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1 Introduction

1.1 The Purpose of this Publication

Just after leaving his position as Chancellor of the University of Lund in 1983, Professor Nils Stjernquist gave a speech during the occasion of the Tetra Days in which, amongst other things, he gave his impression of the education at the University. What he said was this:

The most important concern, as I see it, relates to the problems concerning the student’s use of language. I have often asked persons in positions of authority in our companies and public institutions what they think of the educational standards at the University. The common answer is that students have a good knowledge of their subjects, but find it difficult to write concisely and, more to the point, to express their ideas in oral presentations. (Stjernquist 1983 p. 16)

That was said nearly three decades ago, and it is possible that today's students have developed better communication skills than those of the 1980’s. On the other hand, what has remained a central concern, and has in fact become even more important since then, is the requirement that those with a university education should be able to express themselves well in both speech and writing. To a large extent it is through their ability to speak and write effectively that students demonstrate their educational accomplishments. Social scientists are no exception. No matter what career you choose in later years, the ability to express yourself well in both speaking and writing is an asset.

It is therefore important that you take advantage of the possibility of developing these skills while in the educational system at the University. While studying political science you will be asked to complete assignments which give you the opportunity to develop both your ability to speak on topics of interest, and to write effectively and concisely. This booklet has been put together with the aim of providing advice and guidance relevant to this task. The major part of the booklet concerns the art of writing, primarily scientific papers. Towards the end of the booklet there are provided some general tips and advice on how to speak effectively or, to use Stjernquist’s terminology, on the art of giving oral presentations.

A central task of the University is to teach the students to work scientifically and report on their work. That is the reason why, in the first term of course work in the Department, the student is already given assignments which provide the opportunity to practise different elements of the scientific research process. This may, for example, take the form of having to refer to or comment on political science literature that you have read, and are required to describe by means of written or oral presentation. Later in your education within the Department you will conduct your own independent research assignments, and report on your findings in papers of different levels of scope and ambition. The tasks which you will carry out in your
course work in the Department are very similar to the kind of tasks which you will be asked to do when working after you have finished your education. For a political scientist the education received in conducting scientific research is primarily training in preparation for later working life.

The portion of this booklet devoted to writing therefore contains advice and instruction with reference to writing scientifically. The reasoning which is put forward in the text is, however, often of a nature which allows it to be applied to other types of writing tasks. The general instruction on oral presentations which is to be found at the end of this booklet is of a more general nature, and should therefore be applicable to a variety of speaking situations. In the last chapter some treatment is given to a special type of oral presentation; how a student should conduct an opposition to a scientific paper in a seminar.

Note that Chapter 4 contains a summary of instructions on the formulation and layout of essays at the Department of Political Science of Lund University which must always be observed. Please read them very carefully. In order to facilitate the editing of essays, the Department of Political Science has constructed a special document template. This contains preconfigurations for, among other things, headings, citations, reference lists and indentation for new paragraphs. The template is based on a normal Word template and can be downloaded from the department’s homepage.

1.2 Different Forms of Writing

Why does one write? The normal answer to this question is that one writes to communicate something to other persons. It is this type of writing, that which seeks to communicate, which is the principal focus of the current booklet. But it is likewise important to be aware that writing may also have other functions than that of communication.

To be able to create a text which communicates effectively it is necessary to have given considerable thought both to the topic with which the text is concerned, and to the different elements which will be included in the text. If the text is a scientific report, then the student should also have conducted some form of investigative research work. Many writers, particularly those who do not have extensive experience in writing papers of this type, believe that they should not begin writing until they have completely finished collecting their research material and thought through the research assignment thoroughly. That is risky. Often what happens in this case is that the actual writing proves difficult to complete. After all the work put into the research and into finding the material for the paper, the student expects to be able to compose a well-formulated and well-written text. Often the deadline for submitting the paper approaches rapidly while the student finds that the actual writing of the paper does not go easily, and that the argumentation is clumsy and poorly structured. Even worse, the student may discover at this late stage that a portion of the research should have been conducted in another fashion. The student finds the paper progressively more difficult to complete, and may eventually stop writing altogether.

It is therefore not a good method to wait until the end of the research task to begin writing. The drafting of the paper should be conceived as a part of the research
process. Writing can thereby have other functions than the communication of meanings to persons. It can have a heuristic function, promoting the creative thought process of the researcher, enabling the student to develop ideas and arrive at new angles on the material. In jotting down thoughts on the structure of the research, even before they are clearly formulated, the student may in fact succeed in developing a better picture of how to conduct the research more easily. The texts that are created in this fashion are not meant to be read by anyone other than oneself, so they need not be well-written, concise, nor well thought out. This type of text is no more than a tool to assist the research process. What the student writes in this spontaneous, unpolished, and exploratory way will obviously contain much material that is of little use but, equally, much that is of value in conducting the research.

During the process of completing the assignment, writing can also be used to record what has been accomplished so far, how the research was conducted, and why. The details of the process are forgotten very quickly, and incomplete or vague notes may result in much more work having to be done than would otherwise be necessary. This is particularly true when engaging in scientific work, where there is a demand for precise and detailed documentation of both the research process and the method used in the work. Continuous note-taking can also help to reveal anything which is trivial and poorly thought-out in the research process itself.

It is also to the student’s advantage to add to the bibliographical information about the books and essays used in the paper continuously throughout the process of conducting the research (This is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3). In this way the student avoids having to do a lot of extra work at the end of the assignment when looking up the reference material once again in order to create the bibliography. Through writing continuously the student is able to create a form of self-dialogue, a process which often leads to better results when completing the assignment. The most important advice that the student can receive as regards managing the writing-process itself is:

• Begin writing at the very start of the research process.
• Write in order to develop ideas and test your thoughts.
• Make preliminary drafts and do not be discouraged if at first you are unable to formulate effectively what you want to say.
• Take notes continuously during the different stages of the work, and include both how and why the research was conducted in this fashion.
• Make sure always to write down the relevant bibliographical information on those books and materials that you use in the research while they are available to you. In that way, when you have finished the research, the reference list will also be complete.

When you write, read what you have written, and then rewrite, you will begin to notice that this will make things clearer to you, both in terms of how you should conduct the research, but also in the presentation of the material in the paper. At the same time you
create the foundation for a well conducted research study and the paper that you write for the assignment. This paper is the only real evidence that you have conducted the research. It is with the writing of this paper that this booklet is primarily concerned.

1.3 How to Create a Good Paper

The paper that you write is the only evidence of your work which can possibly reach a large audience. It is therefore important that you create a paper which does justice to the amount and quality of the research that you have conducted, in other words, a good paper. The criterion by which to define a good paper is that it accomplishes its task in the situation where it is to be used. The student who produces the paper must therefore always begin writing by making clear to himself the situation in which the paper is to be used. Some questions to which the student needs to find answers in this process are:

- Whom does the paper seek to address—what is the target audience?
- Why is the paper being written—what is the aim of the author?
- What is the audience going to use the paper for—what is the audience’s reason for reading the paper?
- Are there any good guidelines to follow in producing both the content and format of the paper—what type of paper is it?

These are some of the factors which are important in determining the type of communication situation which is conveyed by the essay. It is the conception of the type of situation within which the text is to communicate information that determines both the content, structure, and means of expression used in the essay. When working with the text the student should give consideration to the type of communication situation which is relevant to the essay. In order to determine the functionality of the text in the given situation it is necessary to engage in more detailed study of the text itself. This requires that the student view the contents of the essay from several different perspectives:

- **Choice of Contents:** Is anything missing? Is there too much of anything, which should then be edited?
- **Disposition:** Are the contents presented in a clear and logical fashion?
- **Context:** Is it easy for the reader to understand what the author wants to convey? Do the different elements of the text fit well together?

While an essay is written primarily for its contents, every text also contains as one of its elements the form in which the contents are revealed. A written text must have both a language and a typography. That is the form that the reader first encounters, and it is with its aid that the reader is able to understand the contents of the essay. Poor lay-
out and appearance make the reader suspicious as to the content of the essay as well. The skilful writer always tries to choose language and typography for the essay so as to add coherence and clarity to its contents. In working on a text the student should pose the following questions:

- **Language:** Is the language correct? Is it understandable and easy to read? Is it straightforward and clear? Does it express the meaning that the author wants to put forward?

- **Typography:** Is the text of the essay appealing to the eye? Is it easy to understand the structure of the contents from the typographical signals given in the text?

There are many different elements which contribute to the creation of a good text. How should one work so as to create an excellent product? In recent years, teachers of writing have increasingly described writing as a process with several specific elements:

- Decide on the task at hand, define the communication situation and the topic.
- Collect material, for example through finding out what has been already said or written about the topic.
- Sift through the material to eliminate that which is irrelevant to the task at hand.
- Structure the text by deciding what should be included and in what order it should be presented.
- Formulate, or in other words, draft the text.
- Edit and make those changes in the text which make the essay work better.
- Polish and ensure that the text is attractive, and that the typography and language are consistent and free of error.

The student should not consider the above list of elements as chronological in the sense that the writer should work on one element at a time until it is complete and then move on to the next. It is true that all writing should begin with the first element, defining the topic and situation for the text, and then end with the last element, that of polishing the presentation and typography of the text. However, as has been mentioned previously, it is important to begin writing at the very beginning of the process of creating the essay. The element of ‘formulating’ is also important once one has determined the task at hand. During this process of writing, the student will constantly arrive at better ideas about how to improve the presentation of the topic. Therefore it is important time and again in the process to return to text which has been already written. For example, it may be the case that after a time the student realises that it is necessary to limit the initial ambitions of the task at hand, or possibly that it is necessary to acquire additional material, or reorganise the structure of the presentation in the text itself. This is possible assuming that the student also considers and reworks the parts of the text that have already been written in the research process.
1.4 Writing in a Group

In the workplace it is common that several persons cooperate in the production of a text. This often occurs in research tasks conducted at the University as well. The main requirement for this type of group work is that all persons are responsible for the final product, and that there is no visible evidence within the text that several persons have been working together on the result. The student may interpret this to mean that the students who cooperate in writing a paper need to sit and formulate the text together throughout the process of producing the paper. That is not recommended, as it is an inefficient and very difficult method of drafting the text. The formulation of the language of the text, in many cases trying to give expression to complicated and difficult concepts, is best accomplished individually.

The text created through group work should instead be organised as a result of the interplay between collective and individual efforts by the students. The idea is to engage in collective work when this is of benefit in the research process, in such a way that it improves the quality of the text. This means that one of the tasks of group work is to provide the means of discussing the different elements of the research with the other students, deciding what should be done and how the work should be delegated amongst the students. In connection with the main elements of the writing process, group work should consist of:

- Deciding on the task and defining the subject.
- Discussing what materials need to be collected and determining which material each person in the group is to be responsible for collecting.
- Organising and sifting through the material which is collected.
- Discussing what the final text of the paper should look like and dividing up the task of formulating different parts of the paper among the different persons in the group.
- Reworking the complete text by discussing the texts which the group members have written, and deciding the appearance of the final product.
- Polishing the text so as to ensure that the final text is appealing to the eye.

Each of the individual members of a work group has two main responsibilities: to search for specific types of material and to formulate drafts for different parts of the final text of the paper. In order for group work to be rewarding one final element is necessary in the research process. The group must establish a common schedule on which the work is to be completed, and each member of the group must commit himself to following the schedule for completion of the paper. When developing the schedule it is important to consider that the reworking and editing stage of the writing process will require considerable time if the paper is to be of good quality. Experience shows that the achievements of a well-functioning work group can easily be superior to what can be accomplished by any one individual on his or her own. The reverse is also the case; a badly-functioning work group creates a poor product in comparison with the possible achievements of individual members of the group.
1.5 Supervision of Essay-Writing

The composition of an essay is a piece of independent work. The authors must themselves formulate a suitable research task, work out comprehensive theoretical and empirical material, and produce a report on their investigations in the form of a written text. Compared with “reading courses” this often places higher demands on those concerned, as regards their fixity of purpose and working discipline. On the other hand it is a matter of great satisfaction to them to know that the essay is, from beginning to end, the result of their own efforts.

