Library & Information Services

Writing a literature review

About this guide

Your literature review is an important part of your thesis, and many examiners allocate a significant proportion of the overall marks to it. It provides a sound academic context to the empirical research that you undertake, and the way in which you structure it makes the direction of your research clear to the reader at a glance. It is helpful to look at literature reviews in previous theses to get an idea of how it should be structured, and how it relates to the rest of the thesis, but unless you have written one before, it can be difficult to know where to start in the process of transforming the results of your literature search into a coherent and synthesised review.

Appropriate acknowledgement of published sources is both good academic practice, and is necessary to avoid plagiarism. This guide provides practical tips for writing your review, from creating the basic structure to refining the final document. The guide is structured as follows:

- What is a literature review?
- What does a literature review look like?
- What are the steps involved?
- Bringing it all together
- When to paraphrase and when to use direct quotations
- Conventions
- Works which you have not cited directly
- Further reading

What is a literature review?

A literature review is an important part of an academic thesis. Academic research draws on, and contributes to, a body of knowledge, and without referencing your sources fully and in a recognised manner, your work will not fulfil the requirements of research at Masters or Doctoral level.

Your literature review shows that you have based your research on ideas already accepted and contributed by practitioners working in your field, and that you have not simply concocted your own untested methodology. This is an essential part of academic research, but it is important that you acknowledge your sources appropriately. Drawing on existing work but failing to acknowledge it is plagiarism, and will at best result in a recommendation that you revise and resubmit your thesis.

What does a literature review look like?

A literature review serves two main purposes. It presents the background to your research as a narrative, so that your reader can understand exactly what your work entails, and demonstrates that you have read appropriately within your field. It also shows where your ideas came from, and how you have built upon them.

Scope and structure

Your literature review will tell the story of the work that you have done, by placing it into the context of work that has already been done. It should be broken down into a logical structure (see below) and this will show your reader at a glance what they can expect from your work in terms of scope and subject coverage.

The structure that you define for your review has a number of functions. It tells the reader of the limits of your research (for example, you have looked at the effects of gender on leadership style, but not the effects of national culture); it provides the reader with the background information that they need in order to be able to understand your research (for example, you are discussing an environment of rapid change in the context

of supply chain management, so you may want to explain *why* this particular industry is one which is subject to rapid change); and it informs the reader of the way in which you are planning to present your research, and the way in which your thoughts have developed.

Incorporating published works

As well as outlining the scope and structure of your research, your literature review, which will normally form a separate chapter of your thesis, brings together everything that you have read, which has contributed to your understanding of your subject, and which supports (or disagrees with) the arguments that you want to present. Much of the review will be in your own words, but you will also incorporate supporting ideas taken from the published literature, either by paraphrasing them, referring to them in a general way, or by quoting directly from the original.

Any paraphrased points or direct quotations must be acknowledged by indicating the author of the original work, usually as closely as possible to the sentence in which you are referring to that work. There are two ways of doing this. You can either indicate the author's name and the date of the work in brackets, for example (Davies, 2002), in which case your bibliography must be presented in alphabetical order, but does not need to be numbered, or you can give each reference a number, in which case the bibliography must have the corresponding number for each reference.

If you choose to use a numbering system, there are two possible ways of doing this.

Numbered references in consecutive order

If you number the references consecutively as they occur in the text, so the first reference is number 1, the second number 2, etc, your bibliography will not be in alphabetical order, because the first reference could be to an author whose name begins with Z, and the last reference could be to an author beginning with A.

Numbered references in alphabetical order

If you would prefer your bibliography to be in alphabetical order by author name, your text references will correspond to the number that you have given to each reference in the bibliography, which in turn will be determined by its place in the alphabetical sequence, so your first text reference could be number 75, and your last could be number 3.

There are examples of both numbering systems at the end of this leaflet.

Many people prefer the name and date method; however, when repeated over the length of an entire review, this format can become dull and uninteresting for your reader, even if it is accurate and complete. This leaflet will help you to make your review more interesting by presenting a number of variations, and suggesting different ways in which you can incorporate authors' quotations into your text.

What are the steps involved?

1. Identify the relevant articles

Throughout your preparation for writing your thesis, you will have used databases and other sources to find work relevant to your research. While it is usually easy to find articles which are relevant to your subject in general, the purpose of the literature review is to present the contributions made by the authors that you have identified, and to demonstrate how they support the argument that you are putting forward in your own empirical research.

