

## CHAPTER - 12

### DATA PRESENTATION: TABLE AND FIGURE DESIGN

#### Topics Covered

- 12.1 Definition of Tabulation
- 12.2 Purpose of the Tabulation
- 12.3 Steps in Tabulation
- 12.4 Basic Structure of a Table
- 12.5 Consideration in Construction of a Table
- 12.6 Deciding to Use Figure
- 12.7 Types of Figure
- 12.8 Preparation of Figure
- 12.9 Creating Graphs
- 12.10 Figure Legends and Captions
- 12.11 Figure Checklist

### 12.1 DEFINITION OF TABULATION

Tables are efficient, enabling the researcher to present a large amount of data in a small amount of space. Tables usually show exact numerical values, and the data are arranged in an orderly display of columns and rows, which aids comparison. The reader can more easily comprehend and compare data when they are presented in tabular form. Tabulation is the process of condensation of information collected through enquiry. A table represents summary of the data by using columns and rows entering figures in the body of table.

### 12.2 PURPOSE OF THE TABULATION

The purposes of tables and figures in same documents is to enhance readers' understanding of the information in the document. Most word processing software available today will allow you to create your own tables and figures, and even the most basic of word processors permit the embedding of images, thus enabling you to include tables and figures in almost any document.

The main purposes of the tabulation are. To...

- Summarize a mass of numerical information, and
- Present it in the simplest possible form consistent with purpose of the study.

### 12.3 STEPS IN TABULATION

The steps are followed in tabulation -

- ❖ Transformation of information according to classification from questionnaire to work-sheets for facilitating handling.
- ❖ After summarization of information in the work-sheet draft table is to be prepared.
- ❖ Preparation of final table containing the results of draft table.

#### Forms of Table

Forms of tables may be single, double, triple or manifold, according to the number of characteristics covered by the table. Practical illustration will make the idea more clear. A simple table shows only one characteristic. The data are presented only in terms of one of their characteristics. In two-fold table two characteristics are included. Similarly, manifold tables show many characteristics.

Examples are given below-

Table 12.1

*Percentage Distribution of the Respondents According to Nature of Migration*

Nature of Migration	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Alone	290	25
With the Group	868	75

Source: Ahmed, A. Migration of Rural Poor to Urban Slums and Their Poverty Situation: Case Studies of Selected Metropolitan Cities in Bangladesh, BARD, 2004, 52.

Table 12. 2

*Distribution of Consumers According to their Education and Occupation*

Education	Fixed Salary Job	Business	Profession	Wage Earner	Other	Total
Illiterate	4	11	1	25	2	43
Up to Class IV	6	22	2	13	2	45
Above class IV but not matriculate	4	30	2	2	2	40
Matriculate but not graduate	24	12	3	-	1	40
Graduate & above	8	3	7	-	1	19
Total	56	78	15	40	8	197

Source: Retailing of Consumer Goods in former East Pakistan published by Bureau of Economic Research, Dacca University, 1965.

Table 12. 3

*Yearly Average Employment Status of the Respondents Before and After Migration to Metropolitan Cities*

Metropolitan City	Before Migration		After Migration	
	No. of Respondent	Employment (Man days)	No. of Respondent	Employment (Man days)
Dhaka	278	233	317	311
Chittagong	270	243	291	310
Rajshahi	204	233	270	312
Khulna	183	218	301	313

Source: Ahmed, A. Migration of Rural Poor to Urban Slums and Their Poverty Situation: Case Studies of Selected Metropolitan Cities in Bangladesh, BARD, 2004, 37.

**Specific Types of Tables**

**Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Tables:** The conventional format for an ANOVA table is to list the source in the stub column, then the degrees of freedom (df) and the *F* ratios. Give the between-subject variables and error first, then within-subject and any error. Mean square errors must be enclosed in parentheses. Provide a general note to the table to explain what those values mean (see example). Use asterisks to identify statistically significant *F* ratios, and provide a probability footnote.