The starting-point and basis for work on the essay must always be the knowledge and proficiency acquired by the student during previous practical and theoretical courses. Support from the teaching-staff in the essay course consists primarily in the appointment by the institution of a essay supervisor. (In certain cases other teachers on the course or the essay-secretary can act as assistant supervisors). In addition the students are given complementary instruction in the methodology of essay work.

The object of essay-supervision is chiefly to ensure that the tasks authors set themselves are practicable as regards the problems, the material and the working input required. In addition, through discussion about the questions to be posed, planning and arrangement, and theory and method, the object of supervision must also be to ensure that authors write the best essays they are capable of. It is not the task of the supervisor to read or comment on long manuscripts. Nor should there be any prior checking of the finished essay.

Responsibility for the conduct of work on the essay and the final product thus lies with the student. The supervisor’s task is to provide advice and support by giving views and instructions about the planning of work on the essay.

Essay supervision is provided partly through collective supervision at planning seminars or on other similar occasions, and partly through individual supervision in the course of personal discussion with the supervisor. The arrangement of essay supervision varies for different course levels and different supervisors. It is not therefore possible to give any detailed general description of the supervision process. But the following elements should normally always be part of essay supervision:

- Supervision begins with at least one preparatory individual discussion between the author and the supervisor about the way in which the theme of the essay should be formulated.
- Authors must write a plan of the essay in which they present the problem on which they are to conduct research and sketch out the arrangement they envisage for the essay (the theoretical basis, the method and the research material).
- The essay plan is considered at seminar at which authors receive comments both from the supervisor and from the other authors in their group.
- At a later stage there must be the opportunity for at least one individual follow-up discussion with the supervisor who must then give additional relevant advice and check that the work is proceeding in accordance with the plan.
The amount of supervision is determined by the Departmental management committee in the budget. The supervisor must attend to a number of tasks within the allotted time-frame. In practice that means that a good deal of the time must be devoted to general preparatory work, reading essay plans, and conducting seminars. The time available for individual discussion with the supervisor is thus limited. As has already been mentioned, most supervisors set aside time for at least two obligatory sessions of that form of supervision.

There is however no standard formula that fits all authors of essays; if the work is going well, contact with the supervisor becomes less important, but if progress is difficult there may be need for more contact with the supervisor. Those authors who would like more contact with their supervisor than is allowed for in the plan must themselves take the initiative to arrange it. The supervisor will be ready to discuss any problems that may have arisen in connection with the work. But for practical reasons the supervisor himself or herself cannot get in touch with the authors to check on how work is proceeding. In order to use time to the best, authors must always prepare themselves thoroughly for discussions with their supervisor and must have worked out in advance a number of questions or problems to be dealt with at them.

Nor is there any standard for individual supervision which suits all supervisors – there are different “supervision styles”. Some supervisors prefer to give advice chiefly through oral discussion with those writing essays, others prefer to do so by making written or oral comments on short written notes from their research students.
2 The Scientific Paper

2.1 The Means of Communication

The type of essay which is of central concern in the following pages is that of the scientific paper. This method of communicating scientific ideas is structured as follows:

- The essay comprises a report of the work which the author has completed, and the aim of the author is to describe the method, materials, and results of the work in question.

- The essay has as its intended audience those with a similar degree of education as the author, but does not assume that the reader has prior knowledge of the specific work being described.

The potential audience can be divided into several categories in regard to the production of papers which arise as a part of the programme for course work. The first category is of course the faculty tutor for the essay, the examiner, the potential seminar opponents of the paper, and the other students on the course of instruction. But a paper written as a part of course work may also be of interest for a considerably wider circle of readers, those who comprise the professionals within the issue area addressed in the paper. Many subjects in political science often also contain information and analysis of interest to persons outside the immediate group of specialists and professionals in a given area. It is important that the author take the existence of this wider audience into account when writing the essay. A writer does not benefit by unnecessarily limiting the scope of his or her potential readership.

- The recipient reads the paper primarily to acquire information on the type of work that has been accomplished. The examiner and opponent have a special role in this regard; they are required to read the essay so as to be able to judge the quality of the work. Other readers of the paper read for their own sake, to learn something specific about the topic under investigation, or to improve or build upon the findings and analysis in the paper as part of their own work.

- The type of essay of concern here is one which is of a well-defined length, and has an established structure and text which is easily identifiable. It distinguishes itself from other forms of essays principally in its demand for independent research on the part of the student, and in the requirement that the sources and findings of the research be independently verifiable.
To summarise the above information: the essay being described is a written report which demonstrates the research capability of the author. It is a text which should be informative, and readable by persons who have some knowledge about, and who are interested in, the issues that the essay considers. It is also a text which is of a specific kind; which means that it should have a certain type of structure and fulfill certain minimum requirements. The recommendations and advice in the following pages specifically address the structure to be used and the requirements to be met when writing a political science research essay.

2.2 The Well-Constructed Essay

The work of constructing a well written essay can be likened to the construction of a house. In both cases one must begin by considering what type of product is going to be created, what it is going to be used for, and who is going to use it. The description of the initial phase of the work, and the importance this has for the entire drafting process, has already been discussed in the previous chapter.

The actual construction takes the form of making an outline of the essay, selecting possible source materials and a subject, and then formulating the final product in such a way that is both as appealing and fulfills its function as well as possible. This subsection gives instructions on how to produce the outline. In other words, what structural elements the scientific essay should contain, the content, what type of material should be discussed in each part of the paper, the typographical layout, and the importance this has in describing the contents of the paper.

While the differences between typographical layouts may on appearance display only slight functional differences, it is important for the student to realise that both the writer and the reader of the essay benefit from an established typographical standard. This is one reason why professional journals and magazines give very precise instructions as to the typographical form of submissions for publication. The instructions below are given with the aim of providing just such a standard for the writer of the essay. The question of typographical layout has been extensively discussed by both course instructors and faculty paper advisors, and should be viewed by the student as a standard for essays written in the Department of Political Science at Lund University.

As pointed out earlier in this booklet, the department’s special essay template contains preconfigurations that simplify the editing of the essay. The easiest way to follow the guidelines presented below is to download the template from the department’s homepage and use this while writing the essay.

2.2.1 The Structural Elements of the Essay and Their Content

A separate title page should be included with the paper. This should contain information about where and on what course the paper was produced, and information about the essay itself. This information should be displayed on the page in the following format:
In Appendix 1 is given an example of a title page which follows these instructions. Immediately after the title page there follows a page with a so-called abstract (a short summary) of the content of the essay. This summary is an important part of the essay. It is that which the reader first meets, and in many cases it determines whether the rest will be read or not. It must be a completely free-standing text which can be read by itself, even by those who do not read the essay as a whole. It must therefore summarise everything of importance, and must not of course contain any new material. It must on no account consist of a number of sentences lifted from the main text and strung together, but must be formulated independently in its own right. It must enable anyone picking up the text to see at once whether it is of interest or not. It is important to highlight in it the outcome of the research undertaken but, since that itself depends on the approach adopted, the reader must also be given brief details of the purpose, theory, method and material. A well-written abstract thus gives information about all central elements in the scientific analysis. Note that the nature of this introductory summary differs significantly from the summary of conclusions which must appear in the final chapter of the essay. Theses at the 41–60 and 61–80 point level should contain an abstract in English, 150–200 words in length. In Appendix 2 there some examples of good abstracts.

In addition to the abstract, the author must provide five keywords, words that relate to the central arguments and ideas dealt with in the paper. The keywords make it possible search for the essay in the Xerxes database for academic texts. It is therefore important that they give some general idea of the content of the essay.

Immediately below the keywords, the author should present the length of the essay, expressed in the number of characters, including spaces, of the main text.

At the beginning of the main body of text of the paper there must be included a table of contents. Its purpose is to provide the reader with an overview of the main titles of the chapters and, in so doing, to show the structure of development of the paper. This should also be described in such a way that it is easy for readers to find what they may be looking for in the text. The table of contents should include all the titles in the subsequent pages of the essay, including those in the bibliography and in any appendices. The page numbers as well as titles should be shown. Before you submit the paper make sure that all the titles, page numbers, and titles within the text correspond with one another and are given in the table of contents.
The layout of the table of contents should be such that the reader can easily see how the different chapter titles relate to one another. For a detailed description of this, and the acceptable form of the titles see sub-section 2.2.3 below. Appendix 3 contains examples of possible layouts for the table of contents. The table of contents of this booklet will also give you a good example of what is required of the student. The department’s essay template contains blueprints that make it easy to construct a correct table of contents.

After the table of contents comes the main body of text of the essay. As has been said above, this should include a description of the premises upon which the work is based, the actual research completed, and the results or findings of the research. This should be described in such a way that the reader has a clear perception of how the current essay relates to previous research in political science, and that it is possible to verify independently the work that has been done. To fulfill these requirements there are some basic guidelines for writing an essay which the student may valuable to consider:

- Present the political science problem which is to be investigated.
- Describe the previous research on the topic.
- Specify the purpose of the essay, in other words what aspects of the problem the essay will in fact address (what questions will be answered).
- Present the political science theory or theories which provide the initial approach to the subject matter.
- Describe the methods used and justify the choice of method.
- Describe the principles used for the collection of the research material.
- Describe and analyse the material collected and present the results of the research.
- Offer conclusions and discuss them.
- Present suggestions for future research in the area.

The above list should not be seen as a fixed template which the essay should adhere to, but rather as a useful set of suggestions of what to include in an essay. The different research issues within political science vary widely and therefore it is impossible to provide a general description of obligatory elements in an essay. How the author constructs the paper and what elements are included therein depend on the subject matter under consideration and the task at hand. The careful author will find it useful to eliminate those items from the above list that are irrelevant to the basic aims of the paper.

According to the tradition which has developed for reporting scientific research, the different elements of the essay should in general be given as in the above list. In recent years there has been some criticism of this ordering of elements. The critics have pointed out that this method relegates the interesting findings of the research to the latter part of the essay. This is thought to make it difficult for the reader to sustain interest in the paper throughout the detailed description of the motivation and methods used for the research. Instead it has been suggested that authors use a successive method. This in effect means that, as in the method used by journalists, one puts the most interesting material first and then proceeds to describe the rest of the material as demanded by the subject matter.
There may be some validity in this type of criticism, particularly in regard to the suggestion that is never a good idea to exhaust the reader’s patience, but several considerations caution against adopting this new approach. The established approach is in principle constructed chronologically, and hence one can readily follow it and orientate oneself within it. If the elements are presented clearly, readers should easily be able to find those parts of the essay which they consider of most interest. What these are should already be apparent to them from the description of the essay provided in the Abstract. What the author of the essay can do, however, is to consider carefully how to make the introductory and methodological parts of the paper more attractive to the reader.

The actual lay-out of the essay must take into consideration the specific subject matter under investigation. What the author of the paper must always keep in mind is that the different components of the paper must combine together in a logical fashion. The aims of the essay must be connected with the problem which the research is to address. Theories, methods, and the principles of material collection must be capable of being applied to produce the desired result. The result has to be such that the stated aim of the research is achieved, and the problem stated at the beginning is addressed.