It is helpful to save the articles that you have identified in RefWorks, or a similar reference management package. This will enable you to format your references automatically in a style of your choice, and to vary the appearance of your text references (this is described in more detail later). Because you can also use RefWorks to record your own notes, keywords, and direct quotations, as well as to allocate articles to subgroups, it will also be able to help you in the process of defining the headings and sub-headings, described in the next section.

2. Identify the main themes

This is where you begin to tell the reader the story of your research, so that they can understand the extent and limits of the work that you have done. It is likely that you have already given some thought to the different strands of discussion that you want to include in your thesis, because these will have dictated the database searches that you have done, and will also dictate the chapter and sub-chapter headings in the whole thesis.

The same will apply in your literature review. If you have already decided on your chapter headings, and the sub-headings within them, these themes can be echoed in your literature review, and you can use them as they are.

If you have gathered a range of relevant literature, but are still unsure as to how your thesis will be structured, it could be that what you find in the literature will provide the structure for your thesis, rather than the other way round. Read your articles carefully, and make a list of the points which seem important enough to warrant discussion as a separate idea. It is a good idea to do this as a simple Word document.

3. Establish headings and sub-headings

Look at your list of points, and begin to rearrange them into a logical order, using sub-headings to group together ideas which may be related. It is important that you get the order right, so start with the most general ideas, and progress to more specific discussions within each main heading.

Example

Comparison of leadership styles of men and women in ten different countries, within the banking sector.

There are two main strands to the literature here; the effect of gender on leadership style, and the effect of national culture on leadership style. This provides the two main sub-headings, under which narrower headings can be grouped, for example:

2.1 Effect of gender on leadership style
- 2.1.1 Female and male leaders – a comparison
  - 2.1.1.1 Cognitive abilities, social skills, and motivation
  - 2.1.1.2 Leadership style
- 2.1.2 Structure of the organisation
  - 2.1.2.1 Formal and informal organisations
  - 2.1.2.2 Organisational impact of managers' personal lives

2.2 Effect of national culture on leadership style
- 2.2.1 Levels of equality
  - 2.2.1.1 Power distance
  - 2.2.1.2 Individualism and collectivism
  - 2.2.1.3 Uncertainty avoidance
- 2.2.2 Problems of intercultural conflict
  - 2.2.2.1 Expatriate workers
  - 2.2.2.2 Multinational companies
- 2.2.3 Manifestation in the organisation
  - 2.2.3.1 Implications for management training
  - 2.2.3.2 Implications for recruitment
  - 2.2.3.3 Implications for organisational communication

4. Highlight the relevant points in each article

Having determined the structure of your review, as dictated by the main themes that you want to focus on, go back to your articles and re-read them. This time, look specifically for references to the themes that you have identified as being important. The easiest way to mark them is to use a system of coloured markers or highlighters, with a different colour for each separate theme. This way, you will easily be able to draw together references to the same theme from each different article. While you are reading through your articles and highlighting relevant passages, look out for sentences or phrases which might be helpful to use as direct quotations, and mark these in a different way. If you are using RefWorks, it is helpful to put your thoughts and observations, and any direct quotations into the notes field.

5. Group relevant points under the appropriate headings

Start to transfer each of the points that you have highlighted to the Word document that you began earlier, placing each highlighted idea under the appropriate heading. You may have decided at this stage which sentences to quote directly and which to paraphrase or simply refer to, but it might still be a good idea to type them exactly as they appear at this stage, as it will give you greater flexibility later on. For clarity, leave a space between each point, so that you can distinguish between them easily, as shown in the example below:

Steels for transmission pipelines
Two approaches can be used for design of a pipeline, stress or strain based. The conventional approach, stress based, has been used extensively worldwide to build safe and reliable pipelines. The stress-based approach relies essentially on limiting the applied hoop stress to lower than the yield stress. (Glover et al., 1999, p.45)

Strain-based design of pipelines is most useful when the anticipated longitudinal strains are likely to cause plastic deformation in either the pipe or the weld metal. These conditions most often arise under conditions of ground movement, such as subsidence or upheaval by permafrost. (Glover et al., 2003, p. 23)

For a buried pipeline operating at a hoop stress of <80% SMYS, this is often the lowering-in stress during construction. The resistance of a defect depends on the size, wall position and circumferential location, and the strength and toughness of the material surrounding the defect. (Denys et at., 2002, p. 78)

For each point that you transfer to your document, make sure that you also note the author, date, and number of the page on which the sentence or paragraph appears. It may be virtually impossible to identify the source of an idea or quotation later, and you will not be able to use it.