Table 12. 4

*Analysis of Variance for Classical Conditioning*

Source	df	<i>F</i>	$\eta$	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects				
Anxiety (A)	2	0.76	.22	.48
Shock (S)	1	0.01	.02	.92
A X S	2	0.18	.11	.84
S within group error	30	(16.48)		
Within Subjects				
Block (B)	4	3.27**	.31	.01
B X A	8	0.93	.24	.49
B X S	4	2.64*	.28	.04
B X A X S	8	0.58	.19	.79
B X S within group error	120	(1.31)		

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors. S = subjects \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Regression Tables:** Conventional reporting of regression analysis follows two formats. If the study is purely applied, list only the raw or un-standardized coefficients (B). If the study is purely theoretical, list only the standardized coefficients (beta). If the study was neither purely applied nor theoretical, then list both standardized and un-standardized coefficients. Specify the type of analysis, either hierarchical or simultaneous, and provide the increments of change if you used hierarchical regression.

Table 12. 5

*Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Adult Daughters' Belief in Paternalism (N = 46)*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
Step 1			
Daughter's education	-5.89	1.93	-.41*
Mother's age	0.67	0.31	.21*
Step 2			
Daughter's education	-3.19	1.81	-.22
Mother's age	0.31	0.28	.14
Attitude toward elders	1.06	0.28	.54*
Affective feelings	1.53	0.60	.31*
Dogmatism	-0.03	0.10	-.04

Note.  $R^2 = .26$  for Step 1;  $\Delta R^2 = .25$  for Step 2 ( $ps < .05$ ). \* $p < .05$ .

Path and LISREL (Linear Structural Relations) Tables: Present the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the entire set of variables you use input to path and LISREL analysis. These data are essential for the reader to replicate or confirm your analyses and are necessary for archival purposes, if your study is included in meta-analysis. To help the reader interpret your table, give short descriptions instead of just a list of symbols of the x and y variables used in the models. If you need to use acronyms, be sure to define each one.

Table 12. 6

*Factor Loadings and Uniqueness for Confirmatory Factor Model of Type A Behavior Pattern Variables*

Measure and Variable	Un-standardized Factor Loading	SE	Uniqueness
<i>SI-Speech Characteristics</i>			
Loud and explosive	.60	-	.32
Rapid and accelerating	.63	.04	.29
Response latency	.71	.04	.16
Verbal competitiveness	.82	.05	.25
<i>SI-Answer Content</i>			
Competitiveness	.60	-	.34
Speed	.59	.04	.27
Impatience	.67	.05	.28
<i>SI-Hostility</i>			
Stylistic rating	.60	-	.22
Content rating	.60	.05	.17
<i>Thurston Activity Scale</i>			
Variable 1	.60	-	.73
Variable 2	.88	.08	.39
Variable 3	.71	.07	.54
Variable 4	.69	.07	.74
Variable 5	.74	.07	.31

Note. Dashes indicate the standard error was not estimated. SI = Structured Interview.

Word Tables: Unlike most tables, which present quantitative data, some tables consist mainly of words. Word tables present qualitative comparisons or descriptive information. For example, a word table can enable the reader to compare characteristics of studies in an article that reviews many studies, or it can present questions and responses from a survey or show an outline of the elements of a theory. Word tables illustrate the discussion in the text; they should not repeat the discussion. Word tables include the same elements of format as do other types of tables - table number and title, headings, rules, and possibly notes. Keep column entries brief and simple. Indent any runover lines in entries. Double-space all parts of a word table.

Table 12. 7

*Comparison between Basic and Applied Research*

Basic Research	Applied Research
Research problems and subjects are selected with a great deal of freedom.	Research problems are narrowly constrained to the demands of client or the sponsor.
Research is judged by absolute norms and scientific rigor, and the highest standard of scholarship is sought.	The rigor and standard of scholarship depend on the uses of results.
The primary concern is with the internal logic and rigor of research design.	The primary concern is with the ability to generalize findings to areas of interest to sponsor/client.
The driving goal is to contribute to basic, theoretical knowledge.	The driving goal is to have practical payoffs or use of results.
Success comes when results appear in a scholarly journal and have an impact in the scientific community.	Success comes when results are used by sponsor/client in decision making.

