Resources for remote research in Human Geography

This document was designed to provide extra support to undergraduate geographers who were set to conduct their dissertation research this long summer. Adapting to remote work and the pressures of pandemic uncertainties is something we can do best in solidarity. Below follow a series of introductory texts, suggested readings/databases and practical tips on how to employ different methods (critically!). This has been collated by a number of academics at the University of Cambridge and beyond, whose names are indicated by section.

This document is still expanding through crowd-sourcing - please submit suggestions via email to amf61@cam.ac.uk. This model follows from D. Lupton's 'Doing Fieldwork in a Pandemic'.
For further materials see also the Cambridge Geography 'Conducting Fieldwork at a Distance' Workshops, co-organised by Fleur Nash and Charlotte Milbank.
https://www.geog.cam.ac.uk/research/readinggroups/fieldwork/

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https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Oe-y9mA2ERrs0xzxSx64znMNEcMepp6Mu3ooCk4jbfc/

General sources for (Digital) Qualitative Methods Research:

*Braun, V., and Clarke, V, and Gray, D., eds. (2017). *Collecting qualitative data: a practical guide to textual, media and virtual techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

*Clifford, N., et al., eds. (2016). *Key methods in geography*. London: Sage.

Hay, I., ed. (2016). *Qualitative research methods in human geography*. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

*DeLyser, D., et al., eds. (2009). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative geography*. London: Sage.

Oxford Bibliographies: https://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/page/geography {Methods entries}

**RGS, (2020). Doing your dissertation during the Covid-19 pandemic. https://scgrg.co.uk/doing-your-dissertation-during-the-covid-19-pandemic

**Peter, K., (2017). Your Human Geography Dissertation: Designing, Doing, Deliveing. London: Sage https://study.sagepub.com/yourhumangeography

Journals to browse: **Progress in Human Geography*, *Geographical Compass, Geoforum*, *Dialogues in Human Geography*, *Area,*

*Law, J., (2004). *After Method: Mess in Social Science Research*. Abingdon: Routledge.

*Lupton, D., ed. (2020). Doing fieldwork in a pandemic. (crowd-sourced document). Available from:https://docs.google.com/document/d/1clGjGABB2h2qbduTgfqribHmog9B6P0NvMgVuiHZCl8/edit?ts=5e88ae0a#

LSE Digital Ethnography Collective, (2020). Reading List. Available from: https://zoeglatt.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/LSE-Digital-Ethnography-Collective-Reading-List-March-2020.pdf

Rose, G., (2016). *Visual methodologies: An introduction to researching with visual materials*. London: Sage.

Pickering, M., ed. (2008). *Research methods for cultural studies*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Rogers, R., (2019). *Doing digital methods*. London: Sage. [focused on studying digital media, i.e. website history, google searches, wikipedia versions, twitter etc]

Whatmore, R., and B. W. Young, eds. (2016). *A companion to intellectual history*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Schreibman, S., R. Siemens, and J. Unsworth, eds. (2016). *A new companion to digital humanities*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

1. Conducting Online Interviews, Focus Groups, and Surveys.

(by *Karenjit Clare, *Alexander Cullen, Mia Gray, Charlotte Lemanski, Alex Jeffrey)

We are sometimes so engrossed in a world of reading that we forget how much we may learn in conversation. Writing offers a laboured reflection, at times grounded on extensive research and repeated reconsideration of the problem and message to be delivered. Conversation may now have these virtues, but it has many others. In conversation, we can tap into impressions and life-stories that will never be written. In conversation, we can probe, elucidate and disentangle moments of ambivalence. In conversation, we can be challenged, having our preconceptions and approach tested and enriched. In sum, the freedom of form, semi-conscious reflexivity and response-ability are the great qualities of interviews. Interviews, at their best, open up voices, stories and connections hitherto absent from literary expression. There is an unending wealth in orality, and interviews, focus groups and ethnographic methodologies offer a set of traditions in how to engage in valuable conversations, whilst remaining respectful, focused, and open-minded.

"So… what about the actual 'how-to' stuff?", you might ask. Don't worry we'll get there, step by step! Interviews, Focus Groups and Surveys all require different cares in design, execution and analysis. We'll review these, and reflect on how we might tailor our approach to digital mediums. Here we go!

Interviews (by António Ferraz de Oliveira)

Are more-or-less structured conversations. That can make them sound easy… but they often aren't. Getting people to speak, to be reflective and generous relies on hard work, before, during and sometimes even after the interview (see Gubrium et al, 2012; Bryman 2015, Holton, 2017, Maddox, 2020).

The first step is to think carefully about the interview design and testing it with some friends. At a deeper level, design is about considering what questions you want to ask and what insights you hope to elicit. To achieve this a number of practicalities need to be addressed: how long can you expect interviews to last ? How many questions can you ask? What sequence should questions follow?, And most of all, *how to phrase your questions?*. Getting these matters right is key as they often condition how forthcoming people will be. Time can feel like a precious resource, an onslaught of questions can silence responders, opening with a deep or difficult question can alienate them, and leading or muddled phrasing can destroy rapport. Consider these dangers carefully and test your ‘interview rota’ with friends. Are questions phrased clearly and openly? Does the questioning sequence ease responders into and out of a deeper reflection? Are there too many questions for the time you planned? Do you have a sense of what questions you might prioritise or skip? Or what prompts you might use to take a question farther? Think, think, think. Test, test, test.

So you have an interview rota now. Brilliant, time to go about the business. Yet here come a number of new challenges - is there an appropriate pool of respondents easily available? Will it work to reach them remotely? You might not have ready-made answers to these problems… but can always develop a planning strategy to manage uncertainty and achieve good results. First, you need to identify what people you want to talk to and if you can reach some of them via phone or email. Second, you need to think carefully about how to approach them - first impressions matter. Draft an email explaining your research interest and project shortly, who you are and why you are getting in touch. Be succinct and respectful. You may or may not also want to attach your question set and your informed consent sheet. Indicate the medium you’d hope to converse over (i.e. zoom, e-mail, phone, etc) and scheduling options for a short debrief and/or the interview (call-back, e-mail, icalendar, doodle, etc). Before conducting any interview, make sure you’ve read the methodological literature on the medium you’re using and that you’ve tested your technology is working appropriately. If you are doing video-conferencing, make sure you choose a background you are comfortable with and are presenting professionally, preferably you should have headphones on as a visual cue for respecting privacy. If you want to record interviews, remember you must secure informed consent for this. Recording is often an attractive option because it allows for transcription and avoids reliance on interview note-taking.

You've set your first interview, the questions are ready, you've rehearsed with a friend. And yet, you feel nervous, what can you do to make sure things go right? Here is some advice. First, Listen (see Talmage, 2012). The purpose of an interview is engaged listening - your prompts should be empathetic and encouraging, you should allow people time to think and wander. Avoid making people feel cut off, told off, dismissed or confronted uncharitably. Instead, detect lulls in the conversation, moments of doubt and inflections to prompt further reflection, clarification or shift in focus. Signal your interest, humility and empathy. Beware of 'translating' responders' experiences back to them or identifying openly with them. If an interviewee asks for an explanation or context, be clear, succinct and check back for understanding (i.e. 'does that make sense?'). In the context of remote interviewing, beware that more time and energy may be required in doing the emotional intelligence work of interviews - build in soft breaks if you need to. At an interview's close, remember to reiterate your gratitude to participants. If an interview goes well, there may be an opportunity to ask for help in recruiting further interviewees (i.e. 'snowballing'). This can be immensely useful, though you must remain aware of possible sampling bias effects.

Focus Groups (by Karenjit Clare)

The focus group has long been a staple of qualitative research (Krueger and Casey, 2015). Bringing together a diverse group of people, you can get direct, interactive and immediate feedback about a research topic you have in mind. Online focus groups are real-time and are conducted via video or chat. They're similar to face-to-face engagement, with moderators present to ensure the conversation flow, encouraging participants to build on each other's comments. By contrast, online focus groups have the advantage of being logistically easier (no need to book a room or coordinate travels). Moreover, online focus groups can potentially mitigate the sense of peer pressure, thus allowing participants to speak more freely and incisively. On the other hand, one potential downside of online focus groups is that populations who are technology-challenged will not be able to participate, skewing your sample to people with computer skills and those who own a computer/smartphone. Adding to this, running focus groups digitally may face greater obstacles in avoiding participants getting distracted or disengaged. For these reasons, it is important to think about planning and practicing appropriately. We all learn by doing. Yet, for what is worth, here are some tips on how to exploit the strengths and eschew the downsides of online focus groups...

Set goals. Good qualitative research often begins with clear questions and aims. What insights do you expect to gain through the research? What questions can facilitate thoughtful collective discussion? And, who are the individuals you need to set in dialogue?

Composing Groups. When recruiting participants be mindful of: i. demographics (age, gender, ethnicity, income, education, etc.); ii. level of digital literacy; iii. time availability; iv. geographical/time location. In addition to group composition, remember to consider group size. The larger the group, the harder it will be to manage participation. In my own experience, I've found groups of up to six people can work well. Try to consider how different people might inhibit or reinforce others and how to avoid groupthink, silencing and other forms of relational bias. These are challenges you might have to manage in real-time.

Multimedia Interactions. Online focus groups can combine video, audio and text-messaging (Brown, 2020). This makes for a complex environment with less familiar blindspots and potentials. Video often facilitates engagement through body-language, yet it can also make people feel exposed. Depending on your topic, you might opt for audio-only or text as means providing a sense of partial anonymity easing freer speech. On the other hand, anonymity is not always easy to manage - people may feel freer to behave offensively. It is important to consider what protocol you'd like to follow in such scenarios (e.g. intervening softly, having 'time-outs', allowing participants 'trigger warning' functions, giving private chat warnings, giving public warning, muting microphone or expelling participants). Equally, when thinking on how to integrate text messaging into online focus groups, you may need to consider what challenges and opportunities might emerge. This may be managed as a means of keeping people engaged and sensitive to group feedback. On the other hand, this may be open to harmful or distracting use, particularly where 'private' chats are occurring to which you are not privy. Beyond simultaneous group chats, you may also be able to use sharing short videos, recordings or images to elicit reactions. You may also be creative and use live-polls or live-word clouding to quickstart discussion without singling people out. Think carefully not only of the medium constraints, but also the structure of your sessions and how different activities can interplay to foster focus and flow. It is also key you explore what different platforms and software may enable you to do (or not!); and how accessible these may be for participants. Remember to secure everyone's consent before any recording.

Moderating. The day has come, you planned it all, trialed a focus group with friends and refined a clear structure and multimedia interplay to facilitate discussion. Yet structure can only go so far - a deft moderator is needed to go the extra mile! As you learn-by-doing, remember the"3 E's" of focus group moderation — 'Encourage, Engage, and Elicit'. As in interviews, and perhaps even more so, it is key to make participants feel welcome and at ease, probe their comments and use prompts to kindle deeper reflection. As a moderator, remember also that you will need to frame discussion and communicate clearly and accessibly (no academic jargon!, avoid alienating formalism). You may also need to diffuse tensions or confrontations, unravel groupthink affably, tease out unscripted discussion topics, and encourage empathy and listening among participants. As a moderator, you also need to be ready to assist with technical difficulties, patiently and deftly.

Surveys and Questionnaires (by Alex Cullen)

Surveys have been a staple of geographic research for those concerned with thinking through distributive trends across large populations. Used concurrently with other qualitative methods can be powerful in terms of quantifying or mapping the distribution of identified themes. There is no doubt you've probably taken a survey yourself, so you've already got a fair idea of how they might be delivered. But whether you found the experience laborious or engaging is all about design; and getting this right will ensure you are capturing quality data that will answer your research question. Because there is no such thing as good analysis using bad data!

The goal of using surveys for your research is to acquire information about a specific population; and this is achieved through the administration of a standardised questionnaire across a sample of individuals (Clifford et al 2016). The type of original data that you might be seeking through a survey can be quite broad, including attitudes and opinions, behaviours, experiences, awareness or socio-economic factors that reflect census like information (McLafferty 2010). This wide scope for questioning means surveys can range from asking factual information to opinions. Opinion questions can be incredibly insightful for examining social trends, values and interpretations.

Surveys can be done in person, through mail, over the phone and utilising the internet. The diverse modes of survey delivery bode well for thinking through possibilities of remote methods. Technological advancements in online delivery and access positions the survey as one of the most powerful tools a geographer has for obtaining original data under remote research conditions. Numerous survey platforms exist for online surveys with certain features usually limited by a paywall or number of responses. However, its growing ubiquity doesn't mean we need not be attentive to methodological concerns as there remains a myriad of aspects to take into account.

Online surveys compile responses into a database that can be downloaded as an organised spreadsheet saving time on data entry. But such data still needs to be checked and cleaned before analysis. Online surveys also allow conditional questions based on previous answers or can prompt the user for greater detail based on response. They can be programmed to allow only a range of certain answers or demand question completion before advancing the survey, thereby lessening input error or the submission of incomplete surveys. However, this requires careful construction and testing to make sure the survey works across all answer variants.

The difference between a good survey and a bad one is similarly applicable to their online form. These are often a lack of consideration for: 1) the survey taker's experience; and/or 2) the purpose in answering the research question. The most important task in ensuring you have a good survey is consultation and testing (rinse and repeat!). Consultation with stakeholders or potential participants on survey design is usually immensely beneficial. Consider the time commitments of the survey as this will limit engagement.

Thinking about survey question types

Survey questions can take many forms – Y/N answers, nominal or ordinal multiple choice, Likert scales, multiple selection, numerical and open answers. What kind of answers you allow requires consideration for your modes of data analysis; *as well as the possibilities of survey engagement from those answering it*. For instance, it can be significantly more complicated to compare an open-ended question across a population rather than a selected answer. But listing selective answers can also influence responses or fail to accommodate unexpected issues. In general, the more open the questioning, the richer the specific detail obtained and the easier this is to manage when the sample is small. As sample size or openness of questioning increases, so does the complexity and messiness of the data management/analysis process. A good question should accomplish two things: 1) Measure the intended underlying concept (and not others); 2) Mean the same thing to all respondents.

A good survey:

- Considers the order of the questions.
- Considers the length of the survey and the time need to complete it
- Considers the appropriateness of the answers/data sought.
- Is tested and consulted on through stakeholders
- Considers the form or delivery mode of the survey
- Thinks carefully about the appropriateness of the sample and its size
- Avoids not only jargon, but also imprecision

Decisions around identifying your population size and sample will affect how you think about getting your survey to them. Advertising through email lists, online community forums, direct mail outs or social media are just some of the ways to spread the word about your survey. Be warned though that response rate will likely be much lower than a survey conducted in person.

Remote enumerators

An alternative to the modes delivery above, are collaborating with an external enumerator to collect surveys. This could be particularly helpful if your research seeks on-the-ground information in a place remote and inaccessible from where you are currently located. It is possible to construct online surveys that are downloaded onto smartphones or tablets through apps by the enumerator. These surveys are uploaded into a cloud server on completion. ODK is a free open software that is capable of this and surveys can be built through coding or online software. However, you'll need to spend a lot of time relationship building, consulting and training your collaborator to ensure survey collection proceeds smoothly. This will also require far more testing and piloting than might be initially assumed.

