

Research Toolkit

Context: There is a growing need for voluntary and community sector organisations to strive to base activities on robust research-evidence in order to ensure that what they do has a measurable and ‘real’ impact upon the lives of beneficiaries. However, it is not always easy to translate ‘academic best practice’ to ‘real world research’ where organisational change, restricted access, limited resources and environmental change are a reality of everyday life.

Purpose: The purpose of this toolkit is to provide a structure to organising and framing research activities from conception to evaluation to promote ‘best practice’ whilst ensuring that limitations (that are sometimes inevitable) are recognised in research-reporting.

This toolkit has particular relevance when:

- Seeking to enhance understanding by collecting and collating information
- Undertaking an evaluation of a conference, workshop or other event
- Assessing impact of a programme being undertaken

Format: The format for this toolkit is based upon, and aligned with, the following model for research-capability that provides a cycle of learning through on-going research activity and storage of findings. **In order to maximise clarity, each of the sections of the model are addressed separately chapter-by-chapter.**

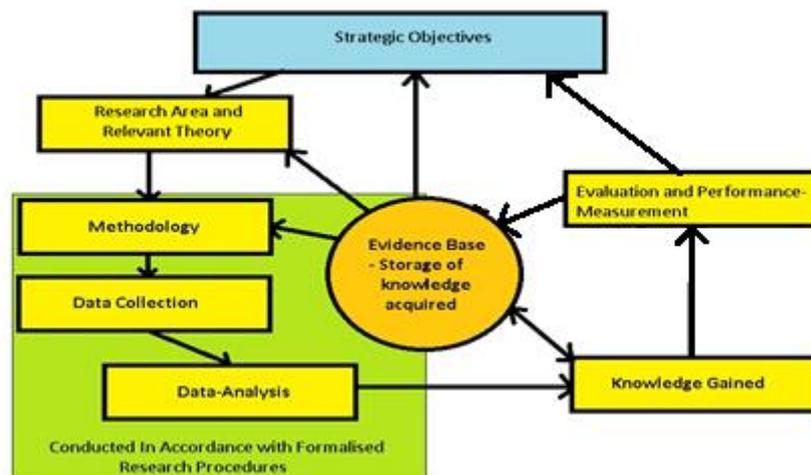


Diagram 1: Model of Research-Capability

Content: It is inevitable in such a broad topic area that this toolkit can provide only the framework for the process of conducting research. As a result, the focus has been placed upon providing a systematic approach to ‘how’ research is conducted at a procedural level. Whilst summaries of specific methods are included, it would be recommended that researchers read more expansively around specific methods selected for a specific research purpose as required.

Support Documents: Where relevant and of perceived value, template documents have been provided that can be printed off and filled in as the research process is undertaken. These provide an underpinning structure for ‘why’ the research is being conducted, ‘who’ the research is being conducted to benefit, ‘how’ the research will be undertaken and ‘what’ the research has ultimately achieved.

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Strategic Objectives

The 'Strategic Objectives' aspect of the model of research-capability refers to the 'placing' of a research project within an organisation's broader goals and priorities. Any research project being undertaken needs to 'fit' within the organisational mission statement to meet organisational goals as well as, possibly, funder requirements. Organisational priorities will inform the topic area and the relevant resource-allocation that is provided to support a given research project. It is these considerations that need to be clarified and agreed before any methodology can be developed or data be collected.

Step 1: Determine broad topic area, aligned with strategic objectives of the organisation

Defining Outcomes

Research is defined in various ways within the literature but, principally, research is '*a systematic process of gathering data, information and facts to create new knowledge*'. Bearing this in mind, it is important to be clear from the outset what this 'new knowledge' is to be used for as this will shape the manner by which the research is conducted and the format with which results are reported and disseminated.

Step 2: Clarify precisely what the results of this research are to be used to achieve

Resource Allocation and Scoping

The extent to which accurate conclusions can be drawn from a research project is contingent upon the methodology undertaken and, in no small part, the manner by which the methodology is undertaken is influenced by the resource-allocation and the scoping of the project. As a result, it is necessary to determine the resource constraints for a given research project before it commences.

Key areas to focus on are as follows:

Time → What time-scales need to be met through the research? Is there a deadline for completion?

