

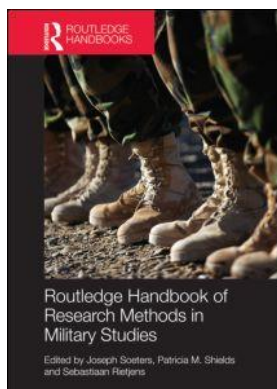
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Publisher: *Routledge*

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Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Military Studies

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Publication details

<https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9780203093801.ch27>

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Published online on: 09 Jun 2014

How to cite :- Patricia M. Shields, Travis A. Whetsell. 09 Jun 2014, *Doing Practical Research and Publishing in Military Studies from: Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Military Studies* Routledge

Accessed on: 03 Oct 2023

<https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9780203093801.ch27>

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DOING PRACTICAL RESEARCH AND PUBLISHING IN MILITARY STUDIES

Patricia M. Shields and Travis A. Whetsell

Risa A. Brooks (2008) *Shaping Strategy: The Civil–Military Politics of Strategic Assessment*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Shaping Strategy examines the mechanisms civilian and military leaders use as they decide to engage in war. Specifically it explains success and failure in strategic assessment – the processes and practices nations use to evaluate their strategies in interstate conflict. Brooks carefully lays out a theory, which identifies four key types of strategic assessment. When military and civilian leaders are free to share information privately information sharing (1) is effective. Strategic coordination (2) includes structures compatible with political objects that effectively evaluate military operational plans and military strategies. Authorization (3) incorporates decision processes that follow assessment. Militaries with the ability to be self-critical exhibit structural competence (4). Military promotion mechanisms are a key component here.

Success or failure in strategic assessment depends on whether military and civilian preferences diverge and how the balance of power is distributed (civilian, military or shared). Brooks develops five hypotheses, to explain the quality of the strategic assessment. For example, the best strategic assessments occur when civilian and military agreement is high and civilians dominate the balance of power (H1). The author demonstrates clarity of purpose and then supports her framework with appropriate literature, well-reasoned arguments and tables that clarify and emphasize key concepts and relationships. She sets the stage so that subsequent case study analysis is organized, coherent, and practical.

Brooks tests her hypotheses using eight case studies. The cases include Great Britain during WWI, Pakistan and Turkey in the late 1990s, the US in Iraq, Egypt in the 1960s and 1970s, and Great Britain and Germany before WWI. These cases demonstrated significant variation in strategic assessment effectiveness. For example, Egypt in 1962–67 was rated very poor overall and negative across all types of assessments. Conversely, Turkey (1996–1999) was rated fair overall and negative on strategic coordination and information sharing, and positive on authorization (pp. 262–263).

This is clearly an ambitious effort. Brooks uses accessible data such as historical records, government documents, transcripts, press reports, historical scholarship, records of interviews, and reports in the scholarly literature as sources of evidence to test her hypotheses. Her data sources provide a variety of information including behind the scenes deliberation that illustrate how the militaries of different countries act as they approach war. We see, for example, how corrupt promotion systems can result in faulty information reaching military and civilian leadership at critical times.

Brooks uses the key concepts developed in her theory section to organize the discussion of each case. Early in the case discussion information about the degree of divergence between the civilian and military leadership and whether power was held by the military, civilians or shared is presented. Subsequently, each type of strategic assessment (information sharing, strategic coordination etc.) is analyzed.

The strength of her findings across the eight cases is impressive and documented in an easy to interpret table. She shows that the challenging art of strategic assessment is enhanced when there is agreement between civilians and the military about strategy and when civilians are clearly in control. Further, strategic assessments are compromised more by a shared balance of power than by military control because agreement is difficult to attain.

The many meanings of practical research

There is nothing more practical than a good theory.

(Lewin 1952: 169)

Kurt Lewin's well known quote about the practicality of theory certainly applies to Brooks' study of strategic assessment. Without her carefully crafted conceptual framework it would have been almost impossible to make sense out of eight such disparate cases and sift through the myriad of data available on these conflicts. Brooks' (2008) definitions of strategic assessment and clear development of the four types of strategic assessment made key concepts easier to recognize and operationalize in their many manifestations. Further, her key explanatory factors (preference divergence and balance of power) draw from existing civil–military theory and have intuitive appeal. This framework enabled her to make sense of critical processes as countries face war. The reader leaves with fresh insight into the causes of strategic assessment breakdown.

