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## Getting started

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When you first signed up for a psychology course, the chances are that you did not really expect what was coming, particularly the emphasis on methodology and statistics. For some of you this may have been a pleasant surprise. For most, however, it will undoubtedly have been a shock to the system.

No doubt in other parts of your course you will examine critically academic psychology's scientific aspirations. My task in this book is to help you as best I can to face up to one of its major consequences for you. This is the prominence given in many psychology courses to doing practical work (especially *experimenting*) and the requirement in most instances to write up at least some of this work in the form of a highly structured and disciplined *practical report*.

All a report is (really) is the place in which you tell the story of your study; what you did, why you did it, what you found out in the process, and so on. In doing this you are more like an ancient storyteller, whose stories were structured by widely recognized and long-established conventions, than a modern novelist who is free to dictate form as well as content. Moreover, like the storytellers of old, although you will invariably be telling your story to someone who knows quite a bit about it already, you are expected to present it as if it had never been heard before. This means that you will need to spell out the details and assume little knowledge of the area on the part of your audience.

The nature of your story – the things that you have to talk about – is revealed in Box 1.1.

- 1 What you did
- 2 Why you did it
- 3 How you did it
- 4 What you found (including details of how you analysed the data)
- 5 What you think it shows

*Box 1.1* The information you should provide in your practical report.

Our first clue as to the nature of the conventions governing the report comes with a glance at its basic structure. The report is in *sections*, and these sections (by and large) follow an established *sequence*. What this means is that, in the telling, your story needs to be cut up into chunks: different parts of the story should appear in different places in the report. The typical sequence of the sections appears in Box 1.2.

Most of the sections are separated from each other by putting their titles as headings in the text. The exceptions are the TITLE and INTRODUCTION, neither of which needs headings to introduce them.

The exact relationship between the elements of your story and the sections of the report is shown in Box 1.3.

The METHOD is composed of a number of subsections (Box 1.4). There is some disagreement over the precise order in which these subsections should appear and over which are essential and which optional. In this guide I will use the order in Box 1.4. You may be

Title  
Abstract  
Introduction  
Method  
Results  
Discussion  
References  
Appendices (if any)

*Box 1.2* The sections of the practical report.

Introduction	What you did Why you did it
Method	How you did it
Results	What you found (including details of how you analysed the data)
Discussion	What you think it shows

*Box 1.3* Where the information in Box 1.1 should appear in the report.

	Method
<i>Design</i>	
<i>Participants</i>	
<i>Apparatus (or) Materials</i>	
<i>Procedure</i>	

*Box 1.4* Specific subsections of the METHOD.

advised to employ a different one. This is fine: the important thing is that you report the appropriate material in the right way in those subsections you include.

The report, therefore, is a *formal* document composed of a series of sections in which you are expected to provide specific bits of information. I will discuss the specific conventions governing each section in the rest of Part 1 of this book. There are, however, certain general rules that I can introduce you to straightaway.

The first of these concerns the person for whom you should write your report. Let's call this person your **reader**. Who should this person be? That is, what kind of reader should you have in mind as you write? A very common mistake, especially early on, is to assume that your reader is the person who will be marking the report. In reality, however, the marker will be assessing your report on behalf of someone else – an idealized, hypothetical person who is intelligent, but unknowledgeable about your study and the area of psychology in which it took place. Your marker will, therefore, be checking to see that you have written your report with this sort of reader in mind. You need to make sure, therefore, that you have:

- introduced the reader to the area of psychology relevant to your study;
- provided the reader with the background necessary to understand what you did and why you did it;
- spelt out and developed your arguments clearly;
- defined technical terms;
- provided precise details of the way in which you went about collecting and analysing the data that you obtained.

In short, you should write for someone who is psychologically naive, taking little for granted about your reader's knowledge of things psychological. So, when in doubt, *spell it out!*

If you find this difficult to do, then a useful approach is to write the report as if it will be read by someone you know who is intelligent but unknowledgeable about psychology; a friend of yours, say, or your partner. Write it as if this person were going to have to read and understand it. Indeed, it is a good idea, if you can, to get just such a person to read your report before handing it in (Section 8.6).

**SAQ 1**

In which sections of the report are you expected to give an account of (a) what you found in your study?; (b) what you think your findings have to tell us?