Suggested reading:

Abrams KM, Wang Z, Song YJ, et al. (2015). Data Richness Trade-Offs Between Face-to-Face, Online Audiovisual, and Online Text-Only Focus Groups. *Soc Sci Comput Rev,* 33(1), 80–96.

Browning N., (2020). Online, Synchronous, Video-Based Focus Group Interviews. In Lupton, D. ed. *Doing fieldwork in a pandemic* (crowd-sourced document).

*Bryman, A., (2016). *Social Research Methods*. 5th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. [esp. pp. 490-492 on online interviews].

*Gubrium, J. F., et al., eds. (2012). *The SAGE handbook of interview research: The complexity of the craft*. London: Sage. [esp. Ch. 20 by J. Talmage].

Holton, M., (2017). Geographic Methods: Interviews [online]. *Oxford Bibliographies.*

Irvine, A. (2011). Duration, Dominance and Depth in Telephone and Face-to-Face Interviews: A Comparative Exploration. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 10(3), 202–220.

Keller, R. (2012). *Doing discourse research: an introduction for social scientists*. London: Sage.

Krueger, R. A., and Casey, M. A. (2015). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* 5th ed. London: Sage, 2015.

Maddox, A., (2020). Doing Interviews Online. In Lupton, D. ed. *Doing fieldwork in a pandemic* (crowd-sourced document).

Mattisek, A., (2018). Geographic Methods: Discourse Analysis. In *Oxford Bibliographies.*

McDowell, L., (2009). Interviewing: Fear and Liking in the Field. In DeLyser, D., et al., eds. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative geography*. London: Sage, pp. 156-171.

Vicsek L. (2016). Improving data quality and avoiding pitfalls of online text-based focus groups: A practical guide. *The Qualitative Report,* 21(7), 1232–42.

Useful software:

Interviewing: Zoom, Skype, Microsoft Teams, Webex, GoToMeeting, Discuss.io, GoogleMeeting/ Hangouts.

Focus Groups: Zoom, Microsoft Teams, GoToMeeting, 20/20 Research,

Surveys: Microsoft Forms, OnlineSurveys.ac.uk; SurveyMonkey; SmartSurvey, GoogleForms

Scheduling: Doodle, Calendly, Boomerang Calendar,

Project Management: Slack, Evernote,

Coding: NVivo, ATLAS

Training Resources:

'Data Collection: Online, Telephone and Face-to-face', by F. Conrad, University of Maryland.
https://www.coursera.org/learn/data-collection-methods?specialization=data-collection

Open Datasets:

UK Data Archive: https://www.data-archive.ac.uk/find/
UK Qualitative Data Bank: https://discover.ukdataservice.ac.uk/QualiBank#close (registration required)

2. Discourse Analysis and Coding (by Sam Saville)

These are tools that can be used to analyse a whole range of research materials. Largely they are used on text (transcripts of interviews, focus groups, policy and legal documents, archival materials, field notes, diaries, newspapers, music, social media posts etc). However, given discourse includes all forms of communication and social practice, they can also be used to analyse visual materials (artworks, photographs, advertisements, film, TV, video materials). These two analytical tools often travel in a pair. Coding is a stepping stone and helpful partner to further analysis. It facilitates a close reading of the material and can bridge the gap between research questions and themes, patterns and observations arising from the research materials, ideally providing a more structured, manageable data set to further analyse. However, they are not wedded to each other. Coding can lead to other forms of analysis (thematic or narrative, for example) and, as Augustine (2014) argues, not all qualitative research requires coding.

Coding

This is an iterative process of going through the research material 'with a fine-toothed comb'. We can categorise, group, and make observations on the materials, which will help draw out relevant parts for further analysis, reveal themes and patterns. This is often performed multiple times as we start with research questions and prior reading in mind and add to and adjust the coding framework in the process of interacting with the data (although there are almost infinite ways to go about structuring the coding process!). This produces the need to go back over the material in light of the changes.

Practical coding approaches

Manual coding using annotations, highlighters or similar can be adequate, especially for a small amount of material. It does not rely on learning new software. However, it can lead to 'papers everywhere' states of despair and runs the risks of genuine 'the dog ate it' excuses with few backup options.

Coding software does require a bit of investment in time to learn the basics and relies on continued access to the software. However, it has several benefits including different ways to visualise the results and themes, the ability to search the text (so you don't have to rely so much on remembering who said what!); view coded materials together; and the ability to apply several codes to the same material without it becoming an illegible mess. NVivo and ATLAS are available on a student license http://software.uis.cam.ac.uk/

A middle ground can be found in digital highlighting in word processing packages or creating spreadsheets of extracts and observations. These at least present some search options and back-ups beyond a photocopier.

Suggested reading:

Augustine, S. M. (2014). Living in a Post-Coding World: Analysis as Assemblage. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *20*(6), 747–753.

Saldana, J. (2015). The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers. 3rd ed. London: Sage. Available at: /bibliu.com/app/#/view/books/9781473943582/epub/OEBPS/cover.html#page_1

Discourse analysis

This is where we really try to unravel how discourses in our representations and practices are at work and explain what that might mean. The aim being to understand and describe the writer/ speaker/ producer's viewpoint, and, to understand this within the wider data set. As a brief reminder, things we might look out for and take into account when coding and analysing:

· Context – the social situation/ medium, time, place, the 'text' was produced in and how that might affect what and how it is constructed

· Structures, patterns and phrases, linguistic/ visual/ audio devices in use.

· Claims to truth, persuasion, power relations, knowledge production.

· Absences/ silences – what is missing, left unsaid, being hidden or held back?

· What storylines, actions, discourses are being constructed, demonstrated, refuted, supported?

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

This particular form of discourse analysis is directed at social problems or wrongs, taking a critical stance. The above questions are still important, but in addition the goal is to understand how discourse contributes to a social wrong with a view to improving the situation. In doing CDA attention is given to what barriers there maybe to change, possible ways around these and the relationship between the discourse and the wider social order.

Suggested reading:

Fairclough, N. (2007). Analysing Discourse. London: Taylor & Francis.

Sneider, F. (2013). How to Do a Discourse Analysis [online]. *Politics East Asia*. Available from: http://www.politicseastasia.com/studying/how-to-do-a-discourse-analysis/

3. Media analysis of the press using corpus linguistics and critical discourse analysis (by David Durand-Delacre)

News media play an important role in shaping and responding to wider political discourses. One common tool we have to analyse the news is critical discourse analysis (CDA). Yet, the large and ever-expanding amount of press coverage on any issue poses a challenge to discourse analysis. Since CDA is based on a close reading of texts, it is best used to investigate a small sample of news articles. Indeed, CDA studies rarely exceed 100 articles and are often limited to short time periods or a small range of news outlets. Anything more is too time-consuming to be manageable within most research time frames. As a result of these small sample sizes, one is often left to wonder whether something important might be missing from the analysis. On top of this, CDA is also often criticised as open to arbitrary use, easily biased by the assumptions and political leanings of the analyst. Over the last 20 years, several online press databases have emerged, while new software based on corpus linguistic (CL) techniques allow the analysis of ever larger text-based datasets. These developments offer unprecedented opportunities to overcome the limitations of CDA of the press. However, CL also has its own drawbacks. Its techniques, whether they quantify elements of the corpus or highlight particular snippets of text, are reductive by necessity. Words quantified and out of context are just pieces in a large puzzle. They can never fully capture the nuances of a text. Nor can they tell you much about the motivations of writers and the wider arguments they make, so it's easy to jump to the wrong conclusions on the basis of CL alone. It is therefore necessary to combine CL with a CDA-based reading of a sample of texts, leading to more ambitious and refined analyses. This short primer presents CL techniques, and how to combine them with CDA effectively.

1. Define clear objectives, and review them regularly

It is easy to get disoriented when doing corpus linguistic analysis. It involves masses of data, a whole range of software options, and tons of different methods. Because of this, it's important to define your objectives early and clearly. Set yourself some questions or hypotheses and return to them regularly. At later stages, ask yourself whether they still feel valid (change them if not) and if what you're doing is building towards valuable answers.

2. Design your corpus carefully.

General principles

When analysing the press, you'll want to design and build your own corpus. The objective is to include the texts that are required to answer your questions and no more. You'll probably want to start by defining what sorts of outlets to include (Broadsheets? Tabloids? Both? What about specialist publications?) as well as the time period you need to cover. Once you've established these general criteria, there are three main principles to consider when putting together your corpus: size, balance, and representativeness (see Evans, n.d. for guidance). The objective is to put together a corpus of manageable size, the results of which can reasonably be generalised. You'll also want to make sure to convert your text into a format that is readable by your software of choice

Database selection

In practice, this requires you to choose the appropriate database and the right software to conduct your analysis. Cambridge University has a list of online news databases on its Database A-Z. A lot of these are highly specific. The main generalist databases are:

- Europresse: international sources
- Factiva: international sources
- LexisNexis News, mainly for UK sources.
- World Newspaper Archive: African, Latin American and South Asian sources

Software selection

When it comes to choosing software, you'll have a lot of options. Each software comes with different capabilities and costs. Kaur and Chopra (2016) provide a helpful and relatively comprehensive overview in table form. The most commonly used software for CL+CDA mixed methods are AntConc, Wordsmith Tools and TXM. I personally find that TXM suits my needs best. It is free, open source, designed for academic use, and allows a wide range of analyses while having a relatively simple interface. I would start with those but do download a few and play around with them before settling on the one you feel most comfortable with.

Dataset design and preparation.

Once you've selected your database, think through your keyword search carefully. Learn and use the full range of advanced search options. Look for specific phrases. Use operators such as AND/OR/NOT to make sure you're including or excluding the right terms. Most databases will also allow you to search for words at a maximum distance from each other. A carefully prepared search takes time to finalise, so try different things and compare results each time to perfect it. Once you've done your best on the search front, you'll want to clean your database. Read the titles and by-lines to check for off-topic entries. Get rid of duplicates. Remove excessively short articles (say, those under 300 words). If possible, exclude irrelevant text within the articles as well. For example, you may want to remove author email addresses, or author profiles. This is all going to be quite time-consuming, but it's better to invest time early on than to start from scratch after realising half your corpus is off-topic or missing crucial elements.

3. Analyse your corpus

CL analysis is a highly iterative process. As you get used to the software and start to form ideas and hypotheses about your corpus, you'll want to test will take some time playing around with different tools, statistics and queries. It's easy to get carried away and forget what you're looking for, so turn back to your questions regularly, amend them if need be, and start again. It's also good practice to start with the simplest tools before moving on to more complex analyses.

Corpus description

Start by describing your corpus. How many articles is it composed of? How many words in total? And on average, per article? What time period does the corpus cover? How does the number of articles evolve over time? What outlets are the articles published in? Once you know these things, you might start to form hypotheses about differences between outlets (perhaps tabloids and broadsheets) that might be worth investigating. You may also seek out information about events that drive cycles of press attention (which more careful CDA can tell you about).

Word frequencies

At root, CL is about counting words. While that may seem a bit simplistic, how often words appear can be highly revealing. Word frequencies are most interesting once you start to break them down. You might be looking for how often variations on a specific phrase occur (e.g. how often writers use “climate crisis” vs. “climate change” vs. “global warming”). You can break this down further by outlet type, or over time (e.g. Do tabloids use one phrase more than another? When was each phrase most popular?). Use these frequencies to formulate new questions and hypotheses to test.

Co-occurrence analysis

Co-occurrence analysis, aka. colocation analysis, is about word associations. It will tell you which words often appear near your search terms. The underlying theory under co-occurrence analysis is called *semantic prosody*. This is the idea that meaning of words is heavily influenced by their use in context. The more often two words occur together, the more their meaning becomes interlinked. Often collocates can carry positive or negative implications which are important from a CDA standpoint. To illustrate this concept, Gabrielatos and Baker (2008) tell us that “for example, if illegal and immigrant are often paired as collocates, we may be primed to think of one concept even when the other is not present” (p.10-11).

Concordance analysis *(for more guidance, refer to Sinclair 2003, Tribble 2010)*

Concordance analysis takes co-occurrence analysis a step further by displaying the search term in a Key Word In Context (KWIC) table. These tables show you search terms with a set number of words on either side, so that all (or more often, a random sample) instances can be analysed. This sort of analysis is meant to bring nuance to co-occurrence analysis. You might find, for example, that in some cases the phrase ‘illegal immigrant’ is being critiqued by the author, or that it is often associated with numbers, or with particular action verbs, or specific places, and so on. Concordance analysis is often full of surprises, so be prepared to have your assumptions challenged.

Sample for CDA

One way of sampling articles from a large corpus so that they can be more carefully analysed using CDA techniques is simply to operate a random selection, perhaps by year, or by outlet type. However, the methods just described also offer opportunity for more deliberate, targeted sampling. For example, you may want to select articles that feature specific keywords. Or you may want to investigate the peaks in coverage to learn what drives so much attention.

Iterate

Going through this process once will likely lead you with more questions than answers. This is the time to pause and reflect on your research questions to improve them, then start again. Getting to know a corpus takes time, so you will need to go through multiple iterations before the analysis feels final.

Suggested readings

On Corpus Linguistics (with examples about press discourses on migration)

Anthony, L., 2013. A critical look at software tools in corpus linguistics. Linguistic Research 30, 141–161. https://doi.org/10/gfthgg

Baker, P., Gabrielatos, C., Khosravinik, M., Krzyżanowski, M., McEnery, T., Wodak, R., 2008. A useful methodological synergy? Combining critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics to examine discourses of refugees and asylum seekers in the UK press. Discourse & Society 19, 273–306. https://doi.org/10/bs9qrx

Evans, D., n.d. Unit 2: Compiling a corpus. University of Birmingham, Centre for Corpus Research [Online Document] https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/research/activity/corpus/publications/introduction-corpus-investigative-techniques.aspx

Gabrielatos, C., Baker, P., 2008. Fleeing, Sneaking, Flooding: A Corpus Analysis of Discursive Constructions of Refugees and Asylum Seekers in the UK Press, 1996-2005. Journal of English Linguistics 36, 5–38. https://doi.org/10/c2msp9

O'Doherty, K., Lecouteur, A., 2007. "Asylum seekers", "boat people" and "illegal immigrants": Social categorisation in the media. Australian Journal of Psychology 59, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1080/00049530600941685

O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M. (Eds.), 2010. The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics. Routledge.

Sinclair, J.M., 2003. Reading concordances: an introduction. Pearson/Longman, London and New York.