The introductory chapter is an important part of the essay. It is here that the author should engage the reader’s interest in the subject matter, as well as introduce the major focus of the research, and describe the structure of the presentation of material. An introduction which is both well-structured and well-written is not just an asset for the reader, but is also of great assistance to the author during the course of producing the essay. What is written in the beginning of the paper is what determines the discussion which follows. In Appendix 4 introductions taken from Bachelor’s and Master’s theses are given as good examples.

The concluding chapter is an equally important part of the essay. In it, the author must draw together the threads from the various analytical sub-sections of the essay, and present a rounded answer to the problems and questions formulated at the outset. In addition to drawing conclusions the author should discuss and problemise the results of the analysis in a broader perspective. For example, the writer may propose that further research be undertaken in the same field or discuss whether more general conclusions might be drawn from the result arrived at in the essay. A Master’s thesis must naturally reveal greater ability to discuss and problemise the conclusions than a Bachelor’s thesis.

After the main body of text there follows a bibliography, which is a list of the scientific works and other material that the author refers to within the main body of the essay. There exist a wide variety of principles for the format of the bibliography or reference list. An author should be prepared to adjust to the norms which apply to the task at hand. The instructions which apply to political science papers are presented in Chapter 3.

In addition to the obligatory elements a paper may of course contain other components, as the research under consideration may require. Material which is too detailed for inclusion in the main body of the essay, but which is otherwise a necessary element in the complete presentation of the research, may be placed in the appendices. The appendices themselves are numbered, as are the pages within them, preferably in sequential order in relation to the main body of text. It is also a requirement that
there should be a reference to each appendix somewhere within the main body of text of the essay (otherwise there is a risk that the reader may overlook the fact that there is an appendix)

Academic dissertations commonly contain a preface. This is placed before the actual main body of text (immediately after the table of contents). Its purpose is primarily to thank those who have been of assistance to the author in his or her research, and it is the only place in a scientific paper in which an author may address personal relationships. In essays the preface fulfills very little function, and any expression of gratitude for assistance can be placed in a footnote on the first page of the main body of text.

Sometimes it may be necessary to have a list of notations which describe the abbreviations and tables used in the essay. If so it is placed between the table of contents and the main body of the text. That applies appropriately also for maps.

2.2.2 The Typography of the Main Text

The first impression given by a text is important. Even before actually reading the paper the potential reader is affected by the typographical format of the paper itself. This gives a preconception of the text and the author. Before the advent of computers there were expert secretaries in most areas of working life who were able to impart a clear and attractive appearance to even the poorest quality manuscripts. That time is past, and political scientists themselves must be prepared to take responsibility for the typographical appearance of their texts.

To make things easier for both the writer and the reader we have provided instructions as to the proper format of political science papers. This instruction booklet is itself written in accordance with these criteria, and therefore serves as a useful example of the desired typographical format. The guidelines are relatively general and should be adjusted to the specific word processing program that the student uses:

- The size of the font should be 12 point Times or the equivalent. (Be aware that the size of the font may vary between two different fonts – 12 point New Century Schoolbook is for example equivalent to 14 point Times.)

- The margins on the page should be about the same size, about 3.5 cm each.

- The line spacing should be the font size plus 20 %, in this case 15 points. (Do not use the quick-choice options available in your word-processing program, since they do not give the correct line-spacing. You must yourself set the line-spacing at exactly 15 points).

- Above and below the text on the page there should be a space of about 2.5 cm.

- The text must be justified, i.e. both left and right margins must be aligned (use the options in the word-processing program). This means also that you must always hyphenate the text, otherwise the finished result will not look right.
In modern word-processing programs there are many typographical devices available to mark something which needs to be emphasised in the text. But different techniques should not be mixed, or the impression created will be ugly and muddled. There is virtue in simplicity and consistency of choice. In the first instance use *italics* to emphasise individual words in the text. (If, contrary to expectation, you need to use two different methods of emphasising words in the text, you can in addition use **bold type**.) It is quite intolerable to resort to underlining or capital letters. Underlining does not look good when used with most types of font, and, contrary to what many believe, text written in capital letters is much more difficult to read than that written in lower-case. Because all capital letters are the same size - there are no upstrokes or downstrokes going above or below the line (as, for example, when b, d, k, t and g, j and p are written in lower-case) - it becomes more difficult to read individual words quickly. Moreover, it is not so clear where a new sentence begins.

2.2.3 Developing the Structural Foundations of the Essay

An academic paper is generally a demanding text for the reader. The individuals who comprise the intended audience of the essay are of course practised professional readers, but they are often persons who have very little time at their disposal. To appeal to this readership it is necessary to enable them to orientate themselves quickly in the material and to find what they seek by way of information.

The well constructed text is made up of several key building blocks of different sizes, and gives a clear indication of what these are through typographical elements. The smallest building block in the text is the *sentence*, a text structure which begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark (full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark). The sentence is an important structural element when we read. We assume that every sentence contains a complete thought, and that a new idea or argument begins with a new sentence. When this pattern is broken the reading becomes difficult.

The next structural unit on the scale of elements is the *paragraph*. Normally this contains several sentences all of which have some aspect of their content in common. Paragraphs can be distinguished in two ways: either by a blank line between them or by an indentation from the left at the beginning of the paragraph. The former method is recommended for typewritten text, the latter for published books. The recommendation for paragraphs in political science papers can be summarised as being:

1. Divide your paragraphs in such a way that the reader is given assistance in determining how sentences hang together.

2. Think of a sentence as representing one type of structural content and the paragraph another. It is therefore only exceptionally that a paragraph should consist of a single sentence.

3. Indicate a new paragraph with an indentation. *Never begin merely with a new line.* If the previous sentence fills the entire line then the fact that there is a new paragraph will not be visible to the reader.
4. The indentation should be big enough to create an empty square at the beginning of the sentence (at least 0.5 cm). Never place an indentation after titles, tables, examples, and illustrations of various sorts, where the text is followed by a blank line.

5. An attractive way to formulate paragraphs is to allow one of the sentences to summarise the substance of the paragraph (often the first or last sentence in the paragraph). In the following paragraph the first sentence serves this function perfectly:

(1) Only a small part of the information that the mass media and journalists use is based on direct experience and observation of events or situations that are of interest to them (Hvitfelt/Mattson 1992 p. 137). In most forms of the media it is the different news bureaus that are the normal channels for international news (Hadenius/Weibull 1993 p. 249). Another means which the press uses to cover international events is through the use of foreign correspondents. Another way for amongst others the press to collect information is by using the article service bureaus that, for example, the large quality newspapers in the USA and Great Britain provide. The article service bureaus function even internationally and can therefore be used by the Swedish press.

The next structural feature on the scale of elements which form the content of the paper we call a sub-section. A sub-section normally consists of several paragraphs and can be distinguished in the text in different ways. In scientific papers it is common to give title headings to the different sub-sections, in other words, title headings are placed on a separate line of their own between sub-sections of the continuous text.¹ When one writes a longer text it may be necessary to use even larger structural elements than sub-sections: sections and chapters. These are also provided with title headings. This means that a text can have title headings at different levels within the paper.

If the use of title headings of sub-sections is to have any point there must be more than one title at the same structural level of the paper. The paper must not look like this:

(2) 2 The International Flow Of Television
    2.1 The Import And Export Of TV Programmes
        2.1.1 Films And Dramas On TV
        2.2 Why Is The Flow Unbalanced?
        2.3 The Effect Of The Flow Of TV On Culture
            2.3.1 Different Approaches To The Study Of Effects

The sub-section headings for 2.1.1 and 2.3.1 are unnecessary in any table of contents. Their content is included within section 2.1 and 2.3 respectively, since no other

¹ Other types of headings are margin headings (placed in the left margins) and line headings (which begin a line).
subtitles exist for these sections. If one were to look at the actual text of the paper one would discover that both sections 2.1 and 2.3 begin with bodies of text which are without subtitles; sub-sections 2.1.1 and 2.3.1 only cover later divisions in the main sections. What the author should have done was either to remove the sub-section headings at the lowest level, or to place a subtitle before the initial body of text in each sub-section. With the latter solution the sections would contain two sub-section headings and the writer would be signalling to the reader that two different things are addressed in each main section of Chapter 2.

An essay may be provided with a structure of title headings of at most three levels. These should generally be structured according to the decimal system with a number for each chapter heading, two numbers for section headings, and three numbers for sub-section headings. The titles should be written in normal style in the same font as in the main body of text, but with different point sizes depending on the level of structural element involved. If the main body of text is written in 12 point (as is this text), we recommend using the following font point sizes for the different titles:

Chapter headings 24 point

Section headings 18 point

Sub-section headings 14 point

In the Political Science Department’s essay template you find blueprints for three levels of heading. If you work with this there are two advantages: first, you only need to think once about the appearance of the different types of heading, and they will always come out right; and secondly, you can then automatically create a table of contents for the essay.

Chapters begin on a new page, and chapter titles are followed by five (5) blank lines. Other title headings are preceded by two (2) blank lines and followed by one (1) blank line. All the blank lines should have the same spacing between them as in the main body of text, in other words, 15 points.

In a title heading all the words which describe substantive material should be capitalised, that is verbs, adjectives, nouns, and proper names, as well as the first word in the title. The title headings given in this booklet provide guidance. After the headings there should be no punctuation mark: no full stop, and no colon or semi-colon. The only exception to this is when the title is formulated as a question. In that case the title is followed by a question mark.

These recommendations for the typographical formulation of the headings apply to the titles within the main body of the text. When one gives a description of the structural elements of the paper in the table of contents one can simplify the typography, and instead distinguish the different elements by indentation (see the example in Appendix 3).

A general word of caution is in order for the structural elements we have been describing – Don’t make them too short! It is true that a text with long drawn-out sentences, long paragraphs, etc., demands patience of the reader. Many authors have
therefore drawn the opposite conclusion that the shorter the sentences and paragraphs they write, the easier the text will be to read. That is not the case. A text does not become easier if the sentences, paragraphs, sub-sections, sections, and chapters are very short. Experimentation has shown that a text with an average sentence length of nine words is harder to read than one that has an average sentence length of 13 words. The most important reason for this is that short sentences break up the contents of the essay too much, and make it difficult to read fluently. The same problem occurs if the paragraphs are short and the sub-section headings fall over one another within the text.

It is unfortunately very common that little space is left between different sub-section headings at the beginning of an essay. That is because the author places a new title after each point in the table of contents which should be developed (for example, the aims, problems, and constraints). The text benefits when one avoids fragmenting elements which in fact belong together. Observe the need for title headings by looking at the example in Appendix 4.

If one wants to avoid headings which are too close together but still make clear to the reader that the material presented has several distinct elements, one can distinguish this fact within the main body of the text in some way. This is what has been done in this sub-section for example, where the key words are given in bold type: sentence, paragraph, sub-section, section, chapter.

2.2.4 The Length of the Essay

A very common question which authors put to their supervisors relates to the length of essays. How long an essay should be naturally depends in part on the scope and difficulty of the research task. Therefore a scientific essay at the graduate level should be somewhat longer than at the bachelor level. At the same time it must be strongly emphasised that the quality of an essay depends not on the number of pages but on what is written on them. The difference between a Bachelor thesis and a Master’s thesis is related in the first instance not to its length but to the quality of its content. At higher levels greater demands are made as regards the theoretical foundation of the work and the capacity for independent analysis it shows.

The limitations on the scope of the essay are expressed as a maximum number of characters/pages. There are many good reasons for that. In the first place, brevity is in itself a criterion of quality. Anyone who has ever tried to write a reference, a letter to the press or an essay, knows that it is much easier to write at length rather than briefly. Secondly, the limitation on length is of importance in the context of the essay seminar. Neither examiners nor fellow-students on the course can be expected to have unlimited time at their disposal when the essays are to be considered and judged in the seminar. Thirdly, it is an adaptation to the conditions of reality beyond basic education. Most people who have to write in the exercise of their profession come up against similar limitations on length. Not even a well established researcher can present a fifty-page manuscript to a journal and expect to have it published. For example, most scientific journals reject contributions more than 25 pages long.

