

UNIT 2: FORMULATING AND CLARIFYING THE RESEARCH TOPIC

Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should:

- Identify the attributes of a good research topic.
- Generate ideas that will help in the choice of a suitable research topic.
- Turn research ideas into a research project that has clear research questions & objectives.

2.1 Introduction

Formulating and clarifying the research topic is the starting point of your research project and is the most difficult yet the most crucial part of your research project. Before you start your research, you need at least some idea of what you want to do. Without being clear about what you will research, it isn't easy to plan how to investigate it. However, once you are clear about your research topic, you can choose the most appropriate research strategy, data collection, and analysis techniques.

Formulating and clarifying your topic is time-consuming and will probably take you up blind alleys (Saunders & Lewis, 1997). However, you must spend time in this stage for a successful research project. Until now, most of your studies have been concerned with answering questions other people set. *In this unit, you get to decide your research topic and questions, which should be the most exciting part of this course.*

2.2 Attributes of a good research topic

Before you learn how to develop ideas to help you choose a suitable research topic, let us look at some of the attributes of a good research topic. These attributes will serve as criteria to benchmark the future research topic(s) that you will develop.

A good research topic:

- i. Should meet the examining body's requirements and, in particular, it should be at the correct level of the degree programme you are pursuing;
- ii. Is Manageable: topics chosen should match the current level of research skill possessed by the researcher. Other considerations include the availability of resources, time, appropriate participants/respondents and measuring instruments;
- iii. Should excite your imagination: Choose a topic that will sustain your interest throughout the months that you will need to complete it;
- iv. Has theoretical or practical significance; in other words, it helps you tackle a worthwhile problem. A significant study contributes in some way to the improvement or understanding of theory (existing body of knowledge) or practice;
- v. Is ethical: Research should not harm participants either physically or emotionally;
- vi. Is researchable in that the researcher should be able to investigate the topic by collecting and analysing data. Problems dealing with philosophical or ethical issues are not researchable; and
- vii. Finally, it is essential to consider your career goal (Creswell, 2002). If you wish to become an expert in a particular subject area or industry, use the research opportunity to develop the expertise.

2.3 Generating and refining research ideas

When generating research topics, you should start with a broad issue, providing you with various avenues to explore while searching for a viable research question. As you research, note the dominant questions within the topic you are investigating or interested in. Also, when searching for a topic, choose an area of study you are generally interested in because your interest in the topic will affect your motivation throughout your research. It is also wise to consider topical issues being addressed recently by researchers, as this may affect your overall work. For instance, is your work topical enough to be presented at research conferences or published in journals?

2.3.1 How do you go about generating research ideas or topics?

You can use various techniques to find and select a topic you want to research. These techniques will help you organise your thoughts to identify connections and relevant themes within a broad topic. We can broadly categorise these methods into those involving rational thinking and predominantly **creative thinking** (See Table 2.1).

Table 2. 1: Frequently used techniques for generating and refining research ideas

Rational thinking	Creative thinking
Examining your own strengths & interests	Keeping a notebook of ideas
Looking at past project titles	Exploring personal preferences using personal projects
Discussion	Relevance trees
Searching the literature	Brain storming
Scanning the media	Concept Mapping
Social concerns or Popular issues	Keeping a notebook of ideas

Source: Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009)

Let us briefly explain these methods starting with the rational thinking techniques.