Budget → What is the financial allocation for this particular research?

Personnel → Who will be involved in the research and how much time will they be committing for the duration?

Step 3: Agree resource-allocation for the research project

Remit and Resources

Research Title	
Research Context Is it part of a larger funding agreement? Where does it fit with your organisation's overall strategy?	
Desired Outcomes All outcomes should be measurable with success/failure indicators	
Time When is the overall deadline? Are there any sub-deadlines?	
Budget What is the financial allocation for this project?	
Personnel (Internal) Who will be involved and how much time can they give to the project?	
Personnel (External) Who are we working with on this project? How much time can they give?	

Research Area and Relevant Theory

Most research projects involve a degree of 'investigative research' to clarify the questions being asked within the chosen topic area before they construct a methodology. There are many good reasons for doing this, including the following.

- Ensuring that your project doesn't duplicate work someone has already done
- To learn from what worked well and less well from similar projects in the past
- Seeing where the project can build upon or update existing research
- Discovering if there are any existing tools (e.g. questionnaires) that can be applied
- Evidencing an understanding of the relevant literature in research reports

Step 4: Conduct the necessary background reading

In academia, it is standard practice to write up a thorough literature review detailing the relevant research that has been undertaken and to clarify where the specific research project fits within this broader context. Any written report should, to a degree, follow this convention albeit to various degrees of detail depending on purpose. This will also help in defining the specific purpose and research questions. It will also provide insight into possible approaches to answering the research questions.

Research Questions

Fundamentally, the purpose of research is to enhance knowledge by answering questions and it is important that, following on from a review of relevant literature, clear questions can be expressed that the research will seek to answer. These questions should be aligned with the overall outcomes detailed in Step 2.

Example research questions:

- 1) To what extent was attendance at the event representative of greater London as a whole?
- 2) To what extent do older occupiers feel that their current housing is meeting their needs?

Step 5: Determine the research question/s

Plagiarism

Whilst it is good practice to include relevant material from other research in documents produced to evidence background evidence and the relevance of the research, there is a legal obligation to reference other people's work such that it is not being passed off as your own.

As a general rule, referencing should take place in two parts;

Within the text → In parenthesis, with the author or authors cited before the date of publication and separated with a comma. If another author's work is being directly quoted, quotation marks should also be used and the page number of the quotation should be provided.

Example 1: Transport for London report that they provide bus drivers with specific training on how to meet the needs of disabled customers (Transport for London, 2012).....

Example 2: Previous research into the impact of cuts in care has indicated that 'any further cuts to frontline services would put many vulnerable people at serious risk' (Age UK London, 2011, p.15).

Outside of the text → In academic papers, these are sub-sectioned in a 'References' section at the end of the paper but it is more common in report documents that they be incorporated at the foot of the relevant page in a smaller font. Referencing convention varies slightly depending on where the reference has been sourced but the most common are likely to be:

Reports by Organisations: Authorship/Organisation, Year. *Full title of report*. Place: Publisher

Example: Department of Health, 2001. *National service framework for older people*. London: DoH

Books: Author/s with initials, Year. *Title of book*. Place: Publisher

Example: Robson, C., 2011. *Real World Research*. Chichester. Wiley & Sons.

Websites: Authorship or Source, Year. *Title of web document or web page*. [type of medium].

Available at: web address [date of access]

Example: NHS Evidence, 2003. National Library of Guidelines. [online] Available at:

<http://www.library.nhs.uk/guidelinesfinder> [accessed 10 October 2009]

For further referencing guidance, visit: <http://www.lsbu.ac.uk/library//helpsheets/hs30.pdf>

Questions and Outcomes

Project Title	
----------------------	--

Research Question/s What question/s will this research project answer? (See p.5 for example questions)	Relevance to Desired Outcomes How does answering each of these research questions contribute to the desired outcomes (see step 2)?
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.
6.	6.

Research Methods

Types of Data

With research questions clarified, we now focus on how we are going to answer those questions. The research method/s chosen will depend upon a number of factors including; methods used in previous research, resource limitations, participant accessibility, research topic, research questions, research purpose as well as the researcher/s own preference . Broadly speaking, however, research methods can be split into those that deal with numerical information (quantitative) and those that deal with descriptive information (qualitative).