6. Start to develop your own wording

By now, you will have more of a feel for what you are trying to say, and how the literature supports the points you want to make. The next stage is to begin to develop your own argument, while at the same time incorporating supporting points derived from your articles. If you only intend to paraphrase, or simply refer to a work in general, you can drop the page numbers as you refine your review, but it is helpful to keep them in at this stage, until you are sure that you will not be quoting directly.

As your literature review develops, you may wish to group similar arguments together. For example, the following points, all referring to company-based research, are taken directly from the original sources:

It may be difficult to gain access to a company in the first place (Jamieson, 1984, p. 56).

Senior management are notoriously difficult to convince of the validity of what they may perceive as 'pure' academic research (Singh, 1995, p. 32).

It is easy to waste a lot of time by making initial contact with the wrong person (Callaghan and Davies, 2001, p. 78-9).

If you only want to make it clear to your reader that the difficulties of undertaking company-based research have been well documented, and do not want to elaborate further, it is enough to summarise these points in a single sentence, for example:

A number of authors have discussed the problems inherent in action research (Jamieson, 1984; Singh, 1995; Callaghan and Davies, 2001).

If you feel that any of the points that you have listed merit direct quotation, remember to put them in inverted commas, and to keep the page number with the reference. This is particularly important given that Turnitin will disregard properly cited quotations, but should you include a direct quotation without putting it in quotation marks, it will be detected as an instance of plagiarism.

You may want to quote an entire paragraph, in which case it is a good idea to indent it, with a clear line spacing either side, but if you are only quoting a sentence or two, or starting a sentence with your own words and leading into a directly quoted sentence or part sentence, it is best to keep it as part of the whole paragraph, for example:

The experiences of this researcher confirmed Singh's (1995, p. 52) assertion that senior managers are "notoriously difficult to convince of the validity of what they may perceive as "pure" academic research".

7. Refine the format of your in-text citations

As noted earlier, there are two methods of linking a statement or a direct quotation to the source from which it has come. You can either use the author's name and the date of the work in brackets, at an appropriate point in the sentence, or you can use a number, either superscript, or full size but in brackets, which corresponds to the number of the full reference in your bibliography. The following paragraphs will focus on the name and date method, which, unlike the numbering method, offers a number of ways of incorporating the author's name and the date of the work into the sentence.

Please refer to our *Citing bibliographic references* leaflet for further information on referencing styles.

Identifying the literature

While this leaflet does not set out to cover specific techniques of literature searching, there are certain concepts related to structuring your review, and therefore searching for literature, that it is helpful to be aware of before you start.

In many cases, the title of your thesis will give you a starting point in terms of identifying keywords, and you might find that there is already a lot of relevant literature which fits your subject more or less exactly. However, if your subject is very practical, or very new, you may well find that you have to look more broadly to identify the body of academic literature that your more practical empirical research can be related to. You may also have to look at similar work in related areas, or break a broad subject down into smaller components in order to create the kind of outline structure shown in step 3 above.

Bringing it all together

At this point, you will have worked out what you want to say, and will have incorporated the points which support your argument, along with the author, date and page number. However, it may still look rather clumsy and stilted, and may not read as well as it could. To make it read more elegantly, you need to move away from a set formula of making the point, followed by a name and date in brackets. You can do this in a number of ways, and this is really the final fine-tuning of your review.

Variations on the name and date format

There are several variations to the name and date method, and you can use any combination of these, depending on how your sentence is structured. If you are simply making a point, or perhaps comparing a number of points, you will need to use both the name and date to enable your reader to locate the relevant reference, for example:

Engineers need reliable answers to specific questions, and information seeking is based on problem solving (Young and Harriott, 1979). This tends to occur through informal, personal contact within industries (Allen, Hyman et al., 1983).

This is quite a useful way in which to group together similar findings by a number of authors, for example:

The role of tacit knowledge in organisations has been discussed widely in recent years (Johnson, 1999; Frost, 2001a, 2001b; Hurst and Davison, 2000; Marchant, 1997; Smithson et al, 1998).