- i. **Examining your strengths and interests:** You must choose a topic you are likely to do well in and, if possible, already have some academic knowledge. Look at assignments where you have received good grades. Most of these assignments will likely be the topics you were interested in (Jankowicz, 2005). It would help if you also thought of your future. One part of your course which will inevitably be discussed at any job interview is your research project. Therefore, a project in the same field will allow you to demonstrate your depth of knowledge and enthusiasm (Saunders et al., 2009).
- ii. **Look at past project titles:** scan the Department of Agricultural Economics' list of past project titles for anything that captures your imagination. You should note down titles that look interesting or grab your attention, as well as any thoughts about the title concerning your own research idea. In this process, the fact that the title needs to be better worded or the project received a low grade is irrelevant. What matters is that you have identified a topic that interests you. Based on this, you can think of new ideas related to the general area that will provide new insights. However, be cautious that although the project document is found in the university/department library, there is no guarantee of the quality of the arguments and observations it contains. N: B In many universities, all research projects, dissertations or theses are placed in the library, whether their grades are bare passes or distinctions.
- iii. **Discussion:** Colleagues, friends, and lecturers are all good sources of possible project ideas. Also, you can obtain ideas by talking to practitioners and professional groups (Gill & Johnson, 2002). It is crucial that as you discuss possible ideas, note them down.
- iv. **Searching the literature:** You can identify a research problem by reading recent research, theory and debates on your topic to find a gap and what is currently known about it. You might

look for a phenomenon or context that has not been closely studied; a contradiction between two or more perspectives; a situation or relationship that is not well understood, or a troubling question that has yet to be resolved by researchers.

- v. **Scanning the media:** keeping up to date with items in the news can be a rich source of ideas. Traditional print, online versions and television programmes may provide ideas which relate directly to your research topic.

Let us now look at critical thinking techniques. They include:

- i. **Keeping a notebook of ideas:** Note down any interesting research ideas as you think of them and, of equal importance, what sparked your thought. You can then pursue the idea using more analytical thinking techniques later.
- ii. **Exploring personal preferences using personal projects:** To do this Raimond (1993) suggests that you:
 - a. Select six projects that you like
 - b. For each of these six projects, note down your first thoughts in response to three questions
 - What appeals to you about the project?
 - What is good about the project?
 - Why is the project good?
 - c. Select three projects that you dislike
 - d. For each of these three projects, note down your first thoughts in response to three questions
 - What do you dislike about the project?
 - What is wrong with the project?
 - Why is the project bad?

Answers to these questions will help you understand those project characteristics that are important to you and with which you feel comfortable. Equally, you will identify those you feel uncomfortable with and should avoid. These can be used as parameters against which to evaluate possible research ideas.

- iii. **Brainstorming** is where groups or individuals discuss to produce ideas or solve problems. It involves:
 - a. Defining your problem-i.e. the sorts of ideas you are interested in;
 - b. Asking for suggestions relating to the problem;
 - c. Recording all suggestions, observing the following rules;
 - d. Criticising/evaluating suggestions after all ideas have been considered. In other words, you should record and consider as many suggestions as possible; however wild they are.
 - e. Reviewing all the suggestions and deciding and exploring what is meant by each.
 - f. Analysing the list of suggestions and deciding which appeals to you most as research ideas and why.
- iv. **Concept mapping** enables researchers to make sense of the available data/information by drawing up meaningful interpretations and identifying the patterns and relationships between bodies of knowledge.

How to make a concept map?

- a. Decide on a main topic using a focus question
- b. Figure out the key concepts associated with your main topic.
- c. Illustrate the relationships between concepts.

Figure 2.1

2.4 Turning research ideas into research projects

After selecting your research topic, you then clarify your research problem. Let us differentiate between a general or problematic situation and a researchable problem in order to improve our understanding of a research problem. Problematic situations are not researchable within an individual research project. However, research from many projects can be combined to address problematic situations. It is also worth noting that specific components of these problematic situations are researchable when broken into distinct components. The components must be: confined in scope and complexity and support a set of research objectives you can achieve with given resource constraints (time & money).

2.4.1 The problem statement

Bwisa (2018) defines a *research problem* as an area of concern, a gap in the existing knowledge, or a deviation in the norm or standard that points to the need for further understanding and investigation. Similarly, McCombes, (2020) defines a *research problem* as a specific issue, difficulty, contradiction, or gap in knowledge that you will aim to address in your research.

