ҚҚДУ ҲУЗУРИДАГИ МИНТАҚАВИЙ МАРКАЗИ

2022

Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда лингвистик метод ва ёндашувлар

Ходжиева Дилбар ф.ф.н доцент

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ҚОРАҚАЛПОҚ ДАВЛАТ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ ҲУЗУРИДАГИ ПЕДАГОГ КАДРЛАРНИ ҚАЙТА ТАЙЁРЛАШ ВА УЛАРНИНГ МАЛАКАСИНИ ОШИРИШ МИНТАҚАВИЙ МАРКАЗИ

“ТАДҚИҚОТЛАР ОЛИБ БОРИШДА ЛИНВИСТИК МЕТОД ВА ЁНДАШУВЛАР” МОДУЛИ БЎЙИЧА

Ў Қ У В – У С Л У Б И Й М А Ж М У А

Қайта тайёрлаш ва малака ошириш курси йўналиши: Филология ва тилларни укитиш(инглиз тили)

Тингловчилар контингенти: Олий таълим муассасалари профессор-ўқитувчилари

Нукус – 2022

Модулнинг укув услубий мажмуаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2020 йил “7”-декабрдаги 648-сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган ўқув дастури ва ўқув режасига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган**.**

Тузувчи:

Д.Т.Хаджиева – филология фанлари номзоди

Тақризчилар:

А.Тажиева –педагогика фанлари номзоди,доцент

Дж.Курбанбаев - педагогика фанлари номзоди,доцент

Ўқув-услубий мажмуа Бердақ номидаги Қорақалпоқ давлат университети илмий-методик кенгаши (2020 йил “30”-декабрдаги 5-сонли баённомаси).

М У Н Д А Р И Ж А

I. ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

Кириш

“Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар” модули Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2017 йил 7 февралдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикасини янада ривожлантириш бўйича Ҳаракатлар стратегияси тўғрисида”ги ПФ-4947-сон, 2019 йил 27 августдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг узлуксиз малакасини ошириш тизимини жорий этиш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5789-сон, 2019 йил 8 октябрдаги “Ўзбекистон Республикаси олий таълим тизимини 2030 йилгача ривожлантириш концепциясини тасдиқлаш тўғрисида”ги ПФ-5847-сонли Фармонлари, Ўзбекистон Республикаси Вазирлар Маҳкамасининг 2019 йил 23 сентябрдаги “Олий таълим муассасалари раҳбар ва педагог кадрларининг малакасини ошириш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш бўйича қўшимча чора-тадбирлар тўғрисида”ги 797-сонли ҳамда Ўзбекистон Республикаси Президентининг 2012 йил 10 декабрдаги “Чет тилларни ўрганиш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора-тадбирлари тўғрисида”ги ПҚ-1875-сонли қарорларида белгиланган устувор вазифалар мазмунидан келиб чиққан ҳолда тузилган бўлиб, у олий таълим муассасалари педагог кадрларининг касб маҳорати ҳамда инновацион компетентлигини ривожлантириш, соҳага оид илғор хорижий тажрибалар, янги билим ва малакаларни ўзлаштириш, шунингдек амалиётга жорий этиш кўникмаларини такомиллаштиришни мақсад қилади.

Модулнинг мақсади ва вазифалари

“**Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар**” **модулининг мақсади:** Тадқиқот ва тадқиқотнини ташкил этиш учун маълумот йиғиш методологияси: бирламчи ва иккиламчи маълумотлар йиғиш ва ушбу маълумотларни таҳлил қилиш. Адабиётлар шарҳининг мақсади. Тадқиқотнинг услубий таъминоти. Намуна ва унинг турлари. Маълумот тўплаш тартиби. Сифатли усул. Миқдорий усул. Аралаш усул.

Обьект ва улардан турли хил тадқиқот усулларида фойдаланиш. Амалий ишнинг жараёнлари билиб ва уларни амвлиётда куллаш.

Маълумотларнинг таҳлили. Маълумотни таҳлил қилиш учун метод ва ёндашувлар. Режалаштириш, маълумотлар, восита, таҳлил ўртасидаги боқлиқлик. Тадқиқотнинг ишончлилиги ва асослилиги.

Таҳлил этиш натижасида маълумот тайёрлаш: мақола, китоб ва диссертация шаклдаги таҳлилий материаллар ёзиш. Scopus va Science Direct халқаро илмий-техник маълумотлар базасидан фойдаланиш ва илмий мақолаларни юқори импакт-факторга эга журналларда чоп этиш

“**Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар**” **модулининг вазифалари:**

- Тадқиқот ва тадқиқотнини ташкил этиш учун маълумот йиғиш методологияси масалаларига илмий ёндашиш, бирламчи ва иккиламчи маълумотлар йиғиш ва ушбу маълумотларни таҳлил қилиш, Адабиётлар шарҳининг мақсади. Тадқиқотнинг услубий таъминоти масалалари таълим-тарбия жараёнида аҳамияти ва тингловчиларда уларни аниқ илмий назарий таҳлил қилишни вужудга келтиришга эришиш;

Маълумотларнинг таҳлили. Маълумотни таҳлил қилиш учун метод ва ёндашувлар. Режалаштириш, маълумотлар, восита, таҳлил ўртасидаги боқлиқлик. Тадқиқотнинг ишончлилиги ва асослилиги ни тажрибада амалий дарсларда тахлил килиш.

Таҳлил этиш натижасида маълумот тайёрлаш: мақола, китоб ва диссертация шаклдаги таҳлилий материаллар ёзиш. Scopus va Science Direct халқаро илмий-техник маълумотлар базасидан фойдаланиш ва илмий мақолаларни юқори импакт-факторга эга журналларда чоп этиш

Анъанавий ва замонавий таҳлил методлари асосида лисоний ва маданий тузилмаларнинг ўзаро муносабатини аниқлаш ва таҳлил ўтказиш. Билимлар тузилмалари ва ахборотнинг акс эттирилиши йўлларини ўрганишга қаратилган когнитив методлар.

Модул бўйича тингловчиларнинг билими, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйиладиган талаблар

“**Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар**” **модулини** ўзлаштириш жараёнида амалга ошириладиган масалалар доирасида тингловчилар:

– бирламчи ва иккиламчи маълумотлар йиғиш ва ушбу маълумотларни таҳлил қилиш, Адабиётлар шарҳининг мақсади. Тадқиқотнинг услубий таъминоти масалалари таълим-тарбия жараёнида аҳамияти ва тингловчиларда уларни аниқ илмий назарий таҳлил қилишни қўллаш принциплари ва усулларини **билиши** керак;

– Маълумотларнинг таҳлили. Маълумотни таҳлил қилиш учун метод ва ёндашувлар. Режалаштириш, маълумотлар, восита, таҳлил ўртасидаги боқлиқлик. Тадқиқотнинг ишончлилиги ва асослилиги ни курсатиб бера олиш **кўникмаларига эга бўлиши** зарур.

– Таҳлил этиш натижасида маълумот тайёрлаш: мақола, китоб ва диссертация шаклдаги таҳлилий материаллар ёзиш. Scopus va Science Direct халқаро илмий-техник маълумотлар базасидан фойдаланиш ва илмий мақолаларни юқори импакт-факторга эга журналларда чоп этиш малакаларини эгаллаши лозим.

Модулнинг ўқув режадаги бошқа модуллар билан боғлиқлиги ва узвийлиги

“**Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар**” фан мазмуни ўқув режадаги “Таълим жараёнига рақамли технологияларни жорий этиш” “Тилшунослик назариясининг тил амалиётига интеграцияси” ўқув модулларии билан узвий боғланган ҳолда профессор –ўқитувчиларнинг умумий тайёргарлик даражасини оширишга хизмат қилади.

Модулнинг олий таълимдаги ўрни

Модулни ўзлаштириш орқали тингловчилар Тадқиқотлар олиб боришда линвистик метод ва ёндашувлар хакида ва унинг истиқболли

йўналишлари профилига мос зарурий билим, кўникма ва малакаларни ўзлаштирадилар ва касбий махоратларини ривожлантирадилар.

Модул бўйича соатлар тақсимоти:

№	Модул мавзулари	Тингловчининг ўқув юкламаси, соат			
		Ҳаммаси	Аудитория ўқув юкламаси		
			Жами	жумладан	
				Назарий	Амалий машғулот
1	Research methodology Primary research and secondary research Data collection methods	2	2		2
2.	Qualitative research and Quantitative Research Methods	2	2		2
3.	Research Problem Identification of a Research Problem Formulation of Hypothesis Experimental method There are three types of experiments need to know – 1. Laboratory / Controlled Experiments Field Experiments Natural Experiments	2	2		2
4.	Focus group discussion (FGD) Standardization of questions How to ChooseYour Participants Number of focus groups conducted Level of moderator involvement Facilitate group discussion	2	2		2
5.	Interviews Method A. Structured, B. Semi-structure or C. Unstructured. Face to face interview Informal Interviewing Focus Groups Tests	2	2		2
6	Observational method Structured and Unstructured Observation Direct and Indirect Observation Controlled and Un-controlled Observation Naturalistic Observation	2	2		2
7	Questionnaire methodDichotomous, where the respondent has two options. Nominal-polytomous, Ordinal-polytomous, Continuous	2	2		2
8	Case study method Case studies are multi-perspectives analyses case study method includes continuing, completeness, validity, and data as it deals with the life of social unit or units or society as whole. Descriptive case studies Collective Involves studying a group of cases. Instrumental. Analytic strategy	2	2		2
9	**Total**	**16**	**16**		**16**

АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАР МАЗМУНИ
CONTENT OF PRACTICAL CLASSES

Theme 1: Research methodology

Primary research and secondary research Data collection methods

Theme 2: Qualitative research and Quantitative Research Methods

Theme 3: Research Problem Identification of a Research Problem Formulation of Hypothesis Experimental method There are three types of experiments need to know.

1. Laboratory / Controlled Experiments

Field Experiments Natural Experiments

Theme 4: Focus group discussion (FGD) Standardization of questions How to ChooseYour Participants Number of focus groups conducted Level of moderator involvement Facilitate group discussion

Theme 5 ; Interviewers Method

A. Structured B. Semi-structure or C. Unstructured.

Face to face interview Informal Interviewing Focus Groups Tests

Theme 6: Observational method Structured and Unstructured Observation Direct and Indirect Observation Controlled and Un-controlled Observation Naturalistic Observation

Theme 7: Questionnaire method Dichotomous, where the respondent has two options. • Nominal-polytomous, Ordinal-polytomous,

• Continuous

Theme 8: Case study method Case studies are multi-perspectives analyses case study method includes continuing, completeness, validity, and data as it deals with the life of social unit or units or society as whole. Descriptive case studies Collective Involves studying a group of cases. Instrumental. Analytic strategy

II. МОДУЛНИ ЎҚИТИШДА ФОЙДАЛАНИЛАДИГАН ИНТРЕФАОЛ ТАЪЛИМ МЕТОДЛАРИ

Action Research is based on the following assumptions:

- Teachers and principals work best on problems they have identified for themselves;
- Teachers and principals become more effective when encouraged to examine and assess their own work and then consider ways of working differently;