Taylor, C., 2014. Investigating the representation of migrants in the UK and Italian press: A cross-linguistic corpus-assisted discourse analysis. International Journal of Corpus Linguistics 19, 368–400. https://doi.org/10/gf4jdv

On discourse analysis of the press (with examples about press discourses on climate change)

Boykoff, M.T., 2008. The cultural politics of climate change discourse in UK tabloids. Political Geography 27, 549–569. https://doi.org/10/d9cqzm

Carvalho, A., 2008. Media(ted) Discourse and Society. Journalism Studies 9, 161–177. https://doi.org/10/bm76j6

Carvalho, A., 2007. Ideological cultures and media discourses on scientific knowledge: re-reading news on climate change. Public Understanding of Science, 16, 223–243. https://doi.org/10/gfv4z5

van Dijk, T.A., 1991. The Interdisciplinary study of news as discourse, in: Jensen, K.B., Jankowski, N. (Eds.), A Handbook of Qualitative Methodologies for Mass Communication Research. Routledge, London ; New York

Software lists

Kaur, A., Chopra, D., 2016. Comparison of text mining tools, in: 2016 5th International Conference on Reliability, Infocom Technologies and Optimization (Trends and Future Directions) (ICRITO). Presented at the 2016 5th International Conference on Reliability, Infocom Technologies and Optimization (Trends and Future Directions) (ICRITO), pp. 186–192. https://doi.org/10/gf44bp

4. **Participatory, Mobile and Creative Methods (by Sam Saville)**

Although many of these techniques have traditionally been used in face-to-face settings, some can transpose easily online and others can be adapted, here are just a few ideas but there is further scope for getting creative. As ever, it is important to make sure what you choose to do can meaningfully contribute to answering the research questions you are addressing. It is sometimes worth remembering that some 'traditional' methods are popular for good reasons (Merriman 2014). Another important consideration is the time and effort burdens for potential participants and being clear with this at the recruitment and consent stages. However, these methods can also make taking part in research fun and engaging.

Diaries

If you are interested in everyday life experiences and practice, asking participants to keep a diary with a particular focus, such as shopping habits or social media use, can be a useful research method. Setting up this kind of activity ensuring that participants understand what and how you would like them to record their observations is important. This does not need to be limited to text, but could include or be based around photography, video or audio recordings, depending on the research questions and topic. In terms of organising this online, once you have recruited participants, you could hold a conference call, create a supporting handout or proforma, set up an online depository and then follow up with interviews to discuss their entries.

Walking (and other travelling) interviews

Moving along *with* participants is one way to investigate topics related to mobilities in particular, but can also be relevant for mental-mapping and explorations of experiencing space and place in-situ. Interviewing on the move can enable participants to point out particular routes, places and practices. Physical distancing and travel restrictions in a pandemic/ post-pandemic world may restrain this kind of research, however, there are still possibilities. Asking participants to record audio or video whilst they are on the move is one option (with appropriate safety precautions!), another is the use of GPS to create maps that can be annotated and discussed.

Object/ photo elicitation

The role of images and material objects in our lives and our relationship to our environment can be profound. If you are interested in exploring these relationships, one option is to bring objects and images directly into your research methods. You could choose to select and show participants objects and/or images and garner responses and base interview or focus group discussions around this. Or, you might ask participants to select their own objects or take their own photographs to the conversation. Using objects, photographs and maps can be particularly helpful in research that involves memories and reminiscence. Taking this online, video calls and shared-screens could facilitate discussing objects and images well, though some aspects of materiality will be lost.

Creative methods

Similarly, working through topics via means of creative process, such as drawing, collaging, sculpting, model-making and scenario planning can be very productive. Setting up such research at a distance could be challenging, and not all activities will translate due to resource constraints. Often these activities work well in a group situation, but as you have probably found in lock-down life, video calls can provide enough of a social setting. Again, it is usually a good idea to have a clear introduction to the activity, a comfortable amount of time for the activity itself (you may want to consider whether this will be 'live' and on camera and how best to create an encouraging online environment to support the session) and time for a follow-up discussion that allows participants to feedback and explain their creations.

Suggested Readings:

Brown, K., and J. Spinney., (2010). Catching a glimpse: the value of video in evoking, understanding and representing the practice of cycling. In: B. Fincham et al. *Mobile methodologies*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 130–151.

Dowling, R., Lloyd, K., and Suchet-Pearson, S., (2016). Qualitative methods 1: Enriching the interview. *Progress in Human Geography*, 40(5), 679–686.

Garrett, B. L., (2010)., Videographic geographies: using digital video for geographic research. *Progress in Human Geography*, 35(4), 521–541.

Hawkins, H., (2015). Creative geographic methods: Knowing, representing, intervening. On composing place and page. *Cultural Geographies,* 22(2), 247-268.

Jones, P., et. al., (2008). Exploring Space and Place With Walking Interviews. *Journal of Research Practice*, *4*(2), 1-9.

Latham, A., (2003). Research, performance, and doing human geography: Some reflections on the diary-photograph, diary-interview method. *Environment and Planning A*, 35(11), 1993–2017.

Lorimer, J., (2010). Moving image methodologies for more-than-human geographies. *Cultural Geographies*, *17*(2), 237–258.

Merriman, P., (2014). Rethinking mobile methods. *Mobilities*, *9*(2), 167–187.

Spinney, J., (2011). A chance to catch a breath: using mobile video methodology in cycling research. *Mobilities,* 6(2), 161–182.

Woodward, S., (2019). *Material methods: researching and thinking with things*. London: Sage.

5. Using Digital Archives: Collections, Sources and Methods.

(by António Ferraz de Oliveira, David Beckingham, Phil Howell)

As Alan H. Baker once wrote, ‘the dead don’t answer questionnaires’ (1997). By contrast to many qualitative methods, historical research has less recourse to interactive approaches where research ‘subjects’ can be more conscious participants. This can also make it difficult to imagine and empathize with past contexts. Yet, where it suffers these limitations, archival research has its own forms of purchase. First, perhaps, is that observation at broader spans of time is more easily available. Through such a gaze, change and continuity can appear more starkly. Second, archival research offers a treasure trove of different kinds of documents, with various kinds of witnessing, at times speaking more candidly and freely than their contemporary circumstances allowed.

The world of archives is so vast it can seem endless. Yet even as collections and records abound, this world can also feel quite fragmentary. Archives often offer clues and pieces to what were much larger and partially lost stories. This can feel frustrating at times, but it is inevitable and places into stark contrast the cares of interpretation and imagination which all historical writing must have. Like a strange posthumous detective, you must assemble facts from fragmentary records and engineer a plausible set of timelines, relations and motivations at work in your story. In this, your first task is to suspect the sites of evidence...How was an archive collected? How was it organized? What was made absent or marginal? After this, you must seek to understand what kind of evidence is at hand. What kinds of documents are in the archive? What were they for? Were they shaped by immediate institutional or social contexts? Were they constrained by specific documentary norms? Across these questions, it may prove useful to be mindful of *who* did what, and whether testimony on their conduct and motivations is available. Having investigated the conditions of archival curation and documentary forms and contexts, you finally take out your Sherlockian magnifying glass. Time to inspect and sift through the finer details of texts. ‘Elementary, dear Watson?’ Not so, un/fortunately.

Reams have been written on the challenging art of interpreting historical sources. For centuries, authors have compiled philosophical theories and practical advice on how to find meaning in texts (sometimes under the titles of ‘hermeneutics’ and ‘source-criticism’).[1] For now, let’s sidestep that rich but complex literature and think practically about three ways of placing texts under scrutiny. The first would be to look for ‘facts’, the second to look for ‘motives’ and the third to look for ‘traces’. In the first vein, donning your detective persona, you could scour through a number of past records to reconstruct a shared timeline, with an eye to the inconsistencies and differences between sources. In the second vein, you could approach influential accounts and ask yourself what their writers were hoping to achieve. Who were they writing for? What controversies or imaginations were they seeking to shape? What forms of action did they seek to legitimize? What was their positionality? Rather than concerning oneself about the ‘reliability’ of a source, here the idea is to see writing as an interested social action. In a third vein, you could approach sources with an eye for ‘traces’ of extra-textual worlds. How do records provide unwitting pathways to reconstruct past social, cultural and non-human practices? How can the apparently peripheral presence of gender practices, animal relations, environmental change or everyday rituals be recovered? Here, the questions of reliability of evidence or authorial action are displaced by a broader effort to recover socio-cultural practices beyond the forms of knowledge privileged by much of the written record. Facts, motives and traces. These three approaches can be combined more or less so, depending on what edge you want to give to your work. Let’s think through an imaginary example.

Imagine you are trying to study the historical geographies of the Japanese smallpox epidemic of 735-737 AD. In the first vein (i.e. ‘looking for facts’), you want to establish how far afield the epidemic spread. Secondary literature tells you the plague was first identified at the city of Dazaifu and later progressed to Nara and central Honshu. At this stage the record goes fuzzy, it seems the plague ‘roamed the land’ but it isn’t clear how many villages and towns were affected and when. Problem at hand, you set out to re-examine records to try to create a plausible map of how the epidemic progressed. In the second vein (i.e. ‘looking for motives’), you become intrigued by the *Shoku Nihongi*, the main historical account of this plague, commissioned by the imperial court. Reading this work, you become fascinated with how chronicling of the plague was shaped by political and religious motives, not least in the ways in which it narrated confrontations with the *Hōsōshins* (i.e. plague demons). Betwixt the fantastical elements at play, your close reading begins to draw out how the *Shoku Nihongi* contains a series of justifications

[1] ‘Source-criticism’ by and large has focused on understanding what documentary conventions underwrite different sources and how reliable or not different accounts may be (e.g. fable or fact?). ‘Hermeneutics’, by contrast, has focused more philosophically on the issue of how to approach the meaning and experience implicit in texts (how can we know what was/is meant?).

for how political rule ought to be improved. In a third vein (i.e. 'looking for traces'), you become interested in how the epidemic affected animal relations. Reading the *Shoku Nihongi,* what interests you are all the hints of how practices of husbandry, slaughtering and domestic companionship were shifting. Though such shifts appear through the competing ritual languages of Shintoism and Buddishim with respect to sentient creatures, what interests you is how animal relations might have been transforming in *practice*, beyond the written records of spiritual imaginations. Here in short, is how three source approaches might feed substantially distinct projects, speaking to the same context with different edges.

'All well and good', you might think, 'but what about the constraints of doing this work digitally?'. Quite right. A rich debate has emerged on this, at times under the heading of the 'digital humanities' (see Gardiner and Musto, 2015). From where we stand, the first thing to say is that all of the above advice continues to apply - being mindful of archival curation, source norms and interpretative techniques remains critical. Yet, unavoidably, digital archival research is substantially different from former iterations. Its first striking difference is that the spatial separateness and embodied order of 'the archive' disappears. This 'disappearance' is far from inconsequential as it troubles established choreographies of archival research. The material affect of being in the archive, the precious relations with teams of archivists, and the chance encounters of curated folders seem to vanish (see Steedman, 2001). To many researchers, this displacement seems a dangerous disruption of the embodied cultures of historical research. By contrast, some can feel that digital archives struggle to offer a sense of the fragmentary, frail and curated character of records, as well as a sense of the tentativeness of archival interpretation. Indeed, things seem to be made worse by the ways in which digital media are often associated with unboundness, transparency and systemic coherence. When doing digital archival research then, the first care is to be skeptical of these imaginary cyber-qualities. Digital archives are situated experiments, often encompassing less materials and less curatorial care than many of their 'physical' counterparts (though this may come change). In these circumstances, it is key for researchers to be aware of these limitations (i.e. what significant materials might not have been accessed) and to be careful in curating their own range of documents (i.e. have a clear map of what you are accessing and why, how are different materials related/qualified).

Yet, to be fair, there is more to digital archives than reasons for skepticism. Indeed, there is much that justifies enthusiasm. Digital archival research offers new forms of *operability* that have the potential to revolutionize historicist research (see Guldi and Armitage, 2014, Ch. 4; Jordanova, 2019, Ch. 9; Miligan, 2019, Gardiner and Musto, 2015). Whilst much here is still experimental, there are at least four exciting and more established forms of operability we can discuss here. The first, and simplest, concerns the effects of text searchability on browsing, document selection and text analysis. Long live CTRL-F! Jests aside, though text searchability may seem a time-saving panacea, it remains important to be aware of its potential biases (see Putnam, 2016). These may include the exclusion of non-text-searchable documents from analysis and induce rushed or fragmentary forms of reading, to name two exemplary problems. A second new form of operability derives from an ease to curate your personal archive through software such as Evernote or Zotero. Building these may help you form your own frames of engagement and interpretative experiments. In building your own research ‘archive’, you may also be aided by paying attention to the metadata information often offering context to each document. Metadata also has the interesting potential to help you network different digital archives beyond a given folder or word-search. A third exciting new form of operability stems from the ability to use text recognition or oral transcription tools to facilitate use of non-text-searchable documents. Obstacles here may stem primarily from the need to have a steep technical learning curve and for having files in the appropriate formats for advanced software such as Transkribus or Akustyk. Easier software for Optical Character Recognition (i.e. transcribing text from an image file) may at times seem more straightforward, but even here it is important to acknowledge transcription is far from automated and is still time-consuming, potentially eating into the time available for analyses. Fourth and last, are the numerous new tools to visualize historical data, ranging from representing term-frequency, timelines, maps or networks. This enables the identification of patterns hitherto unseen, opening up potentially interesting problems. In this wide world of operability, you may find Paper Machines to be helpful software if you want to visualize patterns related to a textual collection in Zotero. For more advanced forms of visualisation be wary of the fact that representation is not an argument and always relies on an aggregation of sources whose context must be understood (c.f. Johanna Drucker’s *Digital Humanities 101*). If you are employing GIS, you may find Crampton (2011) to be a helpful introduction.

Suggested Reading:

Abrams, L., (2016). *Oral history theory.* Abingdon: Routledge.

Baker, A., (1997). "The dead don't answer questionnaires": Researching and writing historical geography. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education* 21(2), 231-243.

Benson, E., (2011). Animal writes: historiography, disciplinarity and the animal trace. In L. Kalof and G. M. Montgomery, eds., *Making animal meaning*. Ann Arbor: Michigan State University Press. pp. 3-16. Available from: https://repository.upenn.edu/hss_papers/43/

Brundage, A., (2017). *Going to the sources: A guide to historical research and writing*. 6th ed. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.

*Craggs, R., (2016). Historical and archival research. In: Clifford et al. eds. *Key methods in geography*. London: Sage. pp. 111-128.

Crampton, J. W., (2011). *Mapping: A critical introduction to cartography and GIS*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

*Crowson, A. (2018). Geographic Methods: Archival Research. *Oxford Bibliographies*.

*Dobson, M., and B. Ziemann, eds. (2008). *Reading primary sources: the interpretation of texts from nineteenth and twentieth century history*. Abingdon: Routledge.

*Faire, L., and S. Gunn, eds. (2016). *Research methods for history*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

*Gardiner, E., and R. G. Musto., (2015). *The digital humanities: A primer for students and scholars*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Guldi, J., and D. Armitage., (2014). *The History Manifesto*. Cambridge University Press.