### Notes in Tables

There are three types of notes for tables - general, specific, and probability notes. All of them must be placed below the table in that order. *General* notes explain, qualify or provide information about the table as a whole. Put explanations of abbreviations, symbols, etc. here.

Example: *Note*. The racial categories used by the US Census (African-American, Asian American, Native-American, and Pacific Islander) have been collapsed into the category 'non-White'. E = excludes respondents who self-identified as 'White' and at least one other 'non-White' race.

*Specific* notes explain, qualify or provide information about a particular column, row, or individual entry. To indicate specific notes, use superscript lowercase letters (e.g. <sup>a</sup>, <sup>b</sup>, <sup>c</sup>), and order the superscripts from left to right, top to bottom. Each table's first footnote must be superscript <sup>a</sup>.

Example: <sup>a</sup> n = 823. <sup>b</sup> One participant in this group was diagnosed with schizophrenia during the survey.

*Probability* notes provide the reader with the results of the tests for statistical significance. Asterisks indicate the values for which the null hypothesis is rejected, with the probability (*p*-value) specified in the probability note. Such notes are required only when relevant to the data in the table. Consistently use the same number of asterisks for a given alpha level throughout your paper.

Example: \**p* < .05. \*\**p* < .01. \*\*\**p* < .001.

If you need to distinguish between two-tailed and one-tailed tests in the same table, use asterisks for two-tailed *p*-values and an alternate symbol (such as daggers) for one-tailed *p*-values.

Example: \**p* < .05, two-tailed. \*\**p* < .01, two-tailed. †*p* < .05, one-tailed, ††*p* < .01, one-tailed.

## 12.4 BASIC STRUCTURE OF A TABLE

The following parts are the basic structure of tables.

**Numbers:** Number all tables with Arabic numerals sequentially. Do not use suffix letters (e.g. Table 3a, 3b, 3c); instead, combine the related tables. If the manuscript includes an appendix with tables, identify them with capital letters and Arabic numerals (e.g. Table A1, Table B2).

**Titles:** Like the title of the paper itself, each table must have a clear and concise title. When appropriate, you may use the title to explain an abbreviation parenthetically. Example: *Comparison of Median Income of Adopted Children (AC) v. Foster Children (FC)*

**Headings:** Keep headings clear and brief. The heading should not be much wider than the widest entry in the column. Use of standard abbreviations can aid in achieving that goal. All columns must have headings, even the stub column, which customarily lists the major independent variables.

**Body:** In reporting the data, consistency is key. Numerals should be expressed to a consistent number of decimal places that is determined by the precision of measurement. Never change the unit of measurement or the number of decimal places in the same column.

More specifically the different parts of a table are-

**Title:** Each table has its title describing the contents.

**Sub Head:** It describes the characteristic of the stub entries.

**Stub Entries:** These are the classification of actual data.

**Caption Head:** This explains the data placed in each column of caption head.

**Body:** It contains the data in classified form.

**Foot Note:** It may be used to describe anything.

**Source:** Disclosing the source of information.

Title

Sub Head	Caption			
	Column Head		Column Head	
	Sub Column Head	Sub Column Head	Sub Column Head	Sub Column Head
Stud Entries	B	O	D	Y

Footnotes:

Source:

## 12.5 CONSIDERATION IN CONSTRUCTION OF A TABLE

### Main Consideration in Construction of a Table

- ❖ Table should be as simple as possible.
- ❖ It is advisable to have a rough draft of the table before preparation of actual table.
- ❖ The size of different columns should be so adjusted that the overall length of the table is proportionate to its breath.
- ❖ The units of measurement should be clearly stated.
- ❖ The title of the table should be precise.
- ❖ Whenever possible figures may be rounded up.
- ❖ The size of table should not be too large.
- ❖ There should not be any ambiguity in the entry of items in the table. The expressions should be clear.
- ❖ Different columns shown for comparison should be placed side by side.

### Table Checklist

- Is the table necessary?
- Is the entire table single- or double-spaced (including the title, headings, and notes)?
- Are all comparable tables presented consistently?
- Is the title brief but explanatory?
- Does every column have a column heading?
- Are all abbreviations; special use of italics, parentheses, and dashes; and special symbols explained?
- Are all probability level values correctly identified, and are asterisks attached to the appropriate table entries? Is a probability level assigned the same number of asterisks in all the tables in the same document?
- Are the notes organized according to the convention of general, specific, probability?
- Are all vertical rules eliminated?
- If the table or its data are from another source, is the source properly cited?
- Is the table referred to in the text?