Steps required to design and administer a questionnaire

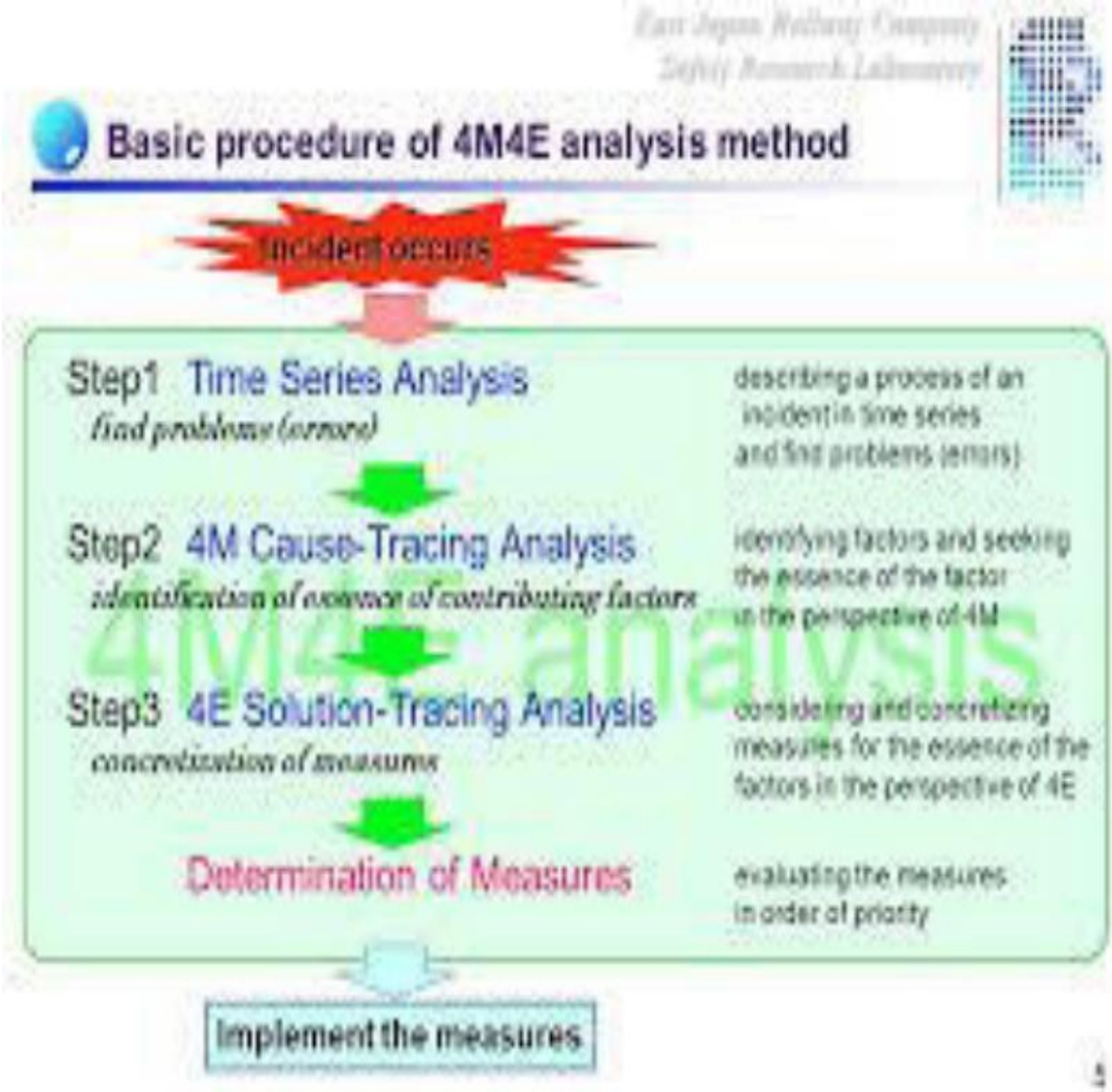
1. Defining the Objectives of the Study
2. Define the target respondents and methods to reach them.
3. Questionnaire Design
4. Pilot Testing
5. Questionnaire Administration
6. Results Interpretation

CLUSTER

is the task of grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group (called a cluster) are more similar (in some sense or another) to each other than to those in other groups (clusters).

INCIDENT PROCESS

This teaching style involves a case study format, but the process is not so rigid as a full case study training session. The focus is on learning how to solve real problems that involve real people. Small groups of participants are provided details from actual incidents and then asked to develop a workable solution



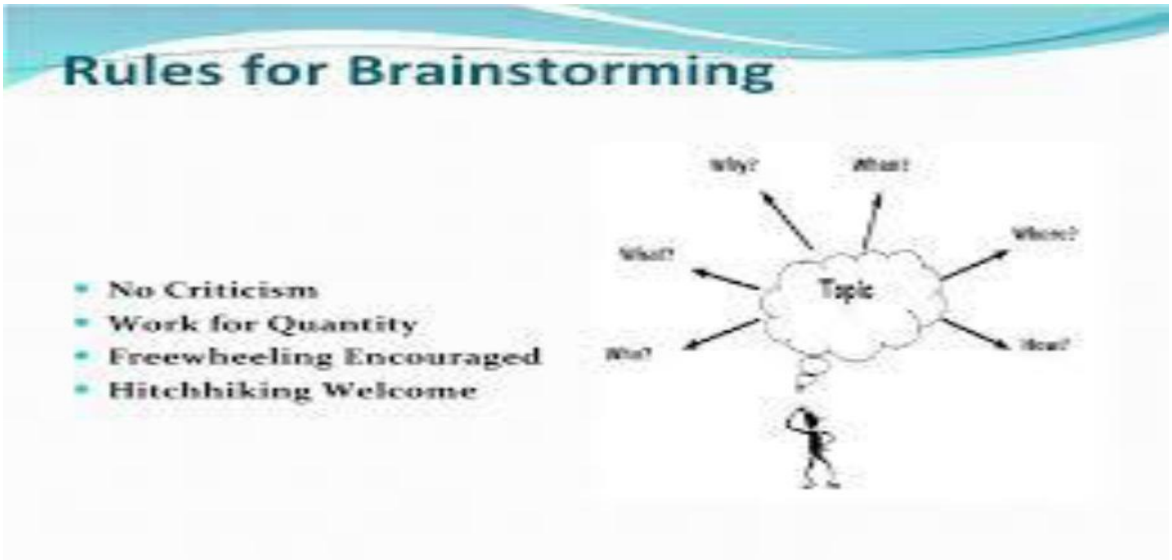
Q&A SESSIONS

On the heels of every topic introduction, but prior to formal lecturing, the teacher requires students to jot down questions pertaining to the subject matter on 3Ч5 index cards. The lecture begins after the cards are collected. Along the route, the teacher reads and answers the student-generated questions. Some tips for a good session are as follows:

Randomize — Rather than following the order of collection or some alphabetical name list, establish some system that evokes student guesswork concerning the order of student involvement.

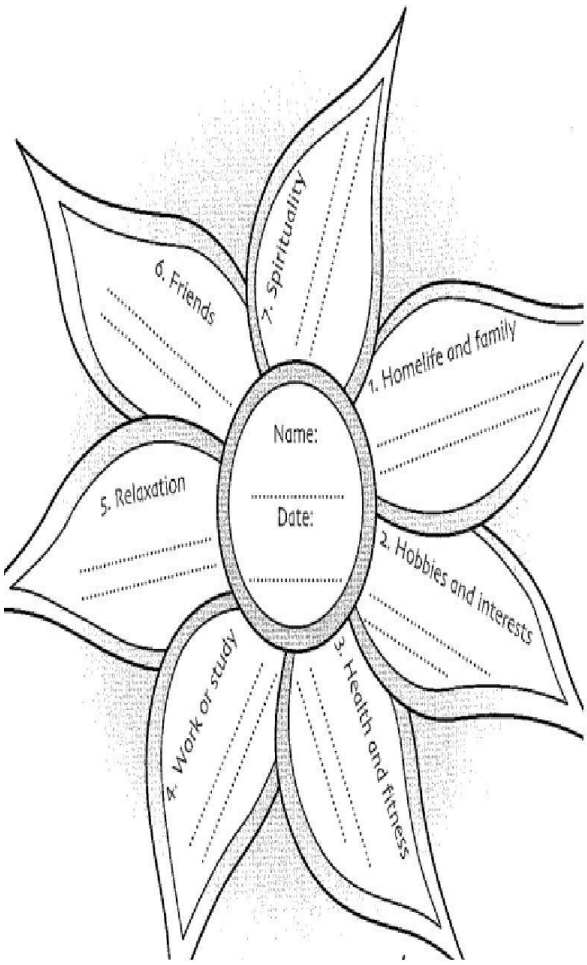
Keep it open-ended — If necessary, rephrase student questions so that participants must analyze, evaluate and then justify the answers.

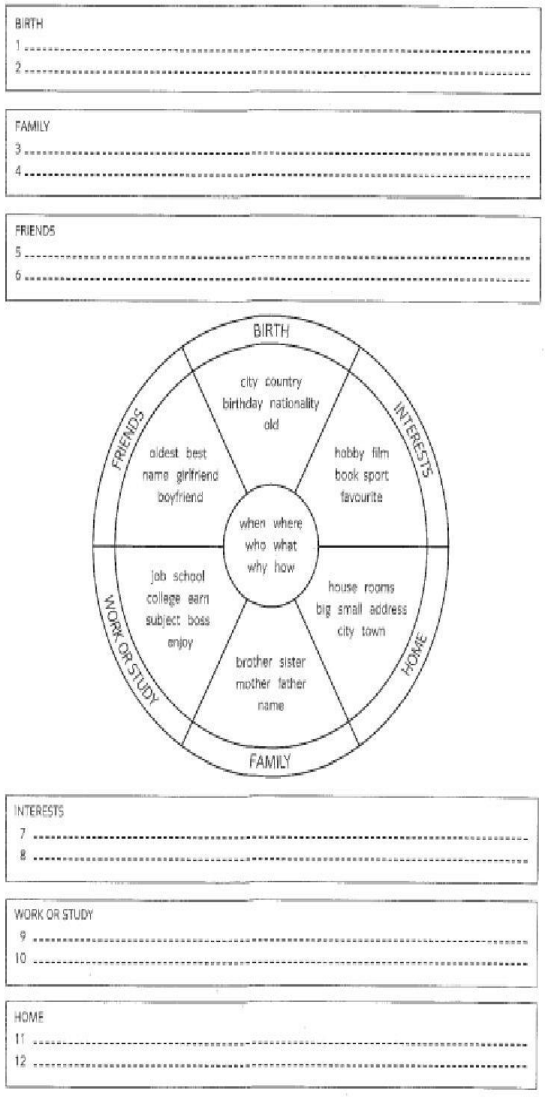
Hop it up — Gradually increase the speed of the Q & A. At some point, you should limit the responses to a single answer, moving faster and faster from question to question.



INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITY

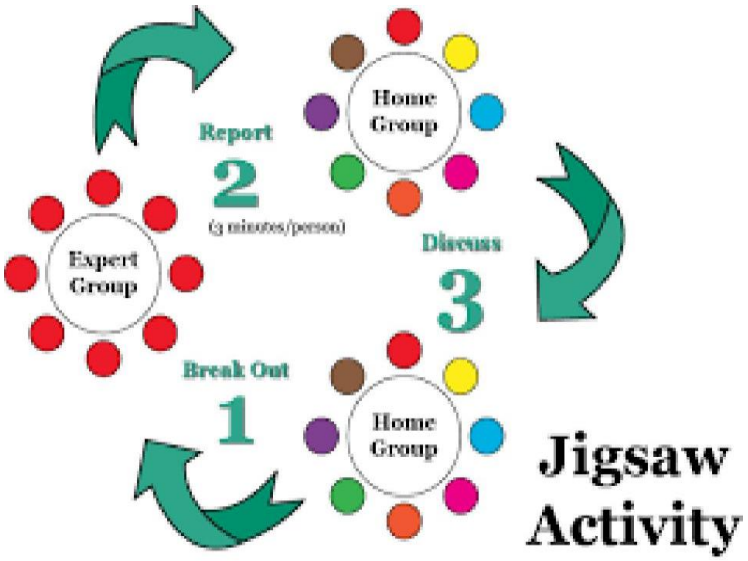
an activity in which a pair or two groups of students hold different 11 information, or where one partner knows something that the other doesn_t. This gives a real purpose to a communication activity. An information gap activity is an activity where learners are missing the information they need to complete a task and need to talk to each other to find it.