You may want to incorporate the author's name into the body of the sentence, in which case you will only need to add the date in brackets, for example:

Allen (1966) documents the problem solving process in R&D projects…

You might want to include both the author and the date into the sentence, in which case you do not need to add anything else, as both pieces of information are already present, for example:

As long ago as 1962, Tushman found that one of two factors dominating communication patterns is task complexity….

Indicating page numbers

If you have included a direct quotation, it is important to include the page number, so that your reader can go back to the original and read it in context, for example:

Cowling and James (1994, p. 53) argue that "individual selection methods used by themselves are not good predictors of performance".

Page numbers are either indicated as above, i.e. (1994, p. 53) or in the form (1994: 53). It does not matter which form you choose, as long as it is consistent throughout your review.

Variations in focus

Focusing on the author

In some sentences, you might choose to focus on the author as the subject of the sentence, in which case you will only need the date as your text reference, for example:

Wolek (1969) splits development projects into two stages…..

This technique is useful if you want to draw together a number of studies which generally agree upon a particular issue, for example:

Rothwell (1975) confirms this by citing studies by Myers and Marquis (1969) and Utterback (1971)…

Incorporating the author's name into the body of the sentence will help to make your review more dynamic, but there are other variations that you can make to make it more interesting for the reader. Variations in the word used to describe communication will prevent the review from sounding stilted.

If an author is expressing a similar viewpoint to another author, certain words convey this agreement. They might *agree, confirm, concur, arrive at the same conclusion, share the view (that), back up*, or *augment*. In addition, the words *moreover* and *furthermore* can also be used to indicate assent between authors, for example:

Allen (1971) revealed the presence of 'technological gatekeepers' or 'boundary spanners' within organisations. Furthermore, Tushman and Scalan's (1981) study found that these were high performing individuals, who were experienced and professionally and operationally oriented, gathering information….

Other types of sentence construction can also be used to convey the idea of a shared viewpoint or similar findings, for example:

This is similar to the views of Churchman (1982, p.6), who suggests that the dynamic and emergent nature of action research raises ethical issues over time and that these need to be addressed at regular intervals during a research programme.

If they are expressing disagreement, they might *dissent, dispute, conflict, disagree, differ, contrast*, or *present an opposing view*. The word *however* can also be used to reinforce dissent between authors, or to highlight the fact that there may be different facets to a particular argument, for example:

Allen (1977) contends that external communication is the primary critical success factor for a research project, however Katz and Hauptman's (1982) work demonstrates that different information sources are equally important to different types of project.

If you are not specifically highlighting agreement or disagreement between different authors, there are plenty of words which can be used to convey the simple fact of communication, all of which can be used more or less interchangeably. Authors can *state, argue, mention, report, posit, describe, show, conclude, note, comment, reiterate, propose, hold the view (that), sum up, highlight, cite, reflect, espouse (a view or theory), postulate, maintain, examine, justify, insist, declare, remark, claim, contend, discuss, suggest* or *expand.* Such words can be used either actively, for example:

Jacobson (1987) postulates that one of two factors dominating communication patterns is task complexity….

or passively, for example:

The early stages of a project as described by Wolek and Allen (1996) are those with the most uncertainty, where information is needed to define the problem and create alternative solutions to be tested.

Focusing on the study

Another option is to make the study or research itself the focus of the sentence, rather than its author, for example:

Extensive work on the value of information was carried out by Griffiths and King in the early 1990s.

Although there have been attempts, notably by Singh and Malhotra (1993)…

Studies have shown that engineers are reluctant to use formal information sources such as databases (Hanley, Harrington et al., 1998).

Research in 1994 by Blagden et al. showed that respondents used reports…

Focusing on the date or period

Another variation is to make the date or time period the main focus of the sentence. If the date and the author's name form a logical part of the sentence structure, there is no need to add a text reference if you are using a name and date style (although you will still need a citation number if you have chosen to use a style which uses numbers within the text). This is particularly effective for older studies, or for recent comparisons, for example:

As long ago as 1958, Maizell found a positive correlation…..

In his 1968 study on communication in research projects, Chen comments…

In a later study by Melrose (1988), Chang's original findings were confirmed…

More recently, Davison (2001) has demonstrated….

Later studies (Edwards, 1998; Fairfax and Johnson, 2002) have shown….