**SAQ 2**

“The people who mark your reports are professional psychologists. As they know quite a bit about the subject already, you can safely assume that they will understand what you did and why you did it without having to spell this out in the report. You should, therefore, direct your report at the expert, specialized reader.” True, or false?

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## 1.1

### **Experienced students, inexperienced students, and the report**

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The demands and expectations placed upon you will of course vary with your experience of report writing. Early on in your career as an author of practical reports less will be expected of you than later, especially in what are really the key sections of the report – the

INTRODUCTION and DISCUSSION. At this early stage you will be expected principally to show that you understand what you did in your practical and its implications, together with evidence that you have at least a basic grasp of the demands of the report's format.

In particular, less may be expected of you here in the "why you did it" part of the INTRODUCTION (Box 1.3). There are a number of reasons for this, but the main one is that the early studies that you do in your practical course tend not to be justifiable in the terms that we use here – that is, in *research* terms. Generally speaking, these early practicals are chosen for you and, more often than not, are chosen for reasons other than their earth-shattering research significance. It would be rather perverse of us, therefore, to expect you to fabricate some plausible research justification for undertaking such studies.

Later on, however, (e.g., as you begin to take more responsibility for the design of your study) you will be expected to pay more attention to the research significance of what you did. This why part will then become more important – because, in being responsible for the choice of topic and design, you will be expected to be able to justify this choice. So, you must be able to tell us *why* it is that, given the options available to you, you decided to conduct your particular study. Moreover, these will need to be research justifications, not merely ones of expediency! You will need, therefore, to develop the habit of thinking about how the ideas you are entertaining for your study will look in the report, paying particular attention to how they will fit into the INTRODUCTION. Specific dangers that you must watch out for here are, first, a lack of adequate material (*references*) to put in this section and, second, undertaking a project that lacks any research justification (because it is based on assumptions that are contradicted by existing findings in the area). Thinking clearly in advance will help you to avoid making these mistakes.

### ***Summary of Section 1.1***

- 1 The practical report is made up of a series of separate sections in which you should report specific pieces of information. Your task in the report is to tell your reader all about the study that you conducted.
- 2 You must write, however, for someone who knows nothing about your study or the area of psychology in which it took place.

- 3 This means that you should spell out the precise details of your study and provide your reader with knowledge of the background relevant to it (previous findings in the area) when writing the report.
- 4 The demands placed upon you with regard to this task may vary with your experience as a student of practical psychology. In particular, as you progress you will need to get into the habit of thinking about how the ideas that you are entertaining for your study will fit into the report. In particular, pay attention to how you will be able to develop and defend your arguments in the INTRODUCTION.

## 1.2 Writing the report

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Before running your study, you should really have a good idea of exactly how you are going to do it, as well as why it is worth doing, and how it relates to previous work in the area. However, you will have no real idea of what you are going to find and, therefore, no precise knowledge of the implications of your study. Thus, you could write the INTRODUCTION and METHOD before you conduct your study, because these sections report material that you should have decided upon in advance. You cannot, however, write the RESULTS and DISCUSSION in advance, as these depend critically upon the outcome of your study.



As you can see from Box 1.2, the order of the report's sections reflects the historical sequence described above. However, I advise you not to *write* the sections in the order described in Box 1.2. For some of the sections – such as the INTRODUCTION and DISCUSSION – require more thought and effort to do properly than others. Consequently, you would be wise to work on these sections when you are at your freshest, leaving the more straightforward ones – such as those in the METHOD – to those moments in which your interest in what you are doing is at its lowest ebb. In particular, never leave the DISCUSSION until last. I have had too many reports from students who have clearly devoted the better part of their time to the earlier sections, and lost interest in what they were doing by the time they reached the DISCUSSION. The consequence is a perfunctory DISCUSSION, and a poorer mark than they would have received had they budgeted their time more sensibly. Always bear in mind that the DISCUSSION is the key section of the report; it is there that the true value of what you have done in

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your study will be revealed in all its glory, when you come to assess the *implications* of your findings. How much have your findings added to the stock of knowledge that you described in the INTRODUCTION? The whole process – from design through to the writing of all of the other sections of the report – is intended to clear the ground for the DISCUSSION. So, write your report with this in mind. (Again, this will become more and more important as you come to play a larger role in designing your own studies.)

Finally, the ABSTRACT is invariably better left until last, even though it is the first section to appear in the report. (Indeed, it is difficult to imagine writing an abstract of an unfinished report.)