2.4.1.1 Importance of writing a problem statement

Writing a problem statement will help you focus your research and create a more cohesive and guided project. Therefore, the main aim of the problem statement is to transform a generalized problem (something that bothers you, a perceived lack) into a targeted, well-defined problem, which you can resolve through focused research and careful decision-making. The problem statement helps direct your reader's attention quickly to the issues that your proposed project will address and provides the reader(s) with a succinct statement of the proposed project. Besides, it should help you identify the purpose of your proposed research project.

2.4.1.2 How to write a problem statement

The problem statement answers the questions: What problem will the research *address, and why is it worth investigating?*

The first paragraph of your problem statement should answer these two questions. Consider the four Ws, and answer them while providing facts or statistics where possible so that the reader can appreciate the magnitude of the problem.

- *Whom the problem affects (You could provide statistics on the extent of the problem)?*
- *Where is the problem taking place?*
- *What would the outcome be if the problem was not solved? Or why is it critical for the problem to be fixed?*

The second paragraph should present an overview of current research/strands of literature on the subject and existing debates. Choosing a topic connected to current issues or debates in society at large or your academic discipline is the easiest way to ensure your research is relevant. When defining your research problem, you must highlight its relevance. Explain how this research will contribute to the investigation of the problem or how the problem has emerged from previous research. The context you provide here situates your study in a particular academic field (English & van Tonder, 2010).

The third paragraph identifies the research gap/niche by highlighting under-explored aspects and areas of concern, conflict or controversy. Conclude by stating the intent of your study. Your goal is to find a gap that your research project can fill.

'It is often helpful to visualize your research as a slice of cake, where the whole cake would be the whole field of study, all the questions you would ask of all the people involved, or all the situations and

theories involved. In all instances (impossible to do, of course), therefore, defining your slice of the cake can be seen as what is manageable and just enough to be coherent, not too much to be confusing and too far-reaching, and something from which you can research and produce interpreted findings, some contribution to knowledge and meaning' (Wisker, 2008).

2.4.1.3 Attributes of a good research problem

A good research problem should have the following characteristics:

- It should address a gap in knowledge;
- It should be significant enough to contribute to the existing body of research;
- It should lead to further research;
- The problem should render itself to investigation through the collection of data;
- It should be of interest to the researcher and suit his/her skills, time, and resources;
- The approach towards solving the problem should be ethical; and
- It need not be long and elaborate: half a page is ideal for a good statement of the problem.

2.4.2 Research questions

These are the question(s) around which you centre your research. It is often a useful starting point in writing research questions to begin with one general focus research question that flows directly from the research idea. Your research questions may flow from your initial examination of the relevant literature. N: B Journal articles will often end with a conclusion and recommendation section that includes the consideration by the author of the implications for future research. You may rephrase these in research questions, or they may suggest pertinent research questions to you.

To help you come up with a good research question, you can use the following criteria. A good research question(s) should be:

- *Clear*: provide enough specifics that one's audience can easily understand its purpose without additional explanation.
- *Focused*: it is narrow enough to be answered thoroughly in the space the writing task allows.
- *Concise*: it is expressed in the fewest possible words.
- *Complex*: it is not answerable with a simple "yes" or "no," but instead requires synthesis and analysis of ideas and sources before composing an answer.
- *Arguable*: its potential answers are open to debate rather than accepted facts.
- *Interesting*: an ideal research question is attractive to the researcher, the peers, and the research community. This interest boosts the researcher's motivation to see the question answered.
- *Novel*: your research question should bring new insights to the field of the study you are investigating. The question may confirm or extend previous findings on a topic you are interested in researching.
- *Ethical*: your research question should be ethical; this is one of the most important considerations when making a research question. Your research question and subsequent study must be something that review boards and the appropriate authorities will approve. N: B this will be discussed in detail in the ethics unit.
- *Relevant*: aside from being exciting and novel, the research question should be relevant to the research community and targeted beneficiaries of your research. Your research question should also be relevant to the public's interest.

