4

How to Write Your Psychology Paper With Style

General Tips

Well, then, I propose to you that, English Literature being (as we agreed) an Art, with a living and therefore improvable language for its medium or vehicle, a part—and no small part—of our business is to practise it. *Yes, I seriously propose to you that here in Cambridge we* practise writing*: that we practise it not only for our own improvement, but to make, or at least try to make, appropriate, perspicuous, accurate, persuasive writing a recognisable hall-mark of anything turned out by our English School.*

—SIR ARTHUR QUILLER-COUCH, *ON THE ART OF WRITING*

Now that you've gathered all your research notes and determined more or less how they will fit into your outline, I want to zoom out again and reexamine the guiding principles behind the writing endeavor on which you've embarked. These principles are what underpin scientific writing style, which we examine in this chapter. Why are you writing, aside from the fact that your instructor assigned you something to write? Ultimately, as a psychology student, you are writing to get a taste of what professional psychologists do, even if you never become an academic or professional psychologist. As stated in Chapter 1, psychologists continue threads of scientific discovery; however, to do this they have to communicate what they have discovered. They have to determine whether or not a particular paper will represent a true contribution to knowledge. Your instructors may not expect you to become a psychologist, but they attempt to model the intellectual demands and critical-thinking skills necessary to be a psychologist. So, how do you know whether your paper will contribute to the scientific knowledge base? Sternberg (2005) outlined eight ways to determine this:

1. The paper contains one or more surprising results that nevertheless make sense in some theoretical context. Whatever outcome occurs, you need to try to make sense of it, especially in the context of your study. For example, my research methods students often attempt to replicate a common finding

and fail to do so. The most common reason for this is that their study did not have enough participants.

2. The results presented in the paper are of major theoretical or practical significance. The best way for you to achieve this is to study an important topic. If you are studying an important topic, then the results may be important as well.

3. The ideas in the paper are new and exciting, perhaps presenting a new way of looking at an old problem. Students are often very good at achieving this because they can bring a fresh perspective to a problem or issue that psychologists tend to look at the same old way.

4. The interpretation of results is clear. This is where you get to apply the information you have learned from your statistics course. Using the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics, you can draw conclusions about the problem being studied and have some certainty in your conclusion. Developing scientific, testable hypotheses allows the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods to interpret conclusions with clarity.

5. Your work integrates into a new, simpler framework data that had previously required a complex, possibly unwieldy framework. The ability to simplify complex relationships, when possible, is highly desirable in science, and this notion is sometimes referred to as *Occam's razor.* This is the idea that when two theories make the same prediction, the simpler theory is preferred to the more complex theory (Hiroshi, 1997). If your research can make this contribution, you have provided a highly valuable service to science.

6. The paper contains a major debunking of previously held ideas. To accomplish this goal, a good approach for students is to select a psychological myth or urban legend to test in their research study. Scientists are often drawn to counterintuitive findings (the opposite of what is expected), so if you can debunk a psychological myth or negate an urban legend, others will find value in your work.

7. The author presents an experiment with a particularly clever paradigm or experimental manipulation. If you can develop a new or innovative method of studying a complex phenomenon, the approach or methodology you use can almost be as valuable as the findings. Because psychology shares its secrets in the Method sections of journal articles, your contribution becomes public once you publish a journal article. Innovative ways of thinking about human behavior can lead to innovative approaches to studying that behavior in the laboratory or in the field.

8. The paper provides support for a theory based on the general findings. You can achieve this in your writing by not overreaching with your conclusions. From the storytelling perspective, this happens in Act III, where the climax occurs and the plot is resolved. Your research paper should end with broad statements that provide a general conclusion to what you have discovered through the course of your project.

Good scientists are good communicators. For their contribution to the scientific knowledge base to be accepted by other scientists, they must also use good storytelling techniques. That is, they make conscious choices about how to describe the main players in the story, the tone and approach, and the order in which they will narrate events. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the writer is not central to the scientific story; the topic is the main character, and in psychology, the topic is usually behavior. Objectivity is the hallmark of scientific writing, so the tone reflects distance from the topic, and the linear order of presentation reflects a thinking process that values measurable hypotheses and results above opinion. Of course, psychologists include opinions in their writing, but this is usually done in the form of shaping and presenting hypotheses, which are then dispassionately accepted or rejected.

Style, both in a general sense and American Psychological Association (APA) sense, actually simplifies some of the decision making that goes into scientific writing. Although the specifics of any particular writing assignment may differ, you will find that there are commonalities among types of scientific writing assignments in psychology. In this chapter, I present those common factors and how they may apply to particular writing assignments. Applying these general tips to all types of assignments is how you "practise writing," to borrow a phrase from the quote that begins this chapter.

WHY INSTRUCTORS LIKE TO READ STYLISH PAPERS

Instructors of undergraduate and graduate psychology instructors teach APA Style because it is our gold standard. Baker and Henrichsen (2002) said it better:

> In academic writing, the reader's response to a piece of writing is crucial. In a classroom situation the reader is also usually the teacher, and at least part of a paper's grade is generally based on how well it follows the accepted style. Proper formatting is the hallmark of a detail-oriented researcher. A writer who makes stylesheet errors because he or she believes they are "no big deal" might be surprised when evaluators question other details of the paper, such as the data on which the conclusions are based. After all—if a writer can't get all the periods in the right places, how can he or she be expected to correctly calculate an ANOVA or t-test? (para. 3)

The *Publication Manual* (APA, 2020) actually serves multiple functions: It is a style manual—it addresses sentence structure issues, grammar, how to compose paragraphs, and so forth—and it is also a presentation guide—it addresses how the manuscript should appear in print and electronic format. For the sake of clarity, I refer to *APA Style* as the mode of expression and *APA format* as the mode of presentation. Both topics are covered in detail in this book: APA formatting issues are addressed in this chapter; in Chapters 5 and 6 on literature reviews and research papers, respectively, issues of both APA Style and APA formatting are further explored.

Just how important is it to prepare a manuscript using APA Style and format? Obviously, the answer will vary depending on the instructor and the

assignment. Remember, though, that the *Publication Manual* was originally created for psychologists wanting to publish their work in scholarly journals. The editor of a journal is the person ultimately responsible for deciding what gets published and what does not. Do journal editors really care about APA Style and format, or is it just a formality? Brewer et al. (2001) asked that question to hundreds of psychology journal editors, and the results are interesting. As it turns out, to some journal editors APA format is extremely important: "39% of the respondents reported that they *had* returned a manuscript to an author purely for failing to adhere to APA Style" (p. 266). When asked about the most common problems, the journal editors listed the top three problem areas as references, tables and figures, and mathematics and statistics. This subset of editors who desired strict adherence to APA Style were labeled "APA Style sticklers" (Brewer et al., 2001, p. 267).

Many types of scientific writing in psychology share components of the same overall style. In later chapters, I address very specific details about assignments and their particular requirements, but it is useful to review here the general style used for most scientific writing. Exhibit 4.1 provides a quick overview of the general sections you may be asked to write.

The ability to write clearly and concisely is an essential skill in becoming a good scientist. Throughout this book, I emphasize the importance of clarity and the ability to tell a coherent story. Psychologists follow the *Publication Manual* as a general guide, and it provides detailed information about the style that scientific writing should follow and the format in which it should appear. Many psychology departments require that student papers, theses, and dissertations be prepared according to the *Publication Manual.* Of course when departmental requirements differ from those in the *Publication Manual,* the departmental or institutional requirements take precedence. At its essence, the *Publication Manual* is the instruction guide to authors on how to communicate psychological findings to the scientific community.

In this chapter, I highlight some of the most common areas of concern for writing in APA Style and format. Obviously, the *Publication Manual* is the comprehensive source that addresses almost every possible nuance of a research-paper-writing situation you may face. I am selective in what to address here; I want you to be prepared for the most common situations, and for the rare events, consulting the *Publication Manual* will be a good idea. For instance, the rules for preparing a figure in APA format are very precise (in fact, there are entire books about preparing tables and figures in APA format). Fortunately, figures are often not necessary for undergraduate writing projects.