Harrington, A., (2001). Dilthey, empathy and *verstehen*: a contemporary reappraisal. *European Journal of Social Theory,* 4(3), 311-329.

Howell, M. C., and W. Prevenier., (2001). *From reliable sources: An introduction to historical methods*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Jockers, M. L., (2013). *Macroanalysis: Digital methods and literary history*. Springfield: University of Illinois Press.

*Jordanova, L., (2019). *History in practice*. 3rd ed. London: Bloomsbury, 2019.

Lambert, P., and P. Schofield, eds. (2004). *Making history: an introduction to the history and practices of a discipline*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Langlois, C. V., and C. Seignobos, trans. Y. Powell., ([1906] 2019) *Introduction to the study of history*. Abingdon: Routledge.

MacNeil, H., and T. Eastwood, eds., (2017). *Currents of archival thinking*. 2d ed. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO.

Milligan, I., (2019). *History in the age of abundance?: how the web is transforming historical research*. Chicago: McGill-Queen's University Press.

Mills, S., (2013). Cultural–Historical Geographies of the Archive: Fragments, Objects and Ghosts. *Geography Compass,* 7(10), 701–713.

Moore, F., (2010). Tales from the archive: methodological and ethical Issues in historical geography research. *Area,* 42(3) (2010): 262–270.

Putnam, L., (2016). The transnational and the text-searchable: digitized sources and the shadows they cast. *The American Historical Review,* 121(2), 377-402.

Schwartz, J. M., and T. Cook, (2002). Archives, records, and power: the making of modern memory. *Archival Science,* 2(1), 1–19.

Steedman, C., (2001). Dust: The archive and cultural history. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

*Stoler, A. L., (2009). Along the Archival Grain: Epistemic Anxieties and Colonial Common Sense. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

See also articles in *Historical Methods*, *Journal of Historical Geography*, *History Compass*, *Past and Present*;

Useful Software:

Zotero (citation management) - https://www.zotero.org/

Paper Machines (Zotero Plug-In for Visualisation) **-** http://papermachines.org/about/

Evernote (project-management) - https://evernote.com/

Transkribus (document recognition/transcription) - https://transkribus.eu/Transkribus/

Akustyk (Praat Plug-In for Oral Transcription) - https://sourceforge.net/projects/akustyk/

For more on more advanced digital humanities tools see:

Cambridge Digital Humanities - https://www.cdh.cam.ac.uk/

Digital History, University of Washington - guides.lib.uw.edu/c.php?g=341991&p=2300129

Digital Humanities 101, by Johanna Drucker and David Kim, UCLA - dh101.humanities.ucla.edu/

Digital Libraries and Archives:

Internet Archive Project - https://archive.org – this open access digital archive assembles materials digitized by American, Indian and European public institutions.

Google Books - https://googlebooks.com – If you run advanced searches with 'full view only' selected, there are many materials open free of cost. Another way to start is to use Google ngram viewer, which will graph the incidence of a particular word or phrase in digitised google books over time. By refining your search you can click on the source books and articles themselves. See https://books.google.com/ngrams

Radical Open Access - http://radicaloa.disruptivemedia.org.uk/

UK National Archives – http://www.archivesdirect.amdigital.co.uk/

See also: https://archiveshub.jisc.ac.uk/discoveringarchivesonline/

Institute of Historical Research (UK) - Online Resources https://www.history.ac.uk/library/collections/online-resources

UK Parliamentary Papers - contemporary papers are available via Hansard: https://hansard.parliament.uk; historic parliamentary papers are available on ProQuest; log in through the institutional gateway: https://parlipapers.proquest.com/parlipapers?product=parlipapers

*National Library of Scotland – https://www.nls.uk/collections/digital-collections

*French National Library - https://gallica.bnf.fr – French language skills are not essential, as there are lots of maps and photographs in this collection of over 6 million items.

Francophone Digital Humanities Project -//guides.uflib.ufl.edu/c.php?g=592869&p=4100264.

*Europeana – https://www.europeana.eu/en

Digital Public Library of America - https://dp.la/.

*Library of Congress, U.S.A. – https://www.loc.gov/collections/.

New York Public Library – https://digitalcollections.nypl.org/.

US National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) - links to freely available records can be found here - https://www.archives.gov/research/databases#subscription - and https://aad.archives.gov/aad/

ArchiveGrid [digital] - https://researchworks.oclc.org/archivegrid/?q=has_links%3A1&p=1&ft=1

Curated Databases

Cambridge Databases - http://libguides.cam.ac.uk/az.php – a multitude of online resources!

History@Cam Resources List: www.hist.cam.ac.uk/seeley-library/online-resources/e-resources

British Library digital collection – https://www.bl.uk/catalogues-and-collections/digital-collections and//blogs.bl.uk/thenewsroom/2020/04/accessing-news-content-during-the-temporary-closure.html (these might require you be a registered reader).

UK Royal Society – https://royalsociety.org/collections/digital-resources/ - scientific books and manuscripts, as well as images and photographs and the Society's *Philosophical Transactions*.

Slave Societies Digital Archive - *https://www.slavesocieties.org/* - over 700,000 images dating from the sixteenth through twentieth centuries, documenting the lives of an estimated four to six million individuals in slave societies.

International Institute of Social History - https://iisg.amsterdam/en - digital archives and datasets relating to European social history and political activism.

Charles Booth's London – https://booth.lse.ac.uk/ - Victorian poverty maps and notebooks.

Newspaper Collections:

Start here: http://libguides.cam.ac.uk/az.php and under 'All database types' select 'Newspapers, news sites'.

You can also consult databases such as Factiva; Historical Newspapers; British Periodicals; Mass Observation (the pioneering British social survey from the early 20th century onwards); the Oxford Dictionary of National Biography; and. Be attentive to descriptions of each database. Excellent sources for UK illustrative material, before this becomes routine in all newspapers, are *The Illustrated London News* (1842-1971), and *The Graphic* (1869-1932), and, in the *Picture Post* (1938-57).

See also: https://www.britishnewspaperarchive.co.uk/. (accessible for a small fee)

Welsh newspapers online: https://newspapers.library.wales

University libraries and Museums (special collections)

History@Cam:/seeley-library/online-resources/libraries-archives-museums-galleries and…

Scott Polar Research Institute's 'Freeze Frame' https://www.freezeframe.ac.uk/home/home

UCL digital collections https://www.ucl.ac.uk/library/digital-collections

UCLA digital collections - http://digital2.library.ucla.edu/

USC digital collections: http://digitallibrary.usc.edu/cdm/collections

Oral History

BL 'Sounds' Oral History - https://sounds.bl.uk/Oral-history

Oral History Society - https://www.ohs.org.uk/advice/weblinks/

Connected Histories - https://www.connectedhistories.org/

Polar Oral Histories - https://library.osu.edu/polararchives/oral-histories

For Visual and Quantitative databases see entries below.

6. Using Open Data and Statistics (by Alice Reid)

There is a wealth of data available which can be used for quantitative and spatial analysis. This can be accessed from a number of sources, including *national statistics agencies*, *data repositories*, and *data collections*. These contain an enormous range of data ranging from censuses and large sample surveys to data collected for focussed projects. Data may be available at national, sub-national (sometimes down to very fine spatial resolutions) and even sometimes individual levels. Some *large scale comparative surveys* distribute data via other sites (eg Eurostat), others have their own websites. *GIS* boundary and geospatial data are generally easily available to enable mapping for illustrative purposes, or for spatial statistical analysis.

National Statistics Agencies

UK: The Office for National Statistics (https://www.ons.gov.uk/) produces produces the UK's official statistics. Its website is not easy to navigate, but fortunately most data are available via Nomis - https://www.nomisweb.co.uk/. This website advertises itself as providing ONS statistics about the UK labour market, but also provides detailed data at small spatial levels from the 2001 and 2011 censuses (including data on health, migration, ethnicity) and civil registration (births, deaths, marriages, divorces etc). If what you want (eg longer time series) is not on nomis, it is worth exploring the ONS website.

Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own independent statistical bodies (https://www.nrscotland.gov.uk/ and https://www.nisra.gov.uk/), although much of their data are also available at nomis.

UK Public Health Profiles - https://fingertips.phe.org.uk/. This website provides data collected by Public Health England. It gives detailed profiles covering a variety of indicators of health and well-being for small areas such as local authorities, and also broader comparative analyses.

UK election results for small areas are found here:
https://www.electoralcommission.org.uk/who-we-are-and-what-we-do/elections-and-referendums/past-elections-and-referendums

Other countries have equivalents (often in English), some examples include:

Denmark: https://www.statbank.dk/

Germany: https://www.destatis.de/EN/

India – Open Government Data Platform India (OGD) https://data.gov.in/

Eurostat - https://data.europa.eu/euodp/en/data/. Eurostat is the statistical office of the European Union, responsible for publishing high-quality Europe-wide statistics and indicators that enable comparisons between countries and regions. Some of these statistics are based on data collected by individual national statistical agencies, and some is from cross-national surveys.

Data Repositories

Data repositories collect data created by research projects and make them freely available with high quality documentation, to the academic community, including students. In the UK the main data repository is the UK Data Service, but note that it does not just contain data relating to the UK, but also many cross-national data sources, and international data collection funded by UK Research Councils. It also contains many historical, mixed methods and qualitative data sources. UK Data Service - https://ukdataservice.ac.uk/get-data/key-data

Data Collections

Data collections are provided by bodies which do not collect data themselves, but pull together data collected by local and national sources to allow comparison. It is good practice to always check the original sources of the data. Some examples include:

United Nations Data - http://data.un.org/

UN Environment Programme - https://www.unep-wcmc.org/resources-and-data

WHO World Health Survey - https://www.who.int/healthinfo/survey/en/

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) - https://data.oecd.org/ - Economic and social statistics for a range of countries.

WorldBank (WB) - https://data.worldbank.org/ - country/indicator economics open data; see also the WB's annual reports, project reports or other publications.

Our World in Data - https://ourworldindata.org/ - Open access social data and accompanying essays/commentaries.

Gapminder - https://www.gapminder.org/data/

IPUMS provides international micro-census data for a wide range of countries and time periods. It also provides a range of health data from surveys such as DHS (see below), time use data and other sources - https://ipums.org/

Human Mortality Database - https://www.mortality.org/ - detailed mortality data series for a wide range of countries.

Human Fertility Database - https://www.humanfertility.org/ - detailed fertility data series for a wide range of different countries.

International comparative surveys

Demographic and Health Surveys: https://dhsprogram.com/Data/

International Social Survey Programme: http://w.issp.org/menu-top/home/

World Health Organization Surveys: Https://www.who.int/healthinfo/survey/en/

World Values Survey: http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs.jsp

Quantitative historical data

The UKDS contains a number of historic datasets, but some further examples with downloadable data are available here:

Historic Hospital Admission Records Project (HHARP)–http://hharp.org/

Integrated Census Microdata (1851-1911):

Individual data download: https://icem.data-archive.ac.uk/

Generate summary statistics: http://icem-nesstar.data-archive.ac.uk/

Populations Past: Atlas of Victorian and Edwardian Population: https://www.populationspast.org/

GIS data

Edina provides a range of contemporary and historic map sheets & geospatial data: https://digimap.edina.ac.uk/

The UK data service provides boundary data for current boundaries and those in the recent past: https://borders.ukdataservice.ac.uk/

Vision of Britain provides historic boundary data: http://www.visionofbritain.org.uk/data/

Training resources:

UKDS webinar recording: 'Dissertation projects: Introduction to secondary analysis for qualitative and quantitative data'? http://ow.ly/CNWx50zVzBc

The National Centre for Research Methods (NCRM) provides a range of training and information resources: https://www.ncrm.ac.uk/resources/online/

Suggested Readings:

Withers, S. D., (2016) Quantitative Methods in Human Geography. *Oxford Bibliographies.*

Rogerson, P., (2001). *Statistical Methods for Geography: A Student's Guide*. London: Sage.

Miller, J. E., (2015). *The Chicago Guide to Writing about Numbers*. 2nd ed. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Miller, J. E., (2013). *The Chicago Guide to Writing about Multivariate Analysis.* 2nd ed. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Spiegelhalter, D., (2019). *The art of statistics: Learning from data*. UK: Pelican.

Rafferty, S., Smallman-Raynor, M., and Cliff, A. D., (2018). Variola minor in England and Wales: the geographical course of a smallpox epidemic and the impediments to effective disease control, 1920–1935. *Journal of Historical Geography*, 59, 2-14. [a sample paper of a quantitative study which started life as an undergraduate dissertation]

Dorling, D., and S. Gietel-Basten, (2018). *Why demography matters*. London: Polity.

For some critical reflection on the hazardous history of demographic analysis and policy see:

Coole, D., (2018). *Should we control world population?*. London: Polity, 2018.

Bashford, A., (2014). *Global population: history, geopolitics, and life on earth*. New York: Columbia University Press.

7. **Analysing policy and legislative documents** (by Alex Jeffrey and Francesca Moore)

Legal and policy documents can provide a valuable set of insights for a wide range of geographical research. We don't look to these documents as necessarily sources of information (though they can, of course, be very helpful in this regard), but rather as sites where meanings concernings spatial relationships, claims and procedures are produced. So rather than thinking of these materials as accessories to other more substantive practices of data collection it is also sensible -- for certain projects -- to think of them as a focal point for analysis. There are some helpful resources both earlier in this document and in the reading list below for thinking through processes of critical discourse analysis and I would encourage those that are interested to carefully engage with this material. I think one of the very distinctive aspects of both policy and legal texts in this regard is their mutability -- they are often updated or superseded while older versions remain available. This gives the reader a useful insight into the subtle changes in language or phrasing that is directed towards new approaches to governing society or shaping behaviour. Look, for instance, at the example of the UK Public Order Act 1986 which has -- to date -- had twenty four amendments since it was placed on the statute book: http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1986/64

When confronting a text for analysis there are a set of questions that could help to structure your engagement:

Context: What are the political and legal factors that have produced this legal text? Are there specific events or processes that must be appreciated in order to understand the context? How are changing political/social/cultural context reflected in changing iterations of the text?

Method: How have you analysed your text: is this a content analysis that focuses on the use of certain phrases or words, or a critical discourse analysis that looks to the linguistic and extra-lingual mechanisms that underpin the communication of ideas? What themes or codes have you used to study the language and meaning contained in the text? Have you innovated in your analysis by formulating your own methodological strategy?

Data analysis and discussion: What are the key themes that emerge from the policy or legal text? What are the spaces, scales or abstractions used to produce the text? How are established geographical categories endorsed or challenged through the text? Is there a specific aspect of the text you are seeking to critically analyse?

Reflection: What substantive conclusions can be drawn from the analysis? How does this contribute to our understanding of the political or legal issues underpinning the text?

International governments and organisations:

Commonwealth Secretariat – https://www.thecommonwealth-ilibrary.org/

European Union: /europa.eu/european-union/documents-publications/libraries-archives_en guide to repositories of institutions (including likes of European Central Bank) and types of materials.