2.4.3 Research aim(s) and specific objectives

Appropriately formulating research aims and objectives is one of the most critical aspects of your research project because the primary focus of your research project is usually expressed in terms of aims and objectives. Achievement of the research aim provides the answer(s) to the research questions (the study's central questions). The research aim and objectives also determine the research's scope,

depth and overall direction. Nevertheless, many students need help understanding the difference between aims and objectives.

2.4.3.1 Distinction between research aims and specific objectives

In the academic context, there is a clear distinction between these terms. Aims are statements of intent, usually written in broad terms and set out what you hope to achieve at the end of the project. On the other hand, objectives should be specific statements that define measurable outcomes, e.g. the action(s) you will take to achieve the aim or the desired outcome. Research objectives divide the research aim into several parts, and you address each section separately. In other words, the research aim specifies *WHAT* needs to be studied and research objectives comprise several steps that address *HOW* the research aim will be achieved.

2.4.3.2 Writing your research objectives

When writing objectives, try to use strong positive statements. Examples of strong verbs include: collect, construct, classify, develop, devise, measure, produce, revise, select, determine, identify, assess, and synthesise, while weak verbs include appreciate, consider, inquire, learn, know, understand, be aware of, appreciate, listen and perceive. Objectives should also be S.M.A.R.T. - which means they should be:

- **Specific** – be precise about what you are going to do
- **Measurable** – when will you know that you have reached your goal?
- **Achievable** – Do not attempt too much – a less ambitious but completed objective is better than an over-ambitious one you cannot achieve.
- **Realistic** – do you have the necessary resources to achieve the objective – time, money, skills, etc.?
- **Time-bound**– determine when each stage needs to be completed. Is there time in your schedule to allow for unexpected delays?

As a rule of thumb, it is recommended to have one research aim and several research objectives to facilitate the achievement of this aim. Likewise, there is no fixed number of objectives, but you will be required to produce sufficient objectives to measure progress towards meeting the aim/s.

Common mistakes when formulating aims(s) and objectives

These are some of the common mistakes you should avoid when formulating aims and objectives they include:

- Choosing the topic too broadly;
- Setting an unrealistic aim; and
- Choosing research methods incompatible with the timeframe available. Therefore, the available time frame must be considered when formulating research aims and objectives and selecting specific research methods.



Group assignment

Nkonde, C., Audain, K., Kiwanuka-Lubinda, R.N. and Marinda, P., 2021. Effect of agricultural diversification on dietary diversity in rural households with children under 5 years of age in Zambia. *Food Science & Nutrition*, 9(11), pp.6274-6285.

Read the above mentioned article and answer the following questions:

The general problem

- *Whom the problem affects (You could provide statistics on the extent of the problem)? What would the outcome be if the problem was not solved?*
- *Where is the problem taking place?*
- *Why is it essential for the problem to be fixed?*
- *What are the current research/strands of literature on the subject and existing debates?*
- *What is the existing research gap?*

Research questions and Objectives

- *Identify the research question(s).*
- *What were the aim/intent and specific objectives of the study?*

To conclude this section, research usually begins with identifying a problem followed by formulating research questions and objectives. Good research questions form the backbone of any good research and are vital to providing insights into a problem. The key point is that a research question identifies the problem to be studied and guides the methodology. As you move from the general to the researchable problem, you need to evaluate the soundness of the potential research question by evaluating it against the criteria given in section 2.4.2. Remember that the initial research and review of related literature could produce some interesting questions that seem worth pursuing; however, not all exciting questions are good research questions. Also, remember that a research question draws its questions or conclusions through an analysis of evidence.

2.5 Scientific prediction-linking the problem to theory and hypothesis testing

Scientific prediction involves theory used in conjunction with empirical (experimental) knowledge and experience.