Manuscript Preparation

One of the most important points to remember when submitting work for any college class is that it is a representation of the quality of your skills and abilities. Every time you hand in an assignment, make sure it is your very best work. If you are submitting a rough draft of a section of your research paper, and the

Exhibit 4.1. Typical Sections of an APA Style Research Paper

Title page (take credit, provide details)
- Title (boldfaced, centered, in upper half of title page)
- Author's name (as it matches course records)
- Author's department or program, followed by author's affiliation
- Course number, course name
- Instructor's name
- Due date
- Page number (inside top one-inch margin)

Abstract (quick comprehensive summary)
- Typically not longer than 250 words
- Keywords provide searchable terms for paper
- Some assignments, no abstract required

Introduction (what topic you are studying)
- Introduce the research problem (or thesis statement)
- Develop the background, identify gap in literature
- State the purpose and rationale for the paper, state hypotheses

Method (what steps are followed)
- Participants, materials, and procedure.
- Should be in enough detail to replicate work if desired.

Results (what are the outcomes, statistically speaking)
- Hypotheses: Supported or refuted?
- Presentation of statistical outcomes: tables, figures as necessary
- Presentation, not interpretation

Discussion (what it all means, what should happen next)
- Was the gap filled/mystery solved?
- Outcomes make sense?
- Are these outcomes really meaningful?
- What are the avenues for future research?

Reference section (give credit where credit is due)
- All items cited in paper are presented here
- APA *PM* 7e reference style followed
- Not a bibliography; only present items here cited in text

ink smudges on any of the pages, reprint that page. If the dog started eating your homework, redo or recopy that page. When you hand in work that has a sloppy appearance, some professors may jump to the conclusion that your thinking is also sloppy. You would never dream of sending a resume to a prospective employer that had typographical errors or obvious formatting blunders in it—why would you do so for your instructors? Be sure to follow these rules for manuscript preparation in APA format, but also be sure to heed any formatting exceptions that the instructor gives you.

Word Processing: Typing and Layout

With regard to page layout, here are the requirements for APA format:

- The fonts recommended in the seventh edition of the *Publication Manual* are Calibri 11-point, Arial 11-point, Lucida Sans Unicode 10-point, Times New Roman 12-point, Georgia 11-point, and Computer Modern 10-point. Whichever you choose, use the same font throughout the entire paper. Check with your instructor to see if they have a preference or requirement.
- Double-space everything, but you can use single- or double-spacing in tables and figures.
- Set 1-in. margins at the top, bottom, left, and right of the page.
- Start the following sections on a new page: title page, abstract, Introduction, references, appendices, tables, figures, and figure captions.
- Number every page. Use the automatic page number function in your word-processing program to generate page numbers in your file.
- Indent each paragraph 1/2 in. (this is usually the default setting).
- Use one space after commas, colons, semicolons, periods in the reference section, and periods in the initials of a person's name. Use one space after end-of-sentence punctuation, unless your instructor indicates otherwise.

Headings and Series

Headings are used to help organize the flow of the text and give readers signposts for where they are in the manuscript. In the sample paper at the end of Chapter 7, you will see the typical three heading levels used in APA papers. (The *Publication Manual* includes one to five levels of heading.) The headings are differentiated by capital or lowercase letters, boldface, italics, centered text, and so forth.

Seriation refers to the presentation of multiple items within a sentence, for example, whether you are providing a step-by-step sequence (1-2-3) or just listing different items (a-b-c). The rules for seriation are straightforward: When the individual items within a series do not contain a comma, use commas to separate them (e.g., "The key items to remember are (a) be honest, (b) be brave, and (c) be true"). If the individual items within a series do contain a comma, use semicolons to separate them (e.g., "To pilot test the new instrument, we (a) generated a list of potential items, based on participant interviews; (b) developed potential survey items, using a Likert-type scale; and (c) completed the survey with volunteers from a college course in psychometrics").

Abbreviations and Numbers

Like many scientists, psychologists tend to use jargon specific to the discipline. Often, jargon is expressed in the form of abbreviations. The *Publication Manual*

advises using abbreviations sparingly. There are places where repeating a particular phrase (e.g., "cumulative final exam score") is cumbersome and using an abbreviation makes sense (e.g., CFES). However, my advice is to only use an abbreviation if it makes it easier for the reader (not the writer). Be careful in assuming that an abbreviation is so common that all readers will know what it means. In general, spell out an abbreviation the first time it is used, with the abbreviation in parentheses afterward. Then you can use the abbreviation (without parentheses) throughout the remainder of your paper. Be sure to use the appropriate scientific abbreviations in text; the *Publication Manual* lists these. If you choose to use Latin abbreviations, remember that they are not italicized. Table 4.1 contains helpful Latin abbreviations and their meanings.

To be honest, the use of numbers in an APA-formatted paper is confusing. There are general rules, but there appear to be as many exceptions as there are rules. Generally, numbers below 10 are spelled out as words (zero, one, two, three, four, etc.) and numbers 10 and above are expressed as numerals (10, 11, 12, 13, etc.). The under-10 rule, however, does not apply to numbers that represent time, dates, ages, scores and points on a scale, exact sums of money, and numerals as numerals. Also remember that if you start a sentence with a number, you must spell out the number in words and use proper capitalization (e.g., "Thirty-two general psychology students completed the survey"). In general,

TABLE 4.1. Latin Abbreviations

Abbreviation	What it means	Sample sentence
cf.	compare	APA Style and format based on the *Publication Manual* are designed to provide scientific notation to researcher's ideas (cf. expression of ideas with the *Chicago Manual of Style*).
e.g.	for example	There are different types of doctoral degrees in psychology (e.g., PhD, PsyD, EdD).
etc.	and so forth	There are numerous variables that influence a student's decision to attend college (such as school prestige, amount of financial aid, distance from home, availability of a major, etc.).
i.e.	that is	There is not much evidence that seat time (i.e., time on task) is directly related to student performance in the classroom.
viz.	namely	Although there are multiple organizations for psychologists to become involved in, as is the case in other sciences, often the largest organization possesses the greatest degree of political clout (viz., the American Psychological Association).
vs.	versus	Developmental psychologists will probably never completely understand the contributions of heredity and environment (i.e., the nature vs. nurture debate).
et al.	and others	These three authors (Smith et al., 2020) concluded that the impact on low birthweight was greater for children of low-income families as compared with children of high-income families.

avoid starting a sentence with a number. APA format dictates that numerical measurement be expressed in metric units—centimeters and meters rather than inches and feet. For the more explicit rules concerning the use of numbers, see the *Publication Manual.*

Citations and Quotations in Text

Good scientific writing places an idea about a variable or behavior in context. That is, part of the story is the backstory that contributes to our current state of knowledge about a phenomenon and, in a research paper, the gap or hole in the knowledge that the research paper strives to fill. To accomplish this goal, however, you must be familiar with the existing literature, which is why you conduct library research on your topic, extract materials, and synthesize those materials into coherent paragraphs. An essential component of this task is the ability to cite the work of others in your own work—in other words, giving credit where credit is due. The inability to give credit would be an instance of plagiarism.

As a psychology student, you are already accustomed to this practice in science. In books and articles, even your introductory psychology textbook, you can see examples where the flowing text is interrupted by last names and a year, sometimes in parentheses, sometimes not in parentheses. This practice, called *citation* or *citing,* is vital to scientific writing. We cannot borrow others' ideas without proper attribution. The ability to cite (using proper APA format of course) is one way to show that you are developing into a scholar. Students sometimes worry that an introduction or a literature review is not very original because it is filled with the citations of others' work. However, the originality comes from how you put those ideas together; your unique contribution is the thread or synthesis or common theme you identified and then documented with your citations. The ability to identify common themes where they exist is a highly valuable intellectual skill; therefore, using proper citation methods (and reference lists) helps you demonstrate your abilities as a psychological scientist.

