

9

Finishing off

Introduction • Planning to finish? • The penultimate and final drafts • Added extras • The process of assessment • What do I do now? • Summary • Exercise • Further reading

Introduction

For the new researcher, and even many of those with considerable experience, finishing off can be as difficult as getting started. There is a common reluctance to let go, to present the completed work, and then to get on with something else. This is perfectly understandable, of course. If you have spent a long time on a particular task, and have gained something from it, you may not be aware that you have finished. You may be a perfectionist, or think that there is so much more that needs doing.

The purpose of this chapter, then, is to help you finish off your research project. We are assuming that you will be writing up your work for the consideration of others, in many cases for academic credit.

The chapter tackles the following issues:

- **Planning to finish?** Avoidable and unavoidable reasons for not finishing your research project on time.
- **The penultimate and final drafts:** checking the presentation of your work.
- **Added extras:** when, and when not, to include prefaces or appendices.
- **The process of assessment:** what others may do with your thesis or report.
- **What do I do now?** Building on and looking beyond your research project.

Planning to finish?

There are just so many reasons – and there always have been – for not finishing off and handing in your report or thesis. If you doubt this, look at the list in Box 9.1. As you will see from the 20 suggestions made, some reasons are old and some are new.

If you have been thinking ahead, however – that is, if you have read some or all of this book – you should be able to recognize that:

- some reasons are simply unavoidable: they are connected with life events over which you have no control;
- some reasons could have been avoided: if you had planned ahead, allowed yourself sufficient time and been strict with yourself;
- some reasons lie in between the avoidable and the unavoidable: perhaps it's your bad luck that they cropped up, but you might also have anticipated something of this sort.

The message is that planning ahead is indispensable.

Box 9.1 Twenty good reasons for not handing your report or thesis in on time

- 1 My computer crashed.
- 2 My car broke down.
- 3 My funder has refused to allow publication.
- 4 My mother has just died.
- 5 I've won the lottery.
- 6 My informants won't talk to me anymore
- 7 My informants want to talk to me some more.
- 8 My supervisor won't talk to me.
- 9 I forgot the deadline.
- 10 I have too many other things to do.
- 11 It isn't finished yet.
- 12 There was a terrorist attack.
- 13 I've lost it.
- 14 It must have got lost in the post.
- 15 I got a (different) job.
- 16 I decided to get married/have a baby.
- 17 I haven't got enough data.
- 18 It isn't good enough.
- 19 I've not been very well.
- 20 The other members of my research group haven't finished their bits yet.

The penultimate and final drafts

Writing up your research project was the subject of Chapter 8. As part of that process, you will likely have drafted and re-drafted the contents of your report or thesis a number of times. Here, our concern is with getting you from a full and near-final draft of your work – the penultimate draft – to the final draft itself. This is basically a matter of checking your presentation, and of making any essential or desirable corrections before you run off, copy and bind the final version. This section provides a simple checklist of points you may need to address. These are summarized in Box 9.2.

Box 9.2 Checking your penultimate draft

- 1 Have you put the title, your name, the date and any other information required on the title page?
- 2 Are all the pages there?
- 3 Are they all numbered consecutively?
- 4 Are all of your chapters and/or sections numbered consecutively?
- 5 Have you checked for spelling and grammatical errors?
- 6 Have you allowed adequate margins, and double-spaced if required?
- 7 Are all the materials referred to in the text listed in the references or bibliography?
- 8 Have you provided full details for all of your references?
- 9 Have you checked your text against the regulations?

Checking the title page

What have you called your research report or thesis? Does this title accurately reflect the contents? You may have changed your topic or approach significantly since you began your research, so now could be a good time to revise your title as well if you have not already done so.

The issues involved in choosing a good title are also considered in the section on **What to do if you can't think of a topic** in Chapter 2.

Is your title too unwieldy? If it is to engage the reader, it should be relatively short and pithy. If you want to specifically locate your research, you might consider having a short title and a longer sub-title. The following book titles illustrate this approach:

- *Doing Cultural Studies: The Story of the Sony Walkman*
- *Paradise Dreamed: How Utopian Thinkers have Changed the Modern World*
- *Never had it so Good: A History of Britain from Suez to the Beatles*

This is, however, very much a matter of taste and style. If you've got a good, accurate, short title, don't feel that you have to embroider it.

The title is, of course, not the only thing to go on the title page. You should also add your name (it is surprising how commonly people forget to do this). If you have been involved in a piece of group research, you should have agreed whose names appear on the title page already, and in what form, but you may want to revisit and check this before you produce the final version.

You should also add the date, so that readers know when you wrote it, and perhaps your institution or job title, together with anything else you are required to include. For example, in some fields of research, it may be normal practice to acknowledge your sponsor or funder.

Most research reports or theses, unless they are very short, will usually also contain a contents page. This should list your chapters or sections, together with the page or paragraph numbers where they start. Make sure that the titles and sub-titles you list in your contents pages are the same as those in the main text, and that the page numbering is accurate.

Checking the contents

Are they all there? Are any pages, or anything else, missing? Are they of the appropriate length (in terms of words and/or pages)?

Are all of the pages consecutively numbered? You may start your numbering with arabic numerals (i.e. 1, 2, 3, etc.) literally from your title page. Or you may opt to start the numbering on the first page of your first chapter or section, and either leave the title and contents pages, and any other preparatory material, unnumbered, or number them separately using roman numerals (i, ii, iii, etc.). Unless you have specific guidance, do what you feel most comfortable with.

Are all of your chapters or sections (and perhaps also paragraphs) numbered consecutively? What about any tables, diagrams or figures? Are they all labelled and numbered appropriately?

Have you checked for spelling and grammatical errors? And how about readability and intelligibility? Here, you might find it very useful to get a friend or relative, who need not know anything about the subject of your research, to read through your penultimate draft.

Is the layout as required or appropriate? Have you double-spaced? Have you left wide enough margins for binding, if your report or thesis is going to be bound? If you do not do this, you may find that part of your text, on the left hand side of the page, either disappears when it is bound or becomes very difficult to read.

Checking the references

Are they all there? Are they in alphabetical order? You will probably have put together the penultimate draft over a period of time, so some sections or chapters, and their associated references or bibliographies, will have been put together well before others. In the process, it is possible that you may have forgotten to add some references, or that some may still be included which are no longer referred to in the text.