It involves the interaction of the following terms:

- i. Fact – a verifiable observation
- ii. Theory – logical relationships among facts
- iii. Hypothesis – a testable proposition

2.5.1 What is a fact?

A *fact* is a verifiable observation that leads to reliable and positive knowledge. Facts are not necessarily permanent but critical in initiating, reformulating, explaining and clarifying theory.

2.5.2 What is a theory?

No word is probably more misused and misunderstood in education than ‘theory’. For instance, we think that the material in textbooks is ‘theory’, whereas what happens in the real world is practice. To help us understand the meaning of theory, let us begin by highlighting some of the misunderstandings of the term from a research methodology point of view. Theory is **not**:

- i. Listing references to existing theories. Mentioning the names of such theories may look impressive. However, if a piece of writing is to ‘contain theory’, it should logically argue or explain the reasons for the described phenomena. *The key word here is ‘why’: why do the things you describe occur?*
- ii. Data merely describing the empirical patterns observed. Theory explains why such patterns were observed or are expected to be observed. It is also worthwhile to note that data do not generate theory-only researchers do that.
- iii. Lists of variables. Although listing variables constitutes a logical attempt to cover the determinants of a given process or outcome, it does not comprise theory. More than simply listing variables which may predict an outcome is required. To pass the litmus test of theory, one must explain why predictors are likely to be strong predictors.
- iv. Diagrams: boxes and arrows can add order to illustrate patterns and causal relationships but rarely explain why the relationships have occurred. A comprehensible theory should have a written argument that excludes the most complicated figures-those more closely resembling a complex wiring diagram.
- v. Hypotheses or predictions can be part of a sound argument, but they do not contain logical arguments about why empirical relationships are expected to occur.

Definition of Theory

Gill & Johnston (2002:229) define *theory* as a formulation regarding the cause-and-effect relationships between two or more variables, which may or may not have been tested. Whetten (1989) argues that if a theory is to be guaranteed, the researcher must ensure that what is passing as a good theory includes a plausible, coherent explanation for why certain relationships should be expected in our data. Theory is about the connections between phenomena, a story about why events, structure and thoughts occur and emphasizes the nature of causal relationships, identifying what comes first and the timing of events. Strong theory delves into the underlying processes to understand the systematic reasons for a particular occurrence or non-occurrence (Sutton & Staw, 1995).

Therefore:

- Theory consists of logical relationships among facts.
- Whereas theory is a generalization, it should be adaptable to specifics.
- Sound theory draws on reality and application.
- Theory is used for predictive and explanatory purposes.

Importance of theory in economic/social research

The significant functions of theory in economic/social research include the following:

- helps to identify gaps in knowledge;

- provides a framework to establish a problem or question or begin reasoning through a given problem (*conceptual base*) to the *hypotheses*;
- defines meanings that facilitate understanding of complex concepts;
- helps to visualize how something works, thus, suggesting causes and effects. It helps to relate facts and concepts (conceptualization);
- helps in drawing an empirical generalization and generalized relationships. It helps identify hypotheses or predict *facts* (summarisation) and
- provides precision in the thought process in that data can show *correlations* while theory can help sort out *causality*.

2.5.3 What is Hypothesis?

The word hypothesis is a compound of two words, ‘hypo’ and ‘thesis’, where ‘hypo’ means under and ‘thesis’ means reason or rational view. Therefore, a hypothesis is an educated guess about a problem’s solution. It shows the relation between two or more variables, which needs to be investigated for the truth. “A hypothesis is a tentative generalization which remains to be tested. It may be any hunch, imaginative idea or intuition which becomes the basis of action or investigation (Lundberg,...). According to Goode and Hatt (...), a hypothesis is a proposition that can be tested to determine its validity. It may seem contrary to or follow common sense.

From these two definitions, a hypothesis is a view which is not fully reasoned. It is a testable proposition, a specific prediction statement, a tentative assertion or a proposed answer that the researcher is yet to test. Once the researcher defines the problem, s/he then formulates the theory. Theory formulation leads to hypothesis formulation. Also, data collection and analysis revolve around the hypothesis. When the hypothesis comes to be true, it originates theory.