In APA format there are basically three ways to present citations in the text of your paper: author name(s) and publication year outside of parentheses; author name(s) outside of parentheses, publication year in parentheses; and author name(s) and publication year inside parentheses.

- It was in 1956 that G. A. Miller published his famous article about memory and information processing regarding seven plus or minus two.
- In his famous article, G. A. Miller (1956) presented the ideas about memory and information processing in the form of seven plus or minus two.
- In a famous article long ago the classic ideas were presented about memory and information processing in the form of seven plus or minus two (G. A. Miller, 1956).

How do you decide which format to use? Consider the overall flow of the paragraph and make a selection that avoids the passive voice. See Table 4.2 for sample sentences using the variety of forms.

TABLE 4.2. Examples of Citation Styles With Varying Numbers of Authors

No. of citations or authors	Author and publication year outside of parentheses	Author outside parentheses, publication year inside parentheses	Both author and publication year inside parentheses
One citation, one author only	Updated suggestions for how to launch a course via the first day of class were offered by Robinson in 2019.	Engaging students on the first day of class is critical to setting positive course expectations, according to Robinson (2019).	Student-generated questions can be effectively used to set the tone of the course beginning from the very first day (Robinson, 2019).
One citation, more than one author	It's important to know what type of situation provides the best research training for undergraduates; fortunately, in 2019 Burke and Prieto addressed this issue.	According to Burke and Prieto (2019), the higher quality the research training environment, the higher the student reported ratings of research self-efficacy.	It appears that after careful study, high quality research training environments are as important for undergraduate students as they are for graduate students (Burke & Prieto, 2019).

There may be cases when you need to reference two or more citations in the same sentence. This is usually accomplished inside parentheses. You separate the references with semicolons, and order them alphabetically by the first author's last name, not by year of publication. Note that outside of parentheses, you use "and" between authors' names (or, with three or more authors, start with the first author's last name and et al. from the first citation onward); however, inside parentheses, you use an ampersand (&) between authors' names.

As you can imagine, there are also detailed rules for the presentation of quotations in text. Follow the citation styles noted previously; however, in addition you must include the page number on which (or paragraph in which) the quotation appeared (this is why, using the notecard method, you should write down the page number of any passage that you think you might use as a direct quote). Overall, be sure to follow the instructor's preferences for the use of direct quotes in your research paper assignment. As I've alluded to earlier, I am not a fan of multiple direct quotes in research papers—they should be used only when the original author has said something so perfectly that paraphrasing it would not communicate the same thought. I think students sometimes see direct quotes as a way to have to write less, and I often tell my students that a string of direct quotes does not make a scholarly paper. You exhibit your research talent much more clearly when you take a complicated passage and paraphrase it into simpler terms. If you are going to use direct quotes, be sure to follow the rules of APA format.

If you plan to use a quote of 40 words or more, you must use a block format in text to set off the quote. If you omit part of a quote, you must note that by

using ellipsis marks (. . .) within the quote; however, be sure that your deletion does not change the meaning of the original idea. Remember that you cannot use ellipses at the beginning or end of a direct quote. If you want to add emphasis to the original quote (e.g., by italicizing a word), you must acknowledge that you added the italics to the text (i.e., that what you have italicized was not in italics in the original quote). If you are quoting from a source with page numbers, you must include a page number (e.g., "p. 278"). If you are reporting from a source without page numbers (e.g., a brochure or a website), you must cite the paragraph number using the paragraph symbol (e.g., "para. 7") or you need to provide some sort of description to allow the reader to locate the source material you used.

Tables and Figures

There is extensive coverage of table and figure presentation in the *Publication Manual*—in fact, 24 table examples and 21 figure examples are included in the seventh edition. Tables are fairly common in research papers because they can present a large volume of information in an efficient amount of space. Even though tables are efficient, don't over-rely on them; you only want to use a table if it is integral to the story. Don't use a table just to say you used a table (unless a table is part of a research paper assignment). Tables need to be explicitly mentioned in your text; often that's in the Method or Results section (e.g., "See Table 1 for the means and standard deviations for the survey items"). Tables are single- or double-spaced and cannot contain vertical rules to separate columns. Table titles are italicized. For more details on table preparation, refer to the *Publication Manual*. I also present more information on tables in Chapter 7.

Figures are used in a research paper to present graphical or pictorial information. In the appropriate context, figures can be invaluable for telling a complex story, but figure preparation is also complex. Not only are there precise rules for figure preparation, but in APA format a figure also requires a figure caption to explain the figure. The sample sections and complete sample paper in Chapter 7 present a typical table, but not a figure. For more explicit details on figure preparation, see the *Publication Manual*.

AUDIENCE APPROVAL METER: ASK WHAT YOU ARE BEING GRADED ON

Essentially, the advice I have given you about "giving the instructor the assignment the way they want it" also applies when I submit manuscripts for publication in journals. We all have to follow the professional expectations of the discipline when making our work public. At times, this is frustrating because different faculty members (and different journals) may use slightly different criteria in deciding whether a research paper is good or if a manuscript is

publishable. The strategy to follow is to find out as much as possible about the evaluation standards of whomever will be reviewing your work. Ideally, with your scientific writing assignments, an instructor may be able to provide a grading rubric before you submit your written work. This rubric will give you an idea of your instructor's expectations and what the point values are for particular parts of an assignment. Figure 4.1 is a sample rubric I use when grading an introduction section for my undergraduate, upper division research methods course.

FIGURE 4.1. Sample Rubric for Grading an Introduction Section (continues)

PSYC 321 Research Methods
Spring 2019

Rubric Details for Introduction Section Assignment

Completion of Assignment (25 points)

- Introduce the reader to the issue in the first paragraph. Convince the reader that this is an important issue. Perhaps it impacts a large number of people, or it is an essential component of daily life. Try to impress upon the reader the importance of the issue. Using some general statistics (with citations) here.
- Review the available literature on the topic. If there are studies related specifically to your topic, review them here. If there are no specific studies, then broaden your review of the literature to include related areas. Show that you have done your scholarly homework. You are providing a context for your study. There should be multiple studies cited in this section of your introduction. Start this subsection broad and end narrow.
- Within this context, identify a problem or area where the knowledge is incomplete. This turns into your statement of the problem to be addressed by this research. You have reviewed the literature, but there is a gap in the literature—an unresolved problem or issue. The goal of your study is to fill that gap by conducting your study. Provide a clear statement of purpose for the current study. In fact, conclude this subsection with a sentence that starts with "**The purpose of my study is to....**"
- Then, give a brief overview of the methodology that will be used to address the knowledge gap. Just a snapshot of the participants, materials, and basic procedure used in the study. This is a preview – "coming attractions."
- Conclude your Introduction section with specific hypotheses to be tested or expected outcomes. What do you expect to happen? Develop your working hypotheses based on your expectations and your review of the literature. The more specific you are here, the easier it will be to write survey questions, and the easier it will be to select the appropriate statistical analyses later. Your hypotheses might examine differences between certain groups, associations or relationships between variables, etc. Start each hypothesis sentence with "**I hypothesize that....**"

Clarity of Presentation, Including Mechanics and Grammar (40 points)

- Spelling, grammar, punctuation, noun-verb agreement all correctly followed; obvious mistakes avoided (paper was proofread).
- Avoid direct quotations, but if used, a maximum of three; a scholarly paper is not a string of direct quotations.
- Use of verb tense and noun and pronoun number should be correct and consistent.
- Use of personal pronouns is non-sexist.
- When discussing individuals with disabilities, put the person first (i.e., "a student with anorexia" is preferred over "an anorexic student."
- Transitions between sections should be smooth, and you should avoid awkward sentence constructions.
- Write in complete sentences. Each paragraph focuses on a single topic.
- Avoid being colloquial (informal) in your writing. Be formal, and do not write like you are having a conversation.
- No contractions (e.g., didn't, can't, wouldn't, shouldn't).