You should check two things at this stage:

- Have you provided all the details required for each individual reference, so that your readers can themselves trace them and read them if they so wish?

If you are in doubt about referencing, see the sections on **Recording your reading** in Chapter 4 and **Grammar, referencing and plagiarism** in Chapter 8.

- Are all of the materials referred to in your text included in your references or bibliography? If you are listing just references rather than a wider bibliography, check also that there are no references listed which are not referred to in your text.

Checking the regulations

If you have been carrying out a research project for academic credit, there will, as has been pointed out a number of times in this book, be a set of regulations which you have to satisfy.

You may like to refer back to the section in Chapter 2 on **Choosing a topic**.

Even if you are not producing a thesis for academic examination, there will probably still be a series of expectations you need to address.

You may think that you know the appropriate regulations by heart, and that you have been scrupulously following them throughout your research, but it is still a good idea to check them now. Similarly, you will probably find it useful to think about the expectations of those people who are going to read your thesis or report, and perhaps make a few amendments if this seems advisable. This important point is discussed in the section on **The process of assessment** later in this chapter.

Added extras

In addition to the basic components of almost any research report or dissertation – a title page, a contents page, a series of chapters or sections, a set of references or a bibliography – there are a number of additional or optional elements which you might wish to include. These could include acknowledgements, a preface, a dedication, an abstract and one or more appendices. The basic question to be addressed here is: do you really need any of these? On balance, if they are not required or necessary, we would recommend doing without all of them, for two related reasons.

First, they add to the length of your report or thesis. This may be a critical factor if you have a word or page limit, but should be an important consideration whatever your situation. Think of your readership, and of your own experience as a reader: do you really want your readers to have to wade through, and probably ignore, page after page of material at the beginning or end of your work? Second, if what is contained in this supplementary material is so important to your report or dissertation, shouldn't it be contained within the main body of the work itself, where it will be given proper attention?

However, there may be good reasons why you want or need to include one or more of these 'added extras'. Let us consider them individually.

Acknowledgements

The usual purpose of acknowledgements is to give credit to people or organizations who were particularly helpful to you in carrying out your research. In some cases, they may be used critically, as when those who have not been as helpful as you might have liked or expected are damned with faint praise; but that is probably best avoided.

Including a list of acknowledgements on a separate page at the front of your report or thesis can be a pleasant way of paying your dues. Those who might be mentioned could include your sponsor (mention of whom may be a mandatory requirement), supervisor, colleagues, family and friends, secretary or typist, copy editor, as well as any fellow researchers. The list might also include those who gave you access, and even your research subjects, but bear in mind any requirements of confidentiality here. You may, of course, wish to give copies of your report or dissertation to some of those you mention.

Prefaces

A preface is a form of writing which falls outside of the conventions of the main body of your text, and for that reason should not say anything which adds materially to the content of the main text. Prefaces are most typically used to say something about the author's personal experience of carrying out the research and/or writing it up. Where the research has been a group activity,

they might locate the individual's work within the larger whole. They often include a list of acknowledgements at the end.

Dedications

Dedications are largely a matter of personal taste. They can be a nice way to ritualize the ending of a significant piece of work, and, at the same time, to link this to someone you respect or love. Thus, you might want to dedicate your report or dissertation to your partner or lover, to your children or parents. Alternatively, you might name it for someone who has been particularly influential or helpful to you in carrying out the research. The recipient of your dedication may be alive or dead, and you may never have met them. You might, though, at least in some cases, wish to check with them first before you put your dedication in print, or to send them a copy of the completed text.

Abstracts

Of all the 'added extras' we have identified, an abstract is without doubt likely to be the most useful. It may also be a mandatory requirement. The 'executive summary', so beloved of business and commerce, may be seen as roughly equivalent. The function of the abstract or executive summary is to briefly summarize the nature of your research project, its context, how it was carried out, and what its major findings were. Ideally, it should require no more than one page of text, and will typically be restricted to 200 to 300 words or less (i.e. no more than one page).

Abstracts are extremely useful to the potential reader, and for this reason are commonly published in specialist journals (now typically online) which carry nothing but abstracts. An abstract can help the potential reader decide quickly whether it is worth looking at a publication more closely. Many of your readers will likely do no more than look at the abstract, so it is important that you get it right.

Abstracts, or executive summaries, can also be helpful to the writer in forcing them to distill their wisdom as briefly as possible. This may then assist you in re-structuring and putting together the final draft. They are, however, quite difficult to write well. You may find it useful to refer back to Chapter 4, particularly Exercise 4.3. If you would like or need some practice at writing abstracts, try Exercise 9.1 at the end of this chapter.

Appendices

Researchers, and not just novice ones, are often tempted to include all kinds of material in the form of appendices at the end of their reports or dissertations. These may include copies of letters and questionnaires, transcripts of interviews, summaries of case studies, reproductions of institutional documents, and so forth.

While all of this material is, in some sense, relevant to your research, it is questionable whether you should aim to include any or all of it in your report. You are highly unlikely to be able to include all of the original material you have collected or generated during the course of your project. Much, therefore, has to be summarized or left out and, to a certain extent, taken on trust.

There are considerable advantages in minimizing, or omitting altogether, the use of appendices. It can be very irritating for the reader who is working their way through the main body of your text to be directed to one appendix after another for more details. Too often, the temptation will be not to bother, and the appendices you have so carefully put together will be ignored.

So, if you have to include some material which you have thought of putting in appendices, you might consider instead including this in the main body of your text. Or, alternatively, you might place your appendices at the end of the sections or chapters in which they are referred to, rather than at the end of your report or dissertation as a whole.

Remember to keep all of these added extras short and to the point!

The process of assessment

Once you have completed what you consider to be the final draft of your thesis or report, it is time, of course, to type or print it out; check again that everything is there and in the right order; make the requisite number of copies you and/or others require; get it bound or stapled together; and hand it to your supervisor, manager or readers.

If you have undertaken your research in an academic context, your dissertation or thesis will now be assessed by one or more examiners. The actual arrangements and regulations will vary from institution to institution, so you will need to check these individually.

If you have been researching as part of your work role, or out of personal interest, your final report may not be assessed in an academic way, but it is still going to be read and 'judged' by others. The criteria on which this judgement is made may vary, but the process will be analogous to that which takes place in an academic setting.