The maximum length of the different types of theses is specified on the department’s homepage.
As a rough standard, it may be said that there are approximately 2,800 characters per page. An essay of 25 pages will thus normally contain 70,000 characters (though this may vary somewhat, according to how many headings, tables and figures there are in the text). The simplest and best method of calculating the essay’s length is to use the Word Count tool available in all modern word-processing programs. You can then be quite sure that you have arrived at the right result. Note that the number of characters should be counted with spaces. A less precise method is to make a manual count of the number of whole pages in the manuscript of the essay (disregarding blank spaces before a new chapter).

A common misapprehension is that the instructions on the length of essays represent a minimum which can with advantage be exceeded. The truth is the exact opposite! The instructions give a maximum upper limit. Note that the ability to keep within the framework indicated is always taken into account in the marking of essays.

2.3 Connecting

Look closely at the following text. It consists of four sentences which have been constructed correctly in which each is to some degree understandable to the reader. But as you will no doubt quickly see, it is hard to determine the actual meaning signified by the sentences when taken together.

When reading aloud it is easy to realise that the eye always is one step ahead of one’s voice. The assumption is that a group of new words and phrases can not be handled as quickly. Just as important a question is whether I can actualize the skills, the schemes that I already have. Japanese children seldom have a difficult time learning the basics of techniques of reading.

This little example illustrates a very important requirement for a good substantive text. It must be formed so that the connection between the text’s different elements, in this case sentences, is presented clearly. Through the use of the form of the text, its language and layout, the reader should all the time be receiving signals, those which make it possible for him to understand what function the different elements have within the text, in its entirety. It can therefore be said that the skilful author does something in his or her text. In this respect you should pay attention to the fact that the instructions on the content of the main body of text (sub-section 2.2.1) are expressed in terms of activities: analyse, draw conclusions, specify, demonstrate, motivate, present, and discuss. Always try therefore when writing to make it clear to yourself what you want to do in terms of a specific sentence, paragraph, and sub-section. Make sure afterwards that you have in fact done what you sought to do.

2.4 The Titles and the Text

The titles that the author places in the text are there primarily to help the reader to get some idea of what the text addresses. These should therefore not be seen as part of the text itself. The first sentence under a title heading is that which introduces the presentation, and therefore should not be formulated in such a way that the reader has
to have the title in mind in order to understand its substance. It should not look like the following:

(3) 2.5.1 The Domestic Political Power Struggle And Unhappiness With The Government. This can be said to be the biggest domestic political question during the last half year which was the subject of this study.

(4) 2.4 Women Hold Up Half The World. This was how the new rhetoric was expressed after the communist takeover.

2.5 Tables, Diagrams, and Figures

Tables and diagrams in a paper can fulfill both a pedagogical and an analytical function. Presenting a long list of numbers in a continuous text is not good, as the reader quickly loses all sense of orientation. If one wishes to describe, for example, the different sizes of ethnic groups in the five new states in Central Asia that were created after the collapse of the Soviet Union, or the amount of Swedish development assistance in the years 1990 to 1999, a table or diagram is a perfect pedagogical tool. The reader acquires thereby a comprehensive description of the data, at the same time as the author of the text merely needs to present and comment on the facts that are important to the analysis. If the essay depends primarily on empirical material, for example in the case of survey results or newspaper articles that the author has himself collected, tables and diagrams are a useful way to describe and document the new data within the paper.

The use of figures in the essay serves principally a pedagogical function. It can make things much easier for the reader if a theoretical model or organisation structure is illustrated by the use of tables or diagrams.

All modern word-processing programs have tools which make it possible to create simple tables, diagrams and figures directly in the text.

A general rule to follow is that tables, diagrams, and figures should not be self-explanatory. They must always be complemented by descriptions, comments, and analyses in the main body of the text. Tables, diagrams, and figures should always be clearly distinguished from the surrounding text in the essay. Here are some basic instructions in this regard:

- They should always be accompanied by a number (preferably arranged by chapter, for example Figure 1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 2.2 etc.) and have clearly identifiable titles.

- If the information in a table, diagram or figure has been taken from another work, the source must always quoted (that applies even if you have yourself further elaborated the original information). The reference must be given immediately below the table, diagram or figure, in accordance with the following pattern:

Source: Sannerstedt 1994, page 76. (In the next chapter you will find a more detailed description of how to use references in scientific presentations).
In order to distinguish tables, diagrams and figures clearly from the main text you must always leave a line blank immediately before and after them. (It is best also to draw 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 formed in the text.

2.6 Assessment Criteria

When essays are marked, an assessment is made of the way in which the authors of essays have managed the various elements in the research process. The examiner puts questions such as: Is the problem well chosen and clearly formulated? Is the theory on which the essay is based applicable and clearly stated, and does it govern the analysis? Is the essay well executed as regards method? Are there clear results, i.e. does the essay answer the questions posed? Is there a continuous thread running through it, i.e. does it pursue the problems set out in the introduction? Is it lucidly organised? Is the material on which the essay is constructed satisfactory, and is a proper account of it given in the references and bibliography? Is the essay well written? Does the abstract give a good summary?

The mark “Väl godkänd” [Passed with distinction] requires particular merit in several of the above-mentioned aspects. Attention is also paid to matters such as originality and independence, and whether the research task is intrinsically very difficult. The assessment is correspondingly affected negatively when, for example, the problem is not clearly formulated, the theory is not applied in the analysis, there are obvious methodological shortcomings, the research material is thin, there are errors in the presentation, and the text is carelessly written and proof-read. The mark achieved is also affected by the author’s oral inputs during the seminars. Effective contributions when defending one’s own thesis or opposing those of others will be positively assessed in both cases.

The same assessment criteria are thus applied in relation to theses at all levels of scholarship. At the same time there are naturally variations in how far the different quality criteria must be achieved for a thesis to be marked “Godkänd” [Passed] or “Väl godkänd” [Passed with distinction]. Above all, the requirements for powers of originality and independent analysis, and the properly qualified application of theory in empirical analysis, are more stringent at the higher academic levels. The same assessment criteria apply in principle also for papers written for “reading courses”, even if the application is somewhat different depending on the nature of the examination task).
3 References

Scientific research is really a kind of large-scale teamwork. Every individual researcher, from the student at the beginning of coursework in political science to the full professors, must work in the context of already existing research in the area. This can mean that the researcher accepts much of earlier research findings, theories, and ideas in the area, or is instead critical of earlier research and seeks to formulate his or her own research in a way which is different from that adopted in the past. Regardless of the approach taken, current research must address the scientific material which has been developed previously. This means in effect that one needs to use a variety of different sources in order to carry out scientific research.

In the discussion which follows in this chapter the term source will be used as a general designation for research material, of whatever character, which the researcher then uses to complete the scientific task at hand. We are aware that by using the term source in this way we are deviating from established terminological use, particularly in the case of historical research, where the use of the term source has a more specific usage than that we give it here (traditionally a distinction is made between a source and scientific literature).

In the use of sources there are two requirements which must be met. Readers must have a clear picture of what the writer has conceptualised and accomplished in the work, and what material has been acquired from the work of other persons. They must also have a clear idea where they can independently acquire the source material, in case they wish to learn more about a particular issue mentioned in the essay, or desire to verify the contents of the source material for themselves. There are two techniques that the researcher must know how to use in presenting his or her text. The researcher must be able to make clear references to those sources which have been used in the conduct of the research. After writing the main body of the text the researcher must also give a detailed reference list which allows the reader to identify the source material.

Even the experienced researcher has to devote a great deal of time to meeting these requirements. For the beginner this task is even more difficult, as the student is unlikely to have previously encountered such a demand when writing papers. In this sub-section we will give some general advice and instructions related to the reference techniques used in political science research.

In principle one can use a source in two ways when producing a text. The author can refer to the contents, in other words, repeat what has been stated in the original text in his or her own words, or the author can cite, directly repeat what is written in the source material. In both cases the author must make a reference to a source at the point in the text where it is used (see sub-section 3.1) and give a complete description of the source (see sub-section 3.2). In addition there are specific rules which the author should follow in making reference to a source (see sub-sections 3.3 and 3.4) and in relation to citations (see sub-section 3.5).
3.1 Referring to Sources

An author who has used a source must communicate this fact to the reader in some fashion. In making reference to a text which is the sole source for the research the solution is simple: begin the reference by presenting the source itself. A researcher who has worked on completing a scientific paper is likely to have used many sources. For this reason it is usually necessary to employ a more developed reference technique than that used for a single source. In scientific presentations there are very clear and strict requirements about the need to make references to sources. The author is responsible both for providing a description in the text as to where the material was acquired, and for providing a list of sources used in the text: this list is placed after the main body of the text (see sub-section 3.2). There are several traditions that have developed in this area, and the result can easily make even the most experienced researcher unsure how to fulfill both requirements in practice.

The traditional scientific way of noting a source is to use footnotes (the so-called Oxford system):

(5) One can distinguish between two different types of long-term memory: episodic memory, which relates to the memory of events, and semantic memory, which relates to one’s knowledge about the world.²

At the bottom of the page the information in the footnote is given as such: author, title, year published, and if necessary, the page number. In some books the notes are placed in the end of the chapters or the book, rather than at the foot of each page. The collection of footnotes at the end of chapters or the book makes it difficult for the reader, however, and it is therefore not a recommended practice. Even the most conscientious reader tires of constantly moving back and forth between the text and the footnotes.

Footnotes are in general not thought very practical for either the reader or writer of an essay. The footnote requires one to break up the flow of the text when reading and proceed to read the note at the bottom of the page in order to learn what the note contains. In a text such as that which follows, the reader receives very little benefit from the constant breaks in the text, and the writer is forced to repeat things which have already been mentioned in the main body of text:

(6) Culture is a complicated term that contains many elements. McQuail says that probably the most important and most general attribute for culture is communication, since culture can not be passed on without it.³ Another theorist, Noam, says that when one speaks of culture it is not always the case that political and cultural borders coincide.⁴ Instead people who live in a region which is a part of two distinct countries experience greater cultural similarities within the region than within their respective countries. Even class (for example working class culture) and age (for example youth culture) plays an important role. Sophisticated culture is to a large extent transnational where this concerns for example classical music, ballet, opera, architecture, and literature. Therefore Noam argues that culture is often more diverse across social classes then it is over country or regional borders.⁵
If the instructions for footnotes are followed consistently the writer must repeat the same bibliographical information every time the same reference is used.

There are thus good grounds for abandoning the older system for noting sources and we therefore recommend instead another system, namely the so-called Harvard system. This system requires the author to place source information in a parenthesis within the main body of text. The texts given above on long-term memory and on culture then appear as follows:

(5a) One can distinguish between two different types of long-term memory: episodic memory, which relates to the memory of events, and semantic memory, which relates to one’s knowledge about the world (Baddeley 1983 p. 13).

(6a) Culture is a complicated term that contains many elements. McQuail says (1994 p. 95) that probably the most important and most general attribute for culture is communication, since culture can not be passed on without it. Another theorist, Noam, says (1991 p. 23) that when one speaks of culture it is not always the case that political and cultural borders coincide. Instead people that live in a region which is a part of two distinct countries experience greater cultural similarities within the region than within their respective countries. Even class (for example working class culture) and age (for example youth culture) plays an important role. Sophisticated culture is to a large extent transnational where this concerns for example classical music, ballet, opera, architecture, and literature. Therefore Noam argues that culture is often more diverse across social classes then it is over country or regional borders.