Quantitative Data: This refers to data that is measured on a numerical basis. By being numerical, quantitative data can easily be analysed and compared at a statistical level to investigate relationships. Examples could include closed survey questions and frequency counts.

Qualitative Data: This refers to data that is descriptive and emphasises meanings and interpretation. By being descriptive, qualitative data has the capacity to take into consideration contextual elements of participant experience. Examples could include open-ended survey questions and interview-material.

It is worth noting that many research designs use both quantitative data and qualitative data. It is also true that qualitative data can usually be transformed into quantitative data (such as, by counting how many interviewees mentioned a specific idea). At a practical level, the following table gives a guide of the usual differences between the two that might useful in considering which method/s to use.

Quantitative Data	Comparison	Qualitative Data
Specific and restricted	Detail	Rich and comprehensive
Numerical	Form of Response	Usually verbal and word-based
No	Holistic	Yes
Usually easier to get large numbers	Sample Sizes	Usually with smaller numbers
Relatively easy to analyse	Data-Analysis	Labour-intensive analysis
Usually easier to generalise	Generalising results	Usually more difficult to generalise

Step 6 – Clarify the methods that will be used to answer the research questions

Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting participants from a larger population of interest. If the research questions being asked are around a specific event being run, it is very possible that an evaluation survey can be distributed to every single participant. However, in most cases, research seeks to broaden findings from a sample to a broader population of interest. For example, a research project answering a research question seeking to discover ‘older Londoners views on the Mayor’s Housing Strategy’ can’t realistically get the views of ‘all older Londoners’. As such, some form of sampling needs to take place to get a representation of ‘older Londoners’ in general. The representativeness of the sample is key to producing generalizable results. The following are key aspects to consider when choosing a sample for the project and these will often inform the research methods chosen:

What is the ‘Target Population’ you are seeking to research? It could be attendees of an event or all older Londoners (in the examples above). Even in the latter, one would need to know what is meant by ‘older Londoners’. Those of pensionable age? Over 60s? Over 80s? Pinning down the target population is key to clarifying a ‘target population’ and sample.

How can you get a representative sample? If your ‘target population’ is ‘Londoners over the age of 65’, there should be an equal chance of *every* older Londoner over the age of 65 being selected for the research. In most cases, this is difficult but every effort should be made to ensure that obvious biases (such as just using older Londoners who attend specific events or just using older Londoners who are from one borough or just using non-disabled older Londoners) are avoided. Any problems with getting a representative sample should be recognised as a project-limitation.

How many participants do you need in your sample? Statistically speaking, this is a very difficult question to answer as it depends on a lot of things. Without going into detailed explanations, the purpose of the specific research questions will guide this. As an example, you would need around 400 participants to adequately represent ‘Londoners over the age of 65’ (890,000 approx.) but would need around 270 participants from a target population of 1000 and around 80 participants from a target population of 100. Getting a truly representative sample is far more important than the numbers involved. If in doubt about generalizability it is important not to make claims in reports that results from the sample are indicative of the target population as a whole.

Step 7 – Determine the target population and how the sample will be chosen

Collecting Data

It is likely that you will need to develop tools for data collection as shown below:

Data-Collection Method	Variants	Example Research Tools
Interviews	Phone / web-based / face-to-face	Interviewing schedule
Focus Groups	Web-based / face-to-face	Discussion agenda
Written Response	Postal/ online / face-to-face	Questionnaire or survey
Observations	-	Observation criteria

With the exception of ‘observations’, the primary purpose of the tools are to ask questions and get answers and, as such, **it is important that any tools developed are fit for the specific purpose of answering the research questions of the project** and nothing more. The following are key considerations when developing tools for research purposes:

Validity: How well does the tool measure what it is intended to measure? If your research question is ‘what proportion of older Londoners have access to council information on a computer?’ having a tool that asks ‘do you own a computer?’ does not adequately target the research question. More subtly, even asking ‘do you have access to council information on a computer?’ might not be adequate unless clarification of what is meant by access (capacity or actual) is provided. Asking questions around computer-access in terms of physical access, computer-literacy and if and when the participant has accessed council information on a computer might be a better construction.