India National Archives (historical) – www.abhilekh-patal.in/jspui/digitized-collections including materials on health, education, and politics.

League of Nations (historical) – materials from finance to law, and health to arms, /www.nls.uk/collections/official-publications/intergovernmental/league-of-nations. Also see https://lontad-project.unog.ch/

United Nations Digital Library – https://digitallibrary.un.org/ (also search for allied organisations such as WHO)

UK State Papers:

Historic Hansard – https://api.parliament.uk/historic-hansard/index.html - an old interface now, again to records of speeches in parliament.

Old Bailey Online – https://www.oldbaileyonline.org/ digitised judicial proceeds 1674-1913

Parliamentary Papers – http://parlipapers.proquest.com records of reports, inquiries and commissions. Access through the UL http://libguides.cam.ac.uk/az.php?a=all.

Police UK – https://www.police.uk/ - website includes statistics and maps.

Theyworkforyou – https://www.theyworkforyou.com/ - search who said what in parliament, and how people voted.

UK Gov. Open Data - https://data.gov.uk/ - Open data published by central and local government as well as other public bodies.

Suggested reading:

Berūkštienė, D., (2016). [Legal discourse reconsidered: genres of legal texts]. *Comparative legilinguistics, 28,* 89-117*.*

Christensen, T. K., & Mortensen, S. S., (2018). [Introduction to special issue on Forensic Linguistics: European Perspectives]. *Nordic Journal of Linguistics*, *41*(2), 129-132.

Dunn, W. N., (2015). Public policy analysis. Abingdon: Routledge.

Goodwin, S., (2011). Analysing policy as discourse: Methodological advances in policy analysis. In: L. Markauskaite, et al., eds. Methodological choice and design. London: Springer. pp. 167-180.

European Training Foundation. (2018). Guide to Policy Analysis. Available from: https://www.etf.europa.eu/sites/default/files/m/72B7424E26ADE1AFC12582520051E25E_Guide%20to%20policy%20analysis.pdf

Jeffrey, A., (2020). *The edge of law: legal geographies of a war crimes court*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Niemi-Kiesiläinen, J., Honkatukia, P., and Ruuskanen, M., (2007). Legal Texts as Discourses. In: G. Svensson and Davies M., eds*,* Exploiting the Limits of Law*.* UK: Ashgate. pp. 69-88.

Yanow, D., (2000). *Conducting interpretive policy analysis*. London: Sage.

Webley, L., (2010). Qualitative approaches to empirical legal research. In: P. Cane and H. Kritzer, eds. *The Oxford handbook of empirical legal research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp.

Weimer, David L., and Aidan R. Vining, (2017). *Policy analysis: Concepts and practice*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Training Resources:

LSE Public Policy Analysis (10 weeks), available at:
https://onlinecertificatecourses.lse.ac.uk/presentations/lp/lse-public-policy-analysis-online-certificate-course/

8. Writing Intellectual Histories and Theoretical Interventions (by António Ferraz de Oliveira, Johanne Bruun and Matthew Gandy) [Under Development]

We all receive stories about how we ought to think, feel and act towards what lives within and between us. The task of intellectual histories is to retrace how such stories are fabricated and imbricated by a multiplicity of situated actors, moving across a range of places, traditions and contexts (see Whatmore, 2016; and Whatmore and Young, 2016). For geographers, such tracings tend to focus on understanding how given texts, practitioners and practices have woven and rewoven a multiplicity of geographical imaginations and knowledges (see Agnew and Livingstone, 2011). For the sake of simplicity, let's assume for now that such explorations could be grouped around two broad approaches: the canonical and the socio-institutional. The first of these approaches would focus on key texts and influential networks of interpreters. The second approach would track how situated institutions and socialites reproduced networks of geographical culture, science and practice. Inevitably, these two approaches often overlap, so the distinction here is only to show the different purchase of different modes of intellectual history which could eventually be combined.

Un\doing the Geographical Canon: Thinkers, Texts and Imaginations (by António Ferraz de Oliveira)

In the first register, an intellectual history of geography could seek out how some of the discipline's paradigmatic ideas emerged and were sustained by reference to key texts and schools (c.f. Martin, 2005; Barry, 2015). In such a field, one might find studies of how Alexander von Humbolt's *Cosmos* was produced and received in nineteenth-century intellectual networks (c.f. Godlewska, 1999; Tang, 2008); or how Paul Vidal de la Blache and others launched the ideas of 'possibilism' as a critique of environmental determinism (c.f. Buttimer, 1973; Martin, 2015), or even how 'geopolitics' came of age in the interwar period (c.f. Agnew and Muscarà, 2012; Smith, 2004; Kearns, 2009). Curiously, even though such studies might all seek to account for the emergence of influential ideas, they may employ a variety of entry-points ranging from a biographical structure, to a focus on academic debates and their disciplinary effects, to an examination of how key texts were interpreted differently across periods and places. Intellectual biographies will have the benefit of reproducing the humanness of a given historical figure, with his or her situated interests, doubts and developments more readily visible (c.f. Smith, 2014). Focus on controversy allows for a clearer sense of competing visions, group rivalries and paradigm shifts (c.f. Martin, 2015). Retelling the multiple reception of key texts, in turn, allows for a keener sense of how serial interpretations constantly redefine the legacies of past texts (c.f. Kearns, 2009).

Across these approaches to geography's intellectual histories, it is often helpful to think about ‘broadening the canon’ (c.f. Barry, 2015). Canonical approaches have at times been criticized for serving as artificial devices, misleadingly suggesting a discipline’s separateness and the role of a few ‘great men’ in defining it. To counter this, many intellectual historians purposely avoid disciplinary silo-ing and seek out under-represented voices.. On the first count, this may be sought by i) acknowledging how key geographers were influenced and influencing beyond their discipline (c.f. Tang, 2008); or by ii) investigating how intellectuals, geographers or not, have sustained reflections on spatial concepts (c.f. Elden, 2013, Rosenboim, 2017). On the second count, many researchers seek out under-represented voices across the histories of geography and spatial imagination. Such under-appreciated voices may often include women (Jöns, Moonk and Keighren, 2017), global south elites (c.f. Sharp, 2007), racialized people or indigenous authors (c.f. Radcliffe, 2017). Seeking out for these voices is valuable not only because it offers a richer plurality of views but also because it often recasts the stories we tell ourselves under radically different lights, exposing the contradictions, oppressions and exclusions in the mainstream narratives tailored by and for elite minorities. On occasion, explorations of these lost voices may be accompanied by exposing colonial, masculinist, classist or animalist prejudice within intellectual canons (c.f. Wood, 2012; Blaut, 1993, Federici, 2004).

Beyond Words: Geographical Cultures, Practices and Devices (by Johanne Bruun)

There is much more to the geographical world than what can be contained by language. Paying attention to the specificities of how things are articulated and the kinds of geographical assumptions and power relations contained therein remains important (see section on discourse analysis). Yet it is important to remember that geography is not just the stories we tell, but also the sensuous, the embodied, and the material. Geo-graphing, or earth-writing, brought worlds into being for distant readerships and this had profound effects on how faraway places were imagined. Yet such writings were necessarily the product of an expansive network of material and cultural practices, technologies, and objects as well as physical encounters with particular places (Driver, 2013, 2001; Edney, 1997; Livingstone, 2006; Pratt, 1992). Furthermore, the production of knowledge of places, peoples, and environments was (and is) practiced by a diverse set of actors operating at many different scales, not just by ‘big men’ of science. This section encourages you to ask questions about the nitty-gritty, the practical, the personal, and emotional aspects of how the geographical world has been known historically, and to think about what that means.

Paying attention to the seemingly mundane, everyday practices that are part of geographical knowledge production can be a great way to generate new information about small moments in geography’s intellectual history. Geographers have approached this challenge in different ways. Some have focused on the technologies and scientific methods used by travellers and fieldworkers. For example, seeing and capturing the world through a camera was different from having to rely on stories and drawings. Similarly, using a sextant to envision landscapes as systems of geometrical points and lines had profound impact on how these landscapes were imagined (c.f. Cosgrove, 2008). Even more mundane things such as walking boots or food rations similarly shaped how fieldworkers interacted with the landscape. Put simply, the methods and technologies used shaped the fieldworker’s gaze and, as such, shaped how places were imagined as cultural, political, social, or economic spaces. Here too it is possible to focus on controversy (see section above). Same as with the introduction of new ideas, so too has the introduction of new technologies often spurred fierce debates and controversies with concerns being raised as to whether they were appropriate. Such debate was often less about whether a technology worked and more about how it fit into a specific scientific culture (c.f. Heggie, 2019, 2013).

Place matters to the production of any kind of scientific knowledge, and the material and embodied relationship between knower and world has always been important to the development of geographical systems of thought. Technology shaped geographical knowledge production, but so too did the emotional and sensuous impressions that places inspired in different people. These kinds of histories have often been centred on the experiences, practices, and bodies of white, male, British or American elites. While there is plenty of scope for doing innovative research on such subjects, geographers have also complicated this dominant perspective by looking at the practices of women and other marginalised voices (c.f. Morin, 2008; Jöns et al., 2017).

It is worth keeping an open mind as to who can be considered producers of geographical knowledge, and whose voices might be interesting to bring into an expanded discussion about intellectual history in geography. Do not limit yourself to ‘canonical’ figures known to have shaped the field. Quite often, ‘small stories’ can be great avenues for an original contribution as sources of alternative perspectives on geographical thought at particular moments in time and space, however minute. By reading such moments alongside established literatures, they can be positioned in relation to larger networks of geographical cultures, practices, and methods and, as such, as part of geography’s intellectual history (c.f. Lorimer, 2003). Another thing to remember is that you can be creative when thinking about what constitutes geographical practices that are worth tracing as well as what constitutes a site of geographical knowledge production. Consider looking beyond formal field expeditions or established sites such as the Royal Geographical Society. Remember too that you do not have to go as far back as the nineteenth century to write a dissertation relevant to intellectual history. Much more recent material and stories have an equally important place and are often less researched.

Another key thing to remember is that you do not need an extensive dataset in order to write a good dissertation. A single diary, for example, can be a rich source of information when supplemented with secondary literature. Other archived records to consider include travel writing, scientific field notes, correspondences, old journal articles and reports, news clippings, and photographic collections. You may also find poetry and literature to be inspirational sources of data – be creative! Objects too can be a great source of data. Instead of looking to the field in search of information about geography’s intellectual history, it is equally relevant to look to other spaces, such as museums, archives, and similar sites of collection (c.f. Geoghegan, 2010; Mills, 2013; Stoler, 2009). It can be highly instructive to consider how personal objects used or collected by fieldworkers (compasses, pressed flowers, dead insects, cultural artefacts) took on new meaning as it was incorporated into a museum collection and preserved as part of geography’s history or the history of a place. While museums remain closed at the time of writing, many of them have extensive online catalogues which include photographs and sometimes even 3D scans of their collections.

Suggested Reading:

Agnew, J., and D. Livingstone, eds. (2011). *The Sage handbook of geographical knowledge*. London: Sage.

Agnew, J., and L. Muscarà., (2012). *Making Political Geography*. Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield.

Ball, T., (2004). History and the Interpretation of Texts. In: G.F. Gaus and C. Kukathas, eds. *Handbook of Political Theory*. London: Sage. pp. 18–30.

*Barry, A., (2015). Geography and other disciplines: genealogy, anamnesis and the canon. *Journal of Historical Geography,* 49, 85-93.

Blaut, J., (1993). *The Colonizer's Model of the World: Geographical Diffusionism and Eurocentric History*. London: Guilford Press.

Bravo, M., (2019). *North Pole: Nature and Culture*. London: Reaktion Books.

Buttimer, A., (1973). Society and milieu in the French geographic tradition. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Cosgrove, D., (1985). Prospect, perspective and the evolution of the landscape idea. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 10(1), 45-62.

Edney, M., 1997. Mapping an Empire: The Geographical Construction of British India, 1765-1843. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Elden, S., (2017). *Foucault: The birth of power*. London: Polity.

Elden, S., (2016). *Foucault's last decade*. London: Polity.

Elden, S., (2013). *The birth of territory*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Federici, S. (2004). *Caliban and the Witch*. New York: Autonomedia.

Driver, F., (2000). *Geography militant: cultures of exploration and empire*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Geoghegan, H., (2010). Museum Geography: Exploring Museums, Collections and Museum Practice in the UK. Geography Compass, 4(10), 1462-1476.

Godlewska, A., (1999). *Geography unbound: French geographic science from Cassini to Humboldt*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Heggie, V., (2019). Higher and Colder: A History of Extreme Physiology and Exploration. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Heggie, V., (2013). Experimental physiology, Everest and oxygen: from the ghastly kitchens to the gasping lung. The British Journal for the History of Science, 46(1), 123–147.

*Jöns, H., J. Monk, and I.M. Keighren, (2017). Introduction: Toward more inclusive and comparative perspectives in the histories of geographical knowledge. *Professional Geographer*, *69*, 655-660. [on women in geography]

Johnston, R., and J. D. Sidaway, (2015). Geography and geographers: Anglo-American human geography since 1945. Abingdon: Routledge.

*Kearns, G., (2009). Geopolitics and empire: The legacy of Halford Mackinder. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

**Livingstone, D.N., (1992). The geographical tradition: Episodes in the history of a contested enterprise. Oxford: Blackwell.

*Livingstone, D.N., (2006). Putting science in its place. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

**Lorimer, H., and C.W.J. Withers, eds. (1977-). *Geographers: Biobibliographical studies*. New York: Continuum.

Lorimer, H., (2003). Telling small stories: spaces of knowledge and the practice of geography. Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers, 28(2), 197–217.

Mattewson, K. and A. Allen, (2018). Geographic thought (US). *Oxford Bibliographies*.

Martin, G.J., (2015). *American geography and geographers: Toward geographical science*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Martin, G.J., (2005). *All possible worlds: A history of geographical ideas*. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mayhew, R., (2014). *Malthus: The life and legacies of an untimely prophet*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Mayhew, R., (2000). *Enlightenment geography: the political languages of British geography, 1650-1850*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Morin, K.M., (2008). Frontiers of femininity: A new historical geography of the nineteenth-century American West. New York: Syracuse University Press.

*Pratt, M.L., (1992). Imperial Eyes: Travel Writing and Transculturation. Abingdon: Routledge.

Sharp, J., (2013). Geopolitics at the margins? Reconsidering genealogies of critical geopolitics. *Political Geography,* 37, 20-29.

Smith, N., (2004). *American empire: Roosevelt's geographer and the prelude to globalization*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Skinner, Q., (2002). *Visions of politics*. *I: Regarding Method*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rosenboim, O., (2017) *The emergence of globalism: Visions of world order in Britain and the United States, 1939–1950.* Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Tang, C., (2008). *The geographic imagination of modernity: geography, literature, and philosophy in German Romanticism*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Tully, J., ed. (1998). *Meaning and context: Quentin Skinner and his critics*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Radcliffe, S., (2017). Decolonising geographical knowledges. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers,* 42(3), 329-333.