This chapter examines practical research in its many dimensions. First, we look at purpose driven, practical research, which explicitly uses theory-as-tool to achieve the purpose and to provide coherence across methods of data collection and analysis. This discussion draws upon a pragmatic philosophy of science informed by the works of Charles Sanders Peirce (1877) and John Dewey (1938). This practical orientation is richly illustrated with military studies examples. Second, if military scholarship is to be practical, it needs to be published. So, we shift gears and examine the military studies journals. We identify top military studies journals and present their focus and disciplinary orientation. Third, we briefly review publication processes in scholarly journals and close with practical tips for navigating this process.

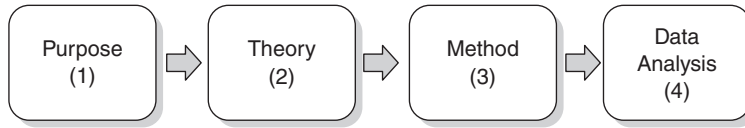


Figure 27.1 Research process model

The typical research process

A common research process model applied to empirical inquiry begins with the articulation of a purpose. Theory is then incorporated along with methodology/data collection and finally analysis of the findings (see Figure 27.1). In practice, this process is often blurry. The link between research purpose, theory, method(s) and findings is often obscured or nonexistent. In many cases theory is so abstract that it is difficult to see its applicability to either the purpose or data collection. Further, this problem deprives the research itself of wider theoretical application.

The practical research model developed in this chapter is designed to clarify and bring coherence to the links between research purpose, theory, method and data analysis. To accomplish this task examples of military studies research, which like Risa Brooks “connect purpose, theory, method and data analysis,” are provided. It should be noted that we are not making the case that the practical research orientation presented here is better than others. Rather, an important facet of theoretically informed, empirical research is highlighted.

Practical research has a clear purpose

Practical approach to research underscored by the philosophy of pragmatism clarifies the links in the research process by emphasizing theory as a useful tool to achieve the research purpose (Dewey 1938; Rescher 2012). Further, when theory and purpose are explicitly connected they bring coherence to data collection and analysis.

The link between research purpose and theory can become problematic when notions of theory used in empirical research ignore the research purpose. Stephen Van Evera (1997) defines theory as “general statements that describe and explain the causes or effects of classes of phenomena. They are composed of causal laws or hypotheses, explanations, and antecedent conditions” (8). Similarly, Earl Babbie (2007: Glossary 11) claims theory provides “a systematic explanation for the observations that relate to a particular aspect of life.” Babbie (2007) identifies three types of research purposes (exploration, description, and explanation) and does not link them explicitly to theory.

The unstated assumption is that the hypotheses of a given theory may achieve only explanatory purposes. This connection is explicit and useful in *practical* research, but it is not the only connection. Much research conducted under the umbrella of military studies is purely descriptive (Kümmel 2002; Hussain and Ishaq 2002) or exploratory (Hendrickson 2002; Ruiz 2010; Whetsell 2011). The explicit message of theory as the rationale underlying a set of hypotheses is that neither exploratory nor descriptive studies use theory.

The Deweyan approach to practical research widens the scope of theory to include ideas and abstractions outside of explanation, prediction and causation. The singular notion of theory as explanatory or predictive hypotheses is rejected. Instead Dewey’s (1938) theory-as-tool of inquiry is used to broaden the notion of theory so that it applies more explicitly to description, exploration and other research purposes. For example, categorization is a type of theory.

The periodic table of elements, and plant and animal taxonomies are examples of categories in science. In military studies, Gerhard Kümmel (2002: 559) used categories to describe “male soldiers’ opinions and images on the issue of women in the military.”

Just as a map is a tool that helps a traveler navigate the terrain, theoretical tools facilitate empirical inquiry. Theories like maps should be judged by their usefulness (ability to achieve the purpose). There is no expectation that a map is a true representation of reality. Rather, the expectation is that a map represents the relationship between a small set of important features, selected because they are relevant to the traveler, which ultimately enables the traveler to reach the destination (achieve a purpose). The research purpose itself can be conceptualized as a problematic situation to be resolved. Hence, in the final evaluation, theories are judged not by how well they describe, explain and predict reality, but how well they help resolve given problems (Laudan 1977).