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? SAQ 3 Which sections of the report could you – at least in principle – write *before* you conducted your study? Why?

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? SAQ 4 Which is the key section of the report?

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### 1.3 The importance of references in text

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Whenever you write in psychology – whether practical reports or essays – you must *substantiate all factual assertions*. A **factual assertion** is simply anything that could prompt your reader to ask “who says?” or “what’s the evidence?”. A factual assertion is a claim about the psychological universe and few such claims are undeniably, self-evidently true. For example, “people want to be happy”, “memory deteriorates with age”, “children grow into adults”. Only the last of these statements is undeniably true, and only if we take adult to mean “grown up *physically*”. Be alert to this issue: you will be making many factual assertions when you write and most of these will require substantiation. You will be expected to tell your reader at least *who* presented evidence or arguments for the claim and *when*. So, if you make a firm statement about any aspect of the psychological universe (however trivial), you must attempt to support it.

In practice, this means that statements such as: “Emotion interferes with the ability to reason logically” or “Anxiety enhances the impact of a persuasive message” are not acceptable. However, statements

such as: “Emotion interferes with the ability to reason logically (Dwyer, 1972)” and “Anxiety enhances the impact of a persuasive message (Dale & Stant, 2009)” *are* acceptable. The reason is that they contain what we call **references**, whereas the first two statements do not.

References are the preferred method of substantiating factual assertions in psychology, because references provide direct answers to the questions *who* found, argued or claimed something and *when*. If they wished to, your reader could look up the source referenced to see if it really does say what you claim it says. So, wherever possible, you should cite a reference (at least a name and date) for all *findings*, *definitions*, and *quotations* at all times, even where you have made the citation before. It must be clear to which author, and to which particular piece of their work, you are referring at *any given time*. For example:

Chopra (2006) found that emotion impaired participants’ ability to reason logically. Emotion did not, however, affect female participants any more than the male participants. Indeed, the reasoning performance of the women was superior to that of the men when the emotional arousal was positive. On the basis of these data and previous findings (Legg, 1999), he argued “the traditional viewpoint that emotion disrupts the reasoning abilities of women, but not those of men, is untenable” (Chopra, 2006, pp. 12–13).

I cannot emphasize enough the importance of citing references in scientific writing. You can find out more about how to reference in psychology in Chapter 8. You must reference properly in your reports and indeed in everything that you write in psychology.

In most cases you will be given at least some references to read for your practical. As you become more experienced, however, more will be expected of you in terms of reading around the area and hunting down your own references. You can find advice about how to locate references in Section 1.5.

In psychology you should *never* find yourself having made a claim about an aspect of the psychological universe without attempting in some way to shore it up. Whatever happens, therefore, *you should attempt to substantiate your viewpoint*. This is particularly true of what you will come to know as the *experimental hypothesis*. You should always attempt to justify the experimental hypothesis (or hypotheses), especially as you become more experienced.



## SAQ 5

If you make a statement that might prompt your reader to ask “who says?”, what should you do?

*Summary of Sections 1.2–1.3*

- 1 The DISCUSSION is the key section of the report. It is there that you reveal the true value of your study, for it is there that you come to assess the implications of your findings. You should therefore budget your time when writing the report so that you devote sufficient thought and attention to this section.
- 2 When writing the report you will be expected to substantiate all factual assertions, preferably by using *references*.

## 1.4

**The practical report and the research paper**

So far, therefore, I have introduced you to the basic requirements of the report and given you some idea of how to go about writing it. Yet *why* does the report take this form: why is it in sections? Why do these sections come in a particular order? Why are there restrictions on what material is to be mentioned, where it is to come, and how it is to be expressed? These are good questions. The answers to them require you to understand something about the function of the report in its **research context**.

Those of you who have already written reports may well have found yourselves confused and frustrated at some stage or other by the format and rules that strike you as being rigid, restrictive, inhibiting, and perhaps even arbitrary. One of the main reasons for this is that you meet the report in a strange environment. For the report is primarily a *research* tool. Its natural habitat is the academic *journal*. The rules and conventions that govern it have evolved for the purpose it serves there. In its educational setting, therefore (where you meet it) these conventions are often difficult to understand, because you have inherited the report divorced – at least at first – from its principal function.