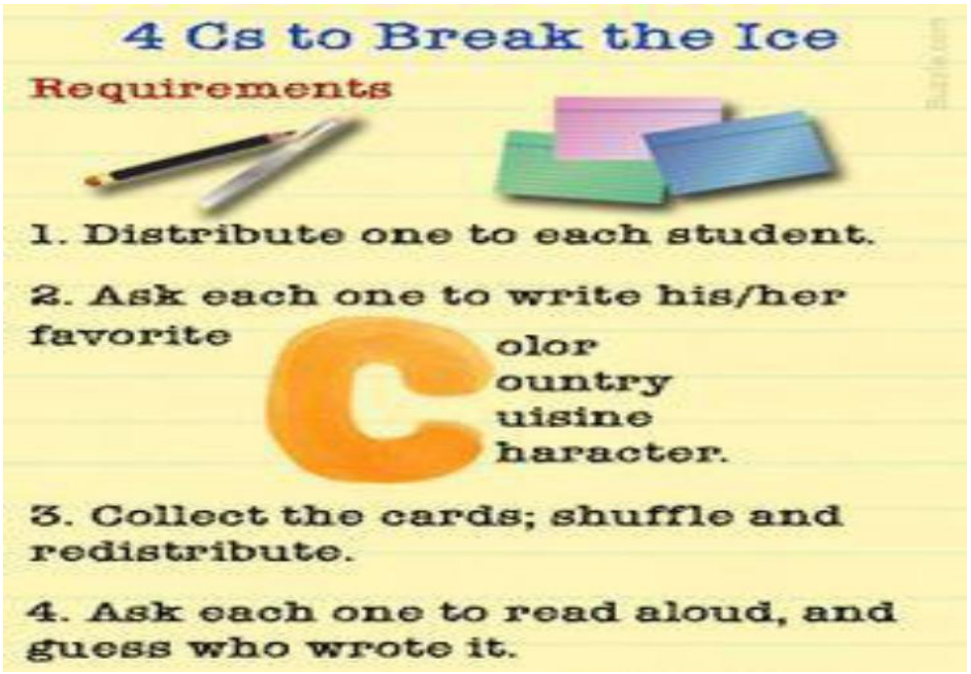
JIG-SAW ACTIVITY

A type of co-operative activity in which each member of a group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task. Often used in reading work when each learner or group of learners reads and understands a part of a text, then takes part in pooling information to establish the meaning or message of the whole text.



meet. **ICE-BREAKER**

An activity to make learners feel less nervous or inhibited when they first

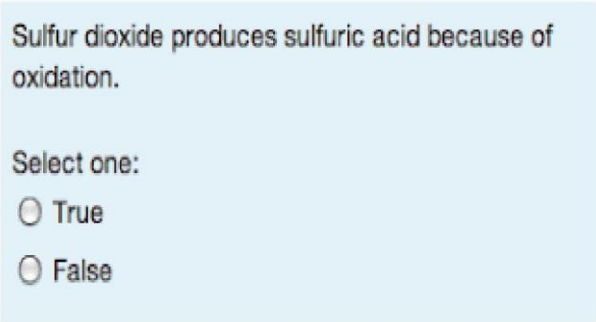


PRESENTATION

The way which something is offered, shown or explained others. A formal monologue presents ideas, opinions or a business proposal

TRUE-FALSE ACTIVITY

It is a strategy of teaching students, where a teacher allows students to compare two different historical perspectives to the same question. It allows students to see differing opinions to the same problem and go about doing history. It is designed to add inquiry into the teaching of history.



THINK, PAIR AND SHARE

Establish a problem or a question. Pair the students. Give each pair sufficient time to form a conclusion. Permit each participant to define the conclusion in his or her personal voice. You can also request that one student explain a concept while the other student evaluates what is being learned. Apply different variations of the process.

A.Think ..Pair cShare

A 1 Minute Think

Think about these questions.

Jot some notes *i* you wish. They will not be

collected.

•. 2 Minutes- Pair (Discuss)

Discussyour thoughts with one or two people sitting near you Were there some interesting similarities among your Individual thoughts? Any interesting differences? identify someone in your group willing to report a few of your conclusions.

C. 2 Minutes - Share (Report back)

Report one ortwo of yourflndngs. If someone from another group announces one of your findings, don't report that one.

III. АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТ МАТЕРИАЛЛАРИ

PRACTICAL CLASS 1

PRIMARY RESEARCH AND SECONDARY RESEARCH

1. ***Primary research***
2. ***Secondary research***
3. ***Data collection methods***
4. **Formulation of Hypothesis**

There are two types of background research – ***primary research*** and ***secondary research*** (see Table 2). Primary research involves the study of a subject through firsthand observation and investigation. This is what you will bedoing with your main project, but you may also need to conduct primary research for your background work, especially if you're unable to find any previously published material about your topic. Primary research may come from your own observations or experience, or from the information you gather personally from other people, as the following example illustrates. In the above example, Jenny mentions a recently published report which she has read. This is secondary research and it involves the collection of information from studies that other researchers have made of a subject. The two easiest and most accessible places to find this information are libraries and the internet. However, you must re-member that anybody can publish information over the internet and you should be aware that some of this information can be misleading or incorrect. Of course this is the case for any published information and as you develop your research skills so you should also

develop your critical thinking and reasoning skills. Do not believe everything you're told. Think about the information you are being given. How was it collected? Were the methods sound? What motives did the publishers have for making sure their information had reached the public domain?

Using web sites

By developing these skills early in your work, you will start to think about your own research and any personal bias in your methods and reporting which may be present.

The web sites of many universities now carry information about how to use the web carefully and sensibly for your research and it is worth accessing these before you begin your background work.

When you're surfing the net, there are some extra precautions you can take to check the reliability and quality of the information you have found: Try to use websites run by organisations you know and trust. Check the About Us section on the web page for more information about the creator and organisation.Use another source, if possible, to check any information of which you are unsure. For example, if you're interested in medical information you can check the Keeping records When you begin your background research, keep accurate records of what data was gathered from which source as this will save you plenty of time and frustration later, especially when you come to write your research proposal, or final report. A useful way to organize your background research is to have two files – one for primary research and one for secondary research. Each file can be divided into topics with the relevant notes slotted into each.

Primary research

For the primary research file, notes from each contact can be separated by a contact sheet which gives the name of the person, the date and time you met and a contact number or address.

Secondary research

In the secondary research file, each page of notes can be headed by details of the publication in the same format that will be used in the bibliography – author and initials; date of publication; title of publication; place of publica-tion and publisher. If it is a journal article, remember to include the name of the journal; the page numbers of the article and the volume and number of the journal. It is also useful to include the location of this publication so that it can be found easily if needed again (website or library shelf location).

TABLE 2: SOURCES OF BACKGROUND INFORMATION

PRIMARY	SECONDARY
Relevant people	Research books
Researcher observation	Research reports
Researcher experience	Journal articles
Historical records/texts	Articles reproduced online
Company/organisation records	Scientific debates
Personal documents (diaries, etc)	Critiques of literary works
Statistical data	Critiques of art
Works of literature	Analyses of historical events

These include surveys, indepth interviews, focus groups, observations, and tests. We also cover briefly some other less frequently used qualitative techniques. Advantages and disadvantages are summarized. For those interested in learning more about data collection methods, a list of recommended readings is provided at the end of the report. Readers may also want to consult the Online Evaluation Resource Library (OERL) web site (http://oerl.sri.com), which provides information on approaches used in NSF project evaluations, as well as reports, modules on constructing designs, survey questionnaires, and other instruments.

Surveys

Surveys are a very popular form of data collection, especially when gathering information from large groups, where standardization is important. Surveys can be constructed in many ways, but they always consist of two components: questions and responses. While sometimes evaluators choose to keep responses "open ended," i.e., allow respondents to answer in a free flowing narrative form, most often the "close-ended" approach in which respondents are asked to select from a range of predetermined answers is adopted. Open-ended responses may be difficult to code and require more time and resources to handle than close-ended choices. Responses may take the form of a rating on some scale (e.g., rate a given statement from 1 to 4 on a scale from "agree" to "disagree"), may give categories from which to choose (e.g., select from potential categories of partner institutions with which a program could be involved), or may require estimates of numbers or percentages of time in which participants might engage in an activity (e.g., the percentage of time spent on teacher-led instruction or cooperative learning).

Although surveys are popularly referred to as paper-and-pencil instruments, this too is changing. Evaluators are increasingly exploring the utility of survey methods that take advantage of the emerging technologies. Thus, surveys may be administered via computer-assisted calling, as e-mail attachments, and as web-based online data collection systems. Even the traditional approach of mailing surveys for self-guided response has been supplemented by using facsimile for delivery and return. Selecting the best method for collecting surveys requires weighing a number of factors. These included the complexity of questions, resources available, the project schedule, etc. For example, web-based surveys are attractive for a number of reasons. First, because the data collected can be put directly into a database, the time and steps between data collection and analysis can be shortened. Second, it is possible to build in checks that keep out-of-range responses from being entered.

However, at this time, unless the survey is fairly simple (no skip patterns, limited use of matrices), the technology needed to develop such surveys can require a significant resource investment. As new tools are developed for commercial use, this problem should diminish.

When to Use Surveys

Surveys are typically selected when information is to be collected from a large number of people or when answers are needed to a clearly defined set of questions. Surveys are good tools for obtaining information on a wide range of topics when indepth probing of responses is not necessary, and they are useful for both formative and summative purposes.

Frequently, the same survey is used at spaced intervals of time to measure progress along some dimension or change in behavior.

Exhibit 13.—Advantages and disadvantages of surveys

Advantages:

· Good for gathering descriptive data

· Can cover a wide range of topics

· Are relatively inexpensive to use

· Can be analyzed using a variety of existing software

Disadvantages:

· Self-report may lead to biased reporting

· Data may provide a general picture but lack depth

· May not provide adequate information on context

administration.

In the latter, however, the interviewers seek to encourage free and open responses, and there may be a tradeoff between comprehensive coverage of topics and indepth exploration of a more limited set of questions. Indepth interviews also encourage capturing respondents' perceptions in their own words, a very desirable strategy in qualitative data collection. This allows the evaluator to present the

meaningfulness of the experience from the respondent's perspective. Indepth interviews are conducted with individuals or a small group of individuals**.**

Formulation of Hypothesis

The word hypothesis consists of two words –Hypo+Thesis. 'Hypo' means tentative or subject to the verification. 'Thesis' means statement about solution of the problem. Thus the literal meaning of the term hypothesis is a tentative statement about the solution of the problem. Hypothesis offers a solution of the problem that is to be verified empirically and based on some rationale. Again, 'hypo' means the composition of two or more variables which are to be verified and 'thesis' means position of these variables in the specific frame of reference.

Definitions of Hypothesis:

"Any supposition which we make in order to endeavor to deduce conclusions in accordance with facts which are known to be real under the idea that if the conclusions to which the hypothesis leads are known truths, the hypothesis itself either must be or at least likely to be true."

J.S. Mill

"A hypothesis is a tentative generalization the validity of which remains to be tested. In its most elementary stage the hypothesis may be any hunch, guess, imaginative idea which becomes basis for further investigation."

Lundberg

"It is a shrewd guess or inference that is formulated and provisionally adopted to explain observed facts or conditions and to guide in further investigation**."**

John W. Best

"A hypothesis is a statement temporarily accepted as true in the light of what is, at the time, known about a phenomenon, and it is employed as a basis for action in the search for new, truth, when the hypothesis is fully established, it may take the form of facts, principles and theories."

Barr and Scates

"Hypothesis is an assumption whose testability is to be tested on the basis of the compatibility of its implications with empirical evidence and previous knowledge."

Gorge J. Mouly

Nature of Hypothesis:

Conceptual: Some kind of conceptual elements in the framework are involved in a hypothesis.

I. Verbal statement in a declarative form: It is a verbal expression of ideas and concepts. It is not merely mental idea but in the verbal form, the idea is ready enough for empirical verification.

II. It represents the tentative relationship between two or more variables.

III. Forward or future oriented: A hypothesis is future-oriented. It relates to the future verification not the past facts and information.

IV. Pivot of a scientific research: All research activities are designed for verification of hypothesis.

V. Functions of Hypothesis:

H.H. Mc Ashan has mentioned the following functions of hypothesis;
(I) It is a temporary solution of a problem concerning with some truth which enables an investigator to start his research works
(II) It offers a basis in establishing the specifics what to study for and may provide possible solutions to the problem.
(III) It may lead to formulate another hypothesis.
(IV) A preliminary hypothesis may take the shape of final hypothesis.
(V) Each hypothesis provides the investigator with definite statement which may be objectively tested and accepted or rejected and leads for interpreting results and drawing conclusions that is related to original purpose.
(VI) It delimits field of the investigation.

(VII) It sensitizes the researcher so that he should work selectively, and have very realistic approach to the problem.

(VIII) It offers the simple means for collecting evidences for verification.

Importance of a Hypothesis:

(I) **Investigator's eyes: Carter V. Good** thinks that by guiding the investigator in further investigation hypothesis serves as the investigator's eyes in seeking answers to tentatively adopted generalization**.**

(II) **Focuses research:** Without hypothesis, a research is unfocussed research and remains like a random empirical wandering. Hypothesis serves as necessary link between theory and the investigation.

(III) **Clear and specific goals**: A well thought out set of hypothesis places clear and specific goals before the research worker and provides him with a basis for selecting sample and research procedure to meet these goals.