FIGURE 4.1. Sample Rubric for Grading an Introduction Section (continued)

- No abbreviations unless APA-approved.
- Avoid passive voice.
- Do not use 'we' or 'us' – this is a single author paper from the first person perspective.
- Avoid overzealous claims, such as correlations data being interpreted as causal, or using the word "prove."
- No anthropomorphizing/avoid the pathetic fallacy error: avoid "data indicate," "research found."
- Be specific and precise – avoid using the word "thing."

Proper Use of APA Style and Formatting (35 points)

APA Writing Style	Microsoft Word Formatting
• Evidence is cited using a paraphrase of the author's ideas (with proper citation), or direct quote (with proper citation and page or paragraph number). • Acronyms are defined prior to the first use of the acronym. • Claims made by the author are supported with evidence (citations); give credit where credit is due to avoid plagiarism. • There are specific rules for the display of numbers/numerals in APA style; be sure to follow those rules and note the exceptions to the rules. • Use "and" and "&" properly with in-text citations. • Use et al. for reference citations following APA rules. • Punctuation should be placed inside quotation marks (either single or double quotation marks). • Repeat the title of paper at the top of the Introduction section on page 3.	• One-inch margin on all four sides of the page. • Entire paper is double-spaced, with no extra spaces between paragraphs or manuscript sections. • Page number inside the top 1-inch margin. • No right justification of text (should be ragged right margin). • Use same font throughout; select from APA-approved list • If a block quote is used (40 words or more), it is properly indented. • If headings/subheadings are used, they must be properly formatted. • If a list is included, use proper APA rules for seriation.

TELLING AND RETELLING YOUR STORY: DRAFTING, EDITING, REVISING, AND PROOFREADING

As you begin drafting your paper, you should also be working on your reference list at the same time. If you are using the notecard method or some form of it, you are already doing that work. The *Publication Manual* is very specific in its rules, but the overriding principle for a reference citation is to provide the reader with enough bibliographic information to find the reference. It should act as a guide to where you extracted the information. The four fundamental parts of a reference citation include the authorship, the date published, the title of the work, and how the work can be located (APA, 2020). A complete reference citation is important because it allows any reader to retrace the "intellectual journey" that brought you to your conclusions.

Writing the Rough Draft

If you have been following my advice from previous chapters, writing your first rough draft will not be so daunting. You have a research question or thesis statement, and you have done a review of the literature and gathered your research articles. You have read everything carefully while recording your

reference notecards and idea notecards, and now you are ready to write. Because you have placed one idea on each card, you can easily arrange and rearrange your ideas into paragraphs. But, even with all the wonderful background work you have done, it's time to start writing.

As with any important project, sometimes it's hard to get started. Writers (not just student writers) often want the words to come out perfectly the first time around. Although that might be nice, it rarely happens. The overall goal of a rough draft is to get you started, and then later in the process you can edit, revise, and proofread. Being perfectionistic in your expectations of your first draft may cause you to procrastinate. A little procrastination is okay, but too much will lead to panic and cramming at the last minute, and may not allow you to do your best work. Some helpful suggestions for writing your rough draft follow.

To help avoid procrastination, allow yourself to write an imperfect rough draft. I often tell my students that it is much easier to edit than to create. However, before you can edit, you first have to generate some content. Staring at a blank page or a blank computer screen can be intimidating—the best cure is to start writing.

You know yourself better than anyone. It may be unreasonable for you to block out time on Saturday from 1:00 p.m. to 7:00 p.m. You know your best times of day; try to do some of your writing during those windows. Waiting until 1:00 a.m., when you finally have some time, is also not a good idea. Write in short spurts—promise yourself that you will write nonstop for 15 to 30 minutes, without any distractions. If you string together enough of these 15- to 30-minute writing sessions, eventually you'll have a rough draft. And if you start your assignment early enough, you won't need to panic and try to complete everything minutes before it is due.

It's okay to take breaks. Get up from your computer and stretch. Use Pomodoro (a time management technique). Get something to drink. But don't make the breaks longer than the writing session. If your mind (or heart) isn't into writing, then do something else. But at those times when you are in the mood to write, write! I have to tell you that I'm this way; if I'm not in the mood to write, then I don't do it—I go do something else. But when my brain is in that "writing mode," I try to milk it for all it's worth and get as much done as I can. Before you take a break, try to map out what you will be writing about next time you sit down to write. Leave yourself some notes, or a skeleton outline in your file, so that when you come back to it you'll be able to jump-start yourself and pick up your thoughts.

Save all of your rough drafts and all of your notes about your paper. As you go through the editing and revising process, you may cut out sentences or even paragraphs, then realize later on that you want to put something back in. If you do all your writing and editing in one file, deleted information is likely to be gone (unless you are using Microsoft Word's "Track Changes" mode, in which case writing a rough draft would be cumbersome). So name your first rough draft, for example, "term paper draft 1.0," then whenever you make minor

revisions, use the "Save As" function and rename the next file "draft 1.1," "draft 1.2," and so forth. Whenever I complete a major revision, I bump the revision number up to "draft 2.0," and so on. This will leave you with a trail of your rough drafts, which is also a nice way to demonstrate the work that you did throughout the writing process.

Editing Your Work

Editing can occur at multiple times in the writing process. However, editing cannot occur until there is something to edit! Thus, getting anything down for a rough draft, no matter how rough it is, allows you to begin the process of improvement. Many authors recommend valuable tips for the editing process, such as placing a ruler under each line as you read it so that your eyes have a manageable amount of text to review (University of Arkansas at Little Rock, n.d.). Here are some helpful suggestions and tips for editing from Texas A&M University (n.d.):

- After you finish your rough draft, set it aside for a period of time before looking at it again. This will allow you to review it with a fresh perspective.
- If you are going to self-edit, double or triple space your draft so you'll have room to write down suggestions.
- Be brutal with yourself; don't settle, and don't take shortcuts. Delete, substitute, rearrange, insert, and create new if you need to.
- Give special consideration to beginning and ending paragraphs.
- Read it out loud. You will hear some mistakes that you didn't see. Just take care to read each word verbatim—our brains autocorrect many of the errors that can occur. Better yet, have someone else read your draft out loud to you.
- Keep a list of your most common errors so that you can improve and learn to avoid those errors in the future.

More editing suggestions are offered by Lipkewich (2001):

- Read your own work backwards. Read the last sentence, then the second-to-last sentence, and so on.
- Does each sentence make sense when you read it on its own?
- Do you see or hear any errors in the sentence?
- Be sure that every sentence has two parts: the subject (who or what) and the predicate (what is happening).
- Use sentence-combining words such as "and," "but," "or," "yet," "who," "whom," "which," "that," "whose," "because," "although," "when," "if," and "where."

- Use periods and commas where necessary, but do not overuse them.
- Do not overuse the exclamation point.
- Use a dictionary to check spelling in addition to any software spell-checkers you may use.

Revising Your Work

You've completed the hard work of creating the best rough draft that you can, and you have sought out editorial comment. You may have self-edited, had a peer edit your work, or perhaps your instructor edited and/or graded your rough draft. Your draft may have been returned to you with tracked changes and comments in the file. With this invaluable feedback, now it's time to revise your work.

Revising is simply looking back at your writing and making changes. What types of changes? You might decide to add new information that you can now see is missing, or you might take out information you now know is unnecessary or tangential to your main topic. You might rearrange the order or sequence of ideas, sentences, or even complete paragraphs to tell a more compelling story, and you might change or substitute words now that you can begin to see the big picture coming together. Revising is *not* proofreading for typographical errors or misplaced words, and just because you used spell-check does not mean that the revision process is complete (Empire State College, n.d.). Consider the first draft of a simulated student paper (Figure 4.2). I've created this so it would be a realistic first draft of part of a term paper or literature review that a student might be working on.