What is a journal? When, as a naive undergraduate, I first encountered this term and was packed off to the library to start work on my first practical report I didn't know what people were talking about. Bewildered, I wandered around the library trying to work out in what

ways a journal might look different on a shelf from a book. To me a journal was a dusty old, handwritten thing kept by some intrepid Victorian travelling though the Congo or awaiting the relief of Mafeking. Quite what psychology had to do with such things was beyond me. Now, of course, I know better. Academic journals are the main way in which researchers inform each other about their work and, therefore, the places in which much of a discipline's knowledge and understanding are found. Journals contain a selection of what are thought to be the best articles submitted to them and are published, electronically or in paper form, at regular periods (and are therefore also sometimes referred to as *periodicals*). Most of the studies that you will cite in a report will be published in journals. (Just to add to the confusion, these published reports are also called *papers*.)

In its research context, a journal article serves to inform those who may be interested in a researcher's work of its *nature*, *purpose*, and *implications*, in as *clear*, *thorough*, and *concise*, a way as possible (note the conflicting demands). To this end, the idea of a general format, with clearly labelled sections that provide clearly defined pieces of information, has developed (Box 1.5). Using this format it should be possible for readers to establish quickly and with the minimum of effort whether the reported work is of interest to them and to locate any particular piece of information they want. Ideally, readers should be able to rerun your study (to conduct what we call a "replication")

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|---------------|---|
| Introduction: | 1 Summarize state of area prior to study. (Why you did it)  |
|               | 2 Sketch study in broad outline. (What you did)   |
|               | 3 State the <i>experimental hypothesis</i> (or hypotheses) and associated predictions (Section 9.1.4)             |
| Method:       | 4 Outline precise details of study. (How you did it)  |
| Results:      | 5 Present relevant data, together with outcomes of appropriate inferential statistical analyses. (What you found) |
| Discussion:   | 6 Summarize and interpret findings.   |
|               | 7 Assess implications for area (i.e., return to 1). (What you think it shows)                                     |

*Box 1.5* The requirements of the research report.

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based solely on the description in your report. This is the level of description that you should aim for, within the constraints imposed by the word limit for your report.

The conventions that govern the construction of the report, therefore, have been developed for the purpose of conveying information clearly, precisely, efficiently, and concisely, to those who are interested. To a large extent, these are the conventions that you must obey in report writing, even though very few of you are ever likely to have your work published. In essence, these conventions have been *transplanted* from the research world into the educational one.

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**? SAQ 6**

What are the main purposes served by the conventions of the *research* report?

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As you progress, you will be expected more and more to emulate the research process – to design your studies with their research implications in mind and write your reports with greater emphasis on the implications of what you have done for existing findings and ideas. As a result, more will be expected of you in the report, particularly in the INTRODUCTION and DISCUSSION. So, those of you who will be expected to progress in this way must watch out for this transition. (In the UK, for example, this will probably occur for most of you during the second year of an undergraduate course.)

As this is critical to the way in which you should write your report (and as it affects the way your report is marked), if you have any doubts about what is expected of you, then ask your tutor what you should do. Indeed, this is a general rule for anything in this book: when, in doubt, ask your tutor.

### ***Summary of Section 1.4***

- 1 The practical report is related to the research article. The conventions for writing research articles have developed to convey information clearly, precisely, efficiently and concisely to those who may be interested in a researcher's work.
- 2 To a large extent, these are the conventions that you must obey when writing your practical reports, particularly as you become more experienced.

## 1.5 Finding references for your INTRODUCTION

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When you start off as a student, knowing what to read for your INTRODUCTION is generally no problem. Your tutor tells you what references to read, you read them, and you write a potted account of what they say. Indeed, in your early reports there may not be much space for anything expansive. As time goes by, however, expectations change. You will be expected to know more, write about more, and find out more for yourself. You need to learn how to find useful, informative and up-to-date things to read so that you can design studies that ask interesting questions based on an *informed* understanding of what has already been found and to help you write a good introduction to your study.

### 1.5.1 How to structure your reading and what to look for

Most of you, most of the time, do not read enough. However, some of you read too much. Reading just the right amount to give you an informed understanding of the area, but leaving you still able to see the wood for the trees, is an important skill. So rule one, for most of you, is: *read enough!* Rule two, for some of you, is: *know when to stop!*

When doing your reading, take it in stages. Differentiate articles that are readily available to you – ones that you can access online or find in the library – from those you will need to order, which will cause delays. Also budget your time so that you are able to do enough reading.

