub-section headings. As the headings are written in different sizes dependent on the level, the numbers at the section headings and the sub-section headings can be omitted without losing clarity. When the body of the text is written in size 12 font (as here) it is appropriate to use the following font sizes for the different headings: chapter heading size 24 font, section heading size 18 font, sub-section size 14 font.

In the Department of Political Science template for thesis writers there are three pre-set heading levels. If you work with this you can thus easily organise the thesis headings in a consistent way. (The pre-set headings make it further possible to automatically create an accurate content's list for the thesis.)

Chapters should always start on a new page, and chapter headings should be followed by five blank lines. Other headings to be preceded by two blank lines and followed by one blank line. All the blank lines should have the same spacing as the body of the text, i.e. size 15 font. After sub-headings one should not have any punctuation – no full stops, no colons. The only exception is if the heading is formulated as a question. Then it is closed with a question mark.

These recommendations on heading typography apply to headings within the text. When one reproduces the **heading system in the contents list** one can simplify the typography and instead indicate the different heading levels by indentation. In *appendix 3* there is an example of an attractive typographic contents list. Also see the contents list to this booklet. In the Department of Political Science thesis template are pre-sets that make it easy to produce an accurate and well-structured content's list.

Finally a general word of warning on the building blocks we have been talking about: Do not make them too small! It is a fact that a text with long on-going sentences, long paragraphs etc. is hard for the reader to get into. A number of writers resultantly conclude that the shorter the sentences one writes and the shorter the paragraphs one creates, the better the text. This however is not the case. Short units break up the content too much and make it difficult for the reading to flow. The same problem occurs if the paragraphs are short and the headings are tripping over each other in the text. In introductions to theses one sometimes sees very short spaces between headings, this is because the thesis writer has put a new heading for each item in the contents template (e.g. purpose, issues, limitations). The text benefits from one avoiding such fragmentation of content that belongs together. If one wants to avoid headings that are too tight but also clarify for the reader that the presentation has several different elements, one can indicate keywords in the body of the text in some way. So it is done in this section for example where the keywords have been written in bold, e.g. **sentence, paragraph** and **sub-section**.

4.3   Typography of the text

The first impression of a text is important. Even before the recipient has started to read, the typographic formulation of the text gives signals that direct their perception of the text and with that, also of the author. Before the time of computerisation, there were within most professional fields, skilled secretaries who saw to it that even a sloppy manuscript was given a neat and attractive form. Those days are now gone, and even political scientists must be prepared to take on the typographic responsibility for their text.

The guidance is in most cases relatively general and therefore can be adapted to the word-processing programme that you use:

- Size of font should be 12 in font style Times or similar. (Be aware that font sizes can differ in different font styles – font size 12 New Century Schoolbook is equivalent to font size 14 Times for example.)
- Side margins should be about the same width and approximately 3.5 cm each.
- Line spacing should be font size + 25% i.e. in this case font size 15. The correct line spacing is pre-set in the Department of Political Science template. (If you are not working with it you must set the line spacing to font size 15 yourself. The drop-down menu alternatives found in the word-processing programme do not offer the correct line spacing).
- Above and below the text there should be space of approximately 2.5 cm.
- Page numbers should be placed at the bottom of the page and be centred. Page numbers begin on the first sheet after the cover, but one does not usually put in page numbers before the actual body of the text begins.
- The body of the text should have a straight right-hand margin (use the word-processing programme's drop-down menu alternative for straight left and right margins). This means that you must hyphenate the text; otherwise the results will not be good.

In modern word-processing programmes there is a long series of typographical features to access to indicate something one wants to highlight in a text. But one should not combine different techniques, this gives an ugly and disturbing impression. Here simplicity and consistency is a virtue. One should initially use *italics* to indicate individual words in the text. (If one needs to use two different ways of indicating words in the text, one can supplement with **bold**.) It is very inappropriate to use <u>underscoring</u> and CAPITALISING (upper-case letters). Underscoring becomes aesthetically unattractive in most font type, and contrary to what one may think, capitalised text is more difficult to read than text in lower-case letters. In that all capitals are of equal size – there are no strokes that extend above or below the line (as for instance with the small letters b, d, k, t and g, j and p) – so the individual words become harder for the reader to quickly understand. Moreover it does not show clearly where a new sentence begins.

4.4   Tables, diagrams and figures

Tables and diagrams can fulfil both a pedagogical and an analytical function in a thesis. Presenting a long series of figures in running text is not good – the reader quickly loses orientation. If one wants to report information on for example the size of the different ethnic groups in the five new states in Central Asia, which were formed after the fall of the Soviet Union, or the size of the Swedish foreign aid 1990–2000, tables or diagrams are excellent pedagogical aids. The reader gets a complete report of the data at the same time as the thesis writer needs only to emphasise and supplement in the text, the information that is significant for the analysis. If the thesis is built on quantitative primary data, such as surveys or newspaper articles, which the author has personally collected and analysed, then tables and diagrams are also a mode of documenting and reporting new empirical data.

Use of figures in the thesis has a primarily pedagogical function. The author can facilitate a great deal for the reader (and for him or herself) by illustrating for example a theoretical model or an organisational structure with a figure.

All modern word-processing programmes have additional functions with the help of which one can create simple tables, diagrams and figures directly in the text.

A general rule is that tables, diagrams and figures are never self-explanatory. They must always be supplemented with descriptions, comments and analyses in the running text.

Tables, diagrams and figures should always be clearly separated from the running text in the thesis. The following is guidance on how they should be designed:

- Tables, diagrams and figures should always be furnished with numbers (preferably arranged by chapter, e.g. Figure 1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2 etc.) and carefully explained in the heading:

EXAMPLE
Table 1.1 Female representation in the Swedish parliament 1950–2010 (percentage)

- If you draw information for a table, a diagram or a figure from another work, the source must always be acknowledged. This applies even if you yourself have re-worked the original information. The reference is given directly below the table, diagram or figure:

EXAMPLE
Source: Sannerstedt 1994, p. 76.