When to paraphrase and when to use direct quotations

When to paraphrase

A direct quotation can be very effective in bringing a literature review to life, and drawing the contributing authors' own voices into the argument. However, it is important not to use direct quotations randomly, or without good reason. More often than not, the point that the original author is making is expressed in such a way that it does not lend itself to direct quotation, or rather, that the review would not benefit from having it quoted directly. This is usually because it is too long or involved, too general or factual, or that it simply lacks focus. Some subjects simply do not lend themselves as a vehicle for the author's own 'voice', such as mathematics or fracture mechanics.

There is nothing in the following paragraph to merit direct quotation. It is factual, and may contribute substantially to an understanding of the subject, but its basic content could just as effectively be paraphrased, or simply cited as a contributor to a discussion on sampling.

"Any ratio or regression estimator may be applied separately within each of a number of strata, provided that the population mean of x is known within each stratum. Alternatively, a single ratio or regression estimator may be applied using the combined results from all strata."

When to quote directly

A sentence or paragraph which is unusually succinct or elegantly worded, or which expresses an idea just as you would have liked to have expressed it yourself, however, can add an extra dimension to a literature review. The following quotation summarises the author's argument, not only succinctly, i.e. in a single sentence, but with a degree of wit and style in the reversal of 'write' and 'read' and aesthetic balance of 'scientist' and 'technologist' which could hardly be bettered:

"The scientist wants to write but not to read, whereas the technologist wants to read but not to write."

If an author has coined a particular term or phrase, it makes sense to quote it in context, at least as an explanation of its use. You will also need to enclose the term in quotation marks every time you use it in order to avoid plagiarism, and to emphasise that the term only has meaning within that particular author's work, for example:

Warhurst and Thomson (1998, p. 43) refer to "technicization", a situation in which theoretical knowledge now infuses previously tacit-knowledge-only jobs.

The following example is useful as a direct quotation, not only because of the humour and personal touch of "who is not asleep", but because the list of questions is perfectly expressed as it stands, and paraphrasing would only detract from the ideas that are being expressed.

"Any qualitative researcher who is not asleep ponders moral and ethical questions: Is my project really worth doing? Do people really understand what they are getting into? Am I exploiting people with my innocent questions? What about their privacy? Do respondents have a right to see my report? What good is anonymity if people and their colleagues can easily recognise themselves in a case study? When they do, might it hurt or damage them in some way? What do I do when I observe harmful behaviour in my study? Who owns the data and who owns the report?"

You may want to convey emotions such as humour, cynicism, disapproval, sadness, or even unpleasant traits such as racism, misogyny, or elitism present in the original text, and there is no better or more direct way of doing this than by using the author's own words. If you wish to highlight the fact that words in the original text do not reflect your own use of language, the convention is to include [sic] after the word in question, for example:

"Any customer can have a car painted any color he [sic] wants as long as it is black."

The same applies to spelling or grammatical errors, for example:

"As part of it's [sic] regeneration strategy…."

You may simply want to use the author's own words because they convey the concept more effectively than a paraphrase could do, for example:

"Knowledge is not, and cannot, be concentrated in a single mind…no single mind can specify in advance what kind of practical knowledge is going to be relevant."

Different methods of incorporating direct quotations

Direct quotations can be incorporated in two ways; either by setting them aside as a sentence or paragraph which stands on its own to illustrate the point you wish to make (see the examples below), or by using another author's words to complete a sentence that you have started in your own words, in which case, the quotation can simply follow on from your own sentence, for example:

Lipton (2001, p. 67) reiterates the dilemmas facing practitioner researchers, who "have to be prepared to live with the uncertainty of not knowing how their work will be received and validated for lengthy periods."

If the direct quotation does not quite 'fit' your sentence, for example if it is missing a pronoun, or if in its original sense, it is not quite clear what is being discussed, you can add any necessary clarification in square brackets, for example:

Mullins (1996, p.148) suggests that "[a manager's]

perception of the workforce will influence attitudes in dealing with people…."

Quotations which are too long to include in their entirety, or in which the relevant points are interspersed with phrases which are distracting or irrelevant can be abbreviated with dotted lines, as long as the remaining words still form a coherent sentence, and as long as this does not distort the context of the original statement, for example:

"Planning begins as something more than mere government intervention….[it] does not consist of piecemeal responses to the contingencies of the day" (Lewis, 1987, p. 56).