As can be seen, when this system is applied the reader receives the information about the sources being used in a more concentrated form: the author’s last name, year of publication, and page number.

The prerequisite for using this system is that there is a reference bibliography that the reader can consult to find the complete reference information for the source. This is something which, as stated before, an author must always supply, whichever footnote system is used. It is of course also important that the information given in the parenthesis is sufficient to allow the reader to identify the relevant source in the complete reference list. In general it is usually enough to supply the author’s last name and the year of publication. It is often necessary to make reference to several works by the same author published in the same year. In that case a letter is placed after the year of publication (1995a, 1995b) in the note, both in the reference given in the main body of the text and in the reference list (see sub-section 3.2).

What does one gain by using the Harvard system? The student may think it just as hard in this case to refer to the comprehensive list as to read the notes at the bottom of the page. The advantage of this system is that the reader need not raise his or her eyes from the page in order to note that a source has been used. In most cases this is sufficient for the person reading the text. It is usually only afterwards that the reader desires to go to the source for verification or to read more on the subject.

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The use of the Harvard system does not mean that the writer is then unable to use footnotes for comments and digressions. The latter generally take a great deal of space and cannot appropriately be placed in the main text between square brackets. That is another advantage of the Harvard system. When the reader encounters a reference using this system, he or she realises that it refers to the substance of the source material, and that can therefore be of value in following up on the subject. This type of footnote should however be used with care and not so often that the notes spread themselves throughout the pages of the essay.

Another bonus with the use of the Harvard system is that, as was seen in example (6a) above, it gives the writer the opportunity to present information about the source material directly in the flow of the text and then to complement this information with that placed between square brackets.

In the case of a reference to a longer piece of text from a source it is necessary to remind the reader clearly that this is a reference to a source. This is particularly important when evaluations are presented. The reader may otherwise be unable to determine whose evaluations are being given, that of the source or the author. One should always strive to make it as clear as is possible what in one’s text is taken from external source material, in other words where the reference begins and ends. This is also made easier if one combines information provided in the text with the use of square brackets.

Occasionally in scientific texts one comes across Latin abbreviations. For example, *ibid.* (to be found in the same place as the last reference), *passim* (at several places), and *et al.* (and others). While it may be useful to know what these abbreviations mean, there should be no compulsion to use them and they suffer the disadvantage of not being generally understood.

As soon as a reference is made to something which is found in a longer presentation it must be designated by page number. If that which is referred to stretches over a length of two pages the abbreviation *f* (following page) is used. When more than two pages in the original are being referred to the abbreviation of *ff* (the following pages) is used. It is better in the latter case for the reader, if one instead indicates the numbers of the pages on which the relevant source is found (for example pp. 172-176).

3.2 The Bibliography

References within the text are the first link in a chain that the author of a scientific paper has to create for the readers, so that they can identify and retrieve those sources which lay the groundwork for the research which has been conducted. The second link in the chain is the bibliography of all the sources which must be included with the paper.

The main idea is first that the bibliography should include all the sources that were referred to or cited in the paper (but no others); and secondly that this includes all bibliographical details needed to ensure that the reader can easily find each and every one of the source texts, for example in a library catalogue. Some political scientists

divide the bibliography into separate sub-sections with distinct headings. This often has the consequence that the very distinctions made between sources is itself an issue, and therefore of more harm than good for the reader. There is no reason to distinguish some books from others, or articles from others, within the bibliography.

The sources are arranged alphabetically, beginning with the name of the author (or other key word if not available). All sources which fall under the same word are to be arranged chronologically, starting with the oldest first.

When it comes to other rules for bibliography construction there is a great deal of variation in the academic community. The structure is often determined by rules used by leading research journals in the area. In other words, the author should be ready to adjust to the relevant guidelines when one prepares a bibliography. The rules which follow are to a large extent those instructions used in the Swedish Journal of Political Science and are:

For books with a given author the following information should be given:

a) The author’s last name followed by a comma, then the entire first name (not just initials) followed by a comma. If the work has more than one author then all the authors’ names should be shown as above, but between each person’s name a hyphen should be placed instead of a comma.
b) The year of publication followed by a full stop. If the bibliography includes several works from the same year by the same author these should be distinguished from one another by the use of a letter placed after the year of publication: (1987a, 1987b, etc. (compare p. 23)
c) The full title of the book in italics followed by a full stop.
d) Edition, if the book has been issued in several editions, followed by a full stop.
e) The place of the publication followed by a colon and the name of the publisher. End with a full stop.

For essays and articles provide:

a) The author’s name according to the instructions given above.
b) The year of publication as described above.
c) The essay or article’s full title within quotation marks, followed by a comma.
d) If the text is published in a journal: the name of the journal, in italics, information about the volume and number followed by a comma, the page number on which the text is to be found, and then end with a full stop.
If the text is published in a newspaper: the newspaper’s name in italics and the date of issue, end with a full stop.
If the text is published in an anthology: information about the pages on which the text is to be found, followed by the word “in”, and then followed by the editor’s or editors’ names and the word “ed.” in brackets, the name of the book in italics, a full stop, place of publisher, colon, publisher, and then a full stop.

For work that does not have an identifiable author the title’s first word normally functions as the reference word. References to official publications by parliaments, governments, authorities and international organisations are usually handled in that
way. To simplify references within the text it may be practical to use abbreviations. These must of course be clarified when used. This may be done in the bibliography in such a way that the abbreviation is the reference word. After this is placed an equal sign, followed by the full title of the work, year of publication, and other relevant bibliographical information.

References to radio and television programmes are made in the corresponding way. State the name of the programme company or channel, and the date of broadcast.

**Interview sources** should contain the name of the person who has provided the information and in what capacity, for example, the authority and the position held. The date when the information was provided should also be given.

For digital sources published on Internet (databases, archives, home pages, etc.) give the author, the year of publication, and title according to the instructions given above, if this information exists. In addition, an internet address for the document must be given. Normally, this implies a direct link (URL-address) to the document. Sometimes such addresses become very long due to the document being placed a long way down in a file hierarchy. In such cases it might therefore be better to give the address of a main page from which the document can easily be located. Another disadvantage with URL addresses is that they might become obsolete if a document is moved within a website. In determining whether to give the URL address or the address of a main page, the author must use his or her own judgment. The guiding principle, however, should always be to make it as easy as possible for the reader to find the document in question.

Material that is published on the internet is often quickly obsolete. Therefore the date at which the document was available should be given, not just the year. (A good rule is always to download usable documents from the Internet to one’s own computer). Some of the information on the Internet is also published in print form. This is true for example in the case of electronic newspapers and magazines, and official material from parliaments, governments, and public authorities. If the author uses a version of a text published on the internet, there is usually no need to mention the printed version of the same source.

An example of a bibliography created using these rules is given in Appendix 5. Looking around in the academic world one will find many different ways of formulating a bibliography. It is not just a question of what information about different works is to be included, and of the order in which the information should be presented, but also of the styles in which the information is presented (italics, underlining, quotation marks) and the use of punctuation marks. A main rule is: follow the instructions to the last detail, and be as consistent as possible throughout the entire text. The example given in Appendix 5 should serve as a model for how the bibliography should appear.

*It is important to remember:* The references and bibliography exist to enable your readers to find the original material that you have used. This requirement may not be circumvented, whatever system one chooses within those which flourish in the academic marketplace. Try, in spite of this, to make the technique as simple and accessible as possible for both you and your readers. One thing which may ease the work to some extent, which has been mentioned previously but may usefully be repeated here, is to note during the process of working on the paper the comprehensive
3.3 Objectivity

A reference should reflect the contents of a source as objectively as possible. In many situations, for example when discussing the methods used by other researchers and their findings, the author’s task is both to refer to the source and to comment upon it; to evaluate the contents of the source material. In this case it is particularly important to take into consideration the requirement of objectivity. The reader of the essay should receive a clear picture of the content of what is stated in the source, and what on the other hand are the opinions of the author in regard to this material. Clearly distinguish between what is derived from the reference and what is the author’s own evaluations of that material in the light of the discussion in the essay.

This is a good time to warn the student of some of the usual problems which arise when seeking to be objective in referring to source material in a paper. The first problem is one of factual error. This should not occur under any circumstances. Make sure that you have read the source material well and have correctly interpreted what it has said. If the material is in the form of specific factual information, such as statistics, make sure to check the accuracy of their presentation in the paper against that given in the source, before submitting the paper to the course instructor.

The second problem is that of selective choosing of facts. A source may describe both positive and negative aspects in regard to the particular means of addressing a specific issue. If the author referring to the source is himself positive it may be tempting to emphasize the positive aspects of the solution and minimize the disadvantages in the presentation of the material itself. The author should be careful not to do this, and should attempt, when referring to it, to reflect the same sense of balance about the value of an approach as that given in the original source.

The third problem is more a matter of language use. When referring to a source is it important to not let one’s own values shine through the presentation of the material through the choice of subjectively charged language. Previously we mentioned the importance of using certain kinds of notes as a means of referring to a relatively long source. When choosing the language in which to frame the presentation of the source material it is important to avoid using language which reveals one’s own evaluation of what is being presented. For example if one writes: The Minister of Education realises that there should a stricter system of grading, then one is in effect conveying one’s own opinion about the subject rather than that of the source. Instead the example should read something like this: The Minister of Education states that there should..., in which case the signal given to the reader is that the Minister is proposing that the issue be addressed. Subjective language such as that used in the example should be avoided when referring to a source in the essay. In general, exaggerated language must be avoided in scientific texts. In your comments and analyses you should also eschew words such as “sensational” and “fantastic”, and loaded judgements such as “power-crazed” and “abominable”.

bibliographical information of each source used, and thereby to build up the bibliography progressively at the same time as you complete the main body of the text of the paper.
3.4 Language Independence

A reference to a source should be made in such a way that it uses language which is not dependent on that found in the source itself. This requirement does not mean that the author must use vocabulary other than that found in the source. Many words in the original text are usually associated with the actual content of the material, and can therefore not be substituted. What one should avoid is rather the extraction of entire phrases and sentences from the source, otherwise the distinction between one’s own language and that of the source may be undermined.

If you have read the source material carefully and thoughtfully there should be no difficulty in fulfilling this requirement. The author has then acquired the correct distance from the text so as to make independence of language possible. Rather it is those persons who have not given careful consideration to the source material that have a tendency to borrow language from the source material. In that event the number of references made to the source is selected by the author in such a way that for the reader these form a new, though ineptly pasted together, version of the original source. The result is then often that the references are used without the proper context in which to ensure that, if readers are unfamiliar with the actual source material, they still receive a consistent picture of the research in the essay.

Sentences that are placed out of their original context are poor sources for the essay both in terms of content and language. In part this is because they usually contain information which is not sufficiently related to the argument in the surrounding text, and this is then concealed in their use within the reference. In addition the language used in the sentence is often related to the context found in the original source material; it may contain words which refer to parts of the source text that do not occur in the actual reference used (for example, therefore, on the other hand, but).

Make it a rule for yourself never to borrow (or even remain close to) the language formulation of your sources unless you have very good reason for doing so. There are in fact good reasons for borrowing from the source text on specific occasions. It is for this reason that we will now discuss the requirements for when one borrows from a source text.

3.5 How to Make a Citation

When making a direct citation the author has to first place quotation marks both before ("”) and after ("”) what is cited. If the passage that you wish to cite already contains quotation marks within its text these should be made into single quotation marks (‘...’) and then place double quotation marks (“...”) around the entire citation. In English a distinction is made between the quotation marks which begin ("’") and end ("’") a citation. NB. Make sure to use these quotation marks and not the straight marks used to denote measurements (’, foot and ", inch).