(See chapter 3 for a more detailed description of how one uses references in scientific presentations.)

- As to the font in tables, diagrams and figures, you can either use the same as the rest of the text or what is known as a linear font (e.g. Helvetica or Avant Garde). In both cases the size of the font should be smaller than that in the body of the text.
- To clearly separate the tables, figures and diagrams from the running text, they must always be preceded by a blank line and followed by a blank line. It may also be to one's advantage to have a solid line above and below each table.)

In *appendix 5* you will find some good examples of how tables, diagrams and figures can be presented in the thesis.

4.5   Title page

The thesis should be provided with a title page. This should contain on the one hand information on where and in what context the text is produced, and on the other hand information on the text itself. This information is presented as follows (example from the Department of Political Science in Lund):

EXAMPLE	
Lund University	Course (e.g. STVA21)
Department of Political Science	Term (e.g. Autumn 2010)
	Supervisor: Name
	Title of the thesis
	Author

In *appendix 1* an example of a title page that follows these guidelines is given.

4.6   Abstract

The following guidelines apply to abstracts in different types of theses. In theses at undergraduate level the abstract should be 100–150 words. It is written in the same language as the rest of the thesis, (i.e. normally the mother-tongue of the author). Higher-level theses have the abstract written in English of 150–200 words. In *appendix 2* an example is given of abstracts from theses at different levels. (For information on the objective of an abstract and what it should contain, see sub-section 4.1.2.) In relation to the abstract, five keywords are specified. The keywords make it possible to find the thesis in the database LUP. It is therefore important that they effectively cover the content of the thesis. In the line under the keywords the length of the thesis is given, expressed as a word count.

4.7 Thesis length

How long a thesis needs to be naturally depends partly on how comprehensive and complicated the research assignment is. At the same time it must be strongly stressed that the quality of the thesis is not achieved by the number of pages but rather by what is written on the pages.

There are several reasons for limiting the length of theses. Firstly, the ability to limit is a quality criterion. Everyone who has ever tried to write a report, a letter to the editor or a thesis, knows that it is much easier to write at length than concisely. The differentiation between theses at different levels has nothing to do with length, rather the quality of the content: at higher levels there are higher demands for example on independent analytical skills and theoretical approach.

Secondly, limitation is important with reference to the situation in the thesis seminar. Neither the examiner nor student colleagues can be expected to have unlimited time at their disposal when the theses are being dealt with and judged in seminars.

Thirdly, it is an accommodation to reality outside the world of academia. Most who write in their professions meet similar limitation requirements. Not even an established researcher can come to a journal with a fifty page manuscript and expect it to be published; most political science journals do not accept contributions over 25 pages.

Proceeding from the previously presented guidance on the text's typography, the rules for the length of a thesis can be summarised as a maximum of allowable words and the corresponding number of pages of text. The guidance obviously depends on which institution or which educational establishment you study in. At the Department of Political Science in Lund the upper limit is **10,000 words, which equates to approximately 25 pages**. A corresponding lower limit does not exist, but it is generally expected that as the thesis writer one should have good reason not to use the allocated space. Check the requirements of your thesis coordinator or your own institution's regulations to get appropriate guidance

To conform to international standards for a Master's thesis would require that this should be a maximum **20,000 words, which equates to approximately 50 pages**.

A standard page of text is assumed to contain about 400 words. A thesis of 25 pages of text thus normally contains 10,000 words. (This can vary somewhat dependent on how many headings, tables and figures there are in the text.) The simplest and best way to count the length of the thesis text is to use the word and character statistic function found in modern word-processing programmes. This way you can be absolutely certain that your count is accurate. A more approximate method is to physically count the number of full pages of text in the thesis manuscript. (Discount blank sections of page at the start of chapters.)

5 The art of speaking

When one speaks in front of an audience there are certain conditions which are unique to this particular situation and which affect how one prepares oneself and how one formulates one's speech. Making a speech does not mean picking up one's thesis and reading it - if you did, it would be asking a lot of the audience to stay with you and stay awake! The difference between expressing yourself in speech and expressing yourself in text, relates mainly to the fact that our memory functions differently when we read than to when we listen. Conditions vary.

When we listen to someone who is explaining something or giving a speech, we listen to an acoustic signal. If that signal is not strong enough it can result in us not comprehending all that is being said. Talking too quickly or too slowly can also affect how the content is understood. Additionally the signal, unlike written text, is transient. Which means that as soon as something is said, it is gone. If something proves to be hard to understand when we read an essay, we can always go back and read it again, or take a pause to think about the content. The listening public can pose questions only when the speech is over, and furthermore they cannot decide upon the tempo. Nor can they go off to look something up that is not clear.

In other words, an oral presentation makes totally different demands on disposition, clarity and coherence, as the limitations imposed by the time and the place mean that the audience cannot influence their own understanding in the same way as by reading.

5.1 Preparation

The preparations prior to an oral presentation do not differ greatly from the preparations prior to a written project. Just as when one prepares a text, one considers the mode of communication, *who* says *what* to *whom, why, when, where* and *how*. In addition one needs to organise one's time and check out the venue in which one is going to speak.

5.1.2 The sender and the receiver

When one prepares an oral presentation, it is most often the public one has to try to identify. Who will be seated in the audience, what will they have in the way of existing knowledge, what level of language can the speaker use? These are important questions which require answers if the speech is to be successful. If on the one hand one proffers material and a linguistic level that is above the public's comprehension, the point will be lost. Should one on the other hand deliver one's message in a way that is over simplified in relation to the public's existing knowledge, the speaker risks trivialising their message and underrating their

public. In other words one must ask oneself whether the public is made up of novices or experts. One should also ask oneself if they are already interested in the subject or whether one must win them over.