### General guidelines

- A. Necessity: Visual material such as tables and figures can be used quickly and efficiently to present a large amount of information to an audience, but visuals must be used to assist communication, not to use up space, or disguise marginally significant results behind a screen of complicated statistics. Ask yourself this question first - Is the table or figure necessary? For example, it is better to present simple descriptive statistics in the text, not in a table.
- B. Relation of Tables or Figures and Text: Because tables and figures supplement the text, refer in the text to all tables and figures used and explain what the reader should look for when using the table or figure. Focus only on the important point the reader should draw from them, and leave the details for the reader to examine on her own.

- C. Documentation: If you are using figures, tables and/or data from other sources, be sure to gather all the information you will need to properly document your sources.
- D. Integrity and Independence: Each table and figure must be intelligible without reference to the text, so be sure to include an explanation of every abbreviation (except the standard statistical symbols and abbreviations).
- E. Organization, Consistency, and Coherence: Number all tables sequentially as you refer to them in the text (Table 1, Table 2, etc.), likewise for figures (Figure 1, Figure 2, etc.). Abbreviations, terminology, probability level values must be consistent across tables and figures in the same article. Likewise, formats, titles, and headings must be consistent. Do not repeat the same data in different tables.

### Guidelines for Tables within Assignments

Following are brief guidelines describing how to format tables within your assignments. These guidelines have been adapted from the *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*.

- Be selective in what tables, as well as the number of tables you include within your text. If a large number of tables are included it may prove distracting to the reader.
- The layout of the table should be logical and easily understood by the reader. Select a layout format which emphasizes the feature of the data you are discussing.
- Include lines within a table only when they assist readability or clarity.
- Each column and row must include a brief, but descriptive heading.
- Tables should supplement rather than duplicate your text.
- Refer to every table within your text by the table number (eg. Table 1), highlighting only the point you want to emphasize.
- Tables must be numbered consecutively in the order in which they appear within the text. That is, the first table is labeled 'Table 1', the second 'Table 2', and so on.
- Include a title (in italics) for the table on the next line directly after the table number (spacing can either be single or double-space). Each major word in the title should appear in capitals. The title should be descriptive of the contents of the table.

For example-

Table 1

*Difference Between Cue Collection in Experienced and Novice Nurses*

- Include descriptive notes for the table directly underneath the table. Refer to the *Publication manual* for more details on the types of notes to that can be included.

## 12.6 DECIDING TO USE FIGURE

In APA journals, any type of illustration other than a table is called a figure. Because tables are typeset, rather than photographed from art-work supplied by the author, they are not considered figures. A figure may be a chart, graph, photograph, drawing, or other depiction. Consider carefully whether to use a figure. Tables are often preferred for the presentation of quantitative data in archival journals because they provide exact information; figures typically require the reader to estimate values. On the other hand, figures convey at a quick glance an overall pattern of results. They are especially useful in describing an interaction - or lack thereof- and nonlinear relations. A well-prepared figure can also convey structural or pictorial concepts more efficiently than can text. During the process of drafting a manuscript, and in deciding whether to use a figure, ask yourself these questions -

- What idea do you need to convey?

- Is the figure necessary? If it duplicates text, it is not necessary. If it complements text or eliminates lengthy discussion, it may be the most efficient way to present the information.
- What type of figure (e.g., graph, chart, diagram, drawing, map, or photograph) is most suited to your purpose? Will a simple, relatively inexpensive figure (e.g., line art) convey the point as well as an elaborate, expensive figure (e.g., photographs combined with line art, figures that are in color instead of in black and white)?

### Standard for Figure

The standards for good figures are simplicity, clarity, and continuity. A good figure-

- augments rather than duplicated the text;
- conveys only essential facts;
- omits visually distracting detail;
- is easy to read - its elements (type, lines, labels, symbols, etc.) are large enough to be read with ease in the printed form;
- is easy to understand - its purpose is readily apparent;
- is consistent with and is prepared in the same style as similar figures in the same article; that is, the lettering is of the same size and typeface, lines are of the same weight, and so forth; and
- is carefully planned and prepared.