Reliability: How consistent are the results? A thermometer that gives different readings for the same temperature is clearly useless. Any measure should be reliable so tools should give the same results if re-tested on the same people at different times (assuming nothing significant happened between tests).

Below, are a list of common questioning mistakes made, all of which should be avoided.

Vague questions: What are your thoughts on the Mayor’s Housing Strategy?

Leading questions: Do you agree that the government should finally prioritise older people issues?

Double-barrelled questions: Did you enjoy and would you recommend this event? Yes No

Non-exclusive answers: How old are you? 0-20, 20-40, 40-60, 60-80, 80-100, 100+

Research Methods Checklist

Have you.....	Tick when complete
.... decided what form of data you want to obtain (quantitative, qualitative or mixed)?	
.... decided on the specific method/s that will be used to get this data (e.g. interviews, surveys, observations, desk research)?	
.... clarified the target population for your research?	
.... developed a method to get a representative sample?	
.... developed a method to get an adequately sized sample (considering potential for non-respondents)?	
.... developed the necessary tool/s with which you will collect the data?	
.... ensured that tool/s developed have clear and unbiased questions?	
.... ensured that tool/s developed adequately answer the research questions?	
.... checked that tool/s developed are likely to yield honest feedback?	
.... checked that data-collection requests from participants are reasonable and justified (i.e. not too lengthy or personal)?	
.... considered the use of incentives to encourage responses?	
.... checked that the chosen methods can achieve results within the budget-constraints of the project?	
.... checked that the chosen methods can achieve results within the time-constraints of the project?	
.... checked that the chosen methods can achieve results within the personnel-constraints of the project?	

Data-Collection

Once the methodology for data-collection is determined, consideration must be given to ensuring that participants will not experience any form of distress through participating and that potential participants will have all the necessary information to decide whether they wish to participate. This can be summarised under the headings of 'information', 'confidentiality' and 'consent'.

Information

All participants should be given the necessary information to enable them to give informed consent as to whether they wish to participate or not. Information incorporated should include precisely what they are being asked to do as participants, how long it is expected to take and what the information is going to be used for.

Confidentiality

Participants should not be identifiable in reports produced either personally or through affiliation and any data provided by participants should be stored on password-protected systems (if electronic) and/or in locked storage where access is only possible for those directly involved in the research. Participants should be made aware of this prior to participation as well as being informed of how long the data will be kept. Any quotes in reports can be attributed to '*participant 1*' or similar covering identity.

Consent

It is good practice to obtain consent from participants after they have been provided with information regarding the study and confidentiality and this should be stored in line with the confidentiality agreement.

Prospective researchers should give particular consideration to the following and seek further guidance if they answer 'yes' to any of these questions:

- 1) Does the research involve any deception or with-holding of information from participants?
- 2) Are there any difficulties with maintaining participant confidentiality?
- 3) Are any participants, through medical reasons or otherwise, unable to give informed consent?

Step 8 – Ensure that the research meets ethical requirements prior to data-collection

Example Information and Consent Letter

Dear

Purpose

[Provide summary of research purpose here including – the researcher’s role, what the research question/s is/are, what the research will be used for]

Procedure

Participation in this phase of the project should take no longer than [insert duration here] minutes and will involve [insert details of participant role here]. Should you subsequently wish to withdraw at any time, you may do so by informing [insert researcher’s name here] on the contact details at the bottom of the page. Participation is entirely voluntary and you will not be required to provide any reason for your withdrawal.

Benefits and Risks

[insert as applicable]

Confidentiality

All information collected through the survey is confidential and will be used only for the purposes of this study [note: insert any other purposes if applicable. E.g. disseminated publications]. No names of individual participants will be used in reports and data collected will be stored in accordance with [inset organisation name here if appropriate] data-protection protocols. If you have any specific requirements to enable participation please address your enquiries to the contact details below.