The sender's role also needs to be analysed. In what capacity is the speaker there? In short, everyone has more than one role: each person is somebody's child, partner, sibling, friend, class-mate, neighbour. Perhaps one is also an expert in certain things and a novice in others. Those who are going to speak in public must decide which role they are going to play, and how that role relates to the public.

5.1.3 Organising material and time

There are a series of different outline principles for both speaking and writing. If one writes an essay, there is, as a rule, a strict disposition one must adhere to – such is presented in this booklet. There are also of course recommendations of different kinds for oral speech. One summarises the basics by the device "say what you are going to say – say it – say what you have said". In more detail it looks like this:

INTRODUCTION   In the introduction the speaker gives an example or a taster of what the speech will be about, to give the public a notion of what they will experience. It is here that one also wants to capture the public's interest. This is done for example, by relating something that enthuses, moves or relates to the public's own experience.

EXAMPLES
- If you speak about abuse of human rights, you can open by putting a face to, and giving an explanation of, a particular case by showing a picture and relating someone's life story.
- If you speak about a lack of safety in amusement parks, you can open by recounting the most recent year's media reports about, for example, The Liseberg Amusement Park visitors who were trapped at the top of the roller coaster. Such an introduction can be formulated thus: "Do you remember last year when the newspapers read...."

The introduction is concluded by the speaker explaining specifically what he or she has recounted. The public should not have to guess what the introduction is illustrating.

EXAMPLES
- "This is just one of the many abuses of human rights that are committed every day"
- "In actual fact only a handful of amusement park incidents are ever reported to the public."

OBJECTIVE   Following the introductory example, it is good to simply relate what one is there to talk about. The most significant result, conclusion or a short contents list works here.

EXAMPLES
- "I am here to talk about abuse of human rights. We will look at global statistics and discuss some of the worst trouble spots right now. We will look at how really serious abuses have increased in recent years, but that media coverage in the same period has decreased."
- "I will speak about three things today. By way of introduction I will show you the accident report statistics from Swedish amusement parks. Thereafter I will discuss what is defined as an accident. Finally I will say something about what this means in terms of safely in amusement parks today."

Do not hesitate to disclose the conclusion or the most important results this early. It can feel as if one is revealing too much too soon, as if the murderer is exposed on page one, so to speak. It is undeniable that through anticipating your report results, you remove some of the suspense. But in return, the public knows what awaits them and find it easier to understand why you are saying what you are saying. Explaining early what the speech relates to, also avoids certain problems of interaction in real time.

REPORTING   This should be the most comprehensive part of the speech. It is here the speaker gets the chance to lay out the words and deliver his message.
- In a scientific speech one should name theory, method and data, but the lions share of the space should be given over to the discoveries you have made.
- If alternatively the speech is a disputation, you present your arguments. Firstly the second strongest argument, then the weakest, finishing with the strongest argument.

SUMMARY   In the summary the speaker refers again to the objective of the speech, as well as the most important results or the strongest arguments.

There is nearly always, when one makes an oral presentation, a time limit one must stick to. Therefore it can be difficult to include everything one would like to say on one's subject. This is why the work on the disposition and on sifting, becomes a central part of the preparation. Try to decide which are the most important points and what is more peripheral information. It is generally sufficient to choose three main items to focus on. Remember that it is not only the time that can run out: the public's attention is also limited.

It can be difficult to decide how much material one can include and there is no

rule of thumb either with regard to how many words one can get in per minute; every speaker has his own tempo. If additionally one uses pauses to emphasise something or let the public have a moment to look at an illustrating slide, it becomes even harder to judge the passage of time. The only sure way to test how long a speech takes is to practice giving it. One can stand in front of the mirror or ask friends and family to be the public.

5.1.4 The venue

Preparation is not complete with the writing of the speech. When one is at the location and the time has come to give the speech, there is still one important detail: the venue. No matter how well one has prepared oneself, the whole thing can fall apart if it turns out that one has prepared a presentation that requires a computer projector, but this is lacking in the venue. Even details, such as speaking from a podium that is reached by a stair, can be a problem if today one has chosen a skirt that is tight around the knees. If the venue is so large that a microphone is required, it is important to check that the batteries are charged.

If one does not have the opportunity to visit the venue oneself prior to the speech, one can contact the personnel responsible for it. In this way one can request technical items and get information on the lay-out of the venue.

5.2 The presentation

The presentation consists of several parts. One part is of course the speaker actually giving the speech. But it is also about learning one's speech and choosing whether one will use visual aids.

5.2.1 Eye contact, gestures and nervousness

Many think public speaking is unpleasant. There is even research that shows that this is the thing that for example, Swedish people are most afraid of. Not even death scares them more.

If one is nervous about standing in front of a public, it is easy to fall into the trap of trying to appear as small as possible so that no one sees you. One draws up one's shoulders, stands far back from the audience, speaks with a weak voice and avoids eye contact. No matter how one tries one does not of course become invisible using these methods. The only thing that happens is that one's nervousness is obvious and one loses contact with the audience.

Some tips for relaxing and establishing contact with the public:

- Be there in good time. If you are to speak in front of a large audience, it is less frightening if you see people arriving one at a time, than if you step into a

packed venue where everyone is simultaneously looking at you.

- Breath deeply. Allow yourself a couple of seconds to gather your thoughts and let the public go quiet before you start to speak.
- Stand tall and let your shoulders drop. If you pull your shoulders up to your ears, you tense yourself and appear stressed.
- Settle your body weight evenly over both legs and have your feet approximately 30 cm apart. It is often better to stand up than to sit down; it looks more engaging. If the venue is very small however, this can look threatening – then it is better to sit.
- Let your gaze sweep across the public. Do not be scared of looking the audience in the eye and do not look at the walls behind them either. You want eye contact, not just for the public's sake but also for your own. If you cannot see how your listeners react, how will you then know if they understand what you are saying? In near enough every audience, there is someone who has had a bad day or would rather be somewhere else. It is pointless to try to catch that person's eye or to try to get approval from them. It is precisely under that person's gaze that one becomes nervous. Instead, before you start to talk, choose two or three people in different positions in the venue, that you think look sympathetic. Use them for support during your speech and let your gaze return to them.
- Remember it is you who are the expert in your subject. You alone have prepared your speech and worked with the subject for some time. Not the public. You have something to teach them.
- Practice. Practice, practice and practice again. The timing, tone and gestures. Ask someone to comment and tell you if you are doing things that can draw attention away from what you want to convey, like ending every sentence with "and so...", leafing noisily through your papers or fiddling with your hair.