Longer citations can instead be distinguished from the surrounding text by giving them a paragraph of their own, with indented margins (1 cm), smaller font size (10 points), and reduced line-spacing (12 points). If this is done then no quotation marks should be put around the citation. The examples in this booklet are written in this fashion (for example, see below).
Second, the citation must be **accurate**. The rule is that no changes whatsoever may be made in the original text (see below). The word order may not be rearranged, nothing may be removed or rewritten, not even spelling errors may be corrected.

When one is going to use a citation it is important that the surrounding text is adjusted to conform to the substance of the citation. One can of course begin at a place within the source material which conforms to one’s own text. Imagine the following situation. Say that for some reason you would like to cite a portion of the last sentence in the following text (a report from a Swedish government commission: SOU 1974: 31):

(7) The most important thing is to prevent the unfortunate development of the personality disorders that have been described. A wider awareness amongst parents that the care provided in the first years of a child’s life is an important and large task, and that it is also a privilege to observe one’s child at close contact, would in all likelihood have positive effects. How this change in awareness would come about in practice is difficult to say. Conventional methods of increasing awareness risk merely reaching the those who are already committed and interested. A higher prioritising of psychological work amongst parents with small children would in the meantime result in a step in the right direction.

Furthermore what one could wish is that the length of economic support could be increased so that the mother or the father could remain at home during the first years of a child’s life.

Then you may do **like this:**

(8) The investigators believe that it would also be good if “the length of economic support could be increased so that the mother or the father could remain at home during the first years of a child’s life”.

or **like this:**

(9) The investigators say: “Furthermore what one could wish is that the length of economic support could be increased so that the mother or the father could remain at home during the first years of a child’s life.”

but **not like this:**

(10) The investigators “also desire that the length of economic support could be increased so that the mother or the father could remain at home during the first years of a child’s life.”

or **like this:**

(11) The investigators also believe that it would desirable “that the length of economic support could be increased so that the mother could remain at home during the first years of a child’s life.”
Occasionally however the text must be changed in order to be usable in the context of the paper. In that case every change must clearly be marked with square brackets [ ]. The advantage of using square brackets is that they are unusual and therefore not easily mistaken as being a parenthesis inserted by the author of the original material. The following systems for marking changes in a citation are common:

[...] A portion of the original text has been removed. A citation which does not contain a complete sentence need not begin and end with these notations.

[my italics] The italics were not in the original source but have been added by the author.

[sic!] Means “as is” and can for example be used to point out that the citation actually reproduces the text as it is in the original, even though it may contain an error.

If one wanted to cite the penultimate sentence in the above example one would need to make certain changes. The result might look like this:

(12) A higher prioritising of psychological work [my italics] amongst parents with small children would [...] result in a step in the right direction.

Square brackets can be used in two further ways: “He [the Prime Minister, author’s note] said...”, i.e. as an explanation inserted to clarify the quotation, and “[t]his freedom to inform”, i.e. to indicate that lower case has been substituted for the normal initial capital (cf. the quotation below in this sub-section).

As observed, a citation can include longer or shorter portions from a source, and there are also certain, though limited, opportunities to make changes in the original text being cited. One main rule must always be adhered to: the citation must give a just description of what actually is stated in the source.

It is also important to be careful that the citation and one’s own text fit together and obey the normal rules of language use. That was not the case in some of the papers that were studied before this booklet was drafted. In the following case the author of the essay (in all likelihood) was faithful to the original text, but has changed his own text so that it violates the rules for the use of capital letters:

(13) Carl Norström says that “This freedom to make things public is of great importance...”

(14) Lång writes that the principle of publicity is threatened by membership in the EU, because “The Swedish constitution applies in Sweden but in the event of collisions is subordinate to the EU judicial system.”

In order for the passage to be correct the text that is placed within the quotation marks must be changed, for example like this:

(13a) Carl Norström says that this freedom to make things public “is of great importance...”
By way of contrast the formulation of the following text reveals that the author has not written accurately. The passage quoted cannot have looked like this in the original:

Allgårdh admits that certain constraints will occur since Sweden will be forced to act so that “The legal statutes are not formulated in violation of the EU rules which actually exist in the area...”.

When is it then appropriate to cite? Three situations where this is useful may occur. The first is when the original author has expressed himself within an area of the research with such clear, concise, and impressive means that the current essay author’s own formulation cannot improve upon it.

The second possibility occurs when it is for some reason important to adopt the source’s exact words within the essay. There may be specific values attached to word usage which it is important to reproduce exactly as expressed in the original source.

A third situation may arise in which the formulation of the source is so unclear that the author making the reference, in spite of great effort, is unable to grasp its content. Unfortunately, in this situation most authors pretend that that is not the case. They keep close to the original text (often making things worse as a result) without explaining or amplifying what is unclear in the original material. Instead the author should admit that it is impossible to make clear sense of the source material. To give the readers of the reference the possibility to form their own view of the contents of the source material it can be appropriate in such cases to cite the unclear portion of the original source material.

3.6 Scientific (Dis)honesty

The purpose of scientific activity is to produce new knowledge. That places major demands on the scientist’s ethics and accuracy in the research process. An official report on “Good moral practice in research” states that “the researcher’s first duty must be to seek to be factual and objective, and to try always to convey information that is reasonably certain and as generally valid as possible” (SOU 1999:4, God sed i forskningen, p. 52) [Official Report 1999:4]. Research must be documented in such a way that it is possible for an independent examiner to follow the whole research process; the scientific text must state how the author has gone about the work, what material and what methods has been used. Any reader of a scientific text must himself be able to judge the reliability of the result. The recommendations in this booklet aim among other things to increase awareness of the importance of form for the communication of the results of research.

Here, however, we shall focus on ethical aspects of the research process. Taking the above-mentioned official report as the point of departure, we shall discuss certain fundamental norms for scientific work, and the kinds of behaviour that are in conflict with those norms.
By dishonesty in research is meant, according to the report, that “a researcher deliberately and in a misleading fashion departs from the demands of scholarship or consciously violates generally accepted ethical standards.” (SOU 1999:4, p.53). The report presents five categories of dishonesty:

1. Dishonesty in connection with the handling of data/source material and scientific method.
2. Plagiarism.
3. Dishonesty in connection with publication.
4. Dishonesty in connection with conflicts of interest.
5. Lack of judgement and inappropriate behaviour.

In connection with work on essays and writing papers in basic education it is above all the first two categories which are relevant and which will be discussed here.

- **Never try to persuade anyone to believe anything that you know does not exist!**

Examples of dishonesty in connection with the handling of data/source material are first and foremost the fabrication and falsification of data and source material, but even a researcher who withholds or destroys data, or who omits scientific findings which contradict theory or hypothesis is behaving dishonestly. The researcher must thus not select data so that they support only his or her own theory. In interpreting the findings the researcher must avoid deliberate over-interpretation or mis-interpretation of data or source material. Neither must one destroy others’ data or distort other researchers’ scientific results or contributions.

- **Anyone making a scientific contribution must have the proper recognition for it!**

The reader of a scientific text must always be clear about what the writer himself or herself has thought and done, and what has been obtained from others. One must never present “the result of others’ efforts as the result of one’s own work”. (The University and High School Union of Sweden, 1997. Guidelines for the handling of questions of scientific dishonesty at universities and high schools.) In practical terms this means that the researcher must not without permission take others’ data for his or her own use, or reproduce others’ unpublished scientific works or results as if they were his or her own. If reference is made to published scientific works the source or originator must be clearly indicated. The use of footnotes and references in the essay plays a central role in this, to distinguish a writer’s own ideas and analyses from what has been taken from others. To present data, ideas or something that another person has written or expressed, as if they were one’s own efforts is called plagiarism.

It should be noted that the Department of Political Science is linked to the Urkund control system for electronic texts. Essays and other electronically submitted texts are automatically compared to the content of sources on the internet, a large number of journals, encyclopedias and texts authored by other students. If obvious similarities are discovered, a report is sent to the teacher who can then determine whether a text has been plagiarized. Finally, for safety’s sake it must be emphasised that scientific
dishonesty such as cheating in research and plagiarism is not merely unethical behaviour. It is also expressly forbidden and results in a failure mark for the essay. It can also lead to a report to the university’s disciplinary body.
4 Summary of Instructions on the Formulation of the Essay

In the previous chapters of this booklet we have discussed a long series of different questions about how to write a good scientific text and to avoid the common traps and errors. Along the way you, as the reader, have been given much advice and instruction about how one should write and present the results of a scientific analysis.

The advice that has been given is in the form of recommendations which we know, from experience, give good results. They should normally be followed by students who have little or no experience of writing relatively long scientific works. But recommendations are not obligatory, they are aids. It is not the objective that all essays should be cast in the same mould. Those who have greater experience can with advantage be guided by their own ideas.

The instructions given, on the other hand, are obligatory rules which all those writing essays must respect. There are a number of good reasons why there should be such rules governing the format to be employed, for example that an essay must make it easy to find what one is looking for, be clear and “reader-friendly”, fulfil certain fundamental requirements as regards scientific accuracy, and facilitate the task of examiners and opponents in assessing it.

So that you should be quite clear about what is involved, this chapter contains a brief summary of the rules on the format of essay texts which all students must follow. You can then go back to Chapters 2 and 3 for more detailed information about the rules.

As you will immediately see, there is a considerable amount for the student to keep in mind. Much is therefore to be gained from working with the Political Science Department’s special essay template. This is based on a normal Word template and contains preconfigurations for, among other things, headings, citations, reference lists and indentation for new paragraphs. By downloading the template from the department’s homepage, and using this when you write your essay, you can save yourself hours of tedious work in editing the text. In addition, you will have guaranteed consistent formatting throughout your text.

4.1 The Main Text of the Essay

- Font size: Times 12 point (or equivalent).
- Line-spacing: 15 point.
- Margins: Left and right margins 3.5 cms each; text to be justified, i.e. both left and right margins to be aligned.
- Page numbers: To be placed at the foot of the page, in the centre.
4.2 The Introductory Parts of the Essay

- **Title page**: To be set out on the following pattern:

  Lund University  
  Department of Political Science  
  Course (e.g. STVK11)  
  Term (e.g. Spring 2008)  
  Supervisor

  Essay Title

  Author’s Name.

- **Abstract**: To be placed immediately after the title page. Bachelor theses and Master theses should have abstracts containing 100–150 words.

- **Characters**: On the line below the keywords, the author presents the length of the paper, expressed in the number of characters (including spaces). The calculation should be based only on the main part of the text and thus exclude the front page, abstract, table of contents and reference list.

- **Table of contents**: To list all headings in the essay (including the Source List and any Appendices) and to show the page on which they are to be found.
4.3 Source List and Appendices

The main principle is that the Source List must include all sources on which the essay draws or which are quoted in it (but no others). The following information must be given:

- **Books**
  a) The author’s name, followed by a comma and the forename(s) in full (not just initials). If there is more than one author, all their names must be given in that same way, but with a hyphen, rather than a comma, placed before the next surname.
  b) The year of publication, followed by a full stop. If the List includes more than one publication by the same author(s) in any one year, they must be distinguished by a letter after the year: 1987a, 1987b, and so on.
  c) The full title of the book, in italics, followed by a full stop.
  d) The edition, if there has been more than one, followed by a full stop.
  e) The place of publication, followed by a colon, and the publisher’s name. Put a full stop at the end.