Consent

If you have any further questions, please ask [insert researcher name here] who will be happy to assist. By signing this consent form you are indicating that you understand the above information and are willing to participate:

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Researcher

Researcher Role
Researcher Address Line 1
Researcher Address Line 2
Researcher Address Line 3

Researcher Contact No.
[Researcher Email Address](#)

Data-Analysis

Levels of Measurement

Nominal – Differentiated by discrete categories (e.g. race-qualifiers and non-qualifiers)

Ordinal – Distinguished by order (e.g. 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th..... placed race-finishers)

Interval – Distinguished on a continuous scale (e.g. specific times of race finishers)

Note that data collected at 'Interval' level can be transformed into 'Ordinal' level data and both 'Interval' and 'Ordinal' data can be categorised at 'Nominal' level. The reverse is clearly not the case as data collected at 'Nominal' level cannot be altered to either 'Ordinal' or 'Interval' level data. This is important because the form of the data informs the suitability of the analysis.

Simple Statistics

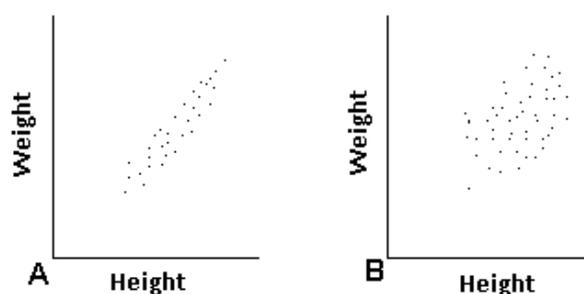
Mean – The total of all data-set items divided by the number of them. Measures central tendency but only suitable with 'interval' level data without distorting exceptions in the data set.

Median – The central data-item if all items are lined up in ascending order. Measures central tendency, suitable with 'interval' or 'ordinal' level data.

Mode – The most frequent response. Measures central tendency and suitable with any level of data but ignores any exact values and is variable dependent on 'nominal' level classifications.

Range – The difference between the highest and lowest data-item values.

Standard Deviation – Most roles will not need to work out the standard deviation but it is commonly reported in research papers. The standard deviation is a measure of 'dispersion' indicating how spread the data is around the mean. A larger standard deviation is indicative that data-items are more dispersed. This is indicated in the diagram below:



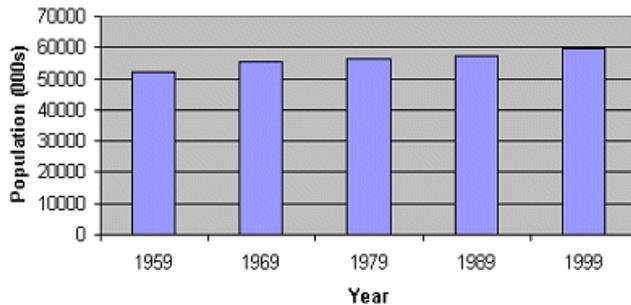
In this example, the means may well be similar, but chart B will have a larger standard deviation.

Displaying Results

Graphs and charts can be used to give a visual display of patterns in results as shown in the following examples:

Bar-Chart

Total UK Resident Population 1959-99

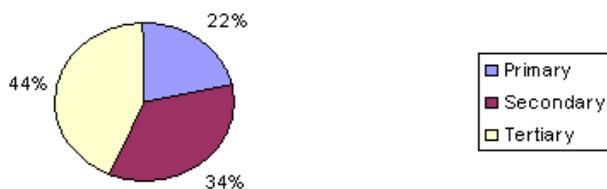


Important features

- Titled
- Both axes clearly labelled
- Bars not touching
- Y-axis starts at '0'

Pie Chart

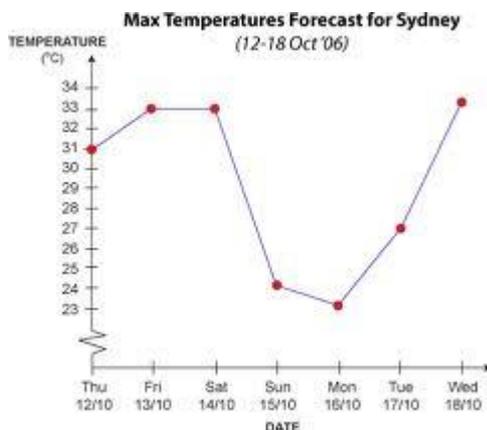
1960 UK employment by sector %



Important features

- Titled
- Clearly marked legend
- Figures labelled on chart

Line Chart



Important features

- Titled
- Both axes clearly labelled
- Y-axis starts at '0' (the zig-zag line in the y-axis indicates that there are no readings between 0-23)
- The first point lies on the y-axis
- Data-points are clearly marked

Step 9 – Conduct the necessary data-analysis

Testing for Differences

Often, research is aimed at discovering if there are differences in results obtained for different groups. For example, you may wish to discover if experiences of services differ for disabled older people than non-disabled older people. One way of doing this might be to distribute a 'satisfaction survey' related to services both to disabled and non-disabled older people.