(IV) **Links together**: According to **Barr and Scates**, "It serves the important function of linking together related facts and information and organizing them into wholes." (V) **Prevents blind research**: In the words of P.V. Young, "The use of hypothesis prevents a blind search and indiscriminate gathering of masses of data which may later prove irrelevant to the problem under study."

(VI) **Guiding Light**: "A hypothesis serves as powerful beacon that lights the way for the research work."

(VII) It provides direction to research and prevent the review of irrelevant literature and the collection of useful or excess data.

(VIII) It sensitizes the investigator certain aspects of situation which are irrelevant from the standpoint of problem at hand.

(IX) It enables the investigator to understand with greater clarity his problem and its ramification.

(X) It is an indispensible research instrument, for it builds a bridge between the problem and the location of empirical evidence that may solve the problem.

(XI) It provides the investigator with the most efficient instrument for exploring and explaining the unknown facts.

(XII) It provides a frame work for drawing conclusion.

(XIII) It stimulates the investigator for further research.

Forms of Hypothesis:

According to **Bruce W. Tuckman** following are the forms of hypothesis**;**

(I) Question form:

A hypothesis stated as a question represents the simplest level of empirical observation. It fails to fit most definitions of hypothesis. It frequently appears in the list. There are cases of simple investigation which can be adequately implemented by raising a question, rather than dichotomizing the hypothesis forms into acceptable / reject able categories

(II) Declarative Statement :

A hypothesis developed as a declarative statement provides an anticipated relationship or difference between variables. Such a hypothesis developer has examined existing evidence which led him to believe that a difference may be anticipated as additional evidence. It is merely a declaration of the independent variables effect on the criterion variable.

(III) Directional Hypothesis :

A directional hypothesis connotes an expected direction in the relationship or difference between variables. This type of hypothesis developer appears more certain of anticipated evidence. If seeking a tenable hypothesis is the general interest of the researcher, this hypothesis is less safe than the others because it reveals two possible conditions. First that the problem of seeking relationship between variables is so obvious that additional evidence is scarcely needed. Secondly, researcher has examined the variables very thoroughly and the available evidence supports the statement of a particular anticipated outcome.

(IV) Non –Directional Hypothesis or Null Hypothesis:

This hypothesis is stated in the null form which is an assertion that no relationship or no difference exists between or among the variables. Null hypothesis is a statistical hypothesis testable within the framework of probability theory. It is a non-directional form of hypothesis. There is a trend to employ or develop null hypothesis in research in most of the disciplines**.** A null hypothesis tentatively states that on the basis of evidence tested there is no difference. If the null hypothesis is rejected, there is a difference but we do not know the alternative or the differences. In this the researcher has not to anticipate or give the rational for the declaration or directional form. It does not make researcher biased or prejudiced. He may be objective the expected outcomes of the research or findings

PRACTICAL CLASS 2

Qualitative research and Quantitative Research Methods

PLAN*:*

1. **Qualitative research**
2. **Quantitative Research**
3. **Research approach**

The main characteristic of qualitative research is that it is mostly appropriate for small samples, while its outcomes are not measurable and quantifiable (*see table 3.1*). Its basic advantage, which also constitutes its basic difference with quantitative research, is that it offers a complete description and analysis of a research subject, without limiting the scope of the research and the nature of participant's responses (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

However, the effectiveness of qualitative research is heavily based on the skills and abilities of researchers, while the outcomes may not be perceived as reliable, because they mostly come from researcher's personal judgments and interpretations. Because it is more appropriate for small samples, it is also risky for the results of qualitative research to be perceived as reflecting the opinions of a wider population (Bell, 2005).

Features of Qualitative & Quantitative Research

Qualitative research	Quantitative Research
The aim is a complete, detailed description.	The aim is to classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed.
Researcher may only know roughly in advance what he/she is looking for.	Researcher knows clearly in advance what he/she is looking for.
Recommended during earlier phases of research projects.	Recommended during latter phases of research projects.
The design emerges as the study unfolds.	All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected.
Researcher is the data gathering instrument.	Researcher uses tools, such as questionnaires or equipment to collect numerical data.
Data is in the form of words, pictures or objects.	Data is in the form of numbers and statistics.
Subjective – individuals interpretation of events is important ,e.g., uses participant observation, in-depth interviews etc.	Objective: seeks precise measurement & analysis of target concepts, e.g., uses surveys, questionnaires etc.
Qualitative data is more 'rich', time consuming, and less able to be generalized.	Quantitative data is more efficient, able to test hypotheses, but may miss contextual detail.
Researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter.	Researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter.

Research approach

The research approach that was followed for the purposes of this research was the inductive one. According to this approach, researchers begin with specific observation, which are used to produce generalized theories and conclusions drawn

from the research. The reasons for occupying the inductive approach was that it takes into account the context where research effort is active, while it is also most appropriate for small samples that produce qualitative data. However, the main weakness of the inductive approach is that it produces generalized theories and conclusions based only on a small number of observations, thereby the reliability of research results being under question (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

LESSON 3 Experimental method

The definition of problem

The Sources of the Problem

Experimental method

The problems lie everywhere around us. They even lie at our door step and in our backyards. Human nature is so complicated, that a problem solved for one individual may still exist for another individual, a problem solved for one class/ school/teacher/ situation/ system/time etc., still remains a problem for another class/ school/ teacher/ situation/system/time or a problem solved for the time being may reappear with a lapse of time. We become habitual of living in the age of problems i.e. we are so much surrounded by the problem that we suffer from, ”problem blindness”. But in order to solve the problem or making research we need to delimit the problem.

Selection of problem is not the first step in research but identification of the problem is the first step in research. Selection of problem is governed by reflective thinking. It is wrong to think that identification of a problem means to select a topic of a research or statement of the problem. A topic or statement of the problem and research problem are not the synonyms but they are inclusive. The problem concerns with the functioning of the broader area of field studied, whereas a topic or title or statement of the problem is the verbal statement of the problem.

The topic is the definition of the problem which delimits or pin points the task of a researcher. It is the usual practice of the researcher that they select the topic of the study from different sources especially from research abstracts. They do not identify the problem, but a problem is made on the basis of the topic. It results that they have no active involvement in their research activities, whatever, they do, do mechanically.

Definitions of the Problem:

The obstacles which hinder our path are regarded as problem. Different definitions of the problem are given below;
"Problem is the obstacle in the path of satisfying our needs."

John Geoffery

"Problem is a question which is to be solved."

John. G. Tornsand

"To define a problem means to put a fence around it, to separate it by careful distinctions from like questions found in related situations of need."

Whitney

"A problem is a question proposed for a solution generally speaking a problem exists when there is a no available answer to same question.**"**

J.C. Townsend

"A problem is an interrogative sentence or statement that asks: What relation exists between two or more variables?"

F.N. Kerlinger

"To define a problem means to specify it in detail and with precision each question and subordinate question to be answered is to be specified, the limits of the investigation must be determined.

Frequently, it is necessary to review previous studies in order to determine just what is to be done. Sometimes it is necessary to formulate the point of view or

educational theory on which the investigation is to be based. If certain assumptions are made, they must be explicitly noted."

Monero and Engelhart

Identification of a Research Problem:

The following steps are to be followed in identifying a research problem;

Step I Determining the field of research in which a researcher is keen to do the research work.

Step II The researcher should develop the mastery on the area or it should be the field of his specialization.

Step III He should review the research conducted in area to know the recent trend and studies are being conducted in the area.

Step IV On the basis of review, he should consider the priority field of the study.

Step V He should draw an analogy and insight in identifying a problem or employ his personal experience of the field in locating the problem. He may take help of supervisor or expert of the field.

Step VI He should pin point specific aspect of the problem which is to be investigated.

2. **The Sources of the Problem:**

(I) The classroom, school, home, community and other agencies of education are obvious sources.

(II) Social developments and technological changes are constantly bringing forth new problems and opportunities for research.

(III) Record of previous research such specialized sources as the encyclopedias of educational, research abstracts, research bulletins, research reports, journals of researches, dissertations and many similar publications are rich sources of research problems.

(IV) Text book assignments, special assignments, reports and term papers will suggest additional areas of needed research.

(V) Discussions-Classroom discussions, seminars and exchange of ideas with faculty members and fellow scholars and students will suggest many stimulating problems to be solved.

3. Experimental method

The prime method of inquiry in science is the experiment. The key features are control over variables, careful measurement, and establishing cause and effect relationships. An experiment is an investigation in which a hypothesis is scientifically tested. In an experiment, an independent variable (the cause) is manipulated and the dependent variable (the effect) is measured; any extraneous variables are controlled. An advantage is that experiments should be objective. The views and opinions of the researcher should not affect the results of a study. This is good as it makes the data more valid, and less bias.

There are three types of experiments need to know –
1. Laboratory / Controlled Experiments: This type of experiment is conducted in a well-controlled environment – not necessarily a laboratory – and therefore accurate measurements are possible.

The researcher decides where the experiment will take place, at what time, with which participants, in what circumstances and using a standardized procedure. Participants are randomly allocated to each independent variable group. Strength: It is easier to replicate (i.e. copy) a laboratory experiment. This isbecause a standardized procedure is used. They allow for precise control of extraneous and independent variables. This allows a cause and effect relationship to be established.

Limitation: The artificiality of the setting may produce unnatural behavior that does not reflect real life, i.e. low ecological validity. This means it would not be possible to generalize the findings to a real life setting. Demand characteristics or experimenter effects may bias the results and become confounding variables. 2. Field Experiments: Field experiments are done in the everyday (i.e. real life) environment of the participants. The experimenter still manipulates the

independent variable, but in a real-life setting (so cannot really control extraneous variables).

Strength: Behavior in a field experiment is more likely to reflect real life because of its natural setting, i.e. higher ecological validity than a lab experiment. There is less likelihood of demand characteristics affecting the results, as participants may not know they are being studied. This occurs when the study is covert.

Limitation: There is less control over extraneous variables that might bias the results. This makes it difficult for another researcher to replicate the study in exactly the same way.

3. Natural Experiments: Natural experiments are conducted in the everyday (i.e. real life) environment of the participants, but here the experimenter has no control over the IV as it occurs naturally in real life.

Strength: Behavior in a natural experiment is more likely to reflect real life because of its natural setting, i.e. very high ecological validity. There is less likelihood of demand characteristics affecting the results, as participants may not know they are being studied. Can be used in situations in which it would be ethically unacceptable to manipulate the independent variable, e.g. researching stress.

Limitation: They may be more expensive and time consuming than lab experiments. There is no control over extraneous variables that might bias the results. This makes it difficult for another researcher to replicate the study in exactly the same wayExperiment Terminology

❖ Ecological validity: The degree to which an investigation represents real-life experiences.

❖ Experimenter effects: These are the ways that the experimenter can accidentally influence theparticipant through their appearance or behavior.

❖ Demand characteristics: The clues in an experiment that lead the participants to think they know what the researcher is looking for (e.g. experimenter’s body

language).

❖ Independent variable (IV): Variable the experimenter manipulates (i.e. changes) – assumed to have a direct effect on the dependent variable.

❖ Dependent variable (DV): Variable the experimenter measures.

❖ Extraneous variables (EV): Variables, which are not the independent variable, but could affect the results (DV) of the experiment. EVs should be controlled where possible.

❖ Confounding variables: Variable(s) that have affected the results (DV), apart from the IV. A confounding variable could be an extraneous variable that has not been controlled.Research Biases

We have got a hypothesis which is the first step in doing an experiment. Before we can continue, we need to be aware of some aspects of research that can contaminate our results. In other words, what could get in the way of our results in this study being accurate. These aspects are called research biases, and there are basically three main biases we need to be concerned with.

- Selection Bias – occurs when differences between groups are present at the beginning of the experiment.
- Placebo Effect – involves the influencing of performance due to the subject's belief about the results. In other words, if I believe the new medication will help me feel better, I may feel better even if the new medication is only a sugar pill. This demonstrates the power of the mind to change a person's perceptions of reality.
- Experimenter Bias – the same way a person's belief's can influence his/her perception, so can the belief of the experimenter. If I'm doing an experiment, and really believe my treatment works, or I really want the treatment to work because it will mean big bucks for me, I might behave in a manner that will influence the subject.