- **Essays and articles**
  a) The name of the author, as above.
  b) The year of publication, as above.
  c) The full title of the essay or article, in quotation marks, followed by a comma.
  d) Essay in a journal: the name of the journal in italics, the volume and any number, followed by a comma and the number(s) of the page(s) on which the essay appears. Put a full stop at the end.
  e) Newspaper article: the name of the newspaper in italics and the date. Put a full stop at the end.
  f) Essay in a collection or anthology: state the page(s) on which the text appears, the word “in” followed by the name(s) of the editor(s), the word “ed” in brackets, the name of the book in italics, full stop, place of publication, publisher, full stop

- **Works for which there is no author’s name**
  In these cases the first word of the title should normally function as the headword. Details of the year and place of publication, and the publisher to be given in the same way as for books. References to radio and television programmes are shown in the corresponding way. State the programme company/channel and date of broadcast.

- **Oral sources**
  References to interviews etc must always contain the name of the person interviewed as headword, and the date on which the interview was conducted.

- **Internet-material**
  For material obtained from the internet (data bases, text archives, home pages, etc) the name of the author, the year of publication and the title should all be shown, if they exist. In addition you should give the internet address. Normally this implies a direct link to the document (URL address), but if this is very long it might be better to give an address to a main page from which the document can be easily located.
You should also state the date on which it was available – the year alone is not enough.

- **Appendices**
  Appendices must always be numbered (Appendix 1, Appendix 2, etc).

### 4.4 The Length of an Essay

The maximum length of the different types of theses is specified on the department’s homepage.
5 Guidelines for Oral Presentations

5.1 The Prerequisites for Oral Presentations

1. A spoken message has only one sender and relatively few receivers.

2. The sender and receiver have in common their immediate environment.
   (Ignoring here the cases of telephone, radio, and television communication.)
   - It does not work to pretend that the audience does not exist; attempt instead to establish contact with your public.
   - You personally stand behind the message which is received, so do not try to hide your person and personality behind a bunch of words.
   - Don’t imitate other speakers– be yourself, that is what you are best at doing.
   - Be aware that the audience can not only hear you but also see you; try not to let your physical behaviour distract from what you are trying to convey.
   - Think about the fact that you can also see your audience and thereby acquire information as to how they are reacting to what you are saying.
   - When you speak you can use several means (principally gestures) to improve communication of what you are trying to convey.

3. Speech as an acoustic signal.
   - Speech has a set of so-called prosodic signals that can be used to improve communication. You can give emphasis to a word or statement by changes in the stress of your voice, voice intonation, the tempo of speech, or by using a pause. You can also use prosodic means to reveal your emotional state or attitude to the audience (for example by being ironic, engaged, or interested).
   - Voice, expressions, and prosodic signals can also, without your realising it, give the audience information about your own background, personality, and your attitude both to the material being presented and to the audience.

4. Speech flows quickly.
   - You can never count on one hundred percent concentration from your audience. It therefore always happens that parts of what you say do not reach them. The audio-memory of humans is generally worse than that of their visual memory. Remember this when you prepare your presentation and try always to make it easier for the audience to follow what you wish to say to them.
5.2 Preparation

5.2.1 Content and Disposition

Think carefully about the purpose of your presentation. Then try to develop a picture of what the audience already knows about the topic and needs to learn. Make a connection to their own experiences.

Find out how long your presentation should be. Keep within this time limit. If the audience knows that there are many presentations and events after yours they will only become irritated if you go over the time allotted to your presentation. So as to keep within the allotted time limit it is a good idea to rehearse the presentation at home prior to giving it.

Choose your material with an eye for the time at your disposal. Select first the material which is central to the subject. Tangential elements and details should be included only if time permits. Remember that speech is a constantly fluid medium. You should therefore consciously work to make it clear to your audience what you are saying, and to give them guidance as to where you are in the presentation. Leave room for repetition and summarising. Give the audience the opportunity not only to listen but also to see important elements in the presentation (see more below on presentation tools).

Prepare the introduction particularly well. It should seize the interest of the audience and develop the context for the topic of the presentation. A well-prepared introduction will also diminish any problems that you have in starting your presentation. Also take extra care with the concluding part of the presentation. It is important for the audience’s memory both of you and of the presentation. Do not end the presentation with statements such as: “Yes, that was all that I had to say...” or “Thank you for giving me the opportunity to speak!” Instead you should give a short summary of what has been said and end with a statement which clearly gives the audience the impression that you are finished without the use of clichés such as those above.

5.2.2 Written Assistance

If you are either an inexperienced speaker, or know the area under discussion very well, you will most likely need some form of written notes to assist you in giving the presentation. In that case you have a choice between preparing an entire manuscript of the speech beforehand which you then bring to the presentation, and making a general outline of main points and those details which it would otherwise be difficult to retain in your head when speaking. Each of these methods has advantages and disadvantages. Here are some of them:

**The Manuscript**

*Advantages:*
- safer
- more accurate time calculation
- use of written language

*Disadvantages*
- time-consuming to prepare
- risk of reading aloud
- monotone presentation
- poor contact with audience
Main Points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>greater spontaneity</td>
<td>more demanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natural speaking</td>
<td>nervousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better contact with audience</td>
<td>difficult to keep to time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quicker preparation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are situations which are so formal that you must prepare a complete manuscript for the presentation. In that case you should consider the following points:

- Write clearly.
- Write only on one side of the paper.
- Underline key words with a colour marker.
- Do not read the contents of the manuscript when presenting.

It is a great advantage to have acquired the necessary training as a speaker to enable you to give presentations using no more than an outline of main points. It is primarily this type of speaking that you should train yourself for.

5.2.3 Presentation Equipment

What you have to say to your audience will be understood more readily if you not only let them hear the presentation but also give them something to look at as well. You should always try to come up with some means of illustrating your presentation with visual materials if possible. Always find out what type of presentation equipment is available at the place where you will give the presentation. You should not merely assume that the equipment that you need is present. Check well in advance of the presentation that the equipment that you need to use is in working order and ready for use. Do not rely on others to check the equipment. It is you who will be faced with a problem if the equipment is not in working order, or there are no pens to write on the board with.

Try to avoid choosing supporting materials that require continuous and time-consuming arrangements for their operation. For example that the room be darkened, that a portion of the audience must move to view the materials properly, or that the furniture in the room has to be rearranged in the middle of the presentation. Some of the more common supporting materials and their use are:

**Paper Copy**
- Can distract the audience from the presentation if distributed at an inappropriate moment.

**Board Writing**
- Your audience will be left unoccupied while material is being written on the board.
- The speaker is usually tempted to speak while writing, and is then heard with difficulty by the audience.
**Paper Pad**
- Can be used in rooms without fixed boards.
- What is written on the pad can be difficult to read at a distance.

**Demonstration Model**
- If passed around it can be distracting for the audience, if held by the speaker it must be visible to everyone in the audience.

**Slide Projector**
- Requires a darkened room.

**Overhead Projector and PowerPoint**
- Has many advantages but can be over-utilised. (For advice on their use see below).

Whatever supporting materials you use, there are a few things that you should keep in mind:

- Do not block the view of the board or pictures.
- Do not talk to the board, but to the audience.

Equipment like the overhead projector and PowerPoint is often very useful. It gives a sense of spontaneity to the presentation at the same time as it allows for careful preparation of pictures. It also encourages audience contact since the speaker can avoid turning his or her back on the audience to write on the board. However, it is easy to abuse the use of the overhead projector. Below are some examples of how this occurs:

- Do not show too many pictures quickly. The audience must have time to see what is on the picture before it is taken away.
- The text must be eligible for the entire audience. To show an overhead with plain typewritten letters or taken from a published book is not sufficient. To work effectively this form of text must be enlarged before being presented. Make sure to check personally that the text can be read in the type of room in which you are going to make the presentation. With the possibilities which currently exist today for text enlargement it is inexcusable to show illegibly small text on overheads.
- Do not fill the pictures with text. Be satisfied instead with writing key phrases or main points on the overhead. Make simple pictures.
- Do not include anything which you do not intend to speak about. It only serves to distract the viewer by giving material which is not addressed in the presentation.
- Use different colours to symbolise different elements in the picture.
5.3 Speaking

5.3.1 General Performance and Audience Contact

Place yourself so that you can see and hear everyone in the audience:

- Rather in front of the audience than in their midst
- Rather standing than sitting.

Avoid the stereotypical movements made during a presentation, toe-tapping, playing with your glasses, pacing to and fro. Instead, try to move naturally, let your gestures and movements express and underline what you wish to say. Maintain eye contact with the audience, but avoid focusing contact on one single member of the audience. That person will soon be made uncomfortable by the attention, while the rest of the audience will feel ignored.

Do not be afraid of silence. Gather yourself a moment before you begin to speak so that you have time to capture the attention of the audience. Let the last word hang in the air before you leave your place in front of the audience. Make short pauses between the different parts of your presentation so that the audience is able to form a picture of its structure.

If by chance you should lose your concentration, don’t panic and make a frantic and desperate attempt to find the thread of your presentation. This will probably not succeed and you will become more confused; the audience will notice and find it embarrassing. In such an event you should instead admit that you have forgotten what you were about to say, and carefully look for where you left off in your notes for the presentation.

5.3.2 Voice Control and Expressions

Speak so that you are heard clearly, and articulate with care. Find a tempo when speaking which is neither forced nor too slow. Vary the tempo according to the content of what you are saying. Make pauses when changing to a new portion of the presentation. If you often find that you talk too quickly, force yourself to pause more often. Vary your tone as well as your tempo; avoid speaking in a monotone. Avoid rising inflexions at the end of statements or phrases.

Use spoken language expressions that are appropriate and correct (use of expressions such as and, that, is, and but is not recommended). Avoid expressions which are unclear and distract attention from what you are saying. Avoid undefined noises, such as mm, um, and uh for example.

4.3.3 Vocabulary and Grammar

Use spoken as contrasted with written language expressions when making your presentation. Avoid empty filler words such as sort of, like, and what. If you have to
use a technical term with which you believe your audience is unfamiliar, speak clearly and carefully, and write it on the board if possible. Use the forms appropriate to spoken rather than written language: simple sentence constructions, free association, and creative word choice. Do not pack as much information into sentences as one can with written language. At the same time, be sure to speak in complete sentences, in the proper context and using proper sentence constructions.

5.4 Conclusion

It takes practice to become a good speaker. Try therefore to acquire some experience of giving oral presentations during these years of university education. You will find it a useful skill in later working life.
The critical study and evaluation of research reports is a necessary component of research work. Doctoral dissertations are defended in public disputations. Books are reviewed. Researchers have their research accomplishments reviewed when applying for academic positions. The critical evaluation of essays or papers forms the major task at political science conferences; both nationally, in Scandinavia, at the European level, and globally. Because continuity and cumulative production is a demand of the process of scientific research, it is common that scientific reports also contain reviews of the state of the research in the area; critical evaluation is an important component of these overviews.

A critical approach is a general requirement when reading any scientific text. The texts that you write during your studies at the Department of Political Science will also be critically evaluated. Not only by the course instructor responsible for grading but also in seminars. All essays are ventilated in seminars within the courses. Even the papers produced within the so-called reading courses are often discussed in seminars. The seminar format already occurs in the first term of instruction in political science. The seminar process is one where your fellow students on the course read the paper that you are presenting. They do this before the seminar, and one or two of the students are assigned as opponents, with the task of providing more in-depth evaluations than the other students in the seminar. (For theses, the rule is two opponents). While the opponents have an important role within the seminar format, all students in the seminar are expected to participate actively in the discussion of the paper.