If you think it is uncomfortable to speak in front of a public, there is only one thing that will reduce the discomfort: prepare thoroughly. The more preparation and the more public speaking one does, the stronger one becomes in the situation. One takes control over one's speech by, for example, measuring how long it takes to present and by really knowing what one is talking about. The most important thing is that one is oneself and uses one's own resources.

5.2.2   Notes or manuscript

A practical aspect of the presentation is the choice between free speech and using a script. There are advantages and disadvantages with both methods. If one chooses free speech or the use of notes only as back-up, one will certainly sound unconstrained and spontaneous, but will risks having the problem of losing one's place. If one chooses instead to speak from a script, one risks being tied to what has been written and it sounding like written language, but conversely one will have all the details there if one should be nervous.

NOTES	• Can give an impression of spontaneity. • Provide a more natural spoken language. • Are quick to prepare. • Require more study as the speaker must commit more to memory.
MANUSCRIPT	• Means one is easily tied to the written language; it can be hard to write so that it sounds like the spoken word. • Takes longer to prepare. • Has everything one wants to say, which gives greater security.

The method one chooses depends almost entirely on the individual's preferences. Some speakers prefer scripts, while others prefer notes. Some would rather have running text on A4 sheets, while others put together script cards of A5 size. No matter which one chooses, it is good to consider the following:

- If you are nervous and your hands tremble, it is easy to make a lot of noise with the papers you are holding. If you know that you tremble, it is better to lay the papers down on the table in front of you, or use script cards glued to cardboard.
- As soon as the manuscript or notes grow to more than one sheet: number them. Should your papers get mixed up, you must get them in order again quickly.
- Mark important words and phrases with a highlighter pen.
- Do not read continuously. One must practice reading from the manuscript so that all the emphases sound natural and so that it does not sound too like written language. Consider that the sentences in spoken language are much shorter and less complicated than in written language.
- If you have a manuscript and additionally use an OHP or a computer projector, it is a good idea to mark in the script where the image changes should come.
- If you lose your thread and need to refer to the manuscript or notes with more than just a quick glance, take the time you need to find your place. The best thing is to stop talking and look down at your script without saying anything more, until you have found where you are. If you speak as you search, you risk looking confused and draw attention to the fact you have lost your place. Even if you think that it is taking an eternity, it usually takes no more than a couple of seconds to get back on track.

5.2.3 Aids

One way to make it easier for the public to follow and understand the most important points in a presentation, can be the use of visual aids. If you choose to use aids, it is important that one first considers one's needs and what possibilities are on offer. If one has prepared oneself to use the type of whiteboard that is

found in most lecture theatres, but it turns out that you only have access to a small newsprint block, one can be forced to improvise, which can lead to increased nervousness. When considering which aids one will use, one should ask this question: "Do I need it?" There is no point in using aids for their own sake. A speech is no more stylish or professional because one uses a computer projector or has well-organised hand-outs. One should use what one needs and what makes the presentation clear and coherent, nothing more.

A review of some of the most common aids and what one should think about when using them follows.

HAND-OUTS	• The advantage with hand-outs is that the public can take them away with them. • The disadvantage is that they can draw the public's attention down to the paper instead of toward the presenter. • Your contact information should be on the hand-outs. • Use notes to summarise your most important points and to reproduce tables or graphs, which are time-consuming to present in the speech. • A hand-out should not be an essay.
WHITEBOARD	• Use the whiteboard to write up words, phrases and points that are central to your presentation. • Avoid speaking at the same time as you are writing. It can be hard to write without turning towards the board, and if one is facing the board, it can be hard for the public to hear what one is saying. • Only write up single words, not longer text - it takes too much time.
COMPUTER PROJECTOR ("POWERPOINT")	• Limit the number of slides to a minimum. • Do not write running text, use bullet points. Use bullet points to highlight the most important keywords and facts – the slide should not be like a manuscript to read. • Do not have too many bullet points per slide and make sure there is a theme connecting them. • Avoid large blocks of text where possible. • By all means take advantage of the possibilities offered by the software to emphasise important words and statements, but avoid animation in the form of items flying, bouncing or buzzing through the presentation. It merely distracts from the content. Just because one can do it, does not mean that one should do it. • Choose colours that make reading easy. White on a black background or black on a white background works well, while contrasting colours such as red on green are almost impossible to see.

- You must strive to keep facing the public during the presentation. A computer projector tends to trap the speaker into turning around and speaking to the wall. You can trust that the public is seeing the same as you are seeing on your computer screen. An exception exists however: If you are reading out a quotation, it is best to do it half turned toward the projected slide. In this way you avoid looking down at the computer screen too much, and instead read the slide along with the public. You also indicate to the public that this is something that is not your own invention, but someone else's thoughts.

5.3   Afterwards

The work with the presentation is not finished when one steps down from the stage. To learn something about ones contribution one needs to go through how the choices one made when one formulated ones speech, worked out. Did you use the technology correctly? Did the public laugh at the right times? Did they seem to understand? Did they hear you? The things that worked one can use again, the things that did not work as well, one perhaps needs to modify for next time.

6 Opposition and critical review

The critical review and evaluation of research reports is a necessary component of scientific activity. Doctoral theses are defended at public disputations. Books are reviewed. Researchers have their publications factually reviewed at the time of appointment. Critical review of theses is the dominant activity at political science conferences – national, Nordic, European and global. Since augmentation is a requirement of scientific activity, it is normal that scientific reports also contain reviews on the state of research; critical evaluations are an important element in such reviews. Obviously a critical approach is essential in the reading of each scientific text (cp. Lundquist 1993, p. 134–140).