*Withers, C. W., (2008). Placing the Enlightenment: thinking geographically about the age of reason. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Whatmore, R., (2016). *What is intellectual history?*. London: John Wiley & Sons.

*Whatmore, R., and B. W. Young, eds. (2016). *A companion to intellectual history*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Wood, E. M. (2012). *Liberty and property: a social history of western political thought from the renaissance to enlightenment*. Verso.

[on biographical approaches]

Daniels, S., and C. Nash, (2004). Lifepaths: geography and biography. *Journal of Historical Geography,* 30(3), 449-458.

Hodder, J., (2017). On absence and abundance: biography as method in archival research. *Area,* 49(4), 452-459.

Kridel, C., (n.d.). An Introduction to Biographical Research [online]. *AERA.* Available from: http://www.aera.net/SIG013/Research-Connections/Introduction-to-Biographical-Research

9. Conducting Literature and Systematic Reviews (by Charlotte Milbank).

Why do we need reviews?

There is an overwhelming abundance of research available in the public domain today. Working out what is known or accepted, the certainty with which it is, and importantly what is not yet known can be a mammoth task. Reviews allow us to make sense of otherwise unmanageable amounts of research information, synthesising existing literature to inform both future research and future evidence-based policy and practice.

The key purpose of a review is to summarise existing research on a specified topic, including these studies' empirical findings as well as their theoretical and methodological contributions. Reviews should also identify crucial empirical, theoretical and methodological gaps in knowledge that should be subject to future study.

Reviews may be stand-alone publications, but are also often included at the start of a larger thesis or dissertation (especially in postgraduate study), to situate novel research questions within an existing body of literature.

Types of review

There are two main types of review, with several key substantive and methodological differences between them.

1. **Systematic reviews**. These are regarded as the most comprehensive and structured, with explicit techniques used to ensure biases and errors in literature searching are minimised, and information is not treated selectively by the reviewer. These reviews also attempt to summarise the strength of the quality of evidence provided by studies using transparent and repeatable methods. Such reviews tend to be more empiricist, descriptive and methodologically meticulous.

2. **Literature reviews**. Also referred to as 'narrative' or 'scoping' reviews, these tend to be on a broader subject matter, often without a specific question, and covering several aspects of a topic. The search strategy is more sporadic and may include grey literature. The reviewer interprets the meaning and strength of results based on their reading, rather than through specified methods of evaluation. Where systematic reviews aim to be comprehensive, literature reviews are often illustrative. This makes them more suited to theoretical interventions than empiricist revisions. Their aim is often to redirect framing rather than assess strength of available evidence.

Which to use?

There is little formal guidance as to which to choose when undertaking a review, and both types have their value in certain contexts. Many academic journals now expect systematic reviews that explicitly recognise and reference methods of analysis, and demonstrate an exhaustive search of the literature. Literature reviews are more often used where the purpose of the review is to identify knowledge gaps, get a general feel for the scope of a body of literature, and/or clarify concepts. Ultimately the decision should be based on what question you are investigating and what the purpose of your investigation is. Regardless of the type chosen, reviewers should seek to be transparent and rigorous in their approach to ensure validity and reliability in outputs.

How to conduct a review

Regardless of the review type, there are several key steps that should be followed when starting to produce a review.

1. **Formulate a clear research question.**

   Before even starting to select literature, you should identify a clear research question that can be investigated effectively within your timeframe and means. This question will need to be clearly stated when you eventually write up your review.

Literature review: your question can afford to be slightly broader and may cover several aspects of a topic. For example, a literature review might cover trends in global biodiversity, including discussion of how biodiversity has been conceptualised, and of what trends have been observed, how they have been measured, and/or what predictions have been made.

Systematic review: your question should be narrower to enable you to identify very specific literature. Using the biodiversity example again, a systematic review might consider the cause-effect relationship between a specified agricultural technology on the species richness of birds, and would search for all studies that have previously examined this relationship. Alongside your question, you should also identify strict inclusion and exclusion criteria for studies you will/will not review. These might include location of study, years of publication, specific participant characteristics, specific methods employed, etc. It is important that inclusion and exclusion criteria are predefined and piloted before you formally start the literature search.

2. **Search for relevant studies**.

Whatever the review type, you should ensure your search is thorough, using multiple sources, and keeping good records of your search strategy. This allows you to be transparent in your presentation and also retracing your steps where necessary. Using bibliographic/referencing software like Mendeley or Zotero can be helpful here.

Identify relevant keywords to your question, including common synonyms, abbreviations and lay terms, and use these to enter into your chosen search engines. For academic reviews, widely used search engines include Web of Science, PubMed, Google Scholar and Scopus. There may also be discipline-specific search engines worth using (e.g. MEDLINE for biomedical literature, PsychINFO for psychological sciences). Some topics may also demand searches of grey literature, that may be available through generic search engines.

It is important to make use of the various features that search engines offer. Whilst each engine has their own unique search features, common ones to look for include filtering by year, inclusion of keywords in the title or abstract, and the ability to combine search terms (using Boolean operators).

Remember systematic reviews must follow a comprehensive and *replicable* search, with fixed search criteria and precise records of searching procedures. Literature reviews, by contrast, do not need to be as structured in their search patterns.

3. Select studies

Once you have identified papers that *may* be useful to your question, you will need to screen these to see if they meet your inclusion criteria closely enough. As in step 2, it is important to keep track of when and why you include/exclude certain pieces of literature.

Literature reviews: screen less rigorously; you should attempt to identify literature that is an honest and broad account of the topic in question. Because of their scope, literature reviews can sometimes contain over 100 papers!

Systematic review. Screening should be undertaken in numerous, sequential steps: (1) In each database, you will have a select number of studies that match your search criteria. These should be screened for duplicates; (2) screen the titles and abstracts of papers to see whether they immediately appear to meet (or not meet) inclusion/exclusion criteria; (3) full-text screen the remaining papers to see whether they meet inclusion/exclusion criteria. You are likely to end up with less than 50 papers (often less than 10) that meet final criteria. Keep track as you exclude papers, and list the reasons why not so that you can include these in a table or a PRISMA diagram later on.

4. Extract data

You now have your final papers to include in your review. Read these in detail to identify data to extract, which will be synthesised in your review. The precise type of data extracted and the level of detail will depend on your question and field, as well as the type of review. Some quality assessment of the included studies should also be undertaken.

Literature review: data extraction involves summary of 'take-home' messages. Quality assessment is more subjective – we might ask whether points that are made by different authors are consistent with others, and/or backed up by statistical evidence.

Systematic review: data extraction is systematic and rigorous, the same types of data being extracted from each paper (e.g. author, year of data collection, location, sample size, sampling strategy). Quality assessment may use existing guidelines (e.g. STROBE checklist in medical sciences) and/or coming up with a numerical index of quality, or may involve qualitative assessment of quality (e.g. was the sample size sufficient, was the sampling biased? were the methods appropriate?).

5. **Synthesise findings**

You've got your papers, and from these you've extracted the data you need. Now you need to write these up in a coherent way. Regardless of the review type used, it can be helpful to structure your results according to specific themes or findings, to aid fluency of reading. Your write-up should include a summary and interpretation of the key results, supported by the correct reference to the paper. It should also mention the strength of evidence - is the source credible? Are the methods appropriate? How much weight should we give to these findings?

Literature review: qualitative overview of main results, subjective interpretation of quality of different kinds of framing and use of evidence. May be supported by tables and diagrams.

Systematic review: detailed qualitative and/or quantitative overview of results, including comments on methods of analysis, conduct of research, and strength/limitations of evidence. Summary tables of papers that are included in the review are often useful aids. PRISMA diagrams (e.g. Figure 1) can be useful for visualising how the final papers were found.

NB: Systematic reviews may (but not always) include a meta-analysis. More common in health sciences, meta-analyses are the statistical synthesis of results from multiple studies. When implemented and interpreted appropriately, they provide a powerful tool to understand both similarities and differences in results from multiple studies, to assess consistency in results, and to settle controversies arising from conflicting studies. We will not go into detail on meta-analyses here, but do be aware that they are not always appropriate to conduct, and are easy to conduct and interpret wrongly.

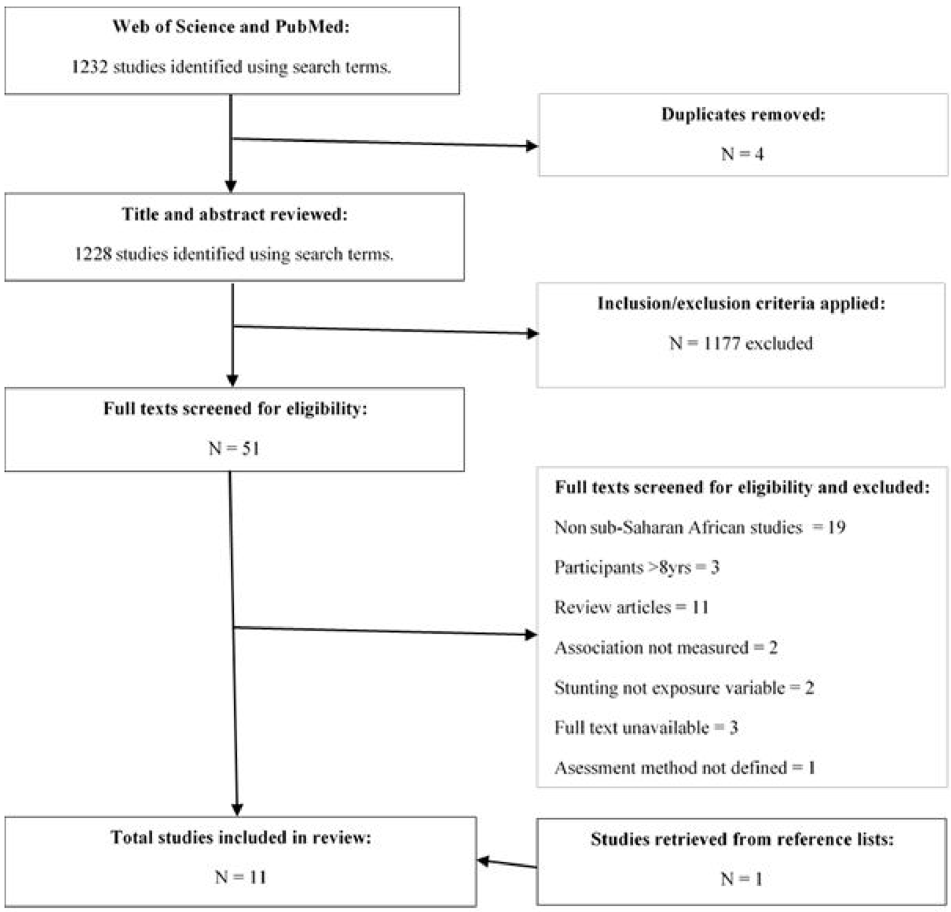

Figure 1. Example PRISMA diagram showing process of search strategy and study selection.

6. Discuss.

You're almost done! Now it's time to wrap up and consolidate. Describe the contributions of your review to existing literature, including new findings, consistency and/or contrasts with other pieces. Also describe the limitations of this research - what have you been unable to conclude from your review?

Finally, make some recommendations for research and practice. Has your review highlighted some key gaps, uncertainties or deficits in knowledge or research practice, which might warrant future study? These can be things that you are going to do yourself (if the review is conducted as part of a broader study/thesis) or for other researchers to focus on. You might also ask whether there are any policy implications of your research that you can draw out.

Suggested Reading:

- Atkinson, L., & Cipriani, A. (2018). How to carry out a literature search for a systematic review: A practical guide. *BJPsych Advances, 24*(2), 74-82.
- Robinson P., & Lowe J. (2015). Literature reviews vs systematic reviews. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, *39(2)*, 103–103.
- Hart, C. (2018). *Doing a literature review: Releasing the research imagination*. Sage.
- Booth, A., Sutton, A. & Papaioannou, D. (2016). *Systematic approaches to a successful literature review*. Sage.

10. Visual Methods (by António Ferraz de Oliveira and Michael Bravo)

'A picture is worth a thousand words', so goes the tired adage. But, what are these words and how may we come to read them? Such doubts fuel a vast literature on visual materials (Rose, 2016; Roberts, 2017, Banks and Zeitlyn, 2008). At its simplest, this doubt can be taken in two directions: i) what meanings did producers seek to etch into images?; or ii) what meanings emerge out of receiving images?. These two directions are entangled and in dialogue, not least in the age of social media, but it is still useful to separate them analytically.

On the producers' side, we might begin by acknowledging the diversity of visual materials at play, from paintings to photographs, comics, films, maps, landscapes and other forms. As with archives, it is key to be attentive to documentary norms and the contexts underpinning their production. How we see is shot through by a constellation of semi-conscious affects, often tailored by established genres and anticipations of social reception. Those who produce images are all too aware of this and often create with an eye to how to speak to and against visual cultural norms and audience expectations. At first then, we might ask ourselves a series of questions: Who produced a given image and why? How did they hope it would be received? How did technological means condition production? How did visual cultural norms shape it? Were there other works shaping its production (i.e. intertextuality)? Was there a social or political context it sought to intervene in?

Let's try to think how this might work in practice. Imagine you are interested in Federico Fellini's famous film *La Dolce Vita* (1960). To place this work in context, you give yourself an outline of Fellini biography and what may be said about what motivated his artistic production around the 1960s. Reading the secondary literature, you become aware that this movie came at a transitional time for Fellini, when he was becoming dissatisfied with the genre of Italian Neorealism and began experimenting with themes of subconscious turmoil, drawn from his discovery of Carl Jung psychoanalytic theories. As a transitional material, then, you examine how *La Dolce Vita* played with and against the visual norms of Neorealism (esp. in terms of photography) but departed from it in subject and narrative structure, inspired instead by Jung.

Thinking beyond these intellectual contexts, you begin to notice how Fellini's *Dolce Vita* was woven with visual cues to a particular socio-cultural moment of post-war Italy, where the rise of mass consumption seemed to be accompanied with a shared sense of moral disorientation. Having these contexts in mind, you might well go on to write a dissertation on Fellini's shifting representations of Rome in *La Dolce Vita* and other films.

Beyond this contextual approach, you might also engage with visual materials 'in-and-of-themselves' through compositional analysis (Rose 2016, Ch. 4; Dondis, 1973). Here, your approach would be to examine how a given image can be deconstructed in terms of its framing, depth of field, use of colour, focus, contrast and viewpoint (etc!). This mode of analysis may be particularly helpful if you are seeking to engage in the detailed structures of images and the techniques underlying their production and its affective impact. Moreover, the composition of a picture may also be staging a set of relations between represented bodies (c.f. Azoulay, 2012). Another possible approach can be content analysis - identifying which bodies/postures are recurrently present across a series of images. This may provide you a sense about the establishment of visual tropes (Rose, 2016, Ch. 5). Semiological analysis, in turn, approaches images as sites of iconographic play, where visual tropes are symbols denoting ideological messaging (Rose, 2016, Ch. 6). One of the great advantages of this form of analysis is its conceptual diffraction between 'signifiers' (a picture's composition), 'signifieds' (primary identity of entities represented) and 'signs' (a sense of ideological messaging). This exposes the conceptual precariousness of assigning meaning to visuals. An image once representing imperial humanism may come to be seen as a sign of shameful colonial subjections. A strong body may appear healthy at one time, but threatening at another, gleeful in the morn, somber by the eve. Images may remain unfazed, but iconographies fall apart. New mythologies make for a new gaze.