Controlling for Biases

After carefully reviewing our study and determining what might effect our results that are not part of the experiment, we need to control for these biases. To control for selection bias, most experiments use what's called 'Random Assignment', which means assigning the subjects to each group based on chance rather than human decision. To control for the placebo effect, subjects are often not informed of the purpose of the experiment. This is called a 'Blind' study, because the subjects are blind to the expected results. To control for experimenter biases, we can utilize a 'Double-Blind' study, which means that both the experimenter and the subjects are blind to the purpose and anticipated results of the study. We have our hypothesis, and we know what our subject pool is, the next thing we have to do is standardize the experiment. Standardization refers to a specific set of instructions. The reason we want the experiment to be standardized is twofold. First, we want to make sure all subjects are given the same instructions, presented with the experiment in the same manner, and that all of the data is collected exactly the same or all subjects. Second, single experiments cannot typically stand on their own. To really show that are results are valid, experiments need to be replicated by other experimenters with different subjects. To do this, the experimenters need to know exactly what we did so they can replicate it.

LESSON 4 Focus group discussion (FGD)

1. Standardization of questions
2. How to ChooseYour Participants
3. Number of focus groups conducted
4. Level of moderator involvement
5. Facilitate group discussion

A focus group discussion (FGD) is an in-depth field method that brings together a small homogeneous group (usually six to twelve persons) to discuss

topics on a study agenda. The purpose of this discussion is to use the social dynamics of the group, with the help of a moderator/ facilitator, to stimulate participants to reveal underlying opinions, attitudes, and reasons for their behavior. In short, a well facilitated group can be helpful in finding out the 'how' and 'why' of human behavior.

Focus group discussions are a data collection method. Data is collected through a semi-structured group interview process. Focus groups are generally used to collect data on a specific topic. Focus group methods emerged in the 1940s with the work of Merton and Fiske who used focus groups to conduct consumer satisfaction. The discussion is conducted in a relaxed atmosphere to enable participants to express themselves without any personal inhibitions. Participants usually share a common characteristic such as age, sex, or socio-economic status that defines them as a member of a target subgroup. This encourages a group to speak more freely about the subject without fear of being judged by others thought to be superior. The discussion is led by a trained moderator/facilitator (preferably experienced), assisted by an observer who takes notes and arranges any tape recording. The moderator uses a prepared guide to ask very general questions of the group. Usually more than one group session is needed to assure good coverage of responses to a set of topics. Each session usually lasts between one and two hours but ideally 60 to 90 minutes.

The aim of the focus group is to make use of participants' feelings, perceptions and opinions. This method requires the researcher to use a range of skills - group skills; facilitating; moderating; listening/observing; analysis. Focus groups or group discussions are useful to further explore a topic, providing a broader understanding of why the target group may behave or think in a particular way, and assist in determining the reason for attitudes and beliefs. They are conducted with a small sample of the target group and are used to stimulate discussion and gain greater insights.

The design of focus group research will vary based on the research question being studied. Below, highlight some general principles to consider -

- Standardization of questions - focus groups can vary in the extent to which they follow a structured protocol or permit discussion to emerge.
- Number of focus groups conducted - or sampling will depend on the 'segmentation' or different stratifications (e.g. age, sex, socioeconomic status, health status) that the researcher identifies as important to the research topic.
- Number of participants per group - the rule of thumb has been 6-10 homogeneous strangers, but as Morgan (1996) points out there may be reasons to have smaller or slightly larger groups.
- Level of moderator involvement - can vary from high to low degree of control exercised during focus groups (e.g. extent to which structured questions are asked and group dynamics are actively managed).

Focus group interviews typically have the characteristics –

- Identify the target market (people who possess certain characteristics).
- Provide a short introduction and background on the issue to be discussed.
- Have focus group members write their responses to the issue(s).
- Facilitate group discussion.
- Recommended size of the sample group is 6 - 10 people as smaller groups may limit the potential on the amount of information collected, and more may make it difficult for all participants to participate and interact and for the interviewer to be able to make sense of the information given.
- Several focus groups should be used in order to get a more objective and macro view of the investigation, i.e. focusing on one group may give you idiosyncratic results. The use of several groups will add to the breadth and depth of information. A minimum of three focus groups is recommended for best practice approaches.
- Members of the focus group should have something in common which is important to the investigation.

• Groups can either be put together or existing groups - it is always useful to be mindful of the group dynamics of both situations.

• Provide a summary of the focus group issues at the end of the meeting. The purpose of an FGD is to obtain in-depth information on concepts, perceptions, and ideas of the group. An FGD aims to be more than a question-answer interaction. In combination with other methods, focus groups might be used to –

• explore new research areas;

• explore a topic that is difficult to observe (not easy to gain access);

• explore a topic that does not lend itself to observational techniques (e.g. attitudes and decisionmaking);

• explore sensitive topics;

• collect a concentrated set of observations in a short time span;

• ascertain perspectives and experiences from people on a topic, particularly when these are people who might otherwise be marginalized;

• gather preliminary data;

• aid in the development of surveys and interview guides; • clarify research findings from another method;

• explore the range of opinions/views on a topic of interest;

• collect a wide variety of local terms and expressions used to describe a disease (e.g., diarrhea) or an act (e.g., defecation);

• explore meanings of survey findings that cannot be explained statistically.

Steps in Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

The steps in using FGDs to study a problem are summarized below. The extent to which these steps must be followed varies, however, depending on the training and experience of those involved in the data collection.

STEP 1: Plan the entire FGD

• What activities need to be planned?

• Is there the need for a resource person.

- Role of resource person in training field staff.

STEP 2: Decide what types of groups are needed

- Method of sampling (selection criteria)
- Composition of groups
- Number of groups
- Group size
- Contacting and informing participants.

STEP 3: Select moderator and field team

- Field staff requirements
- Moderator
- Observer/recorder
- Other staff.

STEP 4: Develop moderator's guide and format for recording responses

- Structure and sequence of topics
- Wording of guide
- Number of topics
- Example of an FGD guide.

STEP 5: Train field team and conduct pilot test

- Training hints
- Training package
- Theory sessions
- Practice sessions
- On-going revision of FGD guide.

STEP 6: Prepare for the individual FGDs

- Site selection and location for FGD
- Date and time
- Plan for supporting materials or FGD checklist.

STEP 7: Conduct the FGD

- Conducting the Discussion
- Introduction
- Warm-up
- Discussion
- Wrap-up summary
- Debriefing
- Collecting and managing information in FGD.

STEP 8: Analyze and interpret FGD results

- How much analysis is required
- Debriefing;
- Notes;
- Transcripts; and log book
- Writing the report
- Interpretation of findings
- Example of format of an FGD report.

Identify suitable discussion participants and invite a small group to a meeting at an agreed place and time. The ideal number of participants is six to eight, but be flexible about numbers - do not turn away participants after they had arrived at the meeting and do not pressure people to come to the meeting. Be psychologically prepared for the session; you will need to remain alert to be able to observe, listen, and keep the discussion on track for a period of one to two hours. Make sure you arrive at the agreed place before the participants, and be ready to greet them. Maintain a neutral attitude and appearance, and do not start talking about the topic of interest before the official opening of the group discussion.

Begin by introducing yourself and your team (even if the participants have already met them individually), and ask participants to introduce themselves. Explain clearly that the purpose of the discussion is to find out what people think

about the practices or activities depicted by the pictures. Tell them that you are not looking for any right or wrong answer but that you want to learn what each participant's views are. It must be made clear to all participants that their views will be valued. Bring the discussion to a close when you feel the topic has been exhausted, and do nor let the group discussion degenerate into smaller discussions. Be sincere in expressing your thanks to the participants for their contributions. Refreshments may be served at the end of the meeting as a way of thanking the participants and maintaining good rapport with them.

Conducting FGD

The following guideline may be provided for conducting FGD. Preparation Selection of topic: It is appropriate to define and clarify the concepts to be discussed. The basic idea is to lay out a set of issues for the group to discuss. It is important to bear in mind that the moderator will mostly be improvising comments and questions within the framework set by the guidelines. By keeping the questions open-ended, the moderator can stimulates useful trains of thought in the participants that were not anticipated.

Selecting the study participants: Given a clear idea of the issues to be discussed, the next critical step in designing a focus group study is to decide on the characteristics of the individuals who are to be targeted for sessions. It is often important to ensure that the groups all share some common characteristics in relation to the issue under investigation. If you need to obtain information on a topic from several different categories of informants who are likely to discuss the issue from different perspectives, you should organize a focus group for each major category. For example a group for men and a group for women, or a group for older women and group for younger women. The selection of the participants can be on the basis of purposive or convenience sampling. The participants should receive the invitations at least one or two days before the exercise. The invitations should explain the general purpose of the FGD. Physical arrangements: Communication and interaction during the FGD should be

encouraged in every way possible. Arrange the chairs in a circle. Make sure the area will be quite, adequately lighted, etc., and that there will be no disturbances. Try to hold the FGD in a neutral setting that encourages participants to freely express their views. A health center, for example, is not a good place to discuss traditional medical beliefs or preferences for other types of treatment. Neutral setting could also be from the perspective of a place where the participants feel comfortable to come over and above their party factions. Conducting the Session

❖ One of the members of the research team should act as a 'facilitator' or 'moderator' for the focus group. One should serve as 'recorder'.

❖ Functions of the Facilitator: The facilitator should not act as an expert on the topic. His/her role is to stimulate and support discussion. S/he should perform the following functions – Introduce the session - S/he should introduce himself/herself as facilitator and introduce the recorder. Introduce the participants by name or ask them to introduce themselves (or develop some new interesting way of introduction). Put the participants at ease and explain the purpose of the FGD, the kind of information needed, and how the information will be used (e.g., for planning of a health program, an education program, et.).

Encourage discussion - The facilitator should be enthusiastic, lively, and humorous and show his/her interest in the group's ideas. Formulate questions and encourage as many participants as possible to express their views. Remember there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Facilitator should react neutrally to both verbal and nonverbal responses.

Encourage involvement - Avoid a question and answer session. Some useful techniques include asking for clarification (can you tell me more?); reorienting the discussion when it goes off the track (Saying - wait, how does this relate to the issue? Using one participant's remarks to direct a question to another); bringing in reluctant participants (Using person's name, requesting his/her opinion, making more frequent eye contact to encourage participation); dealing withdominant

participants (Avoiding eye contact or turning slightly away to discourage the person from speaking, or thanking the person and changing the subject). Avoid being placed in the role of expert - When the facilitator is asked for his/her opinion by a respondent, remember that s/he is not there to educate of inform.

Direct the question back to the group by saying 'What do you think?' 'What would you do?' Set aside time, if necessary, after the session to give participants the information they have asked. Do not try to give comments on everything that is being said. Do not feel you have to say Something during every pause in the discussion. Wait a little and see what happens.

Control the timing of the meeting but unobtrusively - Listen carefully and move the discussion from topic to topic. Subtly control the time allocated to various topics so as to maintain interest. If the participants spontaneously jump from one topic to the other, let the discussion continue for a while because useful additional information may surface and then summarize the points brought up and reorient the discussion.

❖ Take time at the end of the meeting to summarize, check for agreement and thank the participants: Summarize the main issues brought up, check whether all agree and ask for additional comments. Thank the participants and let them know that their ideas had been valuable contribution and will be used for planning the proposed research/intervention/or whatever the purpose of FGD was. Listen to the additional comments made after the meeting. Sometime some valuable information surfaces, which otherwise may remain hidden.

Advantages and Disvantages of FGD

groups and group discussions are advantageous as they -

- Are useful when exploring cultural values and health beliefs;
- Can be used to examine how and why people think in a particular way and how is influences their beliefs and values;
- Can be used to explore complex issues;

- Can be used to develop hypothesis for further research;
- Do not require participants to be literate.

Disadvantages of focus groups include –

- Lack of privacy/anonymity;
- Having to carefully balance the group to ensure they are culturally and gender appropriate (i.e. gender may be an issue);
- Potential for the risk of 'group think' (not allowing for other attitudes, beliefs etc.);
- Potential for group to be dominated by one or two people;
- Group leader needs to be skilled at conducting focus groups, dealing with conflict, drawing out passive participants and creating a relaxed, welcoming environment;
- Are time consuming to conduct and can be difficult and time consuming to analyze.