Remember, the goal of a first draft is to just get ideas down. Rather than marking every spelling mistake and instance of incorrect citation style, your instructor may instead give you a list of broader goals for improving your work, expecting you to make the finer corrections yourself. If I were grading this sample paper, I might create a list of revision feedback that included the following:

- Focus your first paragraph a little better. First, get rid of the word "thing" because it's too vague. Second, I think readers will agree that hate and hate crimes are painful, so expand on the ways in which hate is real. I'm not sure I get the connection between fast-paced lifestyles, stress, and hate. Anger, yes, but why hate?
- OK, I see what you mean about societal changes leading to hate. Interesting idea that without a stratified class system, we create our own in- and out-groups. What does "introversion" mean?
- Please clarify: Do you think discrimination is the most significant domestic social issue of our times *because* it has caused the most violence? Is this the way Newman defined its significance? Your citations are not in APA Style—please correct.

- Need smoother transition between second and third paragraph. "Newman points out a problem. . . ." Huh? Sounds like you are about to move to a new topic.
- Not clear where Whillock quote begins and ends. Who's cited at end of paragraph 3?
- Link the sentence about Salem witch hunts, and relevance of these examples to the idea that defining values goes hand in hand with defining what is not valued.
- Please proofread. There are a few obvious spelling mistakes.

FIGURE 4.2. Sample Paper on Hate, Rough Draft

Hate is a very real and painful thing in our society today. We have seen case after case all throughout history where hate crimes have been committed mainly towards groups of minorities. Today's lifestyle is fast paced, stressful and the society has changed. These factors combined cause flared anger and frustrations. These things lead us to the hate that we see displayed today.

In a society that has fundamentally rejected class and caste, each of us looks elsewhere for identifications. The result has been a tendency toward introversions and "in-group" association, the manifestations of which are too often bigotry, prejudice and discrimination against those thought to constitute the "out-group." Tacitly accepted for so long as imply a fact of American life discrimination has now emerged as probably the most significant domestic social issue of our times, and already quite the most violent (Newman 1-2).

Newman points out a problem our society has today. This is a problem that has been created by the society itself, and it is a problem that needs to be handled in a sociological manner. Whillock argues that "hate is not viewed as outside the bounds of societal interest. From societal sanctioning of the Salem witch-hunts or the McCrthy hearings, to outrage over Wounded Knee and Mi Lai, American history is replete with examples of how society has attempted to come to terms with acts of hatred. Such struggles will continue to exist as longs as we keep trying to define (or redefine) our culture's values and the consequent objects for its disdain (47).

When you look at the final draft (Figure 4.3), you'll notice that the student took charge of the line edits and proofreading and took some of the suggestions but ignored others. This is typically OK unless you are ignoring a key point that your instructor has been emphasizing. The text becomes a bit shorter, but it reads much better. You may have to go through more than one revision cycle; also, try to have as many people look at it as possible. Have a classmate review your work (and offer to review theirs). Ask your instructor (if possible) or a teaching assistant to review your work so you have multiple revision opportunities. And remember, you will only have time for this revision process if you finish your drafts ahead of time—the last-minute approach does not allow for revisions and improvements.

FIGURE 4.3. Sample Paper on Hate, Revised

Hate is a real phenomenon in society today. We see case after case throughout history where hate crimes were committed toward groups of minorities. Today's lifestyle is fast paced and stressful, and the society has changed. These complexities combined cause anger, frustration, and the hate we see displayed today.

In a society that has fundamentally rejected class and caste, each of us looks elsewhere for identifications. The result is a tendency toward introversions and "in-group" association, the manifestations of which are bigotry, prejudice, and discrimination. Tacitly accepted for so long as simply a fact of American life, discrimination is now probably the most significant domestic social issue of our time, and it is already quite violent (Newman, 2002).

Newman (2002) stated that this problem was created by society, and it is a problem that needs to be addressed from a sociological perspective. Whillock (2003) argued that "hate is not viewed as outside the bounds of societal interest" (p. 492). From societal sanctioning of the Salem witch hunts or the McCarthy hearings, to outrage over Wounded Knee and Mi Lai, American history is replete with examples of how society has attempted to come to terms with acts of hatred. Such struggles will continue to exist as long as society strives to define (or redefine) our culture's core values and future objects of disdain (Newman, 2002).

This revision process is common throughout all of scientific writing. In fact, your faculty members who do research and publish know much about revision. Rarely, and I mean rarely, will a scholarly paper be accepted on its first submission to a professional journal. In fact, the outcome that most aspiring scientists hope for is "revise and resubmit," sometimes called "R & R." That is, the journal has technically rejected the first submission for publication, but the editorial feedback is for the author to revise his or her work and resubmit it, hoping for an eventual acceptance. The process that faculty members follow with their students, draft–edit–revise, is the exact process that faculty members follow in their professional careers. One of the reasons faculty members invest so much time and effort into grading and marking student papers is because we are modeling the professional practices of our discipline for students.

Proofreading Your Work

The last stage in this draft–edit–revise cycle is proofreading. When you think you are about done with your final product, proofreading is the process of making final corrections and changes to your near-finished paper. What types of errors are you looking for at this stage of the process? According to Hibbard (n.d.), the most common errors identified during proofreading are incorrectly spelled names, reversed numbers, incorrect dates, incorrect or inconsistent capitalization, duplicate words or phrases, omission of words or parts of words, incorrect or missing punctuation, nonagreement of subject and verb, and misspelled words. Proofreading is not the stage for creating new sections of the paper, or making major changes—that should have been accomplished during the revision process. Proofreading is the "fine tuning" that occurs before that wonderful feeling of being finished with a quality product.

Numerous authors have offered advice to facilitate successful proofreading. Taking the suggestions of Hibbard (n.d.), the University of Arkansas at Little Rock (n.d.), and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (n.d.), I created the checklist in Exhibit 4.2 as a guide to proofreading.

Finally, as suggested previously regarding the rough draft process, read every word out loud or have someone else read every word out loud to you. This will help you identify missing or extra words (Szuchman, 2005).

HOW TO AVOID PLAGIARISM WITH STYLE AND GOOD ACADEMIC CITIZENSHIP

What is plagiarism? According to Landau (n.d., para. 3), "Plagiarism occurs when people take credit for thoughts, words, images, musical passages, or ideas originally created by someone else." The Council of Writing Program Administrators (2003, para. 4) defined plagiarism as "when a writer deliberately uses someone else's language, ideas, or other original (not common-knowledge) material without acknowledging its source." Essentially, plagiarism is the failure

EXHIBIT 4.2. Proofreading Checklist

Check (√) one

Yes	No	Proofreading Questions to Consider
____	____	Did you proofread from a printed copy (not from the computer screen)?
____	____	Did you look for words that are commonly misused? (A list of these is presented in Exhibit 4.5.)
____	____	Did you allow some time to pass between finishing the last revision and your final proofreading?
____	____	Did you proofread one last time before you printed or sent the final copy?
____	____	Are there matching open and closed quotation marks and parentheses?
____	____	Is the punctuation spaced consistently?
____	____	Is there too much or too little space anywhere in the final draft?
____	____	Have all the names and dates been checked and double checked?
____	____	Are all the bullets aligned?
____	____	Are all the word divisions (hyphenations) correct?
____	____	Have you used spell-check and grammar-check?
____	____	Did you proofread for one type of error at a time?
____	____	Did you read slowly and read every word?
____	____	Did you check to make sure there were no changes in font type or font size throughout the work?
____	____	If you prepared your work in Mac Pages or Google Docs and converted it to Microsoft Word to hand in, did you check the converted Microsoft Word document to see if APA formatting was properly preserved?
____	____	If you are uploading your file to a learning management system and if the instructor has rules for file names, did you follow the precise rules for file names?
____	____	Did you review the rubric and make sure all parts of your work comply with the instructor's expectations?
____	____	Did you ensure every sentence ends with a punctuation mark?
____	____	Are you satisfied with your work?

to give credit where credit is due. There are serious consequences for students who are caught plagiarizing; these vary from instructor to instructor as well as from institution to institution. You should be able to find detailed information about this in your institution's student handbook. The consequences could be receiving an F on the assignment, an F in the course, and, in some cases, academic probation and/or loss of scholarships.