The texts that you as students write during your studies in Political Science will also be critically reviewed, not just by the examiner when setting the grade, but also at *seminars*. Theses are always discussed at seminars, often the same also applies to course papers. Such seminars occur as early as the first term of study in Political Science. The seminar discussions mean that course members read the current text in advance and one or two *opponents* are assigned as the main critics. (For theses, two opponents is the rule) The opponents have a major role at the seminar, but all the seminar members are expected to take an active part in the discussions.

Prior to the seminar the selected opponents critically examine all aspects of the work that the thesis (or similar – which for simplicity will hereafter also be referred to as theses) represents. The whole of the review need not however be presented at the seminar. The discussion will first and foremost focus on essentials. The most important thing in the thesis is how the writer carried out the research assignment. A form of opposition, which often works well, is to centre the discussion around a *review of the different phases in the research process*. There are a large number of questions to consider, for example: How has the author dealt with the task of formulating the problem relating to theory, justifying the selection of method, relationship to previous research, collection of data, analysis of data, and answered the questions asked? To what extent are the results dependent on the theoretical and methodological choices taken? Is the thesis well written, well organised and easy to follow (the thread)?

However no general rules exist. Concerning certain texts, it can be more fruitful to proceed otherwise. In all circumstances however, the opponents should avoid leafing through the text page by page making indiscriminate comments on matters large and small. So that the author and the other seminar members can more easily follow the discussion, the opponents should always open by explaining how they plan to present their opposition. Every text has its merits and shortfalls. The opponents must not forget to highlight that which is well done in the thesis. Remember that positive criticism – as well as negative criticism – must always be justified in a coherent way. Why is it good? Nevertheless the discussion

should essentially be focussed on that which the opponents perceive as problematic in the thesis. The academic seminar is something of a role-play, where it is precisely the duty of the opponents to oppose. Similarly it is the author's duty to defend the written text. There is therefore no requirement that the parties should agree. On the contrary the thinking is that the seminar will develop into a constructive and enlightening discussion solely through the parties striving to defend their positions with the help of the best possible arguments.

The role of opponent also includes weighing up the relative weaknesses and merits in the reviewed thesis as an overall summary. This can be done at the beginning or at the end of the discussion.

The opponent's role can be particularly difficult if the reviewed thesis is unusually good or unusually weak. If one as an opponent gets a really good thesis to review, there is a risk that one thinks one has little to say. In this case one must, during one's preparations, try a little harder to find interesting questions to pose. These can always be found. In point of fact a good theses can also stimulate discussion - albeit in a positive way. One can for example ask the author to justify the theoretical and methodological starting point they chose, one can initiate a discussion on the results of the thesis and its further implications, and one can seek to develop one's own interpretation of the author's data.

Alternatively if one, as an opponent, gets a weak thesis with a lot of shortfalls to review, it is important to remember that the seminar discussions should always be characterised by respect for the author and their efforts. Even criticism, which is in itself tough, should be offered in a friendly and constructive manner. A thesis seminar that takes on the character of a slaughter is a failed seminar.

Literature

Johansson, Leif, 1985. *Forskare möter läsare.* Lund: Department of Political Science

Lundquist, Lennart, 1993. *Det vetenskapliga studiet av politik*. Lund: Student-literature.

SOU 1999:4. *God sed i forskningen*. Stockholm: Allmänna publishers.

Stjernquist, Nils, 1983. "Nog är det värt att satsa på god forskning och utbildning." Lund: Speech at Tetradagarna.

The Association of Swedish Higher Education, 1997. Guidelines for dealing with questions of scientific dishonesty at universities and institutions of higher education.
    [Electronic] Available: http://www.suhf.se/web/Riktlinjer_fo_rhantering_vid_universitet_och_hogskolor_av_fragor_om_vetenskaplig_ohederlighet.aspx

Resource books

The following resource books are referred to in this booklet.

Aarts, Bas, 2011. *Oxford Modern English Grammar.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Fowler, H.W. & Sir Ernest Gowers, 2009. *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Ritter, Robert, 2003. *Oxford Style manual.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
 Wiener, E.S.C. – Andrew Delahunty (ed.) 1994 [1983]. *The Oxford Guide To English Usage.* Oxford: Oxford University Press

Resource books for public sector writing

If one works for the local authorities or public administration, one must take certain things into consideration when producing a text. Therefore there are certain rules of writing for writers within the public sector.

 Cutts, martin, 2009. *The Oxford guide to plain English.* Oxford: Oxford University Press
Gowers, Sir Ernest – Sydney Greenbaum, (ed.), Janet Whitcut (ed.), 2002 [1986] *The Complete Plain Words, A guide to the use of English.* Harlow: Penguin Books

Internet resources

Oxford dictionary and resource site: www.oxforddictionaries.com
Encyclopedia Britannica: www.britannica.com
Nationalencyklopediens ordbok: www.ne.se
Urkunds International home page: www.urkund.com/int/en/
Wikimedia Commons: http://commons.wikimedia.org/

Appendix 1   Example of title page

Lund University   STVA21
Department of Political Science   Spring term 2012
                                          Supervisor Maria Strömvik

Adaptability or constancy?

Swedish security policy in a theoretical perspective

Fredrik Reinfeldt

Appendix 2 Example of an abstract

Abstract (Undergraduate course)

In 1992 the communist regime in Afghanistan was overthrown and civil war broke out. One of the reasons that the war still continues today is the politically unstable situation which prevails in the country. We have identified five causes of political instability which we believe are significant in our particular context: historical and structural factors, conflict between region and centre, conflict between ethnic groups, conflict within the political elite and the influence of international actors.

The political elite emphasise strongly their ethnic and social background, which causes problems with cooperation. Additionally, no party has broad support from the people.