If you wish to emphasise a word or phrase within a quotation by putting it in italics, you need to make it clear that this is your own interpretation, for example:

"Though identity is an abstract *concept, an organization is a concrete entity" (Espejo et al, 1996, p. 75; author's italics).*

Similarly, italics, or other forms of emphasis, which were present in the original, can be indicated by phrases such as 'italics in original source'.

A quotation by one author which is quoted by another author can be indicated in a number of ways, for example:

According to Chowdury (1993, p. 56), Crosby (1998, p. 45) suggests that "it is a fallacy that the board must contain 'experts' in the industry".

"Modernity is changing the locus of belonging: our language of attachments limps suspiciously behind, doubting that our needs could ever find larger attachments" (Ignatieff, 1989, quoted in Corbridge, 1993, p. 449).

In the example above, there is no need to provide a full reference for Ignatieff, as the reader will be directed towards Corbridge, and will find the complete reference there. Furthermore, a full bibliographic reference for Ignatieff included in your reference list will imply that you have read the original, which you have not.

Different methods of indicating the page number

When a phrase, sentence or paragraph is quoted directly, the page number should always be indicated as part of your text reference. You can do this in a number of ways, but the way in which you do it should be consistent throughout your thesis.

For example:
(Smith, 1990, p. 56)
(Smith, 1990: 56)
1, p. 56
1: 56

Conventions

Passive or active voice?

It is conventional for academic communication to adopt the passive voice rather than the active voice, i.e. explaining what *was done*, rather than what *you did.* For example:

A multiple regression analysis was performed……

rather than:

I performed a multiple regression analysis…..

By using the passive voice, you do not have to deal with the problem of referring to yourself, which generally has the effect of making a piece of work appear less 'academic'. However, sometimes, your subject is such that you cannot avoid referring to yourself; if you have undertaken a piece of action research, for example, where your presence and intervention is an intrinsic part of the research work. If this is the case, another convention is to refer to yourself in the third person, rather than the first person, for example:

…the author observed that…..

This researcher disagrees with Sharma's (1997) view….

However, this can sometimes give the work an unnecessarily stilted feel, and there may well be circumstances where it is appropriate to use the first person, for example:

Reflecting upon my habitual use of language in the classroom, I realised that I invariably accompanied my actions and the actions of the children with a verbal commentary.

is simpler and more effective than:

Reflecting upon her habitual use of language in the classroom, the researcher realised that she invariably accompanied her actions and the actions of the children with a verbal commentary.

Present or past tense?

Views, opinions and statements gleaned from the published literature are conventionally expressed using the present tense, for example:

Richardson and Melrose (1963) argue that the researcher is never simply a disinterested bystander…

Even if the work was written a long time ago, their communication of it will always be in the present, because you have just read it, and they are continuing to argue their point.

If you are talking about an activity which the authors carried out, and which had a definite start and finish, you will need to use the past tense of the verb, for example:

Jefferson (1998) found that….

Gupta and Chen (1987) interviewed senior managers….

Dickson et al (2001) examined the handwriting of stroke patients…

As was suggested with the variation in words of communication, you can make your reporting of authors' work more interesting by varying the words which explain the complete actions that they carried out. They might have *found, studied, interviewed, taken part in, attempted, shown, identified, proposed, examined* etc.

Authors' names

In a literature review, authors are almost always referred to by their surname, partly because it is an academic convention, and partly because it removes any ambiguity in following up the reference in the bibliography. If you are referring to more than one work by the same author, published in the same year, this can be indicated by suffixing the date with a letter, for example:

Xiao (1998a) suggests that….

Some studies (Clarke, 1990a, 1990b) have shown that….

It is not usual to include titles such as 'Professor', 'Doctor', 'Captain', etc, or suffixes such as 'III' or 'Jr'. First names are not usually included, but there might be occasions when you might wish to use an author's first name, if only to improve the feel and balance of a sentence, for example:

In an excellent but undeservedly underrated study, Jennifer Wong (1980) spent five years recording……

sounds better than:

In an excellent but undeservedly underrated study, Wong (1980) spent five years recording……

because the inclusion of the author's first name helps to balance the short surname against the much longer introductory clause.

Works which you have not cited directly

If you wish to include a list of other works which are not referred directly in the text, it is customary to present a separate list, with a heading of 'Further Reading' or 'Bibliography'. This is a good way of showing your examiner the full extent of your reading (bearing in mind that you will have read far more than is directly referred to in the thesis), and of providing your reader with relevant related material.