Harris (2005) and Landau (n.d.) suggested two main types of plagiarism—intentional and unintentional. Intentional plagiarism is a purposeful act in which deception on the part of the writer is premeditated. Exhibit 4.3 presents examples of what most would consider acts of intentional plagiarism. Unintentional plagiarism occurs when there is no intent to plagiarize, yet it happens anyway. This may be from a lack of knowledge about proper citation

EXHIBIT 4.3. Examples of Intentional Plagiarism

- Downloading and turning in a paper from the internet, including a webpage or paper mill essay
- Copying and pasting phrases, sentences, or paragraphs into your paper without showing a quotation or adding the proper citation
- Paraphrasing or summarizing a source's words or ideas without proper citation
- Including a graph, table, or picture from a source without proper citation
- Getting so much help from a tutor or writing helper that the paper or part of the paper is no longer honestly your work
- Turning in previously written work when that practice is prohibited by your instructor
- Taking someone else's ideas and claiming them to be your own original ideas

Note. From *Using Sources Effectively: Strengthening Your Writing and Avoiding Plagiarism* (2nd ed., p. 14), by R. A. Harris, 2005. Copyright 2005 by Pyrczak. Reprinted with permission.

rules, carelessness, inappropriate use of a source, or other inadvertent actions (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2003; Harris, 2005).

Sometimes it is difficult to differentiate between plagiarism and sloppy citation style, which emphasizes the importance of your instructors teaching you about proper citations (in our case, APA Style) and how to avoid plagiarism. Let me present you with some of these "sticky situations" and practice a bit to determine whether the writing constitutes plagiarism or the misuse of sources. The idea for this exercise comes from Shadle (2006). Here is the original text from Price (2002), followed by the source in proper APA reference format:

> But plagiarism is not stable. What we think of as plagiarism shifts across historical time periods, across cultures, across workplaces, even across academic disciplines. We need to stop treating plagiarism like a pure moral absolute ("Thou shalt not plagiarize") and start explaining it in a way that accounts for these shifting features of contexts.

Price, M. (2002). Beyond "gotcha!": Situating plagiarism in policy and pedagogy. *College Composition and Communication, 54*(1), 88–115. https://doi.org/10.2307/1512103

If you were going to use that as a direct quote in your paper, here is what it would look like (note that the text is indented because the quote is longer than 40 words):

> But plagiarism is not stable. What we think of as plagiarism shifts across historical time periods, across cultures, across workplaces, even across academic disciplines. We need to stop treating plagiarism like a pure moral absolute ("Thou shalt not plagiarize") and start explaining it in a way that accounts for these shifting features of contexts. (Price, 2002, p. 90)

But what if a student were to write the following—would this be plagiarism?

> Plagiarism is very difficult to understand because it is not stable. What we think of as plagiarism shifts across historical time periods, across cultures, across workplaces, even across academic disciplines. We need to stop treating plagiarism like a pure moral absolute and start explaining it in a way that accounts for these shifting features of contexts.

For most faculty, the answer would be yes, this is plagiarism. Not only are most of the phrases identical to the original, but there is absolutely no attribution to the author (remember, we must give credit where credit is due). If I were to read a paragraph like this in a student's paper, I would have to assume that this idea was the student's original idea because of the lack of attribution.

The previous example is fairly blatant, but what about this one?

> According to Price, plagiarism is not stable. What we think of as plagiarism shifts across historical time periods, across cultures, across workplaces, even across academic disciplines. We need to stop treating plagiarism like a pure moral absolute and start explaining it in a way that accounts for these shifting features of contexts (90).

I would consider this example either unintentional plagiarism or sloppy citation format. It does give credit where credit is due, which is good. However, after the first sentence almost everything else is verbatim, and thus should be presented as a direct quote. Also, this example uses Modern Language Association citation style, not APA (which irritates me). Make sure you follow the style that your instructor wants, not a style you may have previously learned in another class!

What Are the Causes of Plagiarism?

Whether intentional or not, plagiarism happens, and understanding the causes of plagiarism might help you develop strategies to avoid it. Students are motivated to plagiarize for a number of reasons: Some may fear failure or taking risks in writing; others may have inadequate time management skills and think they have no choice but to plagiarize. Other students may believe that the assignment, course, or rules of APA Style and format are unimportant or that the consequences of plagiarism are unimportant or rarely enforced.

To be honest, teachers can be part of the problem as well—some of the causes of plagiarism are linked to the lack of instruction and consistency from faculty members. Instructors need to design writing assignments to minimize the risk or threat of plagiarism (more on this later). Teachers may create assignments that are so generic or like busywork that students feel completing them is a waste of their time, thereby justifying (in students' minds) cheating. Also, teachers and institutions may not consistently report plagiarism when it occurs, penalize it appropriately, or track it over time (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2003).

How to Avoid Plagiarism

Students and faculty members need to share in the responsibility of taking steps to prevent plagiarism. As a student, you are responsible for your part of this bargain, but know that faculty must also hold up their end of the bargain. Students need to (a) understand that intentional plagiarism harms their character, (b) know that intentional plagiarism cheats themselves, and (c) know

that plagiarism is not a practice accepted as a trait of a well-rounded, educated citizen. Faculty members need to demonstrate APA Style and format in the use of internet-based materials, and they need to talk about the underlying implications of plagiarism and what it might mean for a student's future. Faculty members also need to design writing assignments in such a way that the potential for plagiarism is minimized (such as reviewing students' article summaries and rough drafts, examining reference and idea notecards used in writing), and they need to include in their syllabuses the course and university policies on plagiarism (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2003; Harris, 2005; University of Maryland University College, 2011).

Protecting Yourself From Plagiarism Accusations

There are strategies to help you avoid plagiarism charges. Exhibit 4.4 provides excellent suggestions for protecting yourself from plagiarism.

Unfortunately, if an instructor has been teaching long enough, they have encountered cheating, including plagiarism, in some form or another. The following story demonstrates how important attitude can be and the good that can come from being honest. I once caught two students in an upper division psychology class cheating (it wasn't plagiarism, but copying an assignment). To be honest, intent is sometimes hard to determine even when the instance of cheating is not hard to detect (one student had completed a homework assignment and copied it, and each student put their name on a separate copy). I confronted both students about my discovery. I told them that this was cheating and an act of academic dishonesty and that there would be punishment. One student was extremely remorseful, and after thinking about it, realized what they had done and apologized for it. The other student was offended that they had been called a cheater and expressed no responsibility or remorse for

EXHIBIT 4.4. Plagiarism Avoidance: Avoid Being a Victim, Avoid Being Charged With Plagiarism

1. Protect your data and your computer passwords to protect against theft.
2. Do not lend, give, or upload any paper to anyone, even if a student just wants to see what an APA-formatted paper looks like.
3. Report any theft immediately, including to the proper authorities and, in the case of your academic work, your instructors.
4. Save and print all drafts and notes—having your reference, idea notecards, and/or Google Sheets will help support the originality of your written work.
5. Photocopy, print, or save PDFs of all of your sources, and do not cite something that you have not actually read yourself.
6. Be proactive in seeking out the advice of your instructor and teaching assistants. If someone has been reviewing your work all semester, it will be easier for you to make the case that your work is actually your work.

Note. From *Using Sources Effectively: Strengthening Your Writing and Avoiding Plagiarism* (2nd ed.; pp. 24–25), by R. A. Harris, 2005. Copyright 2005 by Pyrczak. Reprinted with permission.

their actions. The former student went on to do great things in our department and was quite successful. The latter student seemed to just fade away. The point of my story is this: How you deal with conditions that tempt you to plagiarize, and your maturity in accepting responsibility for your actions, can make a big difference in how you are perceived by others and the future opportunities you may be afforded. Own your mistakes.

Plagiarism is a form of cheating with serious consequences. I agree with Harris's (2005) statement: "The goal of education is not to get through, but to get better" (p. 15). If you intend to cheat your way through college, why bother? I've been saying to my students for years, would you want to go to the hospital for surgery with a physician who had cheated their way through medical school? Would you want to consult a lawyer who had cheated through law school, or a therapist who had cheated through graduate school? Plagiarism and cheating have the potential to be harmful to others, but most of all they are harmful to you.