The country is fragmented geographically and ethnically which has led to ethnic groups being able to remain intact, which in turn has been a breeding ground for ethnic conflicts. Communication between the capital and the rural areas is very bad. The country is strongly decentralised and the decisions made in the centre have no legitimacy in the rural areas. This obstructs the implementation of political decisions.

Historically, structural and religious factors such as tradition, and later national statehood and long wars, all rate highly in explanation value. Finally international actors also have an effect. By supporting different parties in order to win their own advantage, they contribute to the fragmentation and spread of weapons.

Keywords: Afghanistan, fragmentation, ethnicity, international actors, traditionalism
Word Count: 9902

Abstract (higher level)

Women in the Third World are subordinated in society as well as in the family. The aim of this thesis is to examine women's organisations and their possibilities to empower women. Our object of study is that of two women's organisations, Organozaçao da Mulher Moçambiciana (OMM) and Amai apa Banda (Amai). We have made a Minor Field Study in Mozambique, where we conducted interviews with women from these organisations. We use feminist empowerment theories to measure the women's empowerment. To analyse empowerment we use a model with indicators such as welfare, access, conscientization, participation, and control. When studying the organisations' activities, we measure whether they strive to change women's practical and strategic gender needs. We compare the organisations to see if there are any differences between their empowering and transformative potential. We find that the women in OMM have enhanced more empowerment than the women in Amai, since they have gained more consciousness and knowledge than the Amai women. OMM's activities are mainly strategic, while Amai's are practically oriented. OMM has more empowering potential than Amai, as they through their activities strive to change gender subordination. The organisations lack transformative potential as neither of them addresses practical as well as strategic gender needs.

Keywords: Moçambique, Women's Organisations, Empowerment, Practical and Strategic Gender Needs, Feminism
Words: 9958

Appendix 3   Example of contents list

Contents

Appendix 4   Example of introduction

1   Introduction

We have worked for many weeks on our thesis about Afghanistan and the political problems with which the country is struggling. When one reads about war and destruction in such profusion, one eventually shuts off one's brain, primarily in order to be able to continue working. After a while our theories and problem models become as dry as the paper they are written on. Some time ago we had a reality check when we saw reports about the country in a news programme (BBC 8/12 1998). Heart-rending children crying over a recently lost mother, a bloodied man being dug out of the ruins of a house that was bombed just moments before, a wounded people, a wounded land. Why so much war and why so little war?

1.1 Objective and research question

We have chosen an empirical question, because we are interested in analysing our problem from the point of view of how it is, rather than how it should be. To try to explain the reality is naturally always difficult and we are aware that we are not going to be able produce any completely objective results, nor is that what we are aiming for either. Our *objective* is, with the help of different theories, to illustrate the conflict in Afghanistan and reach an explanation as to why the situation is as it is. We don't believe the country's problem is unique in that it could only occur in Afghanistan, rather we believe that we can produce an explanatory model that will also be applicable in other cases This does not mean that we are looking for some general universal theory, our aim is instead to raise the Afghanistan question to a higher analytical level. We assume that the conflict is not purely a condition of culture, rather its components can also be found in other parts of the world. Within our objective is an ambition to produce a comprehensive model. Which basically means that we will not be exploring all the minor details of the conflict.
    Our *research question* is as follows:

- Why could the political elite in Afghanistan not achieve some political stability in the country after the fall of the communist regime in 1992?

By stability, we mean a condition that one might expect to exist over a longer period, without more substantial changes occurring.

1.2 Theory

We do not believe there is any easy answer to the question on why the crisis in Afghanistan is as it is, nor is our ambition with this work to extract the perfect solution. Afghanistan is a complex society and there are many different components in play, thus there is no one meaningful explanatory factor either. We have identified five areas that we believe are relevant in explaining the political instability. We base our selection on Michael E. Browns (1996, p. 577) breakdown of what he believes to be the underlying reason as to why an internal conflict breaks out. He includes economic, structural, political and cultural factors In addition to this we have also chosen to look at what significance international actors have in the context.

The four areas are interrelated and cannot really be separated from each other. It is moreover very difficult to determine which factors cause what, but we will nevertheless make a division in order to structure the thesis and in that way facilitate the analysis. The four areas are as follows:

- Historical perspective and structural conditions.
- Conflict between region and centre
- Conflict within the political elite
- International actors

Our premise is that these points obstruct a political stability and inhibit development towards legitimacy and effectiveness.

The thesis is organised in the following way. The five areas will be dealt with in turn and in within them we will present different theories which will later be used to illustrate and explain the problems. Our objective in this approach is to facilitate reading as we make use of so many different theories. We believe that it will be easier to follow our reasoning if the actual theories are described in relation to the analyses where they are used.

We take an overview, and thus from that perspective come to concentrate on the power elite and what is happening in Afghanistan. The civilians who have suffered, and suffer most from the conflict, are only mentioned here indirectly.

Our starting point is a combination of actors and structural perspective since we believe that individual actors play an important role, but that they are influenced by the environment in which they act. In all political and social contexts we see various examples of actors' complex and sophisticated actions. These are generally a product of deliberate consideration, which is based on knowledge of the current structure setting the scene for the actions (Hay 1995, p. 190)

1.3 Method and material

We have made an interpretive case study because the motive behind our thesis is based on an interest in the country of Afghanistan. The theories to which we refer are used to analyse and interpret the situation there. This is not a question testing any theory, but rather we intend to try to build a theory. This we will do by combining different factors in order to find a relevant explanatory model.

We have basically carried out cumulative research by using secondary sources. We began by reading up about the country itself, and have thus made use of reference books and historical descriptions. Thereafter we went deeper into the society's problems and conflicts with the help of scientific journals among other things.

The material we collected together and made use of, was more or less objective. As we did not have an extensive prior knowledge of, nor had we visited Afghanistan, we relied on the data. We may therefore also question the objectivity of certain books and articles. Many authors are in strong agreement with regard to the on-going conflicts, origin and course, but we have also perceived some differences. The books that the SIDA-supported Swedish-Afghanistan committee have produced should be read with certain reservations. We have used their reference books for facts on different communities, political parties and the country's structure etc. and believe that they are reliable sources in this respect, but that they present the history something of in a romantic manner.