Conceptual frameworks

Theory construction is often challenging because it crosses scale. Theory can be used to understand something large (causes of war) or narrow (reenlistment motivation in Canada). Brooks’ (2008) set of hypotheses (or theory) began fairly broad and then narrowed to provide explicit clues or directions for data analysis. She hones strategic assessment into four clear manifestations – strategic coordination, information sharing, authorization process and structural competence. Further, her explicit hypotheses logically and clearly link to her overall purpose. In this chapter we focus on theory development at this level. We call this type of intermediate theory a conceptual framework. And, define conceptual framework as *the organization of ideas to achieve a purpose* (Shields and Rangarajan 2013).

Borrowing a metaphor from traditional notions of ground warfare. The responsibility for winning a war lies at the top. Strategy is the theory used to achieve the goal of winning the war. Tactics move the focus to the battlefield and close to the ground maneuvers. Tactics would vary depending upon whether the goal was to cross a river, jungle, hill, valley, or siege a city. Tactics make little sense outside the immediate purpose. Strategy informs tactics yet strategy and tactics are distinct. Likewise, the big picture of civil–military relations theory informs Brooks’ (2008) more narrowly defined data-linked, strategic assessment conceptual framework. In this chapter, we focus on building and using conceptual frameworks as a practical tool of empirical research.

Because tactics are so close to the ground, they inform a host of other considerations – size of force, equipment, how to take into account weather, appropriate weapons, etc. Likewise, conceptual frameworks guide on-the-ground decisions like variable construction, statistical technique, sampling technique, who to interview, etc. Hence, for practical research studies conceptual frameworks become the connective tissue of the research enterprise. Conceptual frameworks are a kind of “intermediate theory” because they mediate between concrete research questions and data collection choices (Shields and Tajalli 2006).

From here forward we replace the term theory with conceptual framework because we wanted to denote this special type of intermediate, closer-to-the-data theory. By replacing causation/explanation with “organizing ideas to achieve a purpose” the applicability of theory is broadened beyond explanation and hypotheses. The link between purpose and framework is imbedded in its definition of “conceptual framework”; this connection *is* the overarching characteristic of practical research. The next step is to identify common research purpose/framework pairings. Shields and Tajalli (2006) identify purpose/framework pairings often found in social science and applied research (see Table 27.1).

Table 27.1 Research purpose conceptual framework pairing

<i>Research purpose</i>	<i>Conceptual framework</i>
Exploration	Working hypotheses
Description	Categories
Decision-making	Models of operations research
Explanation/prediction	Formal hypotheses

Table 27.1 begins with preliminary or early stage – exploratory research. This kind of inquiry occurs as a topic is being uncovered. It might be used in the problem formation stage or as a new policy or management approach is being considered. *Exploration* is linked with the flexible *working hypothesis*. Description is a way to make sense of a phenomenon. *Categorization* is the most common and ubiquitous way to approach *description*. Description also focuses on *what* questions and is often used in attitudinal survey research. In the 1960s in the United States, Robert McNamara introduced decision-making tools from private industry to the armed forces (Hitch and McKean 1960). The goal was to make the institution more efficient through the tools of operations research such as cost effectiveness analysis. These tools are commonly used to address questions about weapon systems or large investments like base road construction. Hence, *decision-making* and *operations research* are paired.

Explanation/Formal hypothesis is the final purpose/framework pairing. We use the term formal hypothesis to distinguish between working (which may or may not be relational) hypotheses and formal (always relational) hypotheses. Explanation and its mirror image prediction are the research purpose that represents the type of military studies research most commonly found in academic journals.

Examples of practical research from military studies

Explanatory research is by far the most common empirical methodology found in scholarly journals. One would expect that there would be a clear link between purpose and formal hypothesis. This is often not the case because the purpose statement is muddled, the hypotheses are disconnected from the purpose, the hypotheses are muddled or all three. Most of these studies, of course, do not reach the pages of a journal. But with acceptance rates for top journals running between 2 and 20 percent, it is not surprising that a foggy purpose statement, weak literature review and missing theoretical framework is a common criticism for manuscripts that never see publication.