QUIZ YOURSELF ON APA STYLE

Because I am not a grammarian, I rely on the advice of others to provide useful tips for avoiding common writing mistakes. There are many good resources available to help you avoid common mistakes (e.g., Bellquist, 1993; Shertzer, 1986). Some are classics, like *The Elements of Style* (Strunk & White, 1979), and there are many updated versions in standalone books, in English books, and on the internet. In Chapters 5 and 6, I present specific instructions and examples of APA Style and format for scientific writing assignments. In this section, I provide numerous helpful resources that you may want to consult when writing and revising your written work. Figure 4.4 contains an example of an exercise I created to help identify APA Style errors. There are many different types of errors. See how many you can find, and then check your work against the errors I found. Figure 4.5 presents my marked-up copy of the exercise. Your instructor may not be as picky as I am, or perhaps they will be pickier. In other words, write for your instructor, because each person has specific likes and dislikes, and as much as we try to objectify the grading of written work, it is very much a subjective process.

Of course, instructors don't always put every comment they want to on student papers because (one hopes) most instructors want to encourage students to work to see improvements in writing and the critical thinking that accompanies it. Table 4.3 includes a list of the 20 most common grammatical errors that occur in student essays (other than misspellings). In this listing based on Connors and Lunsford (1988, as cited in Gottschalk & Hjortshoj, 2004; see also Lunsford, 2005), I provide the error and an example that demonstrates the error. Remember, this is what NOT to do.

As I mentioned earlier, there are many good resources that present detailed information about common mistakes and how to avoid them. Exhibits 4.5 and 4.6 present commonly confused words and commonly misspelled words.

FIGURE 4.4. Sample Paper on Relationship Interactions

Many couples want a successful relationship that is also satisfying. Partners who are satisfied with their interactions tend to be satisfied with other non-romantic relationships (Emmers-Sommer, 514). As a response to ongoing interaction between partners, loving attitudes are formed, things that are shaped by personality type and past and existing relationship interactions (Meeks, Hendrick and Hendrick, '98). That is what my paper is about.

So which aspect of interaction in a relationship is more important; the amount or quality of interaction? Arguments 4 both sides exist.. self-disclosure defined as face—to—face communication of information is often reciprocal, and related to the development of close personal ties (Arliss 1991). Another aspect to examine is if males and females view interaction and relationship quality differently, as suggested by Galliher, Walsh, Rostosky & Kawaguchi (2004): "the domains of couple interaction that predict global relationship quality were different for males and females." (214). Tucker and Anders et al. (1999) report that women have been found to be more satisfied when their partner shows concern with emotional intimacy, but the same has not been found true of men.

A *t* test was used to examine differences on the agreement scale item "Sharing personal thoughts, feelings, and experiences with my partner improves our relationship," and answers to the yes/no item "Over the duration of my relationship, our physical interaction has increased". A significant relationship exists between "yes" (M-4.43, SD – 0.562) and "no" ($\underline{M}$ = 3.9, $\underline{SD}$ = .65) respondents on self-disclosure scores, $t(4,5) = 2.693$, $p < .05$. There is a statistically significant difference between these groups.

This research done by me stresses the importance of the willingness to self-disclose and encourages positive interaction to achieve relationship satisfaction. LAC issues are proved to be important to consider when pursuing a romantic relationship. Like we talked about in lecture, men and women sometimes want different things out of relationships. Sometimes quality, sometimes quantity. According to John Gottman's website, relationship quality is important.

FIGURE 4.5. Sample Paper on Relationship Interactions, With Instructor Edits

Many couples want a successful relationship that is also satisfying. Partners who are satisfied with their interactions tend to be satisfied with other non-romantic relationships (Emmers-Sommer, ~~5142~~2016). As a response to ongoing interaction between partners, loving attitudes are formed, things that are shaped by personality type and past and existing relationship interactions (Meeks~~, et al. Hendrick, & and Hendrick~~, ~~'~~1998). ~~That is what my paper is about.~~

So which aspect of interaction in a relationship is more important~~:~~ the amount or quality of interaction? Arguments for~~4~~ both sides exist. ~~s~~Self-disclosure is defined as face~~—~~to~~—~~face communication of information, and it is often reciprocal~~,~~ and related to the development of close personal ties (Arliss, 1991). Another aspect to examine is if males and females view interaction and relationship quality differently, as suggested by Galliher~~, Walsh, Rostosky & Kawaguchi et al.~~ (2004): "~~t~~The domains of couple interaction that predict global relationship quality were different for males and females." (p. 214). Tucker ~~and Anders~~ et al. (1999) reported that women ~~have been found to be~~are more satisfied when their partner shows concern with emotional intimacy, but the same is not~~has not been found~~ true of men.

A *t* test was used to examine differences on the responses to the agreement scale item "Sharing personal thoughts, feelings, and experiences with my partner improves our relationship," and answers to the yes/no item "Over the duration of my relationship, our physical interaction has increased." A significant ~~relationship~~ difference exists between "yes" (*M* = 4.43, *SD* = 0.562) and "no" (*M* = 3.94, *SD* = 0.65) participants on self-disclosure scores, *t*(4,5) = 2.693, *p* <= .015. There is a statistically significant difference between these groups.

Based on t~~T~~his research, I want to ~~done by me~~ stresses the importance of the willingness to self-disclose and encourages positive interaction to achieve relationship satisfaction. LAC issues are proved to be important to consider when pursuing a romantic relationship. Like we talked about in lecture, men and women sometimes want different ~~things out of~~ outcomes from relationships. Sometimes quality, sometimes quantity. According to ~~John~~ Gottman~~'s website~~ (2018), relationship quality is important.

Comment: insert year, not page number

Comment: The word "things" is too vague; try to avoid it when writing scientifically.

Comment: run-on

Comment: Try not to be this informal; your paper is not a conversation between us.

Comment: Avoid acronyms that make more work for the reader.

Comment: "Prove" is too strong; in science, we don't prove.

Comment: Too informal; and, it appears there is only one author, so there is no "we."

Comment: vague

Comment: This is not a complete sentence, but a sentence fragment.

TABLE 4.3. Grammatical Problems to Avoid

	Twenty most common errors	Example of the error
1.	No comma after an introductory element	Well it wasn't really true.
2.	Vague pronoun reference	John told his father that his car had been stolen.
3.	No comma in compound sentence	I like to eat but I hate to gain weight.
4.	Wrong word	His F in math enhanced his alarm about his D in chemistry.
5.	Missing comma(s) with a nonrestrictive element	The students who had unsuccessfully concealed their participation in the prank were expelled.
6.	Wrong or missing verb ending	I use to go often to town.
7.	Wrong or missing preposition	Cottonwood Grille is located at Boise.
8.	Comma splice	Chloe liked the cat, however, she was allergic to it.
9.	Missing or misplaced possessive apostrophe	Student's backpacks weigh far too much.
10.	Unnecessary shift in tense	I was happily watching TV when suddenly my sister attacks me.
11.	Unnecessary shift in pronoun	When one is tired, you should sleep.
12.	Sentence fragment	He went shopping in the local sports store. An outing he usually enjoyed. [The second part is the fragment.]
13.	Wrong tense or verb form	I would not have said that if I thought it would have shocked her.
14.	Lack of subject–verb agreement	Having many close friends, especially if you've known them for a long time, are a great help in times of trouble.
15.	Missing comma in a series	Students eat, sleep and do homework.
16.	Gender-biased language	When someone plagiarizes from material on a website, he is likely to be caught.
17.	Unnecessary comma(s) with a restrictive element	The novel, that my teacher assigned, was very boring.
18.	Run-on or fused sentence	He loved the seminar he even loved the readings.
19.	Dangling or misplaced modifier	After being put to sleep, a small incision is made below the navel.
20.	*Its–it's* confusion	Its a splendid day for everyone.

Note. Data from Gottschalk and Hjortshoj (2004).