It is also interesting to note the authors' differing perceptions of the Talibans. They vary depending both on when the text was written and from which country the author comes. At the beginning of 1996, the Talibans were seen as relatively harmless actors that could contribute to increasing the security in the villages, but already by the end of that same year, when Kabul was taken, they were written about as dangerous and decisive actors (Davidsson 1996, p. 18ff; Gunnarsson 1996a, p. 22; Gunnarsson 1996b, p. 6f). One year later Ben R. Goldsmith (1997) wrote an article, which clearly showed what the American standpoint was with regard to the Talibans. He considered that they were a positive force that could achieve stability and unite Afghanistan politically. This would be a good thing, as they could build a Californian gas pipeline that would lead to economic advantages. It is hard to know if the author of the article was pointing to economic gain for Afghanistan or the USA. We will refer to that article in section 3.5.2.

Another difference of opinion is that on whether Afghanistan's old institutions can be used in the rebuilding of the Afghani state. We will describe this in section 3.1.2.

We have not had that much material available to us, dealing with the current situation in Afghanistan. However we do believe that we will be able to give a complete picture since the major part of what has changed is where the exact frontiers lie. According to some articles, the war is taking place primarily in the capital, and the rural areas are relatively peaceful (Goodson 1998, p. 480; Karlsson 1998, p. 8), but when watching the above mentioned news programme, one got the idea that war was everywhere and that war currently existed on six different fronts. It is hard to know how things really stand, but we believe that

with the Talibans' victory in Kabul, the fighting in rural areas has increased, as it is to these areas the opponents to the Talibans, those who previously had the power in Kabul, have fled.

Appendix 5   Example of a reference list

References

Allison, Graham & Philip Zelikow, 1999 [1971]. *Essence of Decision: Explaining the Cuban Missile Crisis*. New York: Longman.

Aristotle, 2009 [350 B.C.]. "Den nichomachiska etiken" in Hallberg, Peter – Maria Jansson – Ulf Mörkenstam (ed.), *Tretton texter i politisk teori*, 2nd edition Malmö: Liber, p. 29–45.

Baldersheim, Harald, 2005. "Lokalmaktsdebatten – fra nessekonger till nettverksstyre" in Baldersheim, Harald & Lawrence E. Rose (ed.), *Det kommunale laboratorium: Teoretiske perspektiver på lokal politikk og organisering*, p. 87–111.

Bartelson, Jens, 1997. "Konstruktivism" in Kjell Goldmann – Mogens N. Pederson – Øyvind Østerud (ed.), *Statsvetenskapligt lexikon*. Stockholm: University Publishers.

Benhabib, Seyla, 2004 [2002]. *Jämlikhet och mångfald: Demokrati och medborgarskap i en global tidsålder.* The Claims of Culture: Equality and Diversity in the Global Era. Trans. Sven-Erik Torhell. Gothenburg: Daidalos.

Bet. 2002/03: UbU18. *Etikprövning av forskning.* Ministry of Education review.

Björkdahl, Annika (gone to print). "Building Peace – Normative and Military Power in EU Peace Operations" in Richard Whitman (ed.) *Normative Power Europe: Empirical and Theoretical Perspectives.* London: Routledge.

Bosso, Christopher J., 1994. "The Contextual Basis of Problem Definition" in David A. Rochefort & Roger W. Cobb (ed.) *The Politics of Problem Definition*. Lawrence, Kansas: University Press of Kansas, p. 182–203.

Brown, Mark B., 2009. *Science in Democracy: Expertise, Institutions, and Representation*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Clegg, Stewart, 1989 [2002]. *Frameworks of Power.* London: Sage.

Dagens Nyheter 2010-08-14. "Bärbolag gör stora vinster". Newspaper Article. [Electronic] Available: http://www.presstext.se/online/display.php?set=S1&xid=DN201008140237 059775. Download date 24-09-2010.

Dahl, Robert A., 1961. *Who Governs? Democracy and Power in an American City*. New Haven, CT: Yale Studies in Political Science.

Data Inspection1 = Data Inspection Board website, Questions and answers on social network on the web. [Electronic] Available: http://www.datainspektionen.se/in-english/ Download date: 24-09-2010.

Data Inspection 2 = Data Inspections website. Questions and answers on social network on the web. [Electronic] Available: http://www.datainspektionen.se/in-english/ Download date: 24-09-2010.

Dir. 1990:16. *Frågor med anknytning till användning av genteknik.* Ministry of Justice Committee Directive.

Djerf-Pierre, Monika, 2008. "Governance, medierna och makten: Föreställningar om mediemakt i regeringskansliet", *Statsvetenskaplig tidskrift*, vol. 110, no. 4, p. 369–384.

Ds 2001:62. *Etikprövning av forskning som avser människor.* Ministry of Education memorandum.

EC 2000/0032 (COD) = European Commission, 2000. "Proposal for a regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council regarding public access to European Parliament, Council and Commission documents". Brussels: European Commission.

EP A4-0476/98 = European Parliament, 1998."Preliminary report on openness and citizens' access to EU documentation", the Institutional Affairs Committee. Author: Maj-Liis Lööw.

Erlingsson, Gissur Ó, 2005. *Varför bildas nya partier? Om kollektivt handlande och partientreprenörer*. Diss. Lund: Department of Political Science, Lund University.

EU-Commission, 2001. "Report of the Working Group 'Democratising Expertise and Establishing Scientific Reference Systems'". Brussels: The European Commission.

Filosofilexikonet, 1988, "etik". Poul Lübcke (ed.). Stockholm: Bokförlaget Forum.

Genteknikberedningen, 1992. *Genteknik – en utmaning.* SOU 1992:82. Committee review.