Hypothetically, you might receive any of the following results for the mean level of reported satisfaction for disabled and non-disabled older Londoners on a 10-point scale.

1) 5.6 for disabled older people and 5.3 for non-disabled people – here, one might reasonably conclude at face value that the difference is not 'significant' i.e. there is no real difference in experience of services for disabled and non-disabled older people.

2) 9.5 for disabled older people and 1.2 for non-disabled people – here, one might reasonably conclude at face value that the difference is 'significant' i.e. there is a real difference in experience of services for disabled and non-disabled older people.

Note that we have not tested for 'significance' but are making a judgement based on views of probability. These examples are extreme but what if the means were 4.8 for disabled people and 6.1 for non-disabled people?

'Testing for Differences' is a way of analysing whether the differences here are greater than would be expected by chance. Whilst the methods of analysis vary depending on the data and all staff will not be expected to do significance-testing, it is important to know the following:

- Different sample sizes can dramatically affect findings (e.g. if 84 non-disabled people are surveyed and only 7 non-disabled people)
- Reliability of 'Testing for Differences' is reliant on suitable sampling methods having been undertaken
- A report can tentatively report means but, without testing for differences, cannot make any bolder statements regarding how conclusions can be generalised to larger groups beyond those who participated
- 'Testing for Differences' is a requirement in academic reports and, if appropriately conducted, gives a far more powerful statement than reporting means alone

Knowledge Gained

Clearly, the purpose of any piece of research is to enhance knowledge, whether that be internally or for the purposes of influencing externally. The manner with which the research is reported and disseminated is critical to ensuring that the knowledge gained is able to benefit the appropriate stakeholders and all of this should be highlighted in the initial planning phase.

Report-Writing

Although there are other forms of research-dissemination (e.g. posters, presentations, information letters) writing reports is the most usual form of passing on the results of research activities. Though report-formats are likely to vary depending on purpose, the following gives a guide of the appropriate sections to include:

Title Page

Executive Summary – Completed last and covering main findings, bullet-pointed as appropriate

Contents

Introduction – This should include all the relevant background reading leading to the rationale for ‘why the project is being taken’ along with clearly detailing the research questions

Method – This should describe ‘how’ the research was conducted with enough specificity that anyone reading would be able to re-create the method exactly. Academics often sub-section the method by ‘participants’, ‘materials’, ‘design’ and ‘procedure’

Results – This should clearly describe and show the analysis undertaken to answer the research questions. All quantitative and qualitative analysis should be detailed here

Conclusions/Interpretation – Drawing from the ‘Results’ section, the conclusion should be a non-numerical summary of what the results ‘mean’ with direct relevance to answering the research questions

Discussion – This section should describe the implications of the findings within a broader context. Sub-sectioning of limitations and weaknesses of the study should also be incorporated along with pointers for additional research that could be conducted and would enhance knowledge further

References

Step 10 – Report findings

Dissemination

Dissemination targets will be clearly detailed in the project-planning and it is likely that the format for the information to be disseminated will vary. Whilst the previous page details a comprehensive report format in accordance with academic best-practice, findings from the paper, taken in context, can be summarised to be part of articles, statements or summary documents. Should any information be extracted from a larger paper then the original report should be referenced appropriately (in accordance with referencing guidelines, p.6). Although routes of dissemination will vary, it is good practice to provide some form of feedback to those who have given their time to participate in the project.