There are a series of common issues which arise during this process:

- How will your work be received?
- What are the roles of your supervisor, examiner, manager, mentor, colleagues, funders or prospective publishers?
- What specific events are associated with the process of assessment?
- How do you cope with criticism, referral or rejection?

How will your work be received?

The period after you have completed your thesis or report can be one of considerable anti-climax. It may take months for the process of assessment to be completed. You may never receive any extended comments on your work. It can feel as if you have worked hard for a long time to no great purpose, as if no one is particularly interested in what you have done or what you have found, or as if everyone who is not indifferent is highly critical of what you have done. If doing research is a risky business, writing up that research for assessment makes these risks visible. To the individual participant, the whole process of assessment can seem to be an arbitrary and secret business.

It is natural to be concerned about how your work will be received, whether by your examiners, your colleagues, your family, the subjects of your research or other readers. There are a whole range of techniques which you might use in order to try and reduce any stress this may be causing you. There is relatively little you can do, however, to hurry up the process, and you may need to exercise a considerable amount of patience and self restraint. The middle of the process of assessment is probably not a good time to ask your supervisor or manager whether your work was good enough. It may be out of their hands, or they may not be in a position to tell you.

There are, though, plenty of things you can do once an initial assessment has been reached, and these are discussed in the sections which follow.

What are the roles of your supervisor, examiner, manager, mentor, colleagues, funders or prospective publishers?

Understanding the roles of those who may be involved in the process of assessment is an important, though usually avoided or overlooked, part of being a researcher. Two key aspects of these roles are not that widely appreciated:

- The process of assessment can be as much an assessment of those doing the assessing as it is of the person(s) being assessed. The judgement of your assessors may be called into question, just as the quality of your work may be found wanting. So the process can be a stressful one for all concerned. Remember, research can be very threatening.
- The assessments of your report or thesis made by your assessors may not be consistent. They may be quite at liberty to disagree with each other, so the process of assessment may be largely about resolving those disagreements.

You may find it useful to refer back to the discussion on conflicting advice in the section on **Panics** in Chapter 8.

While the assessment process may differ widely from institution to institution, and from case to case, there are certain features which tend to be common. You should make it your business, if you do not already know, to find out as much as you can in advance about the practices affecting you.

If your thesis or dissertation is being assessed for academic credit, there should be considered and written regulations which apply to your case. Get hold of a copy and make sure that you understand them. While university and college practices vary, much also depends upon the level of degree you are studying for: e.g. first degree, master's degree, doctoral degree (see Box 9.3).

Box 9.3 Common academic assessment practices

The higher the level of qualification involved, the more likely it is that:

- Your assessment will no longer be largely a matter for the members of the department you have been studying in (internal examiners), but will involve a substantial input by academics from one or more other institutions (external examiners);
- Your academic supervisor will have less direct involvement in these processes;
- You will be assessed on your own, rather than at the same time as others who have been studying for the same qualification;
- The assessment will involve you in making a presentation to, and answering questions from, your examiners (this is considered further in the next sub-section);
- Your work will be referred back for some further work, probably relatively minor in nature (this slightly worrying, but common, experience is considered further in the next but one sub-section).

If your research report is being assessed in the work setting – as well as, or instead of, by a university or college – the process may be broadly analogous, but the emphases are likely to differ (see Box 9.4). However, assessment of research in the work setting is much less likely to be bound by regulations, or perhaps even established practices. It is, correspondingly, much more likely to focus on the practical changes or applications which might stem from your research.

What specific events are associated with the process of assessment?

The event most likely to be associated with the process of assessing a research report or thesis is some kind of presentation, perhaps a seminar if the research has been carried out in a work setting, or a viva if it has been completed for academic credit. In many, probably most, cases, however, particularly if you have been carrying out a relatively small-scale piece of research, or have not

Box 9.4 Common work assessment practices

Depending on the size and importance of the work you have been carrying out to your organization, and your own status within that organization, the process may involve:

- A simple report in writing to your immediate superior, or a substantial, glossy and widely circulated (at least internally) publication;
- A brief meeting with your immediate superior, a seminar to a section or group of managers, or a presentation to the board or to the leader of the whole organization;
- Little or no follow up of the work itself, or a large-scale dissemination and re-training exercise.

been studying for a research degree, there is unlikely to be a formal presentation involved. Unless you choose, and are able, to arrange one yourself, that is.

Research presentations may have a number of related purposes. At the simplest level, they are about you having the opportunity to present your work to an audience in summary form, perhaps focusing in particular upon your findings and conclusions, and the possible implications and applications of these. Beyond that, they are also concerned with giving you and your audience the opportunity to discuss your work together, perhaps with a particular emphasis on how it relates to their own work and concerns. This also implies, of course, that you may be put on the defensive, criticized and challenged (the subject of the next sub-section).

If your research has been carried out in a work setting, your presentation may involve close colleagues or superiors, those particularly concerned with your findings and in the best place to do something with them. There may be expectations that you use PowerPoint, and provide a handout and executive summary. The focus is likely to be on the extent to which your conclusions and recommendations fit with received wisdom and practices, or respond to particular felt needs or problems. There is likely to be less interest in how you actually did the research, and on any difficulties you may have encountered. The tenor of the meeting is likely to be fairly brisk and practical.

If, on the other hand, your research has been carried out for academic credit, your viva, if you have one, will probably only involve two or three people. One of these may be your supervisor, but you may have met none of them before. However, you may, if you have prepared wisely, be familiar with their work, and have read and referred to some of it in your thesis (preferably not too critically). More advice on vivas is given in the references listed at the end of this chapter.

One common characteristic of most presentations, whether in academic or work settings, is that you are likely to be, and feel, on your own. This is

unlikely to be the case, of course, if you have been involved in a piece of group research, though you may still feel alone when you come to present your bit. If this is going to bother you greatly, it may be worth investigating whether you can take some kind of supporter along with you (a friend, your supervisor, a colleague), even if they can take no direct part in the process.

Box 9.5 offers some general advice if you are going to present your research.