Goldstone, Jack A., Robert H Bates, David L. Epstein, Ted Robert Gurr, Michael B. Lustik, Monty G. Marshall, Jay Ulfelder & Mark Woodward, 2010. "A Global Model for Forecasting Political Instability", *American Journal of Political Science* vol. 54, no. 1, p. 190–208.

Greenpeace 2010. *Bakgrund till BASF's genmanipulerade potatis Amflora.* Greenpeace Nordic, March 2010. [Electronic] Available: http://www.greenpeace.org/sweden/rapporter-och-dokument?page=2. Download date 15-09-2010.

Hall, Patrik, Kristian Sjövik & Ylva Stubbergaard 2005. *Nätverk söker förankring: Öresundsregionen i ett demokratiperspektiv*. Lund: Student Literature.

Hall, Tim & Phil Hubbard, 1996. "The entrepreneurial city: new urban politics, new urban geographies?", *Progress in Human Geography*, vol. 20, no. 2, p. 153–174.

Herget, Josef, 1992. "Towards a dynamic approach to information marketing" in *Teknologi och kompetens*, Proceedings of the 8th Nordic Conference on information and documentation, 19–21 May 1992, Helsingborg, p. 163–168.

"How do we find a solution to staffing issues?", 2010. Anonymous. *Critical Care Nurse* vol. 30, no. 1, p. 14–15.

Hunter, Floyd, 1953. *Community Power Structure: A Study of Decision Makers*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina.

Illman, Karl-Johan, 2010. "Antisemitism" in *Nationalencyklopedin*. Available: http://www.ne.se/lang/antisemitism?i_whole_article=true. Download date: 15-09-2010.

Interview 1 = Municipal officer of a mid-sized Swedish town. Interview 17 May 2007.

Interview 2 = Municipality manager. Telephone Interview 19 May 2007.

Judge, David – Gerry Stoker – Harol Wolman, "Urban Politics and Theory: An Introduction" in David Judge – Gerry Stoker – Harold Wolman (ed.), *Theories of Urban Politics, 1995*, p. 1–12.

Kalla fakta, 1999. "Vanskötsel i äldrevården". TV4, 14th October.

Karlsson, Boris, 1996. *Begreppsmodellering: ett stöd vid perspektivförändring*. Borås studies in information systems: 6. Borås: School of Business and IT (HIT)

King, Gary – Robert O. Keohane – Sidney Verba, 1994. *Designing Social Inquiry: Scientific Inference in Qualitative Research*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.

Lukes, Steven, 2008 [2004]. *Maktens ansikten*. Orig. title *Power: A Radical View*, trans. Henrik Gundenäs. Göteborg: Daidalos.

Manin, Bernard, 2002 [1997]. *Den representativa demokratins principer*. The Principles of Representative Government. Trans. Per Nyqvist. Stockholm: SNS.

Miller, David, 2001. "Distributing Responsibilities", *The Journal of Political Directive Philosophy*, vol. 9, no. 4, p. 453–471.

Ministry of Justice, 1990. *Frågor med anknytning till användningen av genteknik*. Dir. 1990:16. Committee Directive

Mossberger, Karen – Gerry Stoker, 2001. "The Evolution of Urban Regime Theory: The Challenge of Conceptualization", *Urban Affairs Review*, vol. 36, no. 6, p. 810–835.

Motion 1998/99: T808. En digital allemansrätt.

Motion 2005/06:So21 with reference to prop. 2005/06:64 *Genetisk integritet*. Erik Ullenhag et al. (fp).

Nationalencyklopedin 1995, "rättshaveri". Höganäs: Bokförlaget Bra Böcker AB.

Nilsson, Joakim, 2004. *Offentlighetens tribunal: Drevkarlar och demokrati*. Licentiate Diss. Lund: Department of Political Science, Lund University

OSCE – The Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe, 2010. *Astana Declaration*, CIO./GAL/111/10, 30th June 2010.

Peña, Adolfo, 2010. "The Dreyfus model of clinical problem-solving skills acquisition: a critical perspective", *Medical Education Online*, vol. 15, p. 1–11. [Electronic]. Available: http://med-ed-online.net/index.php/meo/article/view/4846/pdf_3. Download date: 24-09-2010.

Pettersson, Rune, 2001. *Trovärdiga bilder*. Rapport från styrelsen för psykologiskt försvar: 180. Stockholm: Styrelsen för psykologiskt försvar.

Prop. 2002/03:50. Etikprövning av forskning.

Prot. 1996/97:77. Parliamentary Protocol 12th march 1997.

Selme, Anna, 1998. *Databaser – sökteknik – referenser: en lathund från biblioteket*. Unpublished manuscript. Borås: Borås University, library.

SFS 2006:351. Lag om genetisk integritet m.m.

SOU 1992:82. *Genteknik – en utmaning*. Genetic Engineering Advisory Council review.

Studio ett, 2004. "Privata sjukhus". Swedish Radio, 11th February.

Stoker, Gerry, 1995. "Regime Theory and Urban Politics" in David Judge (ed.), *Theories of Urban Politics*. London: Sage, p. 54–71.

Så som i himmelen, 2004 [film]. Dir: Kay Pollack. Sweden: GF Studios.

Törnman, Lars, 2003. Initiator and founder of the Kiruna Party in Kiruna Municipality. Interview 28th March 2003.

Watson, Ian, 1998. "Internet, intranet, extranet: the hype and the hope". Based on a contribution to the TLS autumn conference 1997. *Tidskrift för dokumentation*, vol. 53, number 1, p. 1–7.

Westerholm, Barbro (fp). Member of Parliament 1988–1999, 2006–. Member of the Social committee 1994–1998, 2006–. Chairwoman of the Committee on Research Ethics. Member of the National Medical Ethics Council 2006 –. Telephone Interview 20th June 2006.

Wolodarski, Peter, 15-08-2010. "Förföljd av digitala fotspår". *Dagens Nyheter*. Editorial.