## 12.7 TYPES OF FIGURE

Several types of figures can be used to present data to the reader. Some-times the choice of which type to use will be obvious, but at other times it will not.

- ❖ **Graphs** are good at quickly conveying relationships like comparison and distribution. The most common forms of graphs are scatter plots, line graphs, bar graphs, pictorial graphs, and pie graphs. Graph shows relations - comparison and distribution - in a set of data and may show, for example, absolute values, percentages, or index numbers.
- ❖ **Scatter plots** are composed of individual dots that represent the value of a specific event on the scale established by the two variables plotted on the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes. When the dots cluster together, a correlation is implied. On the other hand, when the dots are scattered randomly, no correlation is seen. For example, a cluster of dots along a diagonal implies a linear relationship, and if all the dots fall on a diagonal line, the coefficient of correlation is 1.00.
- ❖ **Line graphs** depict the relationship between quantitative variables. Customarily, the independent variable is plotted along the  $x$ -axis (horizontally) and the dependent variable is plotted along the  $y$ -axis (vertically).
- ❖ **Bar graphs** come in three main types: (1) solid vertical or horizontal bars, (2) multiple bar graphs, and (3) sliding bars. In solid bar graphs, the independent variable is categorical, and each bar represents one kind of datum, e. g. a bar graph of monthly expenditures. A multiple bar graph can show more complex information than a simple bar graph, e. g. monthly expenditures divided into categories (housing, food, transportation, etc.). In sliding bar graphs, the bars are divided by a horizontal line which serves as the baseline, enabling the representation of data above and below a specific reference point, e. g. high and low temperatures v. average temperature.
- ❖ **Pictorial graphs** can be used to show quantitative differences between groups. Pictorial graphs can be very deceptive: if the height of an image is doubled, its area is quadrupled. Therefore, great care should be taken that images representing the same values must be the same size.
- ❖ **Circle (or pie) graphs, or 100% graphs** are used to represent percentages and proportions. For the sake of readability, no more than five variables should be compared in a single pie graph. The



segments should be ordered very strictly: beginning at twelve o'clock, order them from the largest to the smallest, and shade the segments from dark to light (i.e., the largest segment should be the darkest). Lines and dots can be used for shading in black and white documents.

- ❖ **Charts** can describe the relations between parts of a group or object or the sequence of operations in a process; charts are usually boxes connected with lines. For example, organizational charts show the hierarchy in a group, flowcharts show the sequence of steps in a process, and schematics show components in a system.
- ❖ **Dot maps** can show population density, and *shaded maps* can show averages or percentages. In these cases, plotted data are superimposed on a map. Maps should always be prepared by a professional artist, who should clearly indicate the compass orientation (e.g., north-south) of the map, fully identify the map's location, and provide the scale to which the map is drawn. Use arrows to help readers focus on reference points.
- ❖ **Drawings and photographs** can be used to communicate very specific information about a subject. Thanks to software, both are now highly manipulable. For the sake of readability and simplicity, line drawings should be used, and photographs should have the highest possible contrast between the background and focal point. Cropping, cutting out extraneous detail, can be very beneficial for a photograph. Use software like *GraphicConverter* or *Photoshop* to convert color photographs to black and white before printing on a laser printer. Otherwise most printers will produce an image with poor contrast.

## 12.8 PREPARATION OF FIGURE

In preparing figures, communication and readability must be the ultimate criteria. Avoid the temptation to use the special effects available in most advanced software packages. While three-dimensional effects, shading, and layered text may look interesting to the author, overuse, inconsistent use, and misuse may distort the data, and distract or even annoy readers. Design properly done is inconspicuous, almost invisible, because it supports communication. Design improperly, or amateurishly, done draws the reader's attention from the data, and makes him or her question the author's credibility. The APA has determined specifications for the size of figures and the fonts used in them. Figures of one column must be between 2 and 3.25 inches wide (5 to 8.45 cm). Two-column figures must be between 4.25 and 6.875 inches wide (10.6 to 17.5 cm). The height of figures should not exceed the top and bottom margins. The text in a figure should be in a sans serif font (such as Helvetica, Arial, or Futura). The font size must be between eight and fourteen point. Use circles and squares to distinguish curves on a line graph (at the same font size as the other labels).