Given the emphasis in practical research on achieving a purpose, it is not surprising that the introduction and setting for the paper's purpose is of particular importance. A clear statement of what the study plans to accomplish should occur early in the paper and be easy to find. In their study of children's adjustment to parental deployment Andres and Moelker (2011: 419) a two-part purpose used: "The purpose of this study is twofold: (a) to delineate the experiences of Dutch children and their parents in the course of service members deployment to Bosnia or Afghanistan and (b) to examine factors that predict children's adjustment difficulties during parental absence and upon reunion." The first part of the research question explicated something like a descriptive purpose. During the discussion of the results the authors used loose categories (subheadings) loosely based on a timeline (prior to departure, absence . . . reunion and perspective (child or parents) to examine the "experiences of Dutch children and their parents in the course of service members deployment." The second purpose was explanatory and asked

what predicted (or explained) children's adjustment to deployment. They developed a coherent set of hypotheses to achieve this purpose.

Adres, Vanhuyse and Vashdi (2012: 93) provide another example of a clear purpose statement: "This article aims to connect two of the most often studied social science phenomena in recent decades – the social consequences of globalization and contributions to national public goods. We explore a possible causal link between these phenomena in one salient case: the tendency to evade military conscription in Israel." This purpose statement takes into account the author's multiple imbedded agendas. Big questions about the influence of globalization and public service values are narrowed to the case of conscription evasion in Israel. (For other examples of clear purpose statements in military studies research see Ben-Dor et al. 2002; Wombacher and Felfe 2012; and Hogan and Seifert 2010.)

Explanatory research generally seeks the answer to a "why question." "Why questions" seek causes. An answer to a "why question" often begins with *because*. Hypotheses are expected and testable answers to "why questions." Van Evera (1997: 8) argues that hypotheses in their most general form can be reduced to "if X then Y" or "If X then Y with probability A." In other words X explains Y. The answer to the "why question" is X. Brains et al. (2011: 29) identify three characteristics of formal hypotheses. Formal hypotheses are (1) declarative sentences; (2) identify a relationship (often directional); and (3) are specific. Adres et al. (2012: 98) develop five hypotheses to explain a tendency to evade conscription. Their first hypothesis fit the characteristics of a hypothesis quite well: "The greater the individual's level of individualism, the greater will be his/her tendency to evade military service" (2012: 98).

Exploratory research and working hypotheses are some of the most basic kind of research in military studies. Historically, military leaders relied on scouts to bring back information about the enemy or the terrain. If they carried with them a more or less uniform set of assessment criteria they would have a framework akin to working hypotheses. This example shows the usefulness of exploratory research – one must begin somewhere and if possible be systematic and purposeful about it. On the other hand, exploratory research usually is incomplete and suggestive. Many a battle was lost because a scout missed something.

Ryan Hendrickson (2002) used the term proposition in lieu of working hypotheses to study diversionary use of force under President Clinton. Previously, the research on diversionary use of force employed aggregated time series data and examined "many uses of force, testing for the relevance of factors such as the domestic economy's strength" (Hendrickson 2002: 309). Hendrickson wanted to explore presidential behavior to "discern whether the military action was 'diversionary' in specific cases" (309). Clinton at the time was embroiled in the Monica Lewinski scandal and would have had a great incentive to engage in a military strike as a way to divert public attention away from this scandal. Were Clinton's strikes on Bin Laden and Operation Desert Fox diversionary or were they a strategic response to real security threat?

To answer this question Hendrickson (2002) articulated a clear purpose statement "This article explores four propositions regarding diversionary employment of force to examine two military strikes by Clinton in 1998 ..." He makes the case that the propositions and case study approach are a "novel way to assess this question" (310). Two of his propositions take into account decision-making conditions prior to the use of force. For example, Proposition 1 states, "Prior to a diversionary use of force, the president's group of advisers is purposively kept to a minimum and the strike is conducted unilaterally" (310). Each of his propositions were developed using carefully crafted arguments that are connected to the theoretical and historical literature. The propositions were also constructed so that supporting or disconfirming evidence was relatively clear. This made evidence collection and analysis of the data relatively straightforward. Finally, the

case’s evidence was systematically presented and organized by the propositions. All research components (purpose, framework, data collection, data analysis) were coherently connected – the hallmark of practical research.