Box 9.5 What to do before presenting your research

Prepare as thoroughly as possible:

- Find out who is going to be there, what their interests and backgrounds are.
- Practice presenting the results of your research, using audio-visual aids if these are available and allowed.
- Keep up-to-date with what has happened in your research area in the period between finishing your report or thesis and its presentation.
- Read and re-read your thesis or report so that you know it backwards, and can instantly find and respond to specific queries.
- Practice with a friend or colleague responding to questions of a friendly or unfriendly nature.
- Work out some questions which you would like to ask as part of the process.
- Be prepared to enjoy and get something out of your presentation, though you may also find it a draining and stressful procedure.
- Remember that you do have some measure of control: you know more about your particular piece of research than anyone else.
- Be prepared to defend and promote your work, while recognizing its limitations and deficiencies.

How do you cope with criticism, referral or rejection?

If your research project has been at all challenging and worthwhile, you are likely to meet with some criticism. You may also meet with referral, if you have carried out the work for academic credit, and possibly outright rejection. You may find these responses more or less difficult to cope with.

Criticism is, however, part of the process of doing research. Just as you have to be able, and are expected, to criticize other researchers and writers, so you have to be able to handle and respond to criticism of your own work. The most positive way of handling it is to see it as something which itself contributes to your research, potentially making it a better piece of work. Seen from that perspective, responding to criticism may have a number of typical stages (see Box 9.6).

If at all possible, do not be pressurized to respond instantly to criticism, even if it is presented verbally during your presentation. Take your time. Criticisms

Box 9.6 Responding to criticism

After recovering from any initial disappointment:

- initially welcome and accept the criticism;
- evaluate the validity and implications of the criticism for your research;
- compare each criticism with the other responses your work has engendered;
- possibly modify your research findings or strategies;
- make a considered response to the criticism.

may cause you to alter your report or thesis, usually to its benefit, but they can also be misguided.

Referral is a common response to research work carried out for academic credit. It means that your work is not judged to be quite up to scratch for the qualification you are seeking, but that you are being given a further opportunity to bring it up to scratch. As an alternative, you might be offered a lower level qualification than the one you were aiming for.

The modifications which your assessors suggest you make to your thesis will usually be fairly minor, but may be quite far-reaching. You should be given a specific timescale in which to make the corrections or amendments, fairly detailed guidance about what needs changing, and some further support from your supervisor during this process. Check the regulations, particularly those to do with appeals.

Let's make no bones about it. Referral is disappointing at best, depressing at worst. It places extra demands upon your time, and is likely to impose some additional costs. It is best avoided altogether, if at all possible, by making sure that you have done well enough before you submit your work for assessment. Even with the best intentions, however, this may not always be possible. You may have been poorly advised. You may have ignored the good advice you were given. Or you may have run out of time.

Referral can make you feel like giving up. It is probably best to think of it as a normal and common part of the academic assessment process, another hurdle to be got over, which will have some benefits for you and your research, and which will lead on to the desired end of qualification. Having been once referred, you are relatively unlikely to be referred or rejected again, always provided that you carefully follow the guidance which you should be given on how to improve your report or thesis.

If your research report or thesis is rejected, however, things look rather gloomier. In an academic setting, you may be able to appeal if, for example, you believe your assessors have not reached their decision fairly, or have done so in ignorance of relevant facts. In a work setting, this is likely to be difficult unless you have recourse to other influential contacts within your organization. In extreme cases, recourse to the law may be a possibility. Bear in mind,

however, that if your work has been rejected, there are likely to be good reasons for this decision, even if you do not find them particularly palatable.

In the end, how you respond to rejection comes down to how committed you feel personally to the research you have carried out. You may be best advised to try and forget it and get on with the rest of your life. Or you could think in terms of dissemination and publication, or of further research (which are discussed in the next section).

What do I do now?

OK, you've finished! Your research project has been completed, written up, submitted and assessed. You are likely to feel at least two things. On the one hand, a great sense of relief and release, as if a great weight has been removed from your shoulders. On the other hand, a sense of loss, of a gaping hole in your life which will need replacing in some way. What do you do now? The options are potentially limitless, restricted only by your resources, situation and imagination. Box 9.7 makes 20 more or less serious suggestions.

Box 9.7 Twenty things to do now that you've finished your research

- 1 Take a holiday.
- 2 Go to bed.
- 3 Stay in the sauna until you have forgotten it.
- 4 Celebrate with close family and friends.
- 5 Take the dog for more walks.
- 6 Try for promotion.
- 7 Organize seminars to disseminate your findings.
- 8 Plan what you are going to wear to your graduation.
- 9 Collect information about other courses of study or sources of research funding.
- 10 Read a good book.
- 11 Burn your books.
- 12 Go on a diet.
- 13 Give some time to your family.
- 14 Write up and publish your research.
- 15 Write to us about how you used this book.
- 16 Get another job.
- 17 Implement your findings.
- 18 Have another drink.
- 19 Get yourself a life.
- 20 Do some more research.

Three of these suggestions can be seen as part of the research process itself, namely:

- presentation;
- publication; and
- further research.

In other words, your research isn't really over when it's been written up and assessed. If it is of any potential interest or use to others, you owe it to yourself, your organization and the subjects of your research to disseminate it.

Presentation

Dissemination is the process by which you communicate your research report or thesis, its findings and recommendations, to other potentially interested parties. You might think about presenting your work:

- within your organization;
- to meetings where people from similar organizations gather;
- to your union branch;
- to professional associations;
- to a local adult education group;
- at national or international conferences.

There are also a range of different formats in which you might present your work: as a lecture (or series of lectures), as a seminar, as a workshop. Whichever format you adopt, however, you will need to give some thought (and practice) to how you present, particularly if you haven't done this kind of thing much before.

Really confident presenters who have a lot to say can just sit or stand and talk for however long is needed or available; or, at least, they seem to be able to do so. Most of us, however, need props of one kind or another. The days of 'chalk and talk' seem now long gone, and even those who rely on a series of overhead (OHP) transparencies seem old-fashioned. The more dynamic can still work wonders with a flipchart and pens, scribbling down ideas and issues as they arise.

For most conferences and other forms of presentation, PowerPoint seems to have become the norm or standard. These are much like OHP presentations, but stored on a disk. You work out the structure and content of your presentation in advance, prepare a succession of screens and points, and then run through them in order as you present. PowerPoint can be less flexible than other means of presentation, unless you are adept with the software, and you are reliant on the technology working (don't assume that there will be technical support on hand). As you grow more confident, you can include sound or video clips, and digitalized images, in your computer-assisted presentations.

Whatever form of presentation you adopt, then, planning and practice are clearly the keys. Run through the whole presentation a number of times, on your own or with family or friends, check how long it takes and how well it works, and modify accordingly.