Step 11 – Disseminate findings in accordance with original plan

Knowledge Storage

Documenting and storing ‘knowledge’ falls into two different aspects:

- 1) Knowledge acquired – this refers to the actual learning enabled through the research process and will comprise any reports or materials produced through the course of the research.
- 2) Lessons learnt – this refers to lessons learnt through the act of undertaking research. It is just as important to ensure that ‘what worked’ and ‘what did not work’ is recorded for future benefit such that, the next time a research project is being undertaken, it can learn from what has happened in the past without relying on memories of individual researchers.

Both of these forms of knowledge and learning should be stored in such a way that they will be accessible in the future to people who are conducting a research project or seeking information on the topic area even if they have no knowledge that this particular piece of research had been undertaken.

Step 12 – Store all reports and relevant research-paperwork

Evaluation and Impact Measurement

Whilst the research project will have answered the research questions, many of the broader implications of the work in terms of impact and outcomes are unlikely to be clear until some time after the initial data-collection has been undertaken. The specifics will vary depending on the context and intended outcomes of the research (as documented in the 'Remits and Resources' template on p. 4) and some might require additional evaluative research. The following list provides an indication of various stages of impact measurement with possible sources of information.

Stages of Evaluation and Impact Measurement

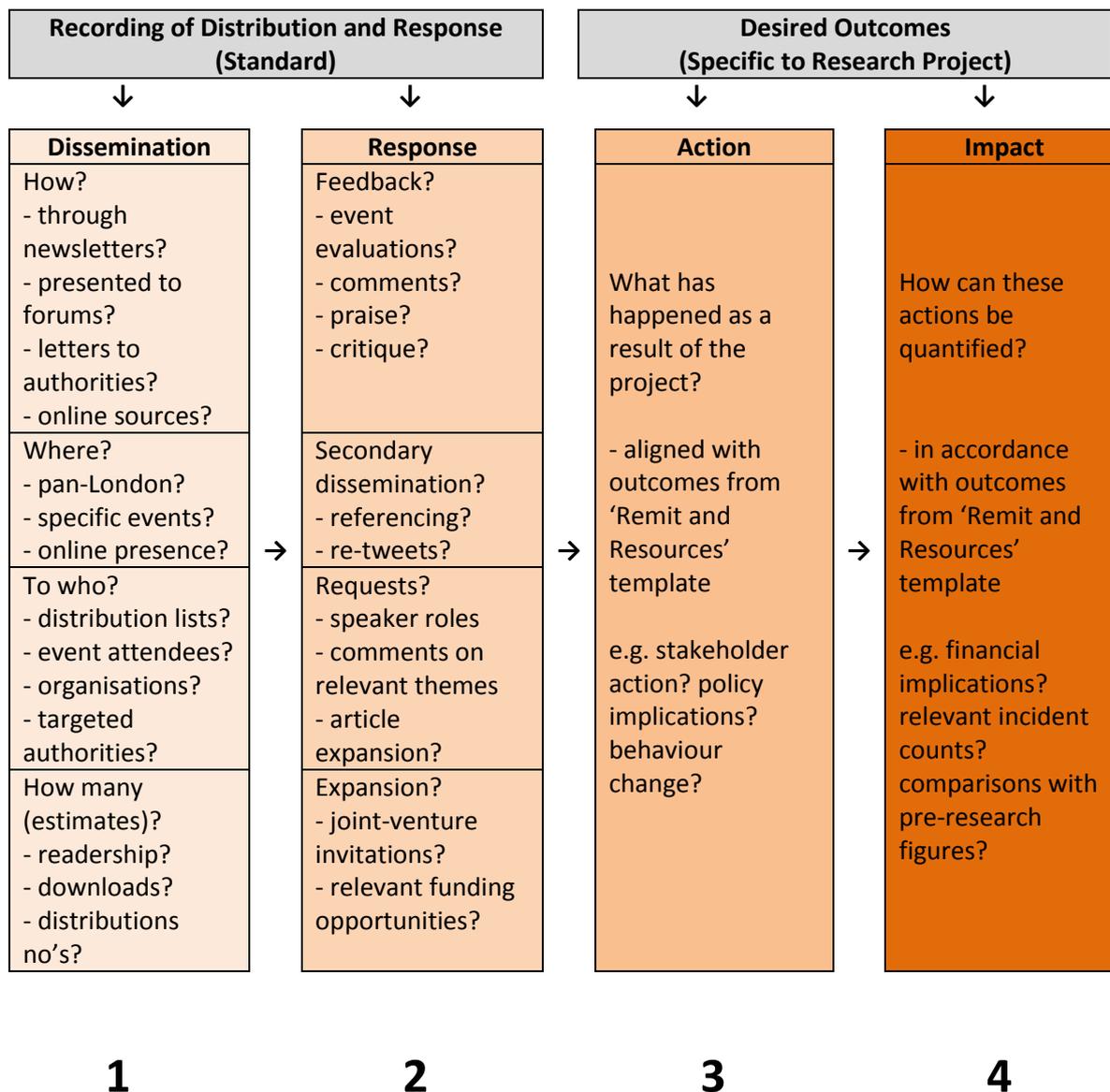
Dissemination – The methods of dissemination and numbers of people informed of the research results are a relatively easy statistic to obtain and give an indication of the scale of potential impact dependent on the sources and numbers of people who are provided with the opportunity to engage with findings. This provides a means of judging whether a) the message is getting 'out there' to sufficient people and b) whether the message is going to the key stakeholders with influence to maximise impact.