Curiously, one of the things semiological analysis suggests is that images are ambiguous utterances in much broader forms of socially-organised discourse. Approaching visual materials through 'discourse analysis' is precisely about understanding who was trying to give currency to what narratives (Rose, 2016, Ch.7). Here, images that otherwise be viewed only as artistic expressions can quickly be seen as aesthetic devices with political designs, with hopes of conquering the imagination of key constituencies. In political geography, for instance, many authors have applied this approach to examine a range of media employed to shape popular geopolitical imaginations (Bleiker, 2018; Adams, Craine and Dittmer, 2014; Campbell, 2007, Hughes, 2007, Monmonier, 2018). This same approach can (and has been!) be applied to a variety of 'discourses' or narratives about social matters, from embodiment of gender, race and nationality, to representations of science, development, conservation or labour. A further virtue of seeing visuals as discourse is that it not only casts light on certain institutional actors employing visual messaging strategically… but also that it inevitably stumbles on 'unruly' forms of social visual culture which challenge, reframe and circulate alternative narratives and images. Thus, paradoxically, though the strategic value of visual culture is deeply tied to its popularity, its currency is neither passive nor obedient. Today more than ever, 'visual activists' will emerge!

And so we come to our last point of reflection: the social reproduction of visual culture (Mirzoeff, 1998, 2011, 2015, Rose, 2014). Visual work because they provide sites for affective and ludic forms of sociality. A key way to explore this is by asking where and with which imagined and experienced communities were given visual materials 'consumed'. Those receiving images will always be more or less aware of broader audiences sharing in reception and shaping media norms by their responsiveness. Most will be aware of a sense of propriety hovering over how one ought enjoy, critique and act upon visuals. Such senses of propriety are collectively fabricated and in flux, often shifting through creative controversies initiated by 'visual activists'. As the means of visual reproduction have become better distributed, this can happen all the more often. Consider vlogs, instagram or youtube! Display of fashion, commercial campaign and curations of self co-exist here with unruly interventions and decentralized forms of public debate, propelled algorithmically by sharing patterns (c.f. Burgess and Green, 2018). Some of this, as many suspect, is calculated upon intensely (i.e. 'how to go viral'), whilst some of it seems almost spontaneous. No platform is purely democratic or neutral (c.f. Zuboff, 2019).

And yet, platform-caveats aside, it is remarkable how many social movements have utilized visual forms to bolster their visibility and traction (Eder and Klonk, 2016, Doerr, Mattoni and Teune, 2013). The Civil Rights Movement, for instance, already thought carefully about how to use photography to shift discursive tropes about race, civility and violence (Berger, 2010). More recently, movements such as Black Lives Matter have built social activism and reflections on racism by giving normally concealed visibility to recordings of police beatings and killings. Such recordings have functioned as powerful testimonies to racialized violence and have opened a transformative discursive moment. Furthermore, it is significant that the new visibility of this moment has also been bolstered by many personal videos of anger, grief and reflection, often bringing further experiences into public visibility. In yet another way, several protests have also been creative in producing political visualities. Be it by taking a knee, spraying a slaver's statue, dancing or carrying placards, there has been, as in so many protests, a great moment of creative collective embodiments, often aware of how their participation in their message will be seen. As a researcher, one can engage with these visual materials, their production and interpretation and illuminate how imaginations are placed in circulation and contestation.

Suggested reading:

Adams, P. C., J. Craine and J. Dittmer, eds. (2014). *The Ashgate research companion to media geography*. London: Ashgate.

Alpers, S. (1983) *The Art of Describing: Dutch Art in the Seventeenth Century*.

Azoulay, A.A., (2015). *Civil imagination: a political ontology of photography*. London: Verso.

Banks, M., and D. Zeitlyn, (2015). *Visual methods in social research*. London: Sage.

*Barthes, R., ([1957] 2000) *Mythologies*. London: Vintage Books.

Benjamin, W., (2008) *The Work of Art in the Age of Mechanical Reproduction.* London: Penguin.

*Berger, J., (2008). *Ways of Seeing*. UK: Penguin.

Berger, M., (2010). *For all the world to see: visual culture and the struggle for civil rights*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Bleiker, R., ed. (2018). *Visual global politics*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Bleiker, R., (2015). Pluralist methods for visual global politics. *Millennium* 43(3), 872-890.

Burgess, J., and J. Green. (2018). *YouTube: online video and participatory culture.* London: John Wiley & Sons.

Campbell, D., (2007). Geopolitics and visuality: Sighting the Darfur conflict. *Political Geography,* 26(4), 357-382.

Clark, T. J., (2006). *The sight of death: An experiment in art writing*, New Haven: Yale University Press.

Cosgrove, D., (2008). *Geography and vision: Seeing, imaging and representing the world*. London: I. B. Tauris.

Dondis, D., (1973). *A primer of visual literacy*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Doerr, N., A. Mattoni, and S. Teune, eds. (2013). *Advances in the visual analysis of social movements*. Bingley: Emerald.

Eder, J., and C. Klonk, eds. (2016). *Image operations: Visual media and political conflict*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Gombrich, E. H. J., (2014). Art and illusion: A study in the psychology of pictorial representation. 6th ed. London: Phaidon.

Hall, T., (2018). Photographic and Video Methods in Geography. *Oxford Bibliographies*.

Harley, J. B., (1989). Deconstructing the Map. *Cartographica,* 26(2), 1–20.

Hughes, R., (2007). Through the looking blast: geopolitics and visual culture. *Geography Compass,* 5(1), 976–994.

Lunkinbeal, C. and L. Sharp, (2017). Geography and Film. *Oxford Bibliographies*.

*Mirzoeff, N., (2015). How to see the world. UK: Pelican.

*Mirzoeff, N., (2011). The right to look: a counterhistory of visuality. Durham: Duke University Press.

*Mirzoeff, N., ed. (1998). The visual culture reader. Abingdon: Routledge.

Monmonier, M., (2018). How to lie with maps. 3rd ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tolia-Kelly, D.P. and G. Rose, (2012). Visuality/Materiality: Images, Objects and Practices. Abingdon: Routledge.

Roberts, L., (2017). Geographic Methods: Visual Analysis. *Oxford Bibliographies*.

*Rose, G., (2016). Visual methodologies: An introduction to researching with visual materials. London: Sage.

*Rose, G., (2014). On the relation between 'visual research methods' and contemporary visual culture. *The Sociological Review,* 62(1), 24-46.

Rudwick, M., (1976). The emergence of a visual language for geological science. *History of Science* 14: 149-195.

Ryan, J. R., (1997). Picturing empire: Photography and the visualization of the British Empire. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Sontag, S., (2008) On Photography. UK: Penguin.

Zuboff, S., (2019). The age of surveillance capitalism: The fight for a human future at the new frontier of power. Profile Books.

Landscape, art, maps and photographs

American Geographical Society Maps Collection – https://uwm.edu/lib-collections/agsl-digital-map-collection/.

UK Digimap – http://digimap.edina.ac.uk/ (digitised Ordnance Survey maps).

Charles Booth's London – https://booth.lse.ac.uk/ - Victorian poverty maps and notebooks.

CANMORE – https://canmore.org.uk/ - records of Scotland's historic environment.

US National Archive and Records Administration (NARA) digital collection - https://www.archives.gov/research/alic/reference/photography

Historic England photos - commercial, but searchable and browsable - https://historicengland.org.uk/images-books/photos

Mary Evans Picture Library - another commercial library, but search tools are very good for locating historic images - https://www.maryevans.com

Art UK – https://artuk.org/ - a digitisation of art in UK public ownership.

Wikiart.org – https://www.wikiart.org/ - online reproductions of global visual arts pieces, hosting both public domain and copyright protected artworks.

Collage, The London Picture Archive: https://collage.cityoflondon.gov.uk/ – 250,000 images of London, drawing on the collections of the City of London Archives.

Royal Institute of British Architects – https://www.architecture.com/image-library/

Victoria & Albert Museum collections - https://collections.vam.ac.uk

Film and television

British Film Institute Archive /www.bfi.org.uk/archive-collections; a special collection is also available: http://www.colonialfilm.org.uk/

Box of Broadcasts – British television and radio: https://learningonscreen.ac.uk/ondemand

British Pathe – a wonderful site for old newsreel footage: https://www.britishpathe.com/

EU Screen - http://www.euscreen.eu/ - European audiovisual heritage archives.

Mediahistory - http://mediahistoryproject.org/ - Materials on the histories of film, broadcasting and recorded sound.

ArtFilms - https://www.artfilms-digital.com/ - videos from artists and producers.

Visual Culture Analysis Collective Projects

Cultural Analytics - http://lab.culturalanalytics.info/p/about.html -

Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) - http://whomakesthenews.org/ - This project investigates gender disparities in news media representation.

11. Digital and Social Media Analysis [*Contributors sought!*]

Suggested reading:

Hinton, S. and L. Hjorth, (2013). *Understanding Social Media*. London: Sage.

Rogers, R., (2019). *Doing digital methods*. London: Sage. [focused on studying digital media, i.e. website history, google searches, wikipedia versions, twitter etc]

Kitchin, R., (2013). Big data and human geography: Opportunities, challenges and risks. *Dialogues in Human Geography,* 3(3), 262-267.

Miller, H., and M. Goodchild, (2015). Data-driven geography. *GeoJournal,* 80(4), 449-461.

Chan, A., (2013). *Networking peripheries: Technological futures and the myth of digital universalism*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Further Resources:

Digital Methods Initiative: https://wiki.digitalmethods.net/Dmi/ToolDatabase

TAPoR 'Introductory Social Media Analysis': http://tapor.ca/tool_lists/2

12. **Decolonizing a Dissertation Project (by [Sarah Radcliffe])**

The process of decolonizing involves rethinking how we gather data, interact with our project interlocutors (people like 'us', people not like 'us', animals, plants...), and how we interpret our findings and the frameworks we might draw on to explain our results.

This introductory reading list is based on undergraduate dissertation training at the Geography department at Cambridge. It has been reorganised and supplemented to refer to different types of project (from historical, to qualitative cross-cultural, to quantitative analysis, and biogeography), and different stages of a dissertation project. Available online resources are highlighted wherever possible. In each section, one key reference is highlighted with *

Introducing decolonizing ideas

Law, J., (2015). What's wrong with a one-world world? *Distinktion: Scandinavian Journal of Social Theory,* 16(1), 126-139.

*Radcliffe, S.A., (2017). Decolonising geographical knowledges. *Trans. Institute of British Geographers,* 42(3): 329-333.

Global Social Theory: https://globalsocialtheory.org/ - website introducing decolonial ideas.

Before you start the project

The literature about decolonising research projects and interpretations is rapidly expanding, encompassing a range of physical, environmental, and human geography topics and themes.

Biogeography, conservation and political ecology

*Baker, K., Eichhorn, M.P. and Griffiths, M., (2019). Decolonizing field ecology. *Biotropica,* 51, 288–292.

Johnson, JT, Howitt, R. *et al*. (2016). Weaving Indigenous and sustainability sciences to diversify our methods. *Sustainability Science*, 11, 1-11. [Useful for conservation and political ecology projects, in *any* 'cross cultural' setting, not only Indigenous peoples]

Loftus, A., (2017). Political Ecology I: where is political ecology?. *Progress in Human Geography,* 43(1), 172-182.

Sundberg, J., (2015). Ethics, Entanglement and Political Ecology. In T. Perrault, G. Bridge, and J. McCarthy, eds. The Routledge Handbook of Political Ecology. New York: Routledge, pp. 102- 114.

Woodward, E. and McTaggart, P.M., (2016). Transforming cross-cultural water research through trust, participation and place. *Geographical Research,* 54(2), 129-142.

Decolonial research in high-income countries

Decoloniality Europe, (2013). *Charter of Decolonial Research Ethics*. Manuscript pdf available on intranet. [Clear outline of broad principles, and relevant for research in European and other high-income country settings]

Decolonizing maps and cartography

Online and digital maps are widely used by Indigenous and marginalized to make themselves visible to dominant society. These pieces (from the Americas) illustrate how maps can be brought into geographical projects.

Caquard, S., S. Pyne, H. Igloliorte, K. Mierins, A. Hayes, and F. Taylor, (2009). A "living" atlas for geospatial storytelling: The Cybercartographic Atlas of Indigenous Perspectives and Knowledge of the Great Lakes region. *Cartographica,* 44(2), 83– 100.

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, (2017). *Indigenous communities in Canada finally on Google Maps* [online].

*McGurk, T.J. and Caquard, S., (2020). To what extent can online mapping be decolonial? A journey throughout Indigenous cartography in Canada. *The Canadian Geographer/ Géographe Canadien,* 64(1), 49-64.

Decolonising historical geographies /histories of geography

Craggs, R., (2019). Decolonising *The Geographical Tradition*. *Trans. Institute of British Geographers,* 44(3), 444-446. [Re-appraises D. Livingstone's 1994 *The Geographical Tradition*].

Craggs, R., and H. Neate, (2018). Post-colonial careering and the discipline of geography: Between the UK and Nigeria 1945–1990. *Journal of Historical Geography,* 66, 31-42.

Dickinson, J., (2012). Decolonising the diaspora: neo-colonial performances of Indian history in East Africa. *Trans. Institute of British Geography,* 37(4), 609-623.

*Ferretti, F., (2019). History and philosophy of geography I: Decolonising the discipline, diversifying archives and historicising radicalism. *Progress in Human Geography*.

Decolonizing quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data is rarely subject to a decolonial interpretation and analysis in geography, but the following articles (one on economic history, one on Twitter data) demonstrates the feasibility of extending this into geography - from demography to social movement studies.

*Fourie, J. and Obikili, N., (2019). Decolonizing with data: The cliometric turn in African economic history. *Stellenbosch Economic Working Papers: WP02/2019* [Cliometric refers to a technique for the interpretation of economic history, based on the statistical analysis of large-scale numerical data from population censuses, parish registers, and similar sources] https://www.ekon.sun.ac.za/wpapers/2019/wp022019

Duarte, M.E. and Vigil-Hayes, M., (2017). #Indigenous: A technical and decolonial analysis of activist uses of hashtags across social movements. *MediaTrope eJournal,* VII(1), 166–184.

Decolonising and being an 'ally'

Coddington, K., (2016). Voice under scrutiny: feminist methods, anticolonial responses and new methodological tools. *Professional Geographer,* 69(2), 314-320.

*Snow, K., (2018). What Does Being a Settler Ally in Research Mean? A graduate student's experience learning from and working within Indigenous research paradigms. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 17, 1-11.