You might also think about presenting in a written as well as a spoken form; that is, you may think about publication.

Publication

Publication, like dissemination in general, takes a variety of forms. It may be restricted to internal, and perhaps confidential, circulation within your organization or kindred bodies. It may be popular, professional or academic. It may be placed in mass-market newspapers or magazines, or in small circulation specialist journals. It may be in the form of a book, and may be self-published and distributed.

If you are interested in publishing your research, there are a number of general points to bear in mind:

- Think carefully about the audience for your research. What will they be interested in reading about, and how best might you present it?
- If you are looking to publish in a journal or magazine of some kind, examine a number of recent issues carefully to get a better idea of the kind of material they publish. Look at the length and structure of articles, their use of references and language. Are there recent articles you might respond to? Specific guidance is often given in journals, or on their web sites. It may be a good idea to contact the editor for advice in advance as well, enclosing or attaching a synopsis of your article.
- If you are thinking of writing a book, contact possible publishers before you do much work. They will be interested in the saleability of your product as much as its inherent quality, and you may need to modify your proposal accordingly. Having a good idea of your potential audience, or market, is critical here.

Seeking publication, like research in general, exposes you to the opinions and critique of others, and it is normal to suffer rejection as part of this process, particularly if you pitch your writing to higher status journals or publishers. The best advice is not to be too disheartened, learn what you can from any feedback or advice you may be given, and press on. There are so many outlets for research-based writing now that you are likely to be able to publish your findings and ideas somewhere, providing you do have something of some interest to say.

Further research

The final option suggested in this section is that of engaging in further research. It is something of an in-joke in research circles that one of the main recommendations of any research project is always that 'further research is needed'. This is not simply a matter of trying to ensure further employment and funding. It is a characteristic of any research project that it almost always generates more questions than answers. Doing research is, therefore, and perhaps primarily, a very good method of determining what needs researching.

It is also a somewhat addictive process for many people. Once you have demonstrated to your own and others' satisfaction that you can do competent research, and that you enjoy and get something from the process, it is very tempting to go on to do more, even if it is not your job. You may now be in a better position to get some funding to expand your research. So, if you want to, do some more research: it's not a sin, at least not a mortal one!

Summary

Having read this chapter, you should:

- appreciate the importance of finishing the research project you are engaged in;
- understand the checking processes you will need to go through in preparing the final draft of your report or thesis;
- be aware of the uses and disadvantages of prefatory material and appendices;
- be forewarned of what might happen during the assessment of your report or thesis;
- know of the options for presenting your results, and for engaging in further research if you wish.

Exercise

9.1 Write a summary of your research project, allowing one sentence each to introduce and contextualize the topic, describe how you carried out the research, and identify the main conclusions and implications (i.e. three sentences in all). Don't write sentences of unwieldy length or structure. Once you have done this, you could do two further things. First, reduce your summary down to a single sentence: this should be useful when

people ask you to briefly summarize your research. Second, expand your sentences to provide a fuller summary, but keeping it to 200 words or less. This can form the basis for your abstract. Take no more than half an hour in total.

Further reading

In this section, we list a limited selection of books, together with an indication of their contents. The selection is in two parts:

- ‘how to’ guides to the final stages of research, and to what happens next; and
- texts designed to provide a basis for further, and often deeper or more theoretical, reading in different areas of social research.

Guides to the final stages and beyond

Coley, S. M. and Scheinberg, C. A. (2000) *Proposal Writing*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

A basic guide to proposal writing, dealing with the context, the different elements of the proposal, and budgetting.

Delamont, S. and Atkinson, P. (2004) *Successful Research Careers: A Practical Guide*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Designed both for those starting a research career and those who advise or support them. Considers getting grants, publishing in journals and writing books among other topics.

Hughes, C. (ed.) (2003) *Disseminating Qualitative Research in Educational Settings: A Critical Introduction*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Six examples of practice are framed within an analysis of historical and contemporary issues, models of dissemination and developing informed practice.

Locke, L. F., Spirduso, W. W. and Silverman, S. J. (2000) *Proposals That Work: A Guide for Planning Dissertations and Grant Proposals*, 4th edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

The three parts cover: writing the proposal (function, content, style, presentation); getting money for research; four examples of specimen proposals.

Murray, R. (2003) *How to Survive your Viva*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

A practical guide for all of those involved in the viva, which urges planning from the early stages of the research project.

Murray, R. (2005) *Writing for Academic Journals*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

How to target journals, develop an argument, draft and re-draft, and cope with reviewers' feedback.

Punch, K. (2000) *Developing Effective Research Proposals*. London: Sage.

Considers the context and functions of proposals, and offers guidance on their development.

Tinkler, P. and Jackson, C. (2004) *The Doctoral Examination Process: A Handbook for Students, Examiners and Supervisors*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Examines the theory and practice of the doctoral examination process in the UK, with guidance for students, supervisors and examiners.

More in-depth reading on social research

Alvesson, M. and Skoldberg, K. (2000) *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

Reflexivity is presented as an essential part of the research process, enabling field research and interpretations to be placed in perspective. Empiricism, hermeneutics, critical theory, poststructuralism and postmodernism are considered.

Banks, M. (2001) *Visual Methods in Social Research*. London: Sage.

Written for those who wish to use film, photographic or other visual material in qualitative research. Includes discussion of image creation and analysis, new technologies and archives.

Bauer, M. W. and Gaskell, G. (eds) (2000) *Qualitative Researching with Text, Image and Sound*. London: Sage.

The book is organized in four parts, examining different ways of collecting data and different types of data, the main analytic approaches, computer-assisted analysis, and issues of good practice.

Bowen, J. and Petersen, R. (eds) (1999) *Critical Comparisons in Politics and Culture*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Anthropologists and political scientists debate the problem of comparison, and critique conventional forms of comparative method. Abstract model building and ethnographically based approaches are discussed.

Brown, T. and Jones, L. (2001) *Action Research and Postmodernism: Congruence and Critique*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Two teacher educators consider how conventional approaches to action research can be developed through the application of post-structural ideas.

Chamberlayne, P., Bornat, J. and Wengraf, T. (2000) *The Turn to Biographical Methods in Social Science*. London: Routledge.