Academic journals of military studies

As indicated in the introduction, practical research is also used for that to happen, it should be published. The next section focuses on the top journal outlets for military studies research. There are many outlets to publish empirical research in military studies. Unfortunately, up until only recently, a select few military studies journals had metrics with which to evaluate their merit. Further these journals were subsumed within the rankings of related fields such as international studies, political science, sociology, history and psychology. There was no easy, straightforward way to locate the top military studies journals. Recently this has changed with the advent of Google Scholar’s ranking of military studies journals.

We have used the Google Scholar ranking to organize the top 20 journals in military studies (see Table 27.2). In addition, other useful information such as their Journal Citation Report two- and five-year impact factors is presented as well as the journal’s focus and audience, and publisher. There should be enough information in this table to give a military studies scholar a good sense of the top journals in the field.

Table 27.2 Military: Top 20 rankings

<i>Journal title</i>	<i>Google Scholar “Military Studies” H-stat ranking</i>	<i>Journal citation reports: 2-Year and 5-Year impact factor</i>	<i>Journal’s focus and audience</i>	<i>Publisher</i>
<i>International Security</i>	1	2.333 3.529	Security Studies. Traditional topics such as war and peace, as well as more recent dimensions of security, such as demographics of humanitarian issues. International Audience.	MIT Press
<i>Security Dialogue</i>	2	1.032 2.021	Security Studies. Marries theory and new empirical findings relevant to security. Multidisciplinary. International Audience.	Sage
<i>Washington Quarterly</i>	3	0.775 0.742	Broad International Affairs. Analyzes global strategic changes and their public policy implications. U.S. role in the world, missile defense, implications of political change. International Audience.	Routledge

<i>Survival</i>	4	0.613 0.583	Strategic Studies. Analysis and debate of international and strategic affairs. Policy relevant in approach. International Audience.	Routledge
<i>International Peacekeeping</i>	5	0.585 Not available	Peace Studies. Peacekeeping and peacekeeping operations. International Audience.	Routledge
<i>Military Review</i>	6	Not measured	Military Science Studies. Provides a forum for the open exchange of ideas on military affairs; focuses on the concepts, doctrines, and combat at the tactical and operational levels of war. International, Professional Military Audience.	U.S. Command and General Staff School
<i>Security Studies</i>	7	0.864 1.11	Security Studies. International security studies, including historical, theoretical and policy articles on the causes of war and peace. International Audience.	Routledge
<i>Military Psychology</i>	8	0.72 1.244	Military Psychology Studies. Psychological research and practice within a military environment International, Psychology Profession Audience.	Routledge
<i>Journal of Strategic Studies</i>	9	0.933 0.725	Strategic Studies. Multidisciplinary, forward-looking articles concerning military and diplomatic strategy in terms of strategic studies. International Audience.	Routledge
<i>Armed Forces & Society</i>	10	0.815 0.918	Civil-Military Relations. Military institutions, civil-military relations, arms control and peacemaking and conflict management. Interdisciplinary International Audience.	Sage
<i>Orbis: A Journal of World Affairs</i>	11	Not measured	International Relations. U.S. foreign policy. International Audience.	Elsevier

(continued)

Table 27.2 (continued)

<i>Journal title</i>	<i>Google Scholar “Military Studies” H-stat ranking</i>	<i>Journal citation reports: 2-Year and 5-Year impact factor</i>	<i>Journal’s focus and audience</i>	<i>Publisher</i>
<i>Small Wars and Insurgencies</i>	12	Not measured	International Relations and Conflict Studies. Directed at providing a forum for the discussion of the historical, political, social, economic and psychological aspects of insurgency, counter- insurgency, limited war, peacekeeping operations and the use of force as an instrument of policy	Routledge
<i>Joint Forces Quarterly</i>	13	Not measured	International Audience. Security and Military Studies. Topics include joint and integrated operations, whole of government contributions to national security policy and strategy, homeland security and developments in training and joint military education.	National Defense University Press
<i>Contemporary Security Policy</i>	14	Not measured	U.S., Professional National Security Audience. Conflict and Security Studies. Research on policy problems of armed violence, peace building and conflict resolution, including: war and armed conflict, strategic culture, security studies, defense policy, weapons procurement, conflict resolution, arms control, disarmament.	Routledge
<i>European Security</i>	15	Not measured	International Audience. Security Studies. Forum for discussing challenges and approaches to security within the region as well as for Europe in a global context. European Audience.	Routledge