When to Use Focus Groups

Focus groups can be useful at both the formative and summative stages of an evaluation. They provide answers to the same types of questions as indepth interviews, except that they take place in a social context. Specific applications of the focus group method in evaluations include:

· Identifying and defining problems in project implementation
· Pretesting topics or idea
· Identifying project strengths, weaknesses, and recommendations
· Assisting with interpretation of quantitative findings
· Obtaining perceptions of project outcomes and impacts
· Generating new ideas

Although focus groups and indepth interviews share many characteristics, they should not be used interchangeably. Factors to consider when choosing between focus groups and indepth interviews are displayed in Exhibit

15. Observations Observational techniques are methods by which an individual or individuals gather firsthand data on programs, processes, or behaviors being studied. They provide evaluators with an opportunity to collect data on a wide range of behaviors, to capture a great variety of interactions, and to openly explore the evaluation topic. By directly observing operations and activities, the evaluator can develop a holistic perspective, i.e., an understanding of the context within which the project operates. This may be especially important where it is not the event that is of interest, but rather how that event may fit into, or be affected by, a sequence of events. Observational approaches also allow the evaluator to learn about issues the participants or staff may be unaware of or that they are unwilling or unable to discuss candidly in an interview or focus group.

Tests

Tests provide a way to assess subjects' knowledge and capacity to apply this knowledge to new situations. Tests take many forms. They may require respondents to choose among alternatives (select a correct answer, select an incorrect answer, select the best answer), to cluster choices into like groups, to produce short answers, or to write extended responses. A question may address a single outcome of interest or lead to questions involving a number of outcome areas. Tests provide information that is measured against a variety of standards.
The most popular test has traditionally been norm-referenced assessment. Norm-referenced tests provide information on how the target performs against a reference group or normative population. In and of itself, such scores say nothing about how adequate the target's performance may be, only how that performance compares with the reference group. Other assessments are constructed to determine whether or not the target has attained mastery of a skill or knowledge area. These tests, called criterion-referenced assessments, provide data on whether important skills have been reached but say far less about a subject's standing

relative to his/her peers. A variant on the criterion-referenced approach is proficiency testing. Like the criterion-referenced test, the proficiency test provides an assessment against a level of skill attainment, but includes standards for performance at varying levels of proficiency, typically a three- or four-point scale ranging from below basic to advanced performance.

Criticisms of traditional, short-answer, norm-referenced tests have become widespread. These criticisms focus on the fragmented and superficial nature of these tests and the consequent, negative influence they have on instruction, especially where the tests are used for highstakes decisionmaking. Critics call instead for assessments that are more authentic in nature, involving higher order thinking skills and the coordination of a broad range of knowledge. The new tests, called performance assessments, require students to engage in solving more complex problems and may involve activities such as oral interviews, group problem-solving tasks, portfolios, or personal documentation.

When to Use Tests

Tests are used when one wants to gather information on the status of knowledge or the change in status of knowledge over time. They may be used purely descriptively or to determine whether the test taker qualifies in terms of some standard of performance. Changes in test performance are frequently used to determine whether a project has been successful in transmitting information in specific areas or influencing the thinking skills of participants. Exhibit 17 shows the advantages and disadvantages of tests.

In choosing a test, it is important to assess the extent to which the test measures knowledge, skills, or behaviors that are relevant to your program. Not all tests measure the same things, nor do they do so in the same ways. The critical word here is “alignment.” There are a number of

different ways to assess alignment. Some useful suggestions are offered at the following web sites: The last section of this chapter outlines less common, but potentially useful qualitative methods for project evaluation. These methods include document studies, key informants, and case studies.

LESSON 5 INTERVIEWS METHOD

1. Structured,
2. Semi-structure or
3. Unstructured.
4. Face to face interview Informal Interviewing
5. Focus Groups Tests

The use of interviews as a data collection method begins with the assumption that the participants' perspectives are meaningful, knowable, and can be made explicit, and that their perspectives affect the success of the project. An in-person or telephone interview, rather than a paper-andpencil survey, is selected when interpersonal contact is important and when opportunities for followup of interesting comments are desired.

Interviewing involves asking questions and getting answers from participants in a study. Interviewing has a variety of forms including: individual, face-to-face interviews and face-to-face group interviewing. The asking and answering of questions can be mediated by the telephone or other electronic devices (e.g. computers). Interviews can be –

A. Structured,
B. Semi-structure or
C. Unstructured.

Face to face interviews are advantageous since detailed questions can be asked; further probing can be done to provide rich data; literacy requirements of

participants is not an issue; non verbal data can be collected through observation; complex and unknown issues can be explored; response rates are usually higher than for self-administered questionnaires.

Disadvantages of face to face interviews include: they can be expensive and time consuming; training of interviewers is necessary to reduce interviewer bias and are administered in a standardized why they are prone to interviewer bias and interpreter bias (if interpreters are used); sensitive issues maybe challenging. Telephone interviews yield just as accurate data as face to face interviews.

Telephone interviews are advantageous as they:
are cheaper and faster than face to face interviews to conduct; use less resources than face to face interviews; allow to clarify questions; do not require literacy skills. Disadvantages of telephone interviews include: having to make repeated calls as calls may not be answered the first time; potential bias if call backs are not made so bias is towards those who are at home; only suitable for short surveys; only accessible to the population with a telephone; not appropriate for exploring sensitive issues.

Structured Interviews

Characteristics of the Structured Interview

- The interviewer asks each respondent the same series of questions.
- The questions are created prior to the interview, and often have a limited set of response categories.
- There is generally little room for variation in responses and there are few open-ended questions included in the interview guide.
- Questioning is standardized and the ordering and phrasing of the questions are kept consistent from interview to interview.
- The interviewer plays a neutral role and acts casual and friendly, but does not insert his or her opinion in the interview.
- Self-administered questionnaires are a type of structured interview.

When to Use a Structured Interview: Development of a structured interview guide

or questionnaire requires a clear topical focus and well-developed understanding of the topic at hand.

A well developed understanding of a topic allows researchers to create a highly structured interview guide or questionnaire that provides respondents with relevant, meaningful and appropriate response categories to choose from for each question. Structured interviews are, therefore, best used when the literature in a topical area is highly developed or following the use of observational and other less structured interviewing approaches that provide the researcher with adequate understanding of a topic to construct meaningful and relevant close-ended questions.

Recording Interviews: There are a range of ways to collect and record structured interview data.

Data collections methods include, but are not limited to - paper-based and self-report (mail, faceto-face); telephone interviews where the interviewer fills in participants' responses; web-based and self-report.

Benefits: Structured interviews can be conducted efficiently by interviewers trained only to follow the instructions on the interview guide or questionnaire. Structured interviews do not require the development of rapport between interviewer and interviewee, and they can produce consistent data that can be compared across a number of respondents.

Semi-structured Interviews

Characteristics of Semi-structured Interviews

- The interviewer and respondents engage in a formal interview.
- The interviewer develops and uses an 'interview guide'. This is a list of questions and topics that need to be covered during the conversation, usually in a particular order.
- The interviewer follows the guide, but is able to follow topical trajectories in the conversation that may stray from the guide when s/he feels this is appropriate.

When to Use Semi-structured Interviews: Semi-structured interviewing, according to Bernard (1988), is best used when you won't get more than one chance to interview someone and when you will be sending several interviewers out into the field to collect data. The semi-structured interview guide provides a clear set of instructions for interviewers and can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data. Semi-structured interviews are often preceded by observation, informal and unstructured interviewing in order to allow the researchers to develop a keen understanding of the topic of interest necessary for developing relevant and meaningful semi-structured questions. The inclusion of open-ended questions and training of interviewers to follow relevant topics that may stray from the interview guide does, however, still provide the opportunity for identifying new ways of seeing and understanding the topic at hand.

Recording Semi-Structured Interviews: Typically, the interviewer has a paper-based interview guide that s/he follows. Since semi-structured interviews often contain open-ended questions and discussions may diverge from the interview guide, it is generally best to tape-record interviews and later transcript these tapes for analysis. While it is possible to try to jot notes to capture respondents' answers, it is difficult to focus on conducting an interview and jotting notes. This approach will result in poor notes and also detract for the development of rapport between interviewer and interviewee. Development of rapport and dialogue is essential in unstructuredinterviews. If tape-recording an interview is out of the question, consider having a note-taker present during the interview. Benefits: Many researchers like to use semi-structured interviews because questions can be prepared ahead of time. This allows the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview. Semi-structured interviews also allow informants the freedom to express their views in their own terms. Semi-structure interviews can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data.

Unstructured Interviews

Characteristics of Unstructured Interviews

- The interviewer and respondents engage in a formal interview in that they have a scheduled time to sit and speak with each other and both parties recognize this to be an interview.
- The interviewer has a clear plan in mind regarding the focus and goal of the interview. This guides the discussion.
- There is not a structured interview guide. Instead, the interviewer builds rapport with respondents, getting respondents to open-up and express themselves in their own way.
- Questions tend to be open-ended and express little control over informants' responses.
- Ethnographic, in depth interviews are unstructured. Fontana and Frey (1994) identify three types of in depth, ethnographic unstructured interviews – oral history, creative interviews and postmodern interviews.

When to Use Unstructured Interviews: Unstructured interviewing is recommended when the researcher has developed enough of an understanding of a setting and his/her topic of interest to have a clear agenda for the discussion with the informant, but still remains open to having his/her understanding of the area of inquiry open to revision by respondents. Because these interviews are not highly structured and because the researcher's understanding is still evolving, it is helpful to anticipate the need to speak with informants on multiple occasions. Recording Unstructured Interviews: Since unstructured interviews often contain open-ended questions and discussions may develop in unanticipated directions, it is generally best to tape-record interviews and later transcript these tapes for analysis. This allows the interviewer to focus on interacting with the participant and follow the discussion. While it is possible to try to jot notes to capture respondents' answers, it is difficult to focus on conducting an interview and jotting notes.

This approach will result in poor notes and also detract from the development of rapport between interviewer and interviewee. Development of

rapport and dialogue is essential in unstructured interviews. If tape-recording an interview is out of the question, consider having a note-taker present during the interview.

Benefits: Unstructured interviews are an extremely useful method for developing an understanding of an as-of-yet not fully understood or appreciated culture, experience, or setting. Unstructured interviews allow researchers to focus the respondents' talk on a particular topic of interest, and may allow researchers the opportunity to test out his/her preliminary understanding, while still allowing for ample opportunity for new ways of seeing and understanding to develop. Unstructured interviews can be an important preliminary step toward the development of more structured interview guides or surveys.

Informal Interviewing

Characteristics of Informal interviewing

- The interviewer talks with people in the field informally, without use of a structured interview guide of any kind.
- The researcher tries to remember his/her conversations with informants, and uses jottings or brief notes taken in the field to help in the recall and writing of notes from experiences in the field.
- Informal interviewing goes hand-in-hand with participant observation.
- While in the field as an observer, informal interviews are casual conversations one might have with the people the researcher is observing.

When to Use Informal Interviews: Informal interviewing is typically done as part of the process of observing a social setting of interest. These may be best used in the early stages of the development of an area of inquiry, where there is little literature describing the setting, experience, culture or issue of interest. The researcher engages in fieldwork - observation and informal interviewing - to develop an understanding of the setting and to build rapport. Informal interviewing may also be used to uncover new topics of interest that may have been overlooked by previous research.

Recording Informal Interviews: Since informal interviews occur 'on the fly,' it is difficult to taperecord this type of interview. Additionally, it is likely that informal interviews will occur during the process of observing a setting. The researcher should participate in the conversation. As soon as possible, s/he should make jottings or notes of the conversation. These jottings should be developed into a more complete account of the informal interview. This type of account would tend to be included in the researcher's field notes. Developing field notes soon after an informal interview is recommended. Even with good field jottings the details of an informal interview are quickly lost from memory.

Benefits: Interviews can be done informally, and ‘on the fly’ and, therefore, do not require scheduling time with respondents. In fact, respondents may just see this as ‘conversation’. Informal interviews may, therefore, foster 'low pressure' interactions and allow respondents to speak more freely and openly. Informal interviewing can be helpful in building rapport with respondents and in gaining their trust as well as their understanding of a topic, situation, setting, etc. Informal interviews, like unstructured interviews, are an essential part of gaining an understanding of a setting and its members' ways of seeing. It can provide the foundation for developing and conducting more structured interviews. Interviewing, when considered as a method for conducting qualitative research, is a technique used to understand the experiences of others. Characteristics of qualitative research interviews –

❖ Interviews are completed by the interviewer based on what the interviewee says.
❖ Interviews are a far more personal form of research than questionnaires.
❖ In the personal interview, the interviewer works directly with the interviewee.
❖ Unlike with mail surveys, the interviewer has the opportunity to probe or ask follow up questions.
❖ Interviews are generally easier for the interviewee, especially if what is sought are opinions and/or impressions.