## 12.9 CREATING GRAPH

Following these guidelines in creating a graph mechanically or with a computer. Computer software that generates graphs will often handle most of these steps automatically.

- ❖ Use bright white paper.
- ❖ Use medium lines for the vertical and horizontal axes. The best aspect ratio of the graph may depend on the data.
- ❖ Choose the appropriate grid scale. Consider the range and scale separation to be used on both axes and the overall dimensions of the figure so that plotted curves span the entire illustration.
- ❖ In line graphs, a change in the proportionate sizes of the  $x$  units to the  $y$  units changes the slant of the line.
- ❖ Indicate units of measurement by placing tick marks on each axis at the appropriate intervals. Use equal increments of space between tick marks on linear scales.
- ❖ If the units of measurement on the axes do not begin at zero, break the axes with a double slash.
- ❖ Clearly label each axis with both the quantity measured and the units in which the quantity is measured. Carry numerical labels for axis intervals to the same number of decimal places.
- ❖ Position the axis label parallel to its axis. Do not stack letters so that the label reads vertically; do not place a label perpendicular to the vertical ( $y$ ) axis unless it is very short (i.e., two words or a maximum of 10 characters). The numbering and lettering of grid points should be horizontal on both axes.
- ❖ Use legibility as a guide in determining the number of curves to place on a figure - usually no more than four curves per graph. Allow adequate space between and within curves, remembering that the figure may need to be reduced.
- ❖ Use distinct, simple geometric forms for plot points; good choices are open and solid circles and triangles. Combinations of squares and circles or squares and diamonds are not recommended because they can be difficult to differentiate if the art is reduced as can open symbols with dots inside.

## 12.10 FIGURE LEGENDS AND CAPTIONS

In APA journals, a legend explains the symbols used in the figure; it is placed within and photographed as part of the figure. A caption is a concise explanation of the figure; it is typeset and placed below the figure. For figures, make sure to include the figure number and a title with a legend and caption. These elements appear below the visual display. For the figure number, type *Figure X*. Then type the title of the figure in sentence case. Follow the title with a legend that explains the symbols in the figure and a caption that explains the figure. For example - *Figure 1*. How to create figures in APA style. This figure illustrates effective elements in APA style figures.

Captions serve as a brief, but complete, explanation and as a title. For example, '*Figure 4*. Population' is insufficient, whereas '*Figure 4*. Population of Grand Rapids, MI by race (1980)' is better. If the figure has a title in the image, crop it. Graphs should always include a legend that explains the symbols, abbreviations, and terminology used in the figure. These terms must be consistent with those used in the text and in other figures. The lettering in the legend should be of the same type and size as that used in the figure.

## 12.11 FIGURE CHECKLIST

APA includes the following within the definition of figures - • Graphs, • Charts, • Maps, • Drawings, and • Photographs.

#### Figure Checklist

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

#### Guidelines for Figures within Assignments

These guidelines have been adapted from the *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association*.

- Be selective in what figures, as well as the number of figures you include within your text.
- Figures should supplement rather than duplicate your text.
- Ensure for all figures included that lines are smooth and sharp, the typeface is legible, any units of measure are included, axes are clearly identified and elements within the figure are labeled and explained.
- If required, include a legend explaining symbols used within a figure.
- Refer to every figure within your text by the figure number (eg. Figure 1), highlighting only the point you want to emphasize.
- Figures must be numbered consecutively in the order in which they appear within the text, in italics. That is, the first table is labeled "*Figure 1*", the second "*Figure 2*", and so on.
- Include the figure number directly below the figure itself, followed by a full-stop then a brief title.
- Capitalize only the first word of the title and any proper nouns. The title should be descriptive of the contents of the figure.
- Include any additional notes for the figure directly underneath the figure.
- Any changes to a figure from the original must be identified and included as a Note.