Tuck, E., and K.W. Yang, (2019). R-Words: refusing research. In: M.T. Winn and D. Paris, eds. Humanizing Research: Decolonizing qualitative inquiry with youth and communities. London: Sage, pp. 223-248. [Discussion of why people might refuse to participate in research]

Cross cultural research

CIHR, NSERC & SSHRC, (2018). Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical conduct for research involving humans. Ottawa. [Canadian research councils' policy regarding the full range of projects involving humans, including cross-cultural research issues]

Skelton, T., (2001). Cross-cultural research: issues of power, positionality and 'race'. In: M. Limb and C. Dwyer, eds. Qualitative Methodologies for Geographers: Issues and debates. London: Arnold, pp. 87-100.

*Valentine, G., (2002). People Like Us: negotiating sameness and difference in the research process, in P. Moss, ed. Feminist Geography in Practice: Research and Methods. Blackwell: Oxford.

Dissertations with and about marginalised and Indigenous people

*Denzin, N., Lincoln, Y. and Smith, LT., eds. (2014). *Handbook of Critical and Indigenous methodology*. London: Sage. [This edited collection covers visual methods, anticolonial social science, critical race approaches, and the ethics of research with Indigenous peoples.]

Louis, R.P., (2007). Can you hear us now? Voices from the margin: using Indigenous methodologies in geographic research. *Geographical Research,* 45(2), 130-139.

Tuhiwai Smith, L. (2012). *Decolonizing Methodologies*. London: Zed Books. [A classic discussion about why 'research' is one of the dirtiest words for many marginalized populations around the world]

Decolonial analysis

The literature that helps with decolonizing analysis is expanding rapidly, but introductory material for geographers is relatively scant. Analysing your data with a decolonizing lens involves becoming familiar with the historically-geographically specific ways that colonialism plays out in the present (or a particular historic period), and may involve gaining an understanding of who and how re-colonizing processes are resisted and re-worked. Understanding these dynamics helps then with coding your data, and identifying the particular colonial discourses found in the context you're investigating. These references provide initial discussions of colonial and anti-colonial processes, and extensive bibliographies. Another source will be core Anglophone journals (*Trans IBG*, *Annals AAG*, *Geoforum*, *Antipode* etc) which regularly publish articles on diverse aspects of decolonizing geography and analysis. If you can read other languages, the scope is open for wider analysis!

Daigle, M. and M.M. Ramírez, (2019). Decolonial Geographies, In: Keywords in radical geography: Antipode at 50. Antipode Foundation, pp. 78-84.

De Leeuw, S. and Hunt, S., (2018). Unsettling decolonizing geographies. *Geographical Compass,*

Mignolo, W. and Walsh, C., (2018). *On Decoloniality*. Durham: Duke University Press.

Sundberg, J., (2013). Decolonizing posthumanist geographies. *Cultural Geographies,* 21(1), 33-47.

Tuck, E. and Yang, K.W., (2012). Decolonization is not a metaphor. *Decolonization: Indigeneity, education & society,* 1(1), 1-40.

Sarah A. Radcliffe, April 2020

13. Considering the Ethics of Remote Fieldwork (by Charlotte Milibank and Fleur Nash)

Conducting research during a pandemic throws up unique ethical issues. The current University guidance for research ethics is driven by the principles of "*do no harm"* to all those involved in, or impacted on by, the research; be that people, the environment, animals etc. Importantly, it is emphasised that these principles apply regardless of where, how, and, when research is conducted. In the context of COVID-19 , the principles of "*do no harm*" take on new meaning, influencing how each of us conduct research at a distance amidst a global pandemic. Below, we highlight some of the key ethical dilemmas that, as a researcher, you might face and how you might navigate them.

1. Ethics of travel

The Dilemma: With the COVID-19 pandemic still raging in some parts of the world and allaying in others, it is highly likely that at some point, we will face the decision of whether to travel again. But even the action of travel throws up difficult questions. Is it right to travel from high to low risk places of infection? Could international research place an increased burden on health systems that might already be stretched? How can we suitably assess the vulnerability of a place?

Navigating the complexity: Whilst the Foreign and Commonwealth Office can be a useful source of general travel advice, risk and vulnerability at the local scale could be assessed on a case-by-case basis, depending on multiple factors; who and how many people are travelling (an individual PhD student or a group of undergraduates?), the duration of stay, local infection control measures, and, who research participants are. Working with indigenous groups that have no means of testing seems far less appropriate than conducting research in an urban centre with rigorous contact tracing in place. Ultimately, decisions should hinge on open and honest communication with those in local areas, including participants - asking how they feel about you coming to complete research.

2. Choosing research participants

The Dilemma: The pandemic has had, and will continue to have, heterogeneous impacts on us all. In some research sites, although infection rates may decline, broader economic recovery and restoration of vital infrastructures and systems of welfare may not be seen for some time. Considered decisions can be taken on whether engaging with participants is appropriate, given they may face more pressing issues. One of our research community described that they can't imagine their research site being 'back to normal' for some time and would want considerable reassurance (from those knowledgeable of the site) that it is ok to restart research when the time comes. It is important to consider whether the premise of research - formulated pre-pandemic – is still appropriate, given that participants' lives may have been recently transformed. All of this begs deeper questions of what research is for, who it is for and why we do it.

Navigating the complexity: Research questions could be adapted if time and funding permits. From this standpoint, the 'COVID-19 moment' can be used to devise new questions and methodologies that are relevant to academia, but also those we work with. Consulting local investigators to enquire what work might be appropriate could be a useful start-point.

3. Collaborating with local researchers

The Dilemma: As international travel restrictions continue, but national restrictions ease, we may opt to work with local researchers to facilitate primary data collection. When feasible, working with local researchers can be mutually advantageous but, by introducing an intermediary, also has its own ethical issues. Many local researchers, whilst highly skilled and knowledgeable of the research site, may not have formal training of ethical codes and may not view it as integral to research activities. As a remote researcher removed from our sites, we lack important contact with participants to ensure that harm is not being done. Local researchers should not be encouraged to risk their own welfare or that of others.

Navigating the complexity: Under the University guidance (and many other formal ethical codes), the remote researcher remains the person responsible for conducting the ethics assessment, ensuring that research practice is conducted appropriately, and is ultimately held accountable. Providing guidance to local researchers before any fieldwork commences may help to mitigate ethical issues. As research commences, ongoing communication with local researchers and others in the site can be crucial to ensure work is carried out in accord with ethical best practice. For more in depth discussion on working with local researchers, look out for our blog post specifically on this topic later in the month.

4. Social media mining and covert research

The Dilemma: Working at distance we may opt for new methods of data collection, acquiring forms of 'data' that are available online in the public domain. When using the internet – tweets, blog posts and other social media – as data, how can we ensure that "participants" are aware of what research they are part of?

Navigating the complexity: There is an important distinction between public internet space and private internet space – in the latter, more formal means of consent may be possible. In both scenarios, ensuring context is acknowledged during analysis and write-up can mitigate unfair interpretation of such data. Internet mining is just one example of remote data methods… others would certainly bring up alternative sets of questions. These methods are not new so we would advise looking for how researchers in the past have dealt with these 'dilemmas'.

5. Towards an ethics of care

The Dilemma: The restrictions enforced in response to the pandemic have affected people's work-life balance across the world. For academics, work-from-home may have thrown up new challenges beyond our own research projects - adapting to virtual meetings and lectures, juggling childcare and other domestic and/or grappling with isolation and loneliness. The term 'productive' is being questioned – which is perhaps long overdue. Academics are now asking how we can adopt an "ethics of care" (Corbera et al., 2020) towards ourselves and our immediate colleagues at such an uncertain time.

Navigating the complexity: Whilst formal frameworks for an ethics of care might be superfluous, acknowledging the ethical responsibilities we have towards one another is important. As academics we can adopt a culture of care and refocus our attention on what matters most. We remain our most 'productive' selves when we look after ourselves. In external relationships, empathy and trust become crucial – despite logistical constraints, we can endeavour to preserve these values virtually with our colleagues.

6. Ethics as a process, not a formal document

All these issues question the suitability of the formal ethical templates/assessments we are required to complete for our various institutions. Whilst ethical codes are an important research milestone, we urge that we as researchers continually reflect on the constantly changing environments in which we find ourselves – be that our personal, social or work spaces, and all the grey that comes in between.

The COVID-19 pandemic has led us all to new ways of working and this has thrown up new ethical questions giving the principles of doing no harm new meaning. We can adjust to this uncertainty by anticipating and being open about new dilemmas, sharing with each other how we can best try to navigate these complexities.

Suggested Readings:

Corbera, E., Anguelovski, I., Honey-Rosés, J., RuizMallén, I., (2020). Academia in the Time of COVID-19: Towards an Ethics of Care, Planning Theory & Practice, 21(2), 191-199.

The New Ethnographer (2020). Fieldwork in the Context of Covid-19. Available from: https://www.thenewethnographer.org/the-new-ethnographer/fieldwork-in-the-context-of-covid-19

UK Research Guidance on Using Social Media for Social Research, 2020. Available from: https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/social-media-research-guidance-using-social-media-for-social-research

14. **Working with local researchers** (by Charlotte Lemanski and Jiska De Groot)

Fieldwork is a core part of geography. Often, when we imagine and participate in fieldwork, it involves 'going somewhere' to collect data. In the current covid19 context, 'going somewhere' is severely restricted. In this entry, we are exploring a wide range of ways in which it is possible to collect data 'somewhere' without physically 'going' there. One option is to work alongside researchers (and residents who are not yet researchers) who are already situated in the 'somewhere' that you plan to research. Below, we highlight some of the core issues to consider when working remotely with local researchers, based on our experiences of continuing data collection with low-income communities in South Africa during the covid19 lockdown and restricted global travel.

1. Finding, trusting, training and paying local researchers

The first step in working with local researchers is identifying suitable people to work with. If you are working in a new context, this is necessarily a difficult step, and we suggest taking advice from others who have worked in similar empirical contexts, asking for recommendations of people to contact with whom they have had good working experiences. For us (Charlotte and Jiska), we were already working together across the Universities of Cambridge and Cape Town respectively, and Jiska (at UCT) was already working with Ernest (employed as a UCT research assistant) alongside a local NGO (Project 90by 2030) that we had all worked with over several years. We therefore had pre-existing relationships and work contracts (including payment) that enabled us re-deploy Ernest as a community-researcher. However, in other situations it would be essential to provide full training (including ethics training) to local researchers, as well as identifying suitable mechanisms for regular communication between all researchers.

2. Tools for remote data collection

There are a wide variety of tools that can be used for data collection that do not require face-to-face contact, and some are covered by other entries in this series. In this post, the focus is on tools that can be employed by local researchers (rather than by the external, possibly distant, researcher). For us, in South Africa we have primarily relied on Ernest making weekly telephone calls to low-income residents to check-in with them regarding their experiences of and needs within lockdown. These weekly calls have enabled Ernest to build up trust and an ongoing relationship with respondents, with a primary focus on *listening* rather than *asking* per se. While there have been limitations of using the telephone, primarily that of interrupting respondents when they are occupied in another task (even where the phone call time had been pre-arranged), with a responsive researcher this can be mitigated with a re-arranged phone call. It has been interesting that the telephone, a tool that has declined in research use over time, has been extremely useful in accessing communities where phone ownership is widespread but access to the internet is more limited. Furthermore, it is a tool that allows the costs to be primarily borne by the researcher (i.e. phone minutes or sometimes you can send data to peoples' telephone number), whereas many internet-based mechanisms require the respondent to pay for data/internet access in advance, although the requirement for electricity access to charge a phone is a limitation. Of course, there are a wide range of alternative tools, such as social media platforms (e.g. WhatsApp chat) as well as interactive voice recording systems (e.g. where participants can respond in their own time to set questions) that allow data to be collected remotely but with support from local researchers.

3. Shifting focus of data collection to respondents' immediate concerns

Our pre-covid19 research explored how low-income communities access energy at the household scale, including how these communities communicate with institutional authorities regarding their energy needs. As we shifted to remote data collection via local researchers, we felt it was appropriate to also shift the focus of our data collection, to explore how respondents were coping during lockdown. Consequently, the telephone calls involved asking respondents about their core community and individual needs during lockdown, and the community researcher was also active in sharing information that was requested by respondents (e.g. about lockdown regulations, access to resources in lockdown). We felt this was an ethical way to continue data collection during an exceptionally intense period of life for those in low-income communities. Also, even though we had to move away somewhat from our original focus, peoples' energy needs kept surfacing during the weekly phone calls as people mentioned for example that although they were given food parcels, they did not have sufficient energy to prepare the food. In the long-term, this has also strengthened our relationships with respondents that may support our energy-focused research in the future.

4. Is this colonial-esque exploitation?

One issue raised in our workshop was the risk that by using local researchers to extract data from distant (often global South) fieldsites, with those data then being analysed by researchers based elsewhere (often global North), that the reliance on local researchers could easily fall prey to a form of colonial-esque exploitation. This is an important concern, and will be addressed in a future entry. However, we discussed how avoiding exploitative relationships was reliant on the nature of the relationship between the researchers involved, as well as the collection (and sharing) of data that is of relevance to those being researched. We also hope that rather than 'exploitation' the changes brought about by covid19 could result in long-term positive changes in our research environment, one where our research is more driven and informed by needs expressed by stakeholders at the local level, which then feeds up to inform the work we as researchers do and allow us to apply for project funding that is directly driven from the bottom-up.

Suggested reading:

Manning, R., (2007). Working with local researchers. Justice for the poor briefing note; J4P (1), Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group.

Cummings, C., (2014). Working with community researchers. Centre for Local Economic Strategies.

Chakraborty, A., and Kaplan, L. (2020). Researchers must improve the working conditions for local collaborators. European Association of Development Research and Training Institutes Blog.

Baganda, S.B., (2019). The "local" researcher – merely a data collector?. OxfamBlogs.

16. Other Topic-specific databases you may find useful…

- **RGS Resources for Online Student Research
  https://www.rgs.org/research/higher-education-resources/online-dissertation/
- **Social and Cultural Geography - Doing Your Dissertation during Covid-19
  https://scgrg.co.uk/doing-your-dissertation-during-the-covid-19-pandemic
- Time for Geography (short videos) - https://timeforgeography.co.uk/
- Climate Change and Activism - https://insideclimatenews.org/
- Open Access Political Journalism - https://opendemocracy.net
- Decolonizing the Curriculum - https://globalsocialtheory.org
- African Activist Archive Project - http://africanactivist.msu.edu/index.php - website with some digital resources but also an A-Z list of other archives with holdings relating to 'activism against colonialism, apartheid and social justice from the 1950s to the 1990s'.
- Archives Autonomies - https://archivesautonomies.org/?lang=fr - website with many digitised copies of radical left-wing newspapers and pamphlets from the 1840s-onwards.
- Encyclopedia of Romantic Nationalism in Europe - https://ernie.uva.nl/viewer.p/21