In preparation for a seminar the opponents appointed must make a critical appraisal of all aspects of the work represented by the thesis (or similar work - for the sake of simplicity, what follows mentions only theses). However, not all of this appraisal needs to be reported at the seminar. The discussion must first and foremost be directed to the essentials. The most important aspect of the thesis is how its author has fulfilled the research assignment. One approach by the opposition which often works well is to arrange the discussion as an examination of the various elements in the research process. In this there are a whole series of questions to be addressed. For example, how has the author solved the task of defining a problem, linking it to a basis in theory, justified his or her choice of method, related it to earlier research work, assembled and analysed the material, and answered all the questions that have been put? To what degree is the result of the analysis dependent on the theoretical and methodological choice made? Is the thesis well written, well ordered and is the “thread” easy to follow?

There is, however, no generally applicable rule and with some texts another approach may prove more fruitful. Nonetheless the opponents must in all circumstances avoid simply leafing through the text, page by page, and giving unsystematic comments on a mixture of major and minor points. To enable both the author(s) and
other participants in the seminar to follow and take part in the discussion, the opponents must always begin by stating how they intend to structure their opposition. All texts have both their strengths and weaknesses. The opponents must not neglect to bring out what has been well done in the thesis. Remember that positive criticism (like negative criticism) must always be supported by clear arguments. Why is it good? Nonetheless, the main thrust of the discussion must be directed to those aspects of the thesis that the opponents consider to be more problematical. There is an element of role-playing in an academic seminar, in that the duty of the opponents is precisely that – to oppose. Correspondingly, it is the author’s duty to defend the written text. There is thus no call for the two sides to try to reach agreement. On the contrary, the idea is that the seminar should develop into a constructive and illuminating discussion, thanks specifically to the fact that the two sides endeavour to defend their positions with the aid of the best arguments they can devise.

However, it is also part of the opponent’s role to weigh the strengths and weaknesses of the thesis under discussion in order to arrive at a verdict on it as a whole (to be given either at the beginning or at the end of the discussion). The opponent’s role can be particularly difficult if the thesis being considered is either unusually good or unusually bad.

If, as an opponent, you receive a particularly good thesis to examine, there is a risk that you may think there is little you can say. In that situation, in preparing yourself you must make an extra effort to find interesting questions to raise. They always exist. Even good theses are debatable – in a positive sense, that is. You can, for example, invite the author to state the arguments justifying his or her choice of theoretical and methodological premises, you can initiate a discussion of the outcome of the thesis and its further implications, and you can try to develop your own interpretation of the author’s material.

If, on the other hand, you receive a weak thesis with many shortcomings you must remember that discussion in a seminar must be characterised by respect for the author and the efforts he or she has made. Even criticism which is severe in substance must be delivered in a friendly and constructive fashion. A thesis seminar which, figuratively speaking, ends with “blood all over the floor” is a failed seminar.
Appendix 1  Abstracts

Abstract (Bachelor 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 two women’s organisations, Organozaçao da Mulher Moçambicana (OMM) and Amai apa Banda (Amai). We have made a Minor Field Study in Mozambique, where we conducted interviews with women from the 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, conscientisation, participation, and control. When studying the organisations’ activities, we measure if 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 transformatory 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 practical oriented. OMM has more empowering potential than Amai, as they through their activities strive to change gender subordination. The organisations lack transformatory 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

Characters: 24390
Appendix 2   Title Page

Lund University
Department of Political Science

Master of European Affairs
Spring Term 2005
Supervisor: Jakob Gustavsson

Interregional Trade Rivalry
How the EU and the US Competes Over Access to Mercosur

Leslie Wehner
# Appendix 3  Table of Contents

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Appendix 4  Introductions

1. Introduction

1.1. The Subject of the Study

For centuries the question of international trade, in various aspects, has been important for states trying to achieve a maximum increase in wealth. In order to maximise the wealth of the nation, states fought wars and thus extended their economic interests beyond their previous borders. The most important reason for this policy was the search for political independence and self-sufficiency, two of the prime characteristics of the military-political world as defined by Richard Rosecrance (1993, pp 33-35).

After the second World War had ended in 1945, the world was facing a totally new situation concerning the relations between states. The very rapidly growing global economy made it not only costly, but also irrational for states to focus on territorial gains. The world moved, very quickly, to become more like a trading world, where international trade became far more important than it had ever been before. The trading state had taken over many functions of the territorial state as a key concept of international relations, and the interdependence between states had created a new perspective on foreign policy.

With this growing interdependence in mind, the United States took serious actions in the post-war era in order to strengthen the free world. The establishment of the Bretton Woods system made it possible for liberal democracies to create reliable and strong fiscal and monetary policies with a currency connected to the U.S. dollar. This move by the United States further helped international trade because it established strong currencies.

It was however necessary to do something about the international trading system in itself. Facing the realities left by the painful war, the western allies wanted to create an international system which would reduce the risk of some countries taking unilateral action, such as raising the trade barriers against imports. There was an immediate call for international rules on trade relations. Thus, in 1947 the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) was established (Anderson 1990, pp 60-62). The formation of the GATT made it possible for the United States to enforce its domestically liberal trade policy on the international arena. With American leadership, the world was facing new policies, which were meant to prevent wars and establish economic linkages between the participating countries. Through following negotiation rounds the regime was extended and barriers were lowered.
In 1994, after a long time of hard bargaining, the most far-reaching trade liberalisation in the history of the world became a fact as the Uruguay Round negotiations were completed. However, this round was quite different from the earlier rounds. This was specifically notable for the United States. The world had left the post-war structure behind and was facing a totally new situation, where the former communist world had become one with the free world. The world economy was far more integrated, resulting in high interdependence between countries, including the United States. The power of nations was no longer linked only to territorial and military measures, but also, and foremost, to their economic position in the world as Rosecrance (1993, pp 20-22) argues. It is with this environment in mind the United States enters into negotiations concerning a new trading regime.

1.2. The Purpose and the Problem of the Study

During the Uruguay Round, the United States was facing a difficult problem: how to pursue a liberal trade policy despite the growing tendency towards protectionism at home. This crucial question was not the easiest to answer. Nonetheless, in 1994 the United States signed the Uruguay Round agreement. The presumed failure had turned into a success. As mentioned above, a growing interdependence means that states are facing new situations in their policy-making. How is it possible to defend national interests in the global political economy? Is it possible at all?

The purpose of this study is to analyse and discuss the importance of the changes in the international structure to the trade policy of the United States. I want to emphasise that the international environment had a strong impact on the United States. The international structure called upon claims for protectionism at the domestic level, and it also was the prime factor in explaining the willingness of the United States to sign the agreement. The increasing interdependence between states makes it impossible for decision-makers to ignore it, even for a country as the United States.

The main questions raised in this essay are as follows:

- To what extent has the change in the international structure influenced the trade policy of the United States?
- What economic and political aspects may explain the agreement on trade in services?

1.3. The Plan of the Study

The study rests upon the above mentioned questions. In Chapter 2 I will discuss the theoretical aspects. The central theoretical aspects will be those concerning interdependence and hegemonic leadership. In Chapter 3 an analysis of the changing preconditions of the global economy and thus for the GATT-regime will be given. In this chapter some key concepts are defined. I will also outline the consequences of the new power
structure for the United States. This second part analyses how the change in the international system has created demands for protectionism.

Chapter 4 then turns to the international system itself and discusses motives for a liberal trade policy and a change of the regime. In this chapter the importance of the GATS will be stressed. I will study the impact of economic interdependence and international political factors, and thereby combine it with the previous chapter. Chapter 5 finally summarises the study.

1.4. Delimitations of the Study

It is, quite understandably, not possible to cover every aspect in the relevant negotiation. Such an analysis would require a far more extensive research. For this reason the analysis in this study has to be delimited. Such a delimitation has to be made on several aspects of the study.

First it is necessary to delimit the number of actors participating in the negotiations. It would be impossible to cover the problems of all states, or even all the major states, involved in the Uruguay Round. This study consequently focuses on the policy of the United States of America since that country has been the prime actor since the establishment of the GATT in 1947. Another reason for choosing the United States is its problematic situation, both domestically and internationally, during these negotiations. It is also this situation that is the central focus of the study. It has to be emphasised that the intention of the study is not to penetrate the U.S. negotiation policy, but rather to examine the change of U.S. trade policy causing problems for its multilateral commitments.

Second, the empirical issue-area is strictly delimited. The theoretical discussion and analysis of the changing structure will be illuminated by using the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) as an example. Surely there are many other areas that could just as easily illuminate the new power structure. It has been necessary to delimit the study in this perspective as well. The reasons for this delimitation are several. The service sector was one of the new areas to be discussed during the Uruguay negotiations. It seems to be quite essential when it comes to the new global power structure. Evidence of this may be derived from the fact that the United States put a lot of effort on this part of the negotiations from the beginning. According to my point of view it was obvious that this part of the negotiations was the crucial one. Therefore I find it more appropriate than other sectors.

Third, the level of analysis is also subject to a delimitation. Since the study intends to further investigate the influence of the international structure on the policy pursued by the United States, the level of analysis has to be delimited. The emphasis is put on the systemic level, drawing attention to the changing international power structure. The reason for this is that the most important actors in international relations ultimately are states since only states have the capacity of signing legally binding conventions and agreements. I do not underestimate the value and influence of
international institutions, individual decision-makers, domestic politics or political interest groups. In this study, however, the international structure is in focus.

Fourth, the study will not focus on the negotiation process, but rather on the problems for the United States and the causes leading to an agreement. Further, it is not an analysis of the domestic policy of the United States. Thus, the political turns in the U.S. Congress are not essential for the study. Remember that it is an analysis of how the change in the international structure has affected the trade policy of the United States. The main focus is due to this put on international factors such as the growing interdependence and the hegemonic decline.

1.5. Relevance to the Field of Political Science

In the doctrine of political science, the international political economy aspect has gained great attention and respect. In contrast to earlier works in field it is no longer seen only as a marxist theory, which is a great difference. The interaction between politics and economics is becoming more important in the complex international system of today. There is no longer a sharp distinction between the two concepts.

The completion of the Uruguay Round is the most far-reaching global trade liberalisation in the history of the world. The role of the United States, the hegemon leader of the post-war period, and its decision to cooperate, despite strong domestic claims for protectionism, is of high relevance to the field of political science.

1.6. Methodological Aspects

The material used in this study has been various in its character and content. Several authors have dealt with the problems concerning GATT. Political scientists as well as economists have shown great interest in the issue. The framework of the material, therefore, has been both political as well as economic in character. Economic analyses are not of interest for this study and have been omitted from the discussion as far as possible.

The political material is based on writings in the fields of international political economy, international politics, international negotiations and international economics. The literature has consisted of books as well as articles. Many things have happened during the last decade and since the Uruguay Round recently was terminated, the theoretical debate is often found in articles.

The methodology used in the research is one of critical analysis of the information assembled. This analysis is thereafter put in its theoretical context. The purpose of the method is to analyse the policy-area in order to answer the question posed. The case study of the GATS problematics is, of course, also of great importance methodologically. As mentioned above, the case study does not analyse all the turns in the Uruguay Round negotiations, rather it uses it to illuminate the problem of the study.
Appendix 5  Tables, Charts and Figures

Table 3.1  Percentage of minimal winning and minimal range coalitions in the Swedish Riksdag during different government types (1971-1991).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Majority government</th>
<th>Strong minority government</th>
<th>Weak minority government</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minimal winning</td>
<td>40 %</td>
<td>39 %</td>
<td>28 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coalitions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal range</td>
<td>38 %</td>
<td>33 %</td>
<td>23 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coalitions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>N =</td>
<td>(666)</td>
<td>(1,043)</td>
<td>(666)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1.1  Outline of party coalitions in the Swedish parliament 1971-1991 with a numerical criterion.
Figure 3.1 Conflict of interest and coalition formation.
Appendix 6  Bibliography (example)