#### References

**Kabir, S.M.S.** (2016). *Basic Guidelines for Research: An Introductory Approach for All Disciplines*. Book Zone Publication, ISBN: 978-984-33-9565-8, Chittagong-4203, Bangladesh.

**Kabir, S.M.S.** (2017). *Essentials of Counseling*. Abosar Prokashana Sangstha, ISBN: 978-984-8798-22-5, Banglabazar, Dhaka-1100.

- Kabir, S.M.S.**, Mostafa, M.R., Chowdhury, A.H., & Salim, M.A.A. (2016). *Bangladesher Samajtattwa (Sociology of Bangladesh)*. Protik Publisher, ISBN: 978-984-8794-69-2, Dhaka-1100.
- Kabir, S.M.S.** (2018). Psychological health challenges of the hill-tracts region for climate change in Bangladesh. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry, Elsevier*, 34, 74–77.
- Kabir, S.M.S.**, Aziz, M.A., & Jahan, A.K.M.S. (2018). Women Empowerment and Governance in Bangladesh. *ANTYAJAA: Indian journal of Women and Social Change*, SAGE Publications India Pvt. Ltd, 3(1), 1-12.
- Alam, S.S. & **Kabir, S.M.S.** (2015). Classroom Management in Secondary Level: Bangladesh Context. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 5(8), 1-4, ISSN 2250-3153, www.ijsrp.org.
- Alam, S.S., **Kabir, S.M.S.**, & Aktar, R. (2015). General Observation, Cognition, Emotion, Social, Communication, Sensory Deficiency of Autistic Children. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing*, 6(7), 663-666, ISSN-p-2229-5356,e-2321-3698.
- Kabir, S.M.S.** (2013). Positive Attitude Can Change Life. *Journal of Chittagong University Teachers' Association*, 7, 55-63.
- Kabir, S.M.S.** & Mahtab, N. (2013). Gender, Poverty and Governance Nexus: Challenges and Strategies in Bangladesh. *Empowerment a Journal of Women for Women, Vol. 20, 1-12*.
- Kabir, S.M.S.** & Jahan, A.K.M.S. (2013). Household Decision Making Process of Rural Women in Bangladesh. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, ISSN: 2279-0845, Vol, 10, Issue 6 (May. - Jun. 2013), 69-78. ISSN (Online): 2279-0837.
- Jahan, A.K.M.S., Mannan, S.M., & **Kabir, S.M.S.** (2013). Designing a Plan for Resource Sharing among the Selected Special Libraries in Bangladesh, *International Journal of Library Science and Research (IJLSR)*, ISSN 2250-2351, Vol. 3, Issue 3, Aug 2013, 1-20, ISSN: 2321-0079.
- Kabir, S.M.S.** & Jahan, I. (2009). Anxiety Level between Mothers of Premature Born Babies and Those of Normal Born Babies. *The Chittagong University Journal of Biological Science*, 4(1&2), 131-140.
- Kabir, S.M.S.**, Amanullah, A.S.M., & Karim, S.F. (2008). Self-esteem and Life Satisfaction of Public and Private Bank Managers. *The Dhaka University Journal of Psychology*, 32, 9-20.

**Kabir, S.M.S.**, Amanullah, A.S.M., Karim, S.F., & Shafiqul, I. (2008). Mental Health and Self-esteem: Public Vs. Private University Students in Bangladesh. *Journal of Business and Technology*, 3, 96-108.

**Kabir, S.M.S.**, Shahid, S.F.B., & Karim, S.F. (2007). Personality between Housewives and Working Women in Bangladesh. *The Dhaka University Journal of Psychology*, 31, 73-84.

**Kabir, S.M.S.** & Karim, S.F. (2005). Influence of Type of Bank and Sex on Self-esteem, Life Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction. *The Dhaka University Journal of Psychology*, 29, 41-52.

**Kabir, S.M.S.** & Rashid, U.K. (2017). Interpersonal Values, Inferiority Complex, and Psychological Well-Being of Teenage Students. *Jagannath University Journal of Life and Earth Sciences*, 3(1&2),127-135.

-----