Examines the historical and philosophical origins of biographical research methods, and shows how such methods are currently useful and popular. Topics discussed include generational change and social upheaval, political influences on memory and identity, and individual and researcher narratives.

Clough, P. (2002) *Narratives and Fictions in Educational Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Uses five fictional stories to demonstrate the use of narrative in reporting research, discussing how they were created and the role of the author in their creation.

Cohen, M. Z., Kahn, D. L. and Steeves, R. H. (2000) *Hermeneutic Phenomenological Research: A Practical Guide for Nurse Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hermeneutic phenomenology, the study of how people interpret their lives, is presented as ideally suited to nursing research. This book explains how to conduct such a research project, from writing the proposal, through sampling and data collection, to analysis and writing up.

Cramer, D. (2003) *Advanced Quantitative Data Analysis*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Reasonably accessible explanation of advanced statistical and multivariate techniques, and of common associated software.

Czarniawska, B. (2004) *Narratives in Social Science Research*. London: Sage.

Offers guidelines on the use of narratives in fieldwork and research.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds) (2003) *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

A substantive guide organized in three parts: locating the field, major paradigms and perspectives, the future of qualitative research.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds) (2003) *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Considers a wide range of qualitative strategies, from performance ethnography to grounded theory to life history.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds) (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 3rd edn. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Comprises 1210 pages of contributions organized in six sections: locating the field; paradigms and perspectives in contention; strategies of inquiry; methods of collecting and analysing empirical material; the arts and practices of interpretation, evaluation and presentation; the future of qualitative research.

Ekegren, P. (1999) *The Reading of Theoretical Texts*. London: Routledge.

Contributes to methodological debates in the social sciences through an examination of developments in literary criticism, philosophy and critical theory.

Elliott, J. (2005) *Using Narrative in Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. London: Sage.

Argues that research data can best be analysed if seen in narrative terms, with guidance on methods and methodologies.

Emmison, M. and Smith, P. (2000) *Researching the Visual: Images, Objects, Contexts and Interactions in Social and Cultural Enquiry*. London: Sage.

Considers the contributions of semiotics, ethnomethodology, symbolic interactionism and material culture studies.

Evans, L. (2002) *Reflective Practice in Educational Research*. London: Continuum.

Focuses on the development of advanced research skills.

- Fern, E. (2001) *Advanced Focus Group Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
For those who already have some experience of using this technique.
- Giles, D. (2002) *Advanced Research Methods in Psychology*. London: Routledge.
Covers the analysis of variance, regression techniques, questionnaires and scales, qualitative methods and other approaches.
- Goodson, I. and Sikes, P. (2001) *Life History Research in Educational Settings: Learning from Lives*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
Chapters discuss techniques, epistemological considerations, social context, ethics and power, and dilemmas.
- Greig, A. and Taylor, J. (1999) *Doing Research With Children*. London: Sage.
A comprehensive and practical introduction to the issues involved. Three parts cover: the special nature of children in research, and appropriate theories and approaches; reviewing, designing and conducting research with children; and ethical and other issues.
- Griffiths, M. (1998) *Educational Research for Social Justice: Getting off the Fence*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
A book for those educational researchers motivated by considerations of justice, fairness and equity. Due attention is given to both theoretical frameworks and practical possibilities.
- Hack, V. (1997) *Targeting the Powerful: International Prospect Research*. London: Association for Information Management.
Explains how to conduct in-depth research into a person, company or charitable foundation, and how then to use this information to recommend a line of approach most likely to succeed. Includes a detailed list of books, online suppliers and web sites for major countries worldwide.
- Hammersley, M. (ed.) (1999) *Researching School Experience: Explorations of Teaching and Learning*. London: Routledge.
Twelve chapters report on research into, for example, the effects of audit accountability on primary teachers' professionalism, the effects of recent educational reforms, the influences of parenthood on teaching, issues of gender in the classroom and learning about health risks.
- Hammersley, M. (2000) *Taking Sides in Social Research*. London: Routledge.
Assesses debates about the inevitability of research being political in its assumptions. Includes a consideration of the contribution of 'founding fathers', such as Mills and Becker, and brings the debate up to the present day.
- Hayes, N. (2000) *Doing Psychological Research: Gathering and Analysing Data*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
A substantial text, with chapters on such topics as psychometrics, ethnography, conversations and descriptive statistics.
- Hine, C. (2000) *Virtual Ethnography*. London: Sage.
Includes chapters on the Internet as culture and cultural artefact, time, space and technology, authenticity and identity, and reflection.
- Holcomb, E. L. (1999) *Getting Excited About Data: How to Combine People, Passion and Proof*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

- Designed for school teachers who want to be able to demonstrate how well their pupils are learning and achieving.
- Hollway, W. and Jefferson, T. (2000) *Doing Qualitative Research Differently: Free Association, Narrative and the Interview Method*. London: Sage.
Argues for the centrality of narrative and an interpretative method which gives interviewees' free associations precedence over coherence. The use of this approach is then examined, with examples, through the phases of empirical research practice.
- Hood, S., Mayall, B. and Oliver, S. (eds) (1999) *Critical Issues in Social Research: Power and Prejudice*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
This book addresses the questions: whose interests are served by research? For whom is it undertaken? What research methods are appropriate? How can the researched find a voice in the research process? Considers research on children, women, black people, elderly people, gay men and the disabled.
- House, E. R. and Howe, K. R. (1999) *Values in Evaluation and Social Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
The three sections of this book consider value claims (facts and values, evaluative reasoning), critiques of other views (received, radical constructivist and postmodernist views) and deliberative democratic evaluation.
- Hymes, D. (1996) *Ethnography, Linguistics, Narrative Inequality: Towards an Understanding of Voice*. London: Routledge.
Illustrates the contributions that ethnography and linguistics have made to education, as well as the contribution that education makes to linguistics and anthropology.
- Jarvis, P. (1999) *The Practitioner-Researcher: Developing Theory from Practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
This book is organized in five parts, considering the connections between research and practice, the nature of practice, research in practice, practice and theory, and the role of the practitioner-researcher. Designed to help all practitioners for whom research is a tool to help improve practice.
- Josselson, R. and Lieblich, A. (eds) (1999) *Making Meaning of Narratives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Following an introductory review chapter, contributors focus on a range of narrative settings. Issues discussed range from the transformation of meanings across generations to the transformational power of stories within organizations.
- Layder, D. (1998) *Sociological Practice: Linking Theory and Social Research*. London: Sage.
Considers not just the relations between theory and research, but also practical ways in which research can be theoretically informed and theory can be empirically supported.
- Lewis, A. and Lindsay, G. (eds) (1999) *Researching Children's Perspectives*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
Designed for researchers and graduate students in psychology, education,