Although there are over 110 different reference formats presented in the *Publication Manual,* the following examples (formatted in APA Style) are from the most common sources that you are likely to cite. Citing electronic documents can be tricky, but the seventh edition of the *Publication Manual* has detailed instructions about how to do this.

EXHIBIT 4.5. Commonly Confused Words

advice/advise	conscience/conscious	hear/here	passed/past
affect/effect	corps/corpse	heard/herd	patience/patients
aisle/isle	council/counsel	hole/whole	peace/piece
allusion/illusion	dairy/diary	human/humane	personal/personnel
an/and	desert/dessert	its/it's	plain/plane
angel/angle	device/devise	know/no	precede/proceed
ascent/assent	die/dye	later/latter	presence/presents
bare/bear	dominant/dominate	lay/lie	principal/principle
brake/break	elicit/illicit	lead/led	quiet/quite
breath/breathe	eminent/immanent/ imminent	lessen/lesson	rain/reign/rein
buy/by	envelop/envelope	loose/lose	raise/raze
capital/capitol	every day/everyday	may be/maybe	reality/realty
choose/chose	fair/fare	miner/minor	respectfully/ respectively
cite/sight/site	formally/formerly	moral/morale	reverend/reverent
complement/ compliment	forth/fourth	of/off	

Note. From *The Psychology Student Writer's Manual* (2nd ed., pp. 52–54), by J. M. Scott, R. Koch, G. M. Scott, and S. M. Garrison, 2002, Pearson Education. Copyright 2002 by Pearson Education. Reprinted with permission.

Journal Article

Fouad, N. A., Grus, C. L., Hatcher, R. L., Kaslow, N. J., Hutchings, P. S., Madson, M. B., Collins, F. L., & Crossman, R. E. (2009). Competency benchmarks: A model for understanding and measuring competence in professional psychology across training levels. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 3*(Suppl.), S5–S26. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015832

Freeman, S., Eddy, S. L., McDonough, M., Smith, M. K., Okoroafor, N., Jordt, H., & Wenderoth, M. P. (2014). Active learning increases student performance in science, engineering, and mathematics. *PNAS, 111*(23), 8410–8415.

Gurung, R. A. R., Hackathorn, J., Enns, C., Frantz, S., Cacioppo, J. T., Loop, T., & Freeman, J. E. (2016). Strengthening introductory psychology: A new model for teaching the introductory course. *American Psychologist, 71*(2), 112–124. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040012

Holdhus, K., Hoisaeter, S., Maeland, K., Vangsnes, V., Engelsen, K. S., Espenland, M., & Espeland, A. (2016). Improvisation in teaching and education—Roots and applications. *Teacher Education & Development, 3*(1204142). https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186x.2016.1204142

Book

Gabriel, K. F. (2008). *Teaching unprepared students: Strategies for promoting success and retention in higher education.* Stylus Publishing.

Hettich, P. I., & Landrum, R. E. (2014). *Your undergraduate degree in psychology: From college to career.* Sage.

EXHIBIT 4.6. Commonly Misspelled Words

a lot	fascinate	occasionally	scenery
acceptable	finally	occurred	science
accessible	foresee	occurrences	secede
accommodate	forty	omission	secession
accompany	fulfill	omit	secretary
accustomed	gauge	opinion	senseless
acquire	guaranteed	opponent	separate
against	guard	parallel	sergeant
annihilate	harass	parole	shining
apparent	hero	peaceable	significant
arguing	heroes	performance	sincerely
argument	humorous	pertain	skiing
authentic	hurried	practical	stubbornness
before	hurriedly	preparation	studying
begin	hypocrite	probably	succeed
beginning	ideally	process	success
believe	immediately	professor	successfully
benefited	immense	prominent	susceptible
bulletin	incredible	pronunciation	suspicious
business	innocuous	psychology	technical
cannot	intercede	publicly	temporary
category	interrupt	pursue	tendency
committee	irrelevant	pursuing	therefore
condemn	irresistible	questionnaire	tragedy
courteous	irritate	realize	truly
definitely	knowledge	receipt	tyranny
dependent	license	received	unanimous
desperate	likelihood	recession	unconscious
develop	maintenance	recommend	undoubtedly
different	manageable	referring	until
disappear	meanness	religious	vacuum
disappoint	mischievous	remembrance	valuable
easily	missile	reminisce	various
efficient	necessary	repetition	vegetable
environment	nevertheless	representative	visible
equipped	no one	rhythm	without
exceed	noticeable	ridiculous	women
exercise	noticing	roommate	writing
existence	nuisance	satellite	
experience	occasion	scarcity	

Note. From *The Psychology Student Writer's Manual* (2nd ed., pp. 52–54), by J. M. Scott, R. Koch, G. M. Scott, and S. M. Garrison, 2002, Pearson Education. Copyright 2002 by Pearson Education. Reprinted with permission.

Edited Book

Brakke, K., & Houska, J. A. (Eds.). (2015). *Telling stories: The art and science of storytelling as an instructional strategy*. Society for the Teaching of Psychology. http://teachpsych.org/ebooks/tellingstories.html

Chastain, G., & Landrum, R. E. (Eds.). (1999). *Protecting human subjects: Departmental subject pools and institutional review boards*. American Psychological Association.

Halpern, D. F. (Ed.). (2010). *Undergraduate education in psychology: A blueprint for the future of the discipline*. American Psychological Association.

Chapter in Edited Book

Kezar, A., & Holcombe, E. (2016). Institutional transformation in STEM: Insights from change research and the Keck-PKAL project. In G. C. Weaver, W. D. Burgess, A. L. Childress, & L. Slakey (Eds.), *Transforming institutions: Undergraduate STEM education for the 21st century* (pp. 35–47). Purdue University Press.

Landrum, R. E., Beins, B. C., Bhalla, M., Brakke, K., Briihl, D. S., Curl-Langager, R. M., Pusateri, T. P., & Van Kirk, J. J. (2010). Desired outcomes of an undergraduate education in psychology from departmental, student, and societal perspectives. In D. F. Halpern (Ed.), *Undergraduate education in psychology: A blueprint for the future of the discipline* (pp. 145–160). American Psychological Association.

Conference Presentation

Brakke, K., & Landrum, R. E. (2019, October 8–10). *Storytelling startup: How to incorporate story in the psychology classroom* [Workshop]. STP Annual Conference on Teaching, Denver, CO, United States. https://teachpsych.org/Conference-Schedule

Landrum, R. E. (2019, August 8-11). *Thirty years teaching psychology: Lessons learnt (...and those not so much...)* [American Psychological Foundation Charles L. Brewer Distinguished Teaching of Psychology Award Invited Address]. American Psychological Association, Chicago, IL, United States. http://app.core-apps.com/apa2019/event/4d029ea838ad25ed69714ffcfb5d16a3

Magazine or Newspaper Article

Lin, L., Christidis, P., & Stamm, K. (2017, October 8). The path to becoming a psychologist. *Monitor on Psychology, 48*(9), 17.

Selingo, J. J. (2013, April 29). Does the college major matter? Not really. *The New York Times*. https://thechoice.blogs.nytimes.com/2013/04/29/does-the-college-major-matter-not-really/?mcubz=3

Sevener, J. (2014, February 7). 10 reasons for teachers to use improv in the classroom. *The Second City*. https://www.secondcity.com/network/network10-reasons-teachers-use-improv-classroom/

Internet Material

American Psychological Association. (2013). *APA guidelines for the undergraduate psychology major: Version 2.0*. https://www.apa.org/ed/precollege/about/undergraduate-major

National Center for Education Statistics. (2017). *Degrees in psychology conferred by postsecondary institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1945-50 through 2014-15* [Table 325.80]. https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d16/tables/dt16_325.80.asp?current=yes

U.S. Department of Labor. (2017). *O*NET Online*. https://www.onetonline.org/

Vita, M. (n.d.). *Distinguishing correlational vs. experimental research*. American Psychological Association, Project Assessment. http://pass.apa.org/docs/distinguishing-correlational-vs-experimental-research/