<i>Nonproliferation Review</i>	16	Not measured	Peace and Security Studies. Concerned with the causes, consequences, and control of the spread of nuclear, chemical, biological, and conventional weapons. Debates issues: state-run weapons programs, treaties and export controls, terrorism, and the economic and environmental effects of weapons proliferation.	Routledge
<i>RUSI Journal</i> (Royal United Services Institute)	17	Not measured	Defense and Security Studies. Forum for the exchange of ideas on national and international defense and security issues. Topics include war and conflict, the UK's and other states' armed forces and defense and security policies, and military history.	Routledge
<i>Defense and Security Analysis</i>	18	Not measured	International Audience. Security Studies. Defense theory and analysis. Sample topics include: comparative defense policies, economies of defense, historical patterns in defense, and terrorism studies.	Routledge
<i>Parameters</i>	19	Not measured	International Audience. Military Science Studies. Art and science of land warfare, joint and combined matters, national and international security affairs, military strategy, military leadership and management, military history, ethics, and other topics of significant and current interest to the US Army.	U.S. Army War College
<i>International Journal of Intelligence and Counterintelligence</i>	20	Not measured	International, Professional Military Audience. Intelligence Studies. Issues and challenges encountered by both government and business institutions in making contemporary intelligence-related decisions and policy.	Routledge
			International Audience.	

The steps to submitting a journal article

Academic journals use a blind peer-review process to select the articles that appear in their pages. A potential author should carefully consider which journal to submit to. The list in Table 27.2 is a good place to start. All of these journals have websites, which should be reviewed to learn the specifics of the submission process. Many journals use a web-based manuscript management system while others seek manuscripts by email or in a disk using regular mail. Regardless of the method of arrival, a new manuscript will be reviewed using a consistent set of procedures.

The process is known as blind peer review because the author and the reviewers are unknown to each other. This process is designed to ensure objectivity in the review process. So, the manuscript itself should be scrubbed of information that would identify the author(s). Once the manuscript has been reviewed for consistency with the form proscribed in the submission guidelines it is passed to the editor for review. The editor often rejects the manuscript at this point. One of the most common reasons for rejection is a manuscript that does not fit the mission or scope of the journal. If a manuscript gets through the editors initial screen, it is sent out for review. The editor contacts potential subject matter expert reviewers asking them whether they would be available to review the manuscript. Most manuscripts have three anonymous reviewers. The reviewers are generally asked to return the reviews within 30–45 days.

The reviews generally contain two items. One is the overall assessment of the manuscript (reject, revise and resubmit, and accept). Second, reviewers make suggestions to improve the paper. Most of the time, even if the manuscript is rejected, the reviewer comments provide the author with useful ways to improve the paper, which enable subsequent success. If the author received a revise and resubmit it is very important to carefully consider and respond to all of the reviewer comments. If the comments are lengthy and call for rethinking parts of the paper, authors should give the undertaking the reflective thought needed to take the review seriously. Nothing gets a reviewer more annoyed than a superficial response to suggested changes. Sometimes the reviews are short and easy to implement. Although nothing should be taken for granted, reviews of this nature often signal that the paper is on the road to acceptance. If the reviews contradict each other, the author should seek advice from the editor. It is very rare for a manuscript to be accepted the first round. In these rare cases, reviewers often have a few suggestions for improvement that should be taken into account.

When submitting a revised manuscript, authors should be sure to include a way for the reviewers and editors to know how the reviewer comments were addressed. Sometimes the editor asks for a letter that details their response; other editors want the changes made with track changes. The revised manuscript along with response to the reviewer comments is returned to the original reviewers for their assessment. Most of the time the decision is (accept or reject). Sometimes it takes three or more rounds. Each time the author response is repeated.