Types of Interviews

Informal, Conversational interview: No predetermined questions are asked, in order to remain as open and adaptable as possible to the interviewee's nature and priorities; during the interview the interviewer 'goes with the flow'. General interview guide approach: Intended to ensure that the same general areas of information are collected from each interviewee; this provides more focus than the conversational approach, but still allows a degree of freedom and adaptability in getting the information from the interviewee.

Standardized, open-ended interview: The same open-ended questions are asked to all interviewees; this approach facilitates faster interviews that can be more easily analyzed and compared.

Closed, fixed-response interview: All interviewees are asked the same questions and asked to choose answers from among the same set of alternatives. This format is useful for those not practiced in interviewing. This type of interview is also referred to as structured.

Interviewer's judgments: According to Hackman and Oldman several factors can bias an interviewer's judgment about a job applicant. However these factors can be reduced or minimized by training interviews to recognized them. Some examples are - Prior Information: Interviewers generally have some prior information about job candidates, such as recruiter evaluations, application blanks, online screening results, or the results of psychological tests. This can cause the interviewer to have a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward an applicant before meeting them.

The Contrast Effect: How the interviewers evaluate a particular applicant may depend on their standards of comparison, that is, the characteristics of the applicants they interviewed previously.

Iterviewers' Prejudices: This can be done when the interviewers' judgment is their personal likes and dislikes. These may include but are not limited to racial

and ethnic background, applicants who display certain qualities or traits and refuse to consider their abilities or characteristics.

Preparation and Process of Conducting Interviews

Interviews are among the most challenging and rewarding forms of measurement. They require a personal sensitivity and adaptability as well as the ability to stay within the bounds of the designed protocol. The followings describe the preparation need to do for an interview study and then the process of conducting the interview itself.

Preparation

Role of the Interviewer: The interviewer is really the 'jack-of-all-trades' in survey research. The interviewer's role is complex and multifaceted. It includes the following tasks – Locate and enlist cooperation of respondents: The interviewer has to find the respondent. In doorto-door surveys, this means being able to locate specific addresses. Often, the interviewer has to work at the least desirable times (like immediately after dinner or on weekends) because that's when respondents are most readily available.

Motivate respondents to do good job: If the interviewer does not take the work seriously, why would the respondent? The interviewer has to be motivated and has to be able to communicate that motivation to the respondent. Often, this means that the interviewer has to be convinced of the importance of the research. Clarify any confusion/concerns: Interviewers have to be able to think on their feet. Respondents may raise objections or concerns that were not anticipated. The interviewer has to be able to respond candidly and informativelyObserve quality of responses: Whether the interview is personal or over the phone, the interviewer is in the best position to judge the quality of the information that is being received. Even a verbatim transcript will not adequately convey how seriously the respondent took the task, or any gestures or body language that were evident. Conduct a good interview: Last, and certainly not least, the interviewer has to conduct a good interview! Every interview has a life of its own. Some respondents

are motivated and attentive, others are distracted or disinterested. The interviewer also has good or bad days. Assuring a consistently high-quality interview is a challenge that requires constant effort.

Training the Interviewers: Here are some of the major topics that should be included in interviewer training –

Describe the entire study: Interviewers need to know more than simply how to conduct the interview itself. They should learn about the background for the study, previous work that has been done, and why the study is important. State who is sponsor of research: Interviewers need to know who they are working for. They and their respondents have a right to know not just what agency or company is conducting the research, but also, who is paying for the research. Teach enough about survey research: While you seldom have the time to teach a full course on survey research methods, the interviewers need to know enough that they respect the survey method and are motivated. Sometimes it may not be apparent why a question or set of questions was asked in a particular way. The interviewers will need to understand the rationale for how the instrument was constructed.

Explain the sampling logic and process: Naive interviewers may not understand why sampling is so important. They may wonder why you go through all the difficulties of selecting the sample so carefully. You will have to explain that sampling is the basis for the conclusions that will be reached and for the degree to which your study will be useful.

Explain interviewer bias: Interviewers need to know the many ways that they can inadvertently bias the results. And, they need to understand why it is important that they not bias the study. This is especially a problem when you are investigating political or moral issues on which people have strongly held convictions. While the interviewer may think they are doing good for society by slanting results in favor of what they believe, they need to recognize that doing so could jeopardize the entire study in the eyes of others.

‘Walk through’ the Interview: When you first introduce the interview, it’s a good idea to walk through the entire protocol so the interviewers can get an idea of the various parts or phases and how they interrelate. Explain respondent selection procedures, including –

Reading maps: It’s astonishing how many adults don’t know how to follow directions on a map. In personal interviews, the interviewer may need to locate respondents who are spread over a wide geographic area. And, they often have to navigate by night (respondents tend to be most available in evening hours) in neighborhoods they’re not familiar with. Teaching basic map reading skills and confirming that the interviewers can follow maps is essential.

Strengths and Weaknesses

Possibly the greatest advantage of interviewing is the depth of detail from the interviewee.

Interviewing participants can paint a picture of what happened in a specific event, tell us their perspective of such event, as well as give other social cues. Social cues, such as voice, intonation,body language etc. of the interviewee can give the interviewer a lot of extra information that can be added to the verbal answer of the interviewee on a question. This level of detailed description, whether it be verbal or nonverbal, can show an otherwise hidden interrelatedness between emotions, people, objects unlike many quantitative methods of research. In addition, interviewing has a uniqueadvantage in its specific form. Researchers can tailor the questions they ask to the respondent in order to get rich, full stories and the information they need for their project. They can make it clear to the respondent when they need more examples or explanations. Not only can researchers also learn about specific events, they can also gain insight into people’s interior experiences, specifically how people perceive and how they interpreted their perceptions. How events affected their thoughts and feelings. In this, researchers can understand the process of an event instead of what just happened and how they reacted to it.

Interviewing is not a perfect method for all types of research. It does have its disadvantages. First, there can be complications with the planning of the interview. Not only is recruiting people for interviews hard, due to the typically personal nature of the interview, planning where to meet them and when can be difficult.

Participants can cancel or change the meeting place at the last minute.

During the actual interview, a possible weakness is missing some information. This can arise from the immense multitasking that the interviewer must do. Not only do they have to make the respondent feel very comfortable, they have to keep as much eye contact as possible, write down as much as they can, and think of follow up questions. After the interview, the process of coding begins and with this comes its own set of disadvantages. Second, coding can be extremely time consuming. This process typically requires multiple people, which can also become expensive. Third, the nature of qualitative research itself, doesn't lend itself very well to quantitative analysis. Some researchers report more missing data in interview research than survey research, therefore it can be difficult to compare populations.

LESSON 6 OBSERVATIONAL METHOD

Structured and Unstructured Observation

Direct and Indirect Observation

Controlled and Un-controlled Observation

Naturalistic Observation

Observation is a fundamental way of finding out about the world around us. As human beings, we are very well equipped to pick up detailed information about our environment through our senses.

However, as a method of data collection for research purposes, observation is more than just looking or listening. Research, simply defined, is ‘systematic enquiry made public’ (Stenhouse, 1975).

Firstly, in order to become systematic, observation must in some way be selective. We are constantly bombarded by huge amounts of sensory information. Human beings are good at selectively attending to what is perceived as most useful to us. Observation harnesses this ability; systematic observation entails careful planning of what we want to observe. Secondly, in order to make observation ‘public’, what we see or hear has to be recorded in some way to allow the information to be analysed and interpreted. Observation is a systematic data collection approach. Researchers use all of their senses to examine people in natural settings or naturally occurring situations. Observation of a field setting involves –

- prolonged engagement in a setting or social situation;
- clearly expressed, self-conscious notations of how observing is done;
- methodical and tactical improvisation in order to develop a full understanding of the setting of interest;
- imparting attention in ways that is in some sense ‘standardized’;
- recording one’s observations.

Use of Observational Method

There are a variety of reasons for collecting observational data. Some of these reasons include –

- When the nature of the research question to be answered is focused on answering a how- or what-type question.
- When the topic is relatively unexplored and little is known to explain the behavior of people in a particular setting.
- When understanding the meaning of a setting in a detailed way is valuable.
- When it is important to study a phenomenon in its natural setting.
- When self-report data (asking people what they do) is likely to be different from

actual behavior (what people actually do). One example of this seen in the difference between selfreported versus observed preventive service delivery in health care settings.

- When implementing an intervention in a natural setting, observation may be used in conjunction with other quantitative data collection techniques. Observational data can help researchers evaluate the fidelity of an intervention across settings and identify when 'stasis' has been achieved.

Classification of Observational Method

Observational methods can be classified as follows – Casual and Scientific Observation: An observation can be sometimes casual in nature or sometimes it may act scientifically. An observation with a casual approach involves observing the right thing at the right place and also at the right time by a matter of chance or by luck whereas a scientific observation involves the use of the tools of the measurement, but a very important point to be kept in mind here is that all the observations are not scientific in nature.

Natural Observation: Natural observation involves observing the behaviour in a normal setting and in this type of observation, no efforts are made to bring any type of change in the behavior of the observed. Improvement in the collection of the information and improvement in the environment of making an observation can be done with the help of natural observations. Subjective and Objective Observation: All the observations consist of the two main components, the subject and the object. The subject refers to the observer whereas the object refers to the activity or any type of operation that is being observed. Subjective observation involves the observation of the one's own immediate experience whereas the observations involving observer as an entity apart from the thing being observed, are referred to as the objective observation.

Objective observation is also called as the retrospection. Direct and Indirect Observation: With the help of the direct method of observation, one comes to know how the observer is physically present in which type of

situation is he present and then this type of observation monitors what takes place. Indirect method of observation involves studies of mechanical recording or the recording by some of the other means like photographic or electronic. Direct observation is relatively more straight forward as compared to the indirect observation.

Participant and Non Participant Observation: Participation by the observers with the various types of operations of the group under study refers to the participant type of observation. In participant observation, the degree of the participation is largely affected by the nature of the study and it also depends on the type of the situation and also on its demands. But in the non participant type of observation, no participation of the observer in the activities of the group takes place and also there occurs no relationship between the researcher and the group.

Undisguised participant observation is often used to understand the culture and behavior of groups of individuals. Disguised participant observation is often used when researchers believe individuals would change their behavior if they knew it was being recorded. Participant observation allows to observe behaviors and situations that are not usually open to scientific observation. Participant observers may sometimes lose their objectivity or may unduly influence the individuals whose behavior they are recording.

Structured and Unstructured Observation: Structured observation works according to a plan and involves specific information of the units that are to be observed and also about the information that is to be recorded. The operations that are to be observed and the various features that are to be noted or recorded are decided well in advance. Such observations involve the use of especial instruments for the purpose of data collection that are also structured in nature. But in the case of the unstructured observation, its basics are diametrically against the structured observation. In such observation, observer has the freedom to note down what she feels is correct and relevant to the point of study and also this approach of observation is very suitable in the case of exploratory research.

Structured observations are set up to record behaviors that may be difficult to observe using naturalistic observation. Clinical and developmental psychologists often use structured observations.

Problems in interpreting structured observations can occur when the same observation procedures are not followed across observations or observers, or when important variables are not controlled.

Structured observation is more likely to be carried out by those operating from a ‘positivist’ perspective, or who at least believe it is possible to clearly define and quantify behaviors.

Unstructured observation is more likely to be carried out by those operating from an ‘interpretive’ or ‘critical’ perspective where the focus is on understanding the meanings participants, in the contexts observed, attribute to events and actions. Positivist and critical researchers are likely to be operating from a ‘realist’ perspective, namely that there is a ‘real world’ with ‘real impact’ on people’s lives and this can best be studied by looking at social settings directly. Controlled and Un-controlled Observation: Controlled observations are the observations made under the influence of some of the external forces and such observations rarely lead to improvement inthe precision of the research results. But these observations can be very effective in the working if these are made to work in the coordination with mechanical synchronizing devices, film recording etc. Un-controlled observations are made in the natural environment and reverse to the controlled observation these observations involve no influence or guidance of any type of external force.

Covert and Overt Observation: Covert observations are when the researcher pretends to be an ordinary member of the group and observes in secret. There could be ethical problems or deception and consent with this particular method of observation. Overt observations are when the researcher tells the group s/he is conducting research (i.e. they know they are being observed).