Start by reading something general if you can. For example, a decent, up-to-date textbook chapter will give you an overview of the themes and issues in the area and a sense of what are the key studies. More advanced students should see if they can find a relevant article in a journal. A recent article in a decent journal will contain some sort of review of the area. If you need further references, you could try to get hold of any promising-looking articles contained in the references sections of such an article. There are also journals and other sources dedicated to reviews: if in doubt, ask your tutor where you might look and what might be suitable for your level of study. Ask also what journals s/he considers to be the best in the field and look for articles in these.

In some cases there will be an obvious starting study or studies on which your experiment is based. If so, start there.

When thinking about what to read, make sure that you differentiate primary from secondary sources. A **primary source** is the original piece of work: the paper in which the authors argued something or first published their findings. Anything in which people give a second-hand account of another piece of work is a **secondary source**. Textbooks are secondary sources. In these the author(s) provide potted accounts of people's work. Such secondary sources are useful starting points, but detail is lost and sometimes mistakes and misinterpretations creep in. As you progress as a student, you should expect more and more of your reading to be of primary sources.

If you do need to generate further references, bear in mind that the process of generating lists of potential things to read is relatively easy; getting hold of the actual articles themselves may not be.

### 1.5.2 Generating potential references

Electronic resources, such as online catalogues of abstracts or Internet search engines, are a great boon, but not without their problems. It is easy to generate a huge list of potentially relevant references from such sources. However, it can take a lot of sifting through them to find the really useful ones and you can miss some key references altogether if your *search terms* have been inadequate. (A **search term** is the word or phrase you type into the search field of the source you are searching, such as a bibliographic database, like PsycINFO, or a Web site.) Here is some advice about how to find references and some things to watch out for.

- 1 If you have access to a college or university library, see what advice it has available on where and how to search and *especially* on choosing appropriate search terms. Often, the more specific you can be in your choice of search terms, the better. The library may provide a leaflet or some Web pages or perhaps even a class on searching: make use of whatever is on offer.
- 2 Your library will give you access to electronic catalogues of abstracts, such as Web of Knowledge or PsycINFO. These contain titles, abstracts, and reference lists of articles in psychology journals and other disciplines that you can search for relevant articles. Depending on your request, the computer will look for your search terms in the title, abstract, author names, and references section of the articles on the database and provide you with a list of the ones

it has found. Be warned, however, that this can (a) generate many hundreds – perhaps thousands – of “hits” but (b) still miss key references, especially if these lie far back in time. Do not make the mistake of assuming that the only things you can or should read are on such lists! For undergraduate practical reports (and essays for that matter), such catalogues are probably best used to help you locate a few up-to-date references.

- 3 If you do not have access to either of the above, but do have general access to the Internet, then of course Internet search engines can be helpful. Preferably, use an academic search engine, such as Google Scholar, to help you get a list of recent relevant references. For reports (and essays) in scientific psychology, you need articles and other academic material that has been what we call in the trade, “peer reviewed”. Such material has been checked for accuracy. It is read by other psychologists and rewritten by the author(s) in the light of their criticisms and comments before being accepted for publication. Academic search engines help you to locate this material among the wealth of unedited, unreviewed and potentially misleading material out there on the Internet.

### 1.5.3 Locating the references

Once you have identified which articles you want to read, you need to access them. Again, electronic sources are a great boon, but don't forget that libraries have books and journals on shelves and in store as well!

- 1 Internet search engines, such as Google Scholar, can of course also help you to access some of the papers themselves. You can try searching using author's names or keywords from the title or abstract. You can also use such search engines to find the authors' Web sites. Locating their Web sites can be very useful, as they might not only have the article available for you to download but also other relevant papers and descriptions of their research. Be careful, however, as some articles you may find on the Internet may not be legally available for downloading and you should not download material illegally. When in doubt, check with your tutor.
- 2 You may have access to a college or university library's electronic journals. If so, search these for the *name of the journal* (not the title

of the article or authors' names). If you find the journal listed, you may be able to download the article you want. If a journal is not available electronically, check whether the library holds paper copies. I sometimes get students telling me a paper is unavailable when the journal is sitting on the library's shelves because they have searched for the author or title of a paper and not the name of the journal.