Response – Response is another relatively easy statistic provided that incidents are recorded in a systematic fashion. Those made aware of the research findings may find the results interesting, thought-provoking or even questionable. They may wish to pass on the research findings to more people (secondary dissemination) or they may contact the researcher with a view to using the findings for speaker roles or in subsequent joint-ventures. All of this provides an indication of immediate impressions of research findings.

Activity – The 'Remit & Resources' template on p.4 provides space to list 'desired outcomes' that were used to frame the research questions. These will invariably be different for each research project and might be difficult, in some cases, to differentiate specific effect of this research project. Nevertheless, the 'activity' is usually the crucial part of the evaluation process in the sense that it details what has actually happened as a result of the research project being undertaken.

Impact – The impact is a quantifiable measure of the activity in the previous section. All outcomes should be 'measurable' as detailed on p.4 and they should have 'success and failure' indicators. Quantifying activity in this way enables bench-marking and future comparison as well as giving 'bottom line' figures that report on what the research project has achieved.

Model of Evaluation and Impact Measurement



Impact Measurement I

Template Document		
Impact Measurement I		
Dissemination		Response
What methods of dissemination ?	→	Comments received?
Dissemination coverage (geographic)?		Secondary dissemination?
Who are the recipients?		Requests based on research findings?
How many people have been made aware of research findings?		Follow-up activities based upon research findings?

Impact Measurement II

Project Title	
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Desired Outcomes (From 'Remit & Resources' document)	Actions What has happened as a result of the research?	Impact Quantification of activity
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		

Further Reading

Research Project Books

Bell, J. (2010). *Doing your Research Project (5th ed.)*. Maidenhead. Open University Press.

Denscombe, M. (1998). *The Good Research Guide; for small-scale social research projects*.
Buckingham. Open University Press.

McQueen, R. (2002). *Research Methods for Social Science*. Harlow. Prentice Hall.

Robson, C. (2011). *Real World Research*. Chichester. Wiley & Sons.

Specific Data-Analysis Books

Barbour, R. (2007). *Doing Focus Groups*. London. Sage

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews; An introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. London. Sage

Levy, P. & Lemeshow, S. (1999). *Sampling of Populations; Methods and Applications (3rd ed.)*. New
York. Wiley

Online Resources (Broad)

British Library (2010). Quantitative Methods in Social Research. [online] Available at:

<http://www.bl.uk/reshelp/findhelpsubject/socsci/topbib/quantmethods/quantitative.pdf>

NCVO (2005). In Focus; building your evidence base. [online] Available at: <http://www.ncvo->

[vol.org.uk/sites/default/files/In_Focus_evidence_base_final.pdf](http://www.ncvo-vol.org.uk/sites/default/files/In_Focus_evidence_base_final.pdf)

Online Resources (Specific)

Kennedy, M. (2006). A Guide to Interview Guides. [online] Available at:

<https://www.msu.edu/user/mkennedy/digitaladvisor/Research/interviewing.htm>

National Audit Office (2009). A Practical Guide to Sampling. [online] Available at:

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