- health, social work and law, addressing the issues and practicalities surrounding the obtaining of children's views.
- Lieblich, A., Tuval-Mashiach, R. and Zilber, T. (1998) *Narrative Research: Reading, Analysis and Interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Considers how to read, analyse and interpret life story materials. Four models of reading are presented: holistic-content, holistic-form, categorical-content and categorical-form. Two narratives are then introduced and analysed using these models.
- MacLure, M. (2003) *Discourse in Educational and Social Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
Practical and provocative, and drawing on a variety of examples of discourses: press articles, life history interviews, parent-teacher consultations, policy debates and ethnographies.
- McCulloch, G. and Richardson, W. (2000) *Historical Research in Educational Settings*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
A guide to theory, rationales and problems, as well as to the opportunities for research in the field.
- McGivern, Y. (2003) *The Practice of Market and Social Research: An Introduction*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
Examines market research alongside social research in general.
- Middlewood, D., Coleman, M. and Lumby, J. (1999) *Practitioner Research in Education*. London: Paul Chapman.
Drawing on the experience of participants in a university educational management programme, the text aims to show how research can make a difference in a wide range of educational contexts in several countries.
- Okeley, J. (1996) *Own or Other Culture*. London: Routledge.
Challenges the idea that fieldwork in familiar western settings is easy, or that it discovers what is already 'known'. The subjects examined include British boarding schools, gypsies and feminism.
- Ozga, J. (1999) *Policy Research in Educational Settings: Contested Terrain*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
Offers guidance on the theoretical and methodological resources available for those with an interest in doing research, and discusses some of the main issues and problems which they may face.
- Prichard, C. and Trowler, P. (eds) (2003) *Realizing Qualitative Research into Higher Education*. Aldershot: Ashgate.
Ten chapters offer reflections on researching student learning, teaching practices and organization and management.
- Prosser, J. (ed.) (1998) *Image-based Research: A Sourcebook for Qualitative Researchers*. London: Falmer Press.
Eighteen chapters consider the theory, process and practice of image-based research in anthropology, sociology, psychology and education. The examples covered include film, photographs, cartoons, graffiti, maps, drawings, diagrams, signs and symbols.

Ribbens, J. and Edwards, R. (eds) (1998) *Feminist Dilemmas in Qualitative Research: Public Knowledge and Private Lives*. London: Sage.

The book is organized around the concept of voice, considering the issues involved in speaking, listening, hearing and representing different voices. Research topics covered include motherhood, sisters, childbirth, mature women students and the self.

Roberts, B. (2002) *Biographical Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

A review of the use of life history, oral history, narrative, autobiography, biography and related approaches.

Rose, D. (1998) *Researching Social and Economic Change*. London: Routledge.

An examination of the possibilities and pitfalls of panel studies, as used to analyse social change internationally.

Scarborough, E. and Tanenbaum, E. (eds) (1998) *Research Strategies in the Social Sciences: A Guide to New Approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mainly focused on quantitative methods. Twelve chapters cover a range of topics from linear structural equation models and categorical data analysis through modelling space and time to game-theoretic models and discourse theory.

Scheurich, J. J. (1997) *Research Method in the Postmodern*. London: Falmer Press.

Considers how postmodernism can be applied to critiquing research approaches and to their re-conceptualization. The book goes beyond the philosophical level to show the implications of postmodernism for research practice.

Scott, D. (2000) *Realism and Educational Research: New Perspectives and Possibilities*. London: Routledge.

Examines the complex issue of power in educational settings, how educational research is being technicized, and how educational researchers are being made accountable for their findings.

Shacklock, G. and Smyth, J. (eds) (1998) *Being Reflexive in Critical Educational and Social Research*. London: Falmer Press.

Thirteen contributions from 16 authors provide personal, reflexive views of the issues and dilemmas involved in doing educational research. The topics addressed include ethnography, action inquiry, narrative, international development and multiculturalism.

Silverman, D. (2001) *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction*, 2nd edn. London: Sage.

Covering the major philosophies of qualitative research, ethnography, symbolic interactions and ethnomethodology, this book focuses on issues of observation, analysis and validity. Uses examples and student exercises.

Smith, L. T. (1999) *Decolonizing Methodologies: Research and Indigenous Peoples*. London: Zed Press.

This book challenges European epistemology, including emancipatory paradigms. Smith argues that social research methods need decolonizing, and shows how alternative research practices are associated with global indigenous movements.

Stablein, R. and Frost, P. (eds) (2004) *Renewing Research Practice*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Business Books.

Eight researchers in the field of management and organizational studies provide personal accounts of aspects of their research careers, and these are used as the basis for comment and reflection by other researchers.

Todd, Z., Nerlich, B., McKeown, S. and Clarke, D. (eds) (2004) *Mixing Methods in Psychology: The Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge.

Twelve chapters examine theoretical and historical foundations, the theory and practice of mixing methods, and their place within psychology.

Truman, C., Mertens, D. C. and Humphries, B. (eds) (1999) *Research and Inequality*. London: Routledge.

Examines how issues such as ethnicity, sexuality, disability, gender, ethnicity, health and old age are addressed in research conducted among people who may be the objects of research but who have little control over what is said about them.

Walford, G. (ed.) (1998) *Doing Research About Education*. London: Routledge.

A compilation of accounts of research, including consideration of ethnographic approaches, researching gender and sexuality, longitudinal studies, international projects, directing a research centre, contract cultures and compulsive publishing.

Warren, C. A. B. and Hackney, J. K. (2000) *Gender Issues in Ethnography*, 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Discusses gender in relation to fieldwork relationships, interviewing and representation.

Webb, E. J., Campbell, D. T., Schwartz, R. D. and Sechrest, L. (2000) *Unobtrusive Measures*, revised edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Re-issue of a classic text first published in 1966. Considers the use of physical traces, running records, episodic and private records, simple and contrived observation.

Williams, F., Popay, J. and Oakley, A. (eds) (1998) *Welfare Research: A Critical Review*. London: UCL Press.