- 3 If you are searching a library's catalogue electronically, do not confuse books and journals. To see whether the library has a *book* called *The Psychology of Communication* by an author called George Bush you can type in Bush or communication or both. However, to see if it has his paper on this topic in the May 2008 edition of a journal called *The Journal of Communication Studies*, you need to type in *The Journal of Communication Studies* to see if the library takes the journal. This is because the library catalogue lists what journals are available, *not* the journal's contents.
- 4 On the other hand, if an Internet search or the library catalogue takes you to a journal's Web site, you will be able to search for Bush's paper by his name or the paper's title. This is because such Web sites *do* list the journal's contents. However, you may find that you are only able to access the ABSTRACT of the paper and not the entire paper. This is because ABSTRACTS are public documents (see Chapter 6) but most journals are commercial enterprises, so someone has to pay a subscription to the publisher to access the papers. Check whether the journal is on your library's list of electronic journals – if so, then your library has paid a subscription and you may be able to get access to the paper through their electronic list (see above).
- 5 Remember that downloading, printing, photocopying, or highlighting an article are *not* the same thing as reading it!

Overall, strive for a balance between old and new sources. One of the first things I do when I look at a project or practical report *from more advanced students* is to scan the references section to see what proportion of references are from the last two or three years. I want to see a good mix of references: classic sources and recent, up-to-date material published in decent journals.

Finally, if you have accessed material electronically, this may affect how you cite it in the REFERENCES section. You can find out more about this in Chapter 7.

### 1.5.4 Rubbish and temptation on the Internet

Watch out for two things on the Internet, rubbish and temptation:

- *Rubbish* – be sensible about the material available on the Internet. It may be easy to get access to lots of information, but some of it will be rubbish. Use the Internet mainly to locate material that has been checked for accuracy. Cite material that has not been peer-reviewed, such as someone's blog or Web pages, only when you have a special reason for doing so.
- *Temptation* – as in life, this comes in many forms on the Internet and two forms in particular you need to be wary of here. First, you may come across material that you have not written yourself but that you are tempted to pass off as your own. This is *plagiarism* and it is a serious offence. You should avoid any risk of being accused of plagiarism. I discuss this further in Section 8.3. Second, you may come across material (e.g., an article or scale) that is under copyright and that you should not have been able to access. Hard though it may be, you should not use such material.

#### *Summary of Section 1.5*

- 1 As you progress as a student of psychology, you will be expected to find relevant things to read yourself and to read more primary sources.
- 2 You can use searches of electronic databases and hand searches of books and journals to help you to get additional references to read. The Internet also contains potentially useful information, but also much that has not been checked for accuracy – so you should use this material sensibly.
- 3 More advanced students should attempt to read a good mix of references to classic articles and up-to-date ones from decent journals.

## 1.6 Ethics

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Before you even begin to think about designing and running your own studies, let alone writing them up, you need to learn how to treat your participants ethically. Any investigation involving humans or

animals is governed by a set of ethical principles and you are required to act in accordance with these. It can be very easy when designing your studies to get caught up in the details and the science and to lose sight of the potential for insult, upset or distress in your procedures. When you first start out, your tutor will play the major part in keeping an eye on this aspect of your work. Nevertheless, you too have a responsibility to make sure that your experiments and other studies are run ethically. Make sure, therefore, that you obtain, read and understand the ethical principles adhered to in your department. At some stage you may undertake project work for which you need prior ethical approval. Make sure that you know how to obtain approval under these circumstances and do not start without it! You will find more on ethical issues in Section 10.10.

## 1.7

### The rest of the book and the book's Web site

Once you have familiarized yourself with the issues covered in this chapter, you can turn to the rest of Part 1 of this book. Chapters 2–7 describe in detail what material you should put in each section of the report. Chapter 8 provides advice on how to produce the final version of the report, including topics such as writing style, how to reference in text, and the use of tables and figures. If at any stage you find yourself puzzled by a statistical term or uncertain about a methodological issue, you can turn to the relevant sections of Part 2 to find out more. You can also find further coverage of report writing, design and statistical issues on the book's Web site at: <http://mcgraw-hill.co.uk/openup/harris/>



You can find a full listing of the Web site's contents at the start of this book.

Finally, although – as its title implies – much of this book is about designing and reporting *experiments*, where relevant, I also discuss how to write up other forms of quantitative study (i.e., where the data are numbers). So, this book and its Web site should be useful to you when you are writing up any quantitative study during your time as a student of psychology, not just experiments. (For more on the different types of quantitative research, see Chapter 9.)