Hypothesis can be categorised into:

- i. Maintained hypotheses which refer to suggestions assumed true for a study;
- ii. Diagnostic hypotheses refer to propositions about the cause of a problem;
- iii. Remedial hypotheses mean proposed solutions to problems; and
- iv. Quantitative vs qualitative hypotheses. A quantitative (statistical) hypothesis must: have a conceptual base, i.e. from theoretical reasoning; be sufficiently specific to be rejected or not; be matched with data and techniques to test; and be testable with available resources. On the other hand, qualitative (or conceptual) hypotheses do not lend themselves to formal evaluation.

Types of research hypothesis

There are two types of research hypotheses the Null Hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis.

A *null hypothesis* indicates an exact definitive relationship between two variables and is called so because it usually reflects a 'no difference' or 'no effect' situation. In other words, the null hypothesis means that there is no difference between two populations in the aspect of some property and that the difference, if any is only accidental and unimportant. The null hypothesis is analogous to the principle that a man is innocent until proven guilty. It constitutes a challenge, and the function of research is to give facts a chance to reflect this challenge.

Example: - *There is no difference between male-headed and female-headed households' household incomes.*

Statistically expressed: $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Where,

H_0 = null hypothesis

μ_1 = the household income of male headed households

μ_2 = the household income of female headed household.

The *alternative hypothesis* is the opposite of the null hypothesis. The alternative hypothesis is a statement which expresses a relationship between two variables or indicates a difference between groups. It is the statement of acceptance condition for each alternative course of action or solution to a problem. Example: The household income of male-headed households will be more than female-headed households.

Statistically expressed:

$$H_1 = \mu_1 > \mu_2$$

Where

H_1 = alternative hypothesis

μ_1 = the household income of male headed households

μ_2 = the household income of female headed households.

N: B The hypothesis is described in concrete, not theoretical terms. Hence, it is a careful, logical deduction that maps a path to the solution.

Formulation of hypothesis

Researchers use two methods or logic to formulate a hypothesis. They include the *deductive* and *inductive approaches*. Let us now describe each of these approaches.

In deductive logic, the researcher establishes a series of assumptions about conditions, motivations and behaviours and logically works through to variables and parameters s/he wishes to explain or predict. Thus, the reasoning process is from general premises (e.g. assumptions) to specific results or conclusions. Regarding hypothesis formulation, the deductive method is one in which the researcher develops a hypothesis from theory and designs a research strategy to test them. In other words, we hold a theory and predict its consequences. Hence, hypothesis formulation precedes theory formulation, and a clear theoretical portion is developed before data collection. Economic theory is based mainly on deductive logic. Thus, researchers use deductive logic to reach a proper logical conclusion.

On the other hand, inductive logic is reasoning from specific circumstances or outcomes to a conclusion about general circumstances or outcomes. It is an empirical process of reaching a conclusion or arriving at new principles from known data and experience by observing objective realities. Hence, the researcher collects data and then develops a theory from data analysis. It is based on developing a theory after the data have been collected. Concerning hypothesis formulation, the researcher develops a hypothesis from specific observation. The most practical explanation of induction from economics is statistical inference, where the researcher collects data from a sample using established standards and criteria to infer the characteristics and behaviour of the entire population.