Offers a theoretical and methodological context for research into welfare, and provides examples of research using different concepts (stress, coping, social support and structural inequalities).

Willig, C. (2001) *Introducing Qualitative Research in Psychology: Adventures in Theory and Method*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Six distinct approaches are discussed: grounded theory, interpretative phenomenology, case studies, discursive psychology, Foucauldian discourse analysis and memory work.

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Index

- abstracts, 261
- academic theses, 235–7
- access, 28, 154–7
- acknowledgements, 260
- action research, 67–71
- analysis, 193–225
 - computer-based, 204–6
- appendices, 261–2
- arguing, 233–7
- assessment, 262–8
- audiences, 13–15, 263

- bibliographies, 245–6

- case studies, 71–4
- changing direction, 33, 87
- choosing, 55
 - a topic, 22–9
 - your methods, 79–87
- computers, 109–13, 145–7, 204–6
- concepts, 35–7, 206
- content analysis, 210
- contents, 39–40, 258
- context, 35–7
- costs, 26–7
- critical, being, 114–18, 237–9
- critical paradigm, 61
- criticism, coping with, 266–8

- data
 - analysis, 193–225
 - collection, 153–92
 - interpretation, 218–22
 - management, 202–4
 - secondary, 170–1
 - shape of, 194–6
- dedications, 261
- deskwork, 64–6, 165, 167

- diagrams, 246–9
- diaries, 48–9, 182–5
- discourse analysis, 212
- dissemination, 268–71
- dissertation, format, 236
- documents
 - analysing, 207–9
 - using, 167–71
- drafting and redrafting, 227–33, 257–9

- editing, 227–33
- employers, 142
- ethics, 157–62
- examples of research, 24, 68–9, 73, 76, 78, 86, 149–50, 162, 166, 168, 174–5, 177–8, 180, 209, 211, 213, 214
- exercises, 19–20, 49–50, 88, 129, 151, 189–90, 222–3, 252, 271–2
- expectations, 23–4
- experiments, 75–7
- explanation, 206

- fieldwork, 64–6, 165, 167
- finishing off, 255–79
- first time researcher, 3–6
- focusing your project, 33–41
- further reading, 20, 50–2, 89–98, 130–1, 151–2, 190–2, 223–5, 252–4, 272–9

- generalizability, 221
- grammar, 244–5
- group research, 44–7, 143–4

- illustrations, 246–9
- institutions, key, 141–2
- Internet,
 - sites, 110–11, 169–70, 205–6
 - using the, 109–13

- interpretation, 218–22
- interpretivism, 60
- interviews
 - analysing, 209–12
 - using, 172–6
- issues, 35–7

- libraries, using, 106–9
- listening, 55
- literature
 - review, 122–5
 - types of, 124
- loneliness, 186–7

- managers, 138–9
- managing
 - time, 133–5
 - your data, 202–4
 - your project, 132–52
- mapping your project, 135–6
- mentors, 137
- metaphors, 37–9
- methodology, 58–61, 79–87
- methods, 28–9, 53–98
 - mixing, 84–6
 - reading about, 118–20
- models, 37–9
- motivation, 10–12
- multivariate analysis, 218

- non-specialists, 40–1

- observations
 - analysing, 212–4
 - using, 176–9
- obsessiveness, 187–8
- organizing your dissertation or report, 56
- originality, 12–13, 30

- panics, 248–51
- paradigms, 59–61
- personal development plans, 4–6
- piloting, 41, 137
- plagiarism, 246, 248
- positivism, 60
- post-modernism, 61
- post-positivism, 60

- prefaces, 260–1
- presenting, 57, 269–70
- problems, coping with, 147–50, 185–9, 248–51
- procrastination, 228–30, 256
- publication, 270
- punctuation, 244–5

- qualitative
 - data, 196, 198–201
 - research, 64–5
- quantitative
 - analysis, 215–18
 - data, 196–7, 199–200
 - research, 64–5
- questioning, 56, 172–6, 179–83
- questions, wording, 182
- questionnaires
 - analysing, 214–18
 - using, 179–83
- quotations, 31

- reading, 54, 99–131
 - coping with, 101–2
 - critical, 114–18
 - locating, 105–6
 - about methods, 118–20
 - reasons for, 100–1
 - recording, 120–2
 - strategies, 102–6
 - techniques, 113–18
- records, keeping, 120–2, 182–5
- references, 245–7, 259
 - number of, 127–9
 - recording, 121
- reflecting, 57, 82–4
- regulations, 23–4, 259
- relationships, 144
- reliability, 221
- report, format, 233–7
- research
 - approaches, 61, 66–7, 165–7
 - contracts, 138–41
 - costs, 26–7
 - design, 62
 - diaries, 48–9
 - examples of, 24, 68–9, 73, 76, 78, 86, 149–50, 162, 166, 168, 174–75, 177–8, 180, 209, 211, 213, 214

- families, 61–3
- further, 271
- hypotheses, 34
- models, 37–9
- nature of, 6–10
- outline, 39–40
- paradigms, 59–61
- previous, 30
- proposal, 39–40
- questions, 34–5, 80–1
- representations of, 7–10
- techniques, 61, 63, 66–7, 165–7
- resources available, 27
- sampling, 163–6
 - non-probability, 163–5
 - probability, 163–5
- scheduling, 39–40, 135–6
- secondary data, 170–1
- selection, 163–5
- sensitive questions, 175–6
- significance, 221
- size of research project, 25
- skills, 3–6, 54–8, 81
- software, 204–6
- spelling, 244–5
- spider diagrams, 31–2
- statistics, 216
- style, 239–44
- summarizing, 56
- supervisors, 42–4, 138–41, 262–4
- support, 27–8
- surveys, 76–9
- tables, 246–9
- themes, 234–5
- theory, 206
- thesis, format, 233–6
- time
 - attitudes to, 133–4
 - available, 25–6, 39–40
 - managing, 133–5
- title page, 257–8
- titles, 31, 257–8
- truth, 13–14
- understanding, 206
- universities, 137, 140–1
- validity, 221
- values, 13–15
- voice, 239–40
- watching, 55
- wordprocessors, 145–7
- work
 - reports, 235–7
 - researching at, 30, 47–48
- writing, 15–16, 57, 226–54
 - non-discriminatory, 243
 - safe and risky, 243
 - to a given length, 231–2

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