Further reading

The Library holds a number of books which provide useful further reading.

Anderson, Jonathan and Poole, Millicent (1998) *Assignment and thesis writing* (3rd edition), Wiley, Brisbane.

Brause, Rita S. (2000) *Writing your doctoral dissertation: invisible rules for success*, RoutledgeFalmer, London.

Fink, Arlene (1998) *Conducting research literature reviews: from paper to the Internet*, Sage, Thousand Oaks.

Fitzpatrick, Jacqueline, Secrist, Jan and Wright, Debra J. (1998) *Secrets for a successful dissertation*, Sage, Thousand Oaks.

Hart, Chris (2001) *Doing a literature search*, Sage, London.

Hogan, Michael and Reinheimer, David (2001) *From sources to purpose: a guide to researched writing*, Harcourt College Publishers, Fort Worth.

Palmer, Richard (1993) *Write in style: a guide to good English*, E&FN Spon, London.

Palmer, Richard (2003) *The good grammar guide*, Routledge, London.

Potter, Stephen (ed) (2002) *Doing postgraduate research*, Sage, London.

For help with literature searching or putting your literature review together, please contact staff at the Kings Norton Library Enquiry Desk:

T: (01234) 754447 or 754451
E: library@cranfield.ac.uk

This leaflet is available in other formats on request

Appendix A: References using name and date format

Marketing planning in theory and practice

There is a wide body of broadly consistent prescriptive literature on how and why marketing plans should be developed (McDonald, 1995; Kotler, 1989).

Marketing

The American Marketing Association's definition of marketing starts with the concept of exchange between two parties:

"Marketing is the process of planning and executing the conception of pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives." (Kotler, 1988, p. 1).

This definition implicitly includes the 4 Ps framework, which as Gronroos (1994) argues in an extensive review of the marketing mix, is subject to a number of difficulties in its four-part division of marketing, as well as in what is excluded; points also discussed by Christopher et al(1991) and Greenley (1986). To avoid such difficulties, other definitions concentrate more exclusively on the relationship between the organisation and the customer (Kotler and Armstrong, 1989), and McDonald (1995) defines marketing as: "a matching between the company's capabilities and the wants of customers in order to achieve the objectives of both parties." (1995, p. 46).

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Appendix B: References using numbers, listed consecutively

Marketing planning in theory and practice

There is a wide body of broadly consistent prescriptive literature on how and why marketing plans should be developed [1; 2].

Marketing

The American Marketing Association's definition of marketing starts with the concept of exchange between two parties:

"Marketing is the process of planning and executing the conception of pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives." [3, p. 11]

This definition implicitly includes the 4 Ps framework, which as Gronroos [4] argues in an extensive review of the marketing mix, is subject to a number of difficulties in its four-part division of marketing, as well as in what is excluded; points also discussed by Christopher et al [5] and Greenley [6]. To avoid such difficulties, other definitions concentrate more exclusively on the relationship between the organisation and the customer [7], and McDonald [8] defines marketing as: "a matching between the company's capabilities and the wants of customers in order to achieve the objectives of both parties." [8, p. 46]

Reference List

1. Thompson, D. and Hammond, J. (1979), *Strategic market planning*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.

2. Mercer, D. (1995), *Marketing*, Blackwell, Oxford.

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4. Gronroos, C. (1994), 'Quo vadis, marketing? Towards a relationship marketing paragdigm', *Journal of marketing management,* Vol. 10, No. 4, pp. 347-360.

5. Christopher, M., Payne, A. and Ballantyne, D. (1991), *Relationship marketing: bringing quality, customer service, and marketing together*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.

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Appendix C: References using numbers, listed alphabetically

Marketing planning in theory and practice

There is a wide body of broadly consistent prescriptive literature on how and why marketing plans should be developed [8; 7].

Marketing

The American Marketing Association's definition of marketing starts with the concept of exchange between two parties:

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1. Christopher, M., Payne, A. and Ballantyne, D. (1991), *Relationship marketing: bringing quality, customer service, and marketing together*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.
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4. Kotler, P. (1988), *Marketing management: analysis, planning, implementation and control,* (6th edition), Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
5. Kotler, P. and Armstrong, G. (1989), *Principles of marketing,* (4th edition), Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.
6. McDonald, M.H.B. (1995), *Marketing plans,* (3rd edition), Heinemann, Oxford.
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