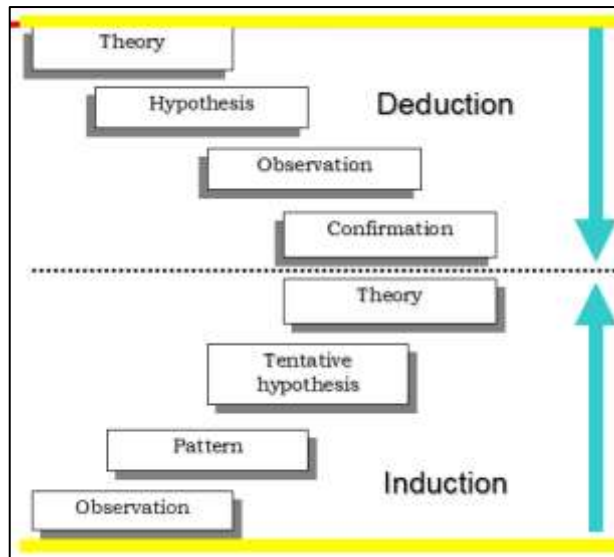


Figure 2.2: Illustration of deduction & induction approaches

DEDUCTIVE APPROACH/LOGIC

General premises → specific results
 (Theory) (Hypotheses)

Example 1

- ✚ All men are mortal (Major premise).
- ✚ Peter is a man (Minor premise).
- ✚ Therefore, Peter is mortal (Conclusion).

Example 2

- ✚ Every fish has gills.
- ✚ All sharks are fish.
- ✚ Therefore, every shark has gills.

Example 3

- ✚ All birds can fly (Major premise).
- ✚ A bat can fly (Minor premise).
- ✚ Therefore, a bat is a bird (Conclusion).

INDUCTIVE APPROACH/LOGIC

Observed realities → generalities
 (Facts; data) (Inferences)
 Used to test hypotheses

Example 4

- ✚ Every shark ever observed has gills.
- ✚ Therefore, every shark has gills.

Figure 2.3: Examples of deductive and inductive logic

It is worth noting that deductive and inductive logic are needed! Because each approach/logic is fallible and needs the other. For instance, deduction logic (i.e. theorizing) alone is fallible in studying the real world because it lacks definitive means of evaluating whether the premises (assumptions) of the ‘ideal types’ match the situation the researcher is analysing. On the other

hand, Induction logic (i.e. observing, empirical testing) is fallible because there is always a probability of error.

2.5 Logical fallacies

Logical fallacies are errors in reasoning, which can lead to errors in conclusions or unreliable information. The two most crucial research fallacies are *ecological fallacy* and *exception fallacy*.

An ecological fallacy (also called the *decomposition fallacy*) occurs when you make conclusions about individuals based only on analyses of group data.



Figure 2.4: Illustration of Ecological fallacy

Ecological fallacy falsely assumes that every individual's IQ is high since the average class IQ is high. An exception fallacy (the composition fallacy) occurs when you reach a group conclusion based on exceptional cases (Stereotyping). For instance, if you go to a rural area and find that many women need access to productive resources, you conclude that all women need access to productive resources. The kind of fallacy behind sexism and racism!

Other Logical Fallacies include

- *Special pleading*: use of only the information that supports a pre-determined position while ignoring other information, e.g. in court
- *Affirming the consequent*: based on premises that are not validated.
- *Attacking the person*: rejecting a position because of your attitude about the presenter(s).
- *Appeal to the people*: It must be right because many people accept it.
- *Appeal to authority*: because the source has in-depth knowledge, it must be right.
- *False cause*: attributing the wrong cause to an effect.
- *Argument by analogy*: that which works in one situation may also work in another.



Assignment 1 Due date 18th/March/2023

After reading this unit, formulate a research topic, problem statement, research questions, aim and specific objectives. Upon submission of the assignment, it will be marked by myself and your colleague. Each one of us will give you a score out of 10. In addition, based on the quality of feedback you provide your colleague, I will award you marks out of 10. Therefore, the final average score will be out of the scores from the three evaluations.

N: B The feedback has to be given within five days from the due date of submission of the assignment (**23/March/2023**).

Tip: When writing and grading the assignment, use the criteria highlighted in sections 2.2, 2.4.1.3, 2.4.2 and 2.4.3.2.

References

Saunders, M.N.K. and Lewis, P. (1997) 'Great ideas and blind alleys? A review of the literature on starting research', *Management Learning*, Vol 28, No.3, pp. 283-99.