If the manuscript is accepted the author usually is asked to submit a “final” draft that adheres to the publishers checklist for accepted manuscripts. The publisher is responsible for copy-editing the manuscript and ensuring all of the references in the bibliography and text match. When the copy-editor has completed their changes and identified any questions, the edited paper along with author queries are sent to the author. The author, of course, should respond quickly. Once the paper is copy-edited it moves to typesetting; the author will get a chance to review the typeset version for a final approval. The manuscript is now an accepted article ready to be assigned to an issue.

Tips for successful publication

Generally high-quality journals have acceptance rates under 20 percent. What can an author do to improve the likelihood of success? While there is no substitute for a strong, quality, manuscript that makes an important new contribution, there are ways to increase the likelihood for acceptance. The first and perhaps most important is the question of “fit.” The authors should try and ensure that the manuscript fits well within the scope of the journal. The best way to get a sense of fit is to look closely at several issues of the journal. Is the subject matter broadly compatible? Look at the bibliography. What kinds of references are common? For example, if the bibliographies are weighted toward journal articles, it is a mistake to have most of the references government reports and newspaper articles. Likewise, a journal that publishes mostly empirical, quantitative studies is less likely to consider a normative, policy essay.

If the manuscript’s topic is frequently discussed in recent issues (past 5 years) the likelihood of a good fit increases. If not, a persuasive yet subtle argument needs to be made that the topic works. Most of the time it makes sense to discard the journal as a choice and move to another more appropriate fit. Keep in mind that publishing a journal article is entering into a conversation about the topic. A paper should add something to the conversation and it should be respectful of the ongoing conversation. This means that the proper literature should be cited and if possible, sources from the journal should be included.

Technical methodological issues such as the appropriate statistical technique, an adequate sample size and hypotheses that are presented in testable form should be considered. Journal editors are interested in papers with external validity. Their journal’s audience extends well beyond the walls of an organization like the US Army or a single country. Further, the higher the quality the writing the greater the chances of success. Quality writing includes organization, clarity, grammar, paragraph cohesion/coherence and proper citations.

The extensive array of expertise and knowledge necessary for a successful journal article perhaps explains why so many articles are co-authored. Two or three authors may have the set of strengths and sufficient time unavailable to a single author. Since so many authors in military studies have professional military duties time could easily be an even more problematic issue. Further, senior authors can act as mentors. Perhaps more importantly, co-authoring helps to build a network of colleagues interested in the same field of study. A successful ongoing scholarly agenda depends on ideas, data and enthusiasm for the enterprise. Sharing work and ideas with colleagues helps these ideas grow and direct new fruitful inquiry. In addition, a set of colleagues can provide support and direction when confronted with a complicated revise and resubmit letter or a devastating reject letter. It is useful to share work widely and present papers prior to submission. That way, the merits of the work can be gauged using the feedback of a still wider audience.

Conclusion

This chapter began with a positive evaluation of Risa Brooks’ research design, as both an excellent work of military scholarship and an example of practical research. Practical, purpose oriented scholarship uses theory as a tool that coherently connects purpose to methods, data collection, and results. Several examples of practical research were presented in their many manifestations. In addition the typology of Shields and Tajalli (2006), connecting research purpose to conceptual framework, was presented as a way to think about producing practical research. This chapter has argued that a pragmatic approach to research design, in the tradition of John Dewey and C.S. Peirce, allows differing conceptual frameworks to satisfy varying research purposes,

in distinction to traditions in philosophy of science that accept only explanatory and predictive endeavors.

The final section of the chapter presented practical information, which may demystify the art of publishing in scholarly journals. Perhaps the most important practical tip this chapter can offer is the role of the introduction, problem statement and purpose in setting the stage for an accepted article. In addition, a short list of the top journals in military journals was identified along with their focus and audience. In general, editors of these journals will evaluate research based on whether they can find a clear and compelling purpose and whether a clear framework for accomplishing the research goal is presented. Does the framework help to make sense of variable definition and statistical or qualitative data analysis techniques? Emerging scholars need to ask themselves if they have designed their research in such a way as to allow for coherence between purpose, theory, methods, and results. If the field of military studies finds that the answer to this question is increasingly yes, then, as this chapter has argued, it will maintain and further develop coherence as an interdisciplinary, applied field in the service of both theory and practice.

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