Type of Obser vational Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Naturalistic Observation	• Particularly good for observing specific subjects. • Provides ecologically valid recordings of natural behavior. • Spontaneous behaviors are more likely to happen.	• Ethics: Where research is undisclosed consent will not be obtained, where consent is not obtained - details may be used which infringe confidentiality.
Structured Observation	• Allows control of extraneous variables. • Reliability of results can be tested by repeating the study. • Provides a safe environment to study contentious concepts such as infant attachment.	• The implementation of controls may have an effect on behavior. • Lack of ecological validity. • Observer effect. • Observer bias.
Unstructured Observation	• Gives a broad overview of a situation. • Useful where situation/subject matter to be studied is unclear.	• Only really appropriate as a ‘first step’ to give an overview of a situation / concept / idea.
Participant	• Gives an ‘insiders’ view.	• Observer effect.

Observation	• Behaviors are less prone to misinterpretation because researcher was a participant. • Opportunity for researcher to become an 'accepted' part of the environment.	• Possible lack of objectivity on the part of the observer.
Non-Participant Observation	• Avoidance of observer effect	• Observer is detached from situation so relies on their perception which may be inaccurate

Recording Behavior in Observational Method

The goals of observational research determine whether researchers seek a comprehensive description of behavior record or a description of only selected behaviors. How the results of a study are ultimately summarized, analyzed, and reported depends on how behavioral observations are initially recorded. Fieldnotes: Participant observers may use multiple methods to gather data. One primary approach involves writing fieldnotes. There are several guides for learning how to prepare fieldnotes –

- Researchers may be interested in creating or using a template to guide a researchers' observations.
- Templates or observational coding sheets can be useful when data is collected by inexperienced observers.
- Templates or observational coding sheets should only be developed after observation in the field that is not inhibited by such a template.
- Theories and concepts can be driven by templates and result in focused data

collection.

- Templates can deflect attention from unnamed categories, unimagined and unanticipated activities that can be very important to understanding a phenomenon and a setting. Qualitative Records of Behavior: Observation can provide rich qualitative data, sometimes described as ‘thick description’ (Geertz, 1973), for example, where the relevant phenomena have been carefully observed and detailed field notes have been recorded. Typically, the researcher would not approach the observation with pre-determined categories or questions in mind. Because of this openness, observation in qualitative research is often referred to as unstructured. Quantitative Measures of Behavior: Researchers often obtain quantitative measures such as frequency or duration of occurrence when they seek to describe specific behaviors or events.

Quantitative measures of behavior use one of the four levels of measurement scales: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. The term ‘systematic’ observation is usually associated with observation undertaken from the perspective of quantitative research where the purpose is to provide reliable, quantifiable data. This usually involves the use of some kind of formal, structured observation instrument or schedule. The observation method being used will clearly identify - the variables to be observed, perhaps by means of some kind of behavioral checklist; who or what will be observed; how the observation is to be conducted; and when and where the observations will take place.

Analysis of Observational Data

Data Reduction: Observational data are summarized through the process of data reduction.

Researchers quantify the data in narrative records by coding behaviors according to specified criteria, for example, by categorizing behaviors. Data are summarized using descriptive measures such as frequency counts, means, and standard deviations. Observer Reliability: Inter-observer reliability refers to the extent to which independent observers agree in their observations. Inter-observer

reliability is increased by providing clear definitions about behaviors and events to be recorded, by training observers, and by providing feedback about discrepancies.

High inter-observer reliability increases researchers' confidence that observations about behavior are accurate (valid). Inter-observer reliability is assessed by calculating percentage of agreement or correlations, depending on how the behaviors were measured and recorded.

Influence of the Observer: If individuals change their behavior when they know they are being observed (reactivity), their behavior may no longer be representative of their normal behavior.

Research participants may respond to demand characteristics in the research situation to guide their behavior. Methods to control reactivity include unobtrusive (non-reactive) measurement, adaptation (habituation, desensitization), and indirect observations of behavior. Researchers must consider ethical issues when attempting to control reactivity.

Observer Bias: Observer bias occurs when observers' biases determine which behaviors they choose to observe and when observers' expectations about behavior lead to systematic errors in identifying and recording behavior. Expectancy effects can occur when observers are aware of hypotheses for the outcome of the study or the outcome of previous studies. The first step in controlling observer bias is to recognize that it may be present. Observer bias may be reduced by keeping observers unaware (blind) of the goals and hypotheses of the study. Advantages and Disadvantages of Observational Method
What and how you observe depends very much on your subject of study. Researchers who prefer more security from the beginning might consider systematic observation. This involves using an observation schedule whereby teacher and/or pupil behavior is coded according to certain predetermined categories at regular intervals. The strengths of systematic observation are –

- It is relatively free of observer bias. It can establish frequencies, and is strong on objective measures which involve low inference on the part of the observer.

- Reliability can be strong. Where teams of researchers have used this approach, 80% reliability has been established among them.
- Generalisability. Once you have devised your instrument, large samples can be covered.
- It is precise. There is no ‘hanging around’ or ‘muddling through’.
- It provides a structure for the research.

The weaknesses are –

- There is a measure of unreliability. Qualitative material might be misrepresented through the use of measurement techniques.
- Much of the interaction is missed.
- It usually ignores the temporal and spatial context in which the data is collected.
- It is not good for generating fresh insights.
- The pre-specification of categories predetermines what is to be discovered and allows only partial description.
- It ignores process, flux, development, and change.

There has been lively debate about the pros and cons of systematic and unsystematic observation.

In general, systematic observation is a useful technique and can be particularly strong where used in conjunction with more purely qualitative techniques.

Lesson 7. QUESTIONNAIRE METHOD

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Although they are often designed for statistical analysis of the responses, this is not always the case. The questionnaire was invented by Sir Francis Galton (1822 - 1911). Questionnaires have advantages over some other types of surveys in that they are cheap, do not require as much effort from the questioner as verbal or telephone surveys, and often have standardized answers that make it simple to

compile data. As a type of survey, questionnaires also have many of the same problems relating to question construction and wording that exist in other types of opinion polls.

Types: A distinction can be made between questionnaires with questions that measure separate variables, and questionnaires with questions that are aggregated into either a scale or index.

Questionnaires within the former category are commonly part of surveys, whereas questionnaires in the latter category are commonly part of tests. Questionnaires with questions that measure separate variables, could for instance include questions on –

- preferences (e.g. political party)
- behaviors (e.g. food consumption)
- facts (e.g. gender).

Questionnaires with questions that are aggregated into either a scale or index, include for instance questions that measure –

- latent traits (e.g. personality traits such as extroversion)
- attitudes (e.g. towards immigration)
- an index (e.g. Social Economic Status).

Question Types: Usually, a questionnaire consists of a number of questions that the respondent has to answer in a set format. A distinction is made between open-ended and closed-ended questions. An open-ended question asks the respondent to formulate his/her own answer, whereas a closed-ended question has the respondent pick an answer from a given number of options. The response options for a closed-ended question should be exhaustive and mutually exclusive. Four types of response scales for closed-ended questions are distinguished –

- Dichotomous, where the respondent has two options.
- Nominal-polytomous, where the respondent has more than two unordered options.
- Ordinal-polytomous, where the respondent has more than two ordered options.

- Continuous (Bounded), where the respondent is presented with a continuous scale.

A respondent's answer to an open-ended question is coded into a response scale afterwards. An example of an open-ended question is a question where the testee has to complete a sentence (sentence completion item). Question Sequence: In general, questions should flow logically from one to the next. To achieve the best response rates, questions should flow from the least sensitive to the most sensitive, from the factual and behavioral to the attitudinal, and from the more general to the more specific. There typically is a flow that should be followed when constructing a questionnaire in regards to the order that the questions are asked. The order is as follows –

- Screens
- Warm-ups
- Transitions
- Skips
- Difficult
- Changing Formula

Screens are used as a screening method to find out early whether or not someone should complete the questionnaire. Warm-ups are simple to answer, help capture interest in the survey, and may not even pertain to research objectives. Transition questions are used to make different areas flow well together. Skips include questions similar to 'If yes, then answer question 3. If no, then continue to question 5'. Difficult questions are towards the end because the respondent is in 'response mode'.

Also, when completing an online questionnaire, the progress bars lets the respondent know that they are almost done so they are more willing to answer more difficult questions. Classification or demographic question should be at the end because typically they can feel like personal questions which will make respondents uncomfortable and not willing to finish survey.

Basic Rules for Questionnaire Item Construction:

The basic rules are –

- Use statements which are interpreted in the same way by members of different subpopulations of the population of interest.
- Use statements where persons that have different opinions or traits will give different answers.
- Think of having an 'open' answer category after a list of possible answers.
- Use only one aspect of the construct you are interested in per item.
- Use positive statements and avoid negatives or double negatives.
- Do not make assumptions about the respondent.
- Use clear and comprehensible wording, easily understandable for all educational levels.
- Use correct spelling, grammar and punctuation.
- Avoid items that contain more than one question per item (e.g. Do you like strawberries and potatoes?).
- Question should not be biased or even leading the participant towards an answer.

Questionnaire Administration Modes: Main modes of questionnaire administration are –

- Face-to-face questionnaire administration, where an interviewer presents the items orally.
- Paper-and-pencil questionnaire administration, where the items are presented on paper.
- Computerized questionnaire administration, where the items are presented on the computer.
- Adaptive computerized questionnaire administration, where a selection of items is presented on the computer, and based on the answers on those items, the computer selects following items optimized for the testee's estimated ability or trait.

Concerns with Questionnaires: It is important to consider the order in which questions are presented. Sensitive questions, such as questions about income, drug use, or sexual activity, should be put at the end of the survey. This allows the researcher to establish trust before asking questions that might embarrass respondents. Researchers also recommend putting routine questions, such as age, gender, and marital status, at the end of the questionnaire. Double-barreled questions, which ask two questions in one, should never be used in a survey. An example of a double barreled question is, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statement - 'I feel good about my work on the job, and I get along well with others at work'. This question is problematic because survey respondents are asked to give one response for two questions. Researchers should avoid using emotionally loaded or biased words and phrases. Advantages of Questionnaires: The advantages of questionnaires are –

- Large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way.
- Can be carried out by the researcher or by any number of people with limited affect to its validity and reliability.
- The results of the questionnaires can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package.
- Can be analyzed more scientifically and objectively than other forms of research.
- When data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change.
- Positivists believe that quantitative data can be used to create new theories and / or test existing hypotheses. Disadvantages of Questionnaires: The disadvantages of questionnaires are –
- To be inadequate to understand some forms of information - i.e. changes of emotions, behavior, feelings etc.
- Phenomenologists state that quantitative research is simply an artificial creation by the researcher, as it is asking only a limited amount of information without

explanation.

- There is no way to tell how truthful a respondent is being.
- There is no way of telling how much thought a respondent has put in.
- The respondent may be forgetful or not thinking within the full context of the situation.
- People may read differently into each question and therefore reply based on their own interpretation of the question - i.e. what is ‘good’ to someone may be ‘poor’ to someone else, therefore there is a level of subjectivity that is not acknowledged. Questionnaires are not among the most prominent methods in qualitative research, because they commonly require subjects to respond to a stimulus, and thus they are not acting naturally. However, they have their uses, especially as a means of collecting information from a wider sample than can be reached by personal interview. Though the information is necessarily more limited, it can still be very useful. For example, where certain clearly defined facts or opinions have been identified by more qualitative methods, a questionnaire can explore how generally these apply, if that is a matter of interest.

Lesson-7 QUESTIONNAIRE METHOD

Dichotomous, where the respondent has two options.

- Nominal-polytomous,
- Ordinal-polytomous,
- Continuous

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LEESON 8 Case study method

Continuing, Completeness, Validity, and Data

Descriptive case studies

Collective case studies .

Instrumental. Analytic strategy

Case studies are in-depth investigations of a single person, group, event or community. Typically data are gathered from a variety of sources and by using several different methods (e.g. observations & interviews). The case study research method originated in clinical medicine (the case history, i.e. the patient’s personal history). The case study method often involves simply observing what happens to, or reconstructing ‘the case history’ of a single participant or group of individuals (such as a school class or a specific social group), i.e. the idiographic approach.

Case studies allow a researcher to investigate a topic in far more detail than might be possible if they were trying to deal with a large number of research participants (nomothetic approach) with the aim of 'averaging'.

The case study is not itself a research method, but researchers select methods of data collection and analysis that will generate material suitable for case studies such as qualitative techniques (unstructured interviews, participant observation, diaries), personal notes (e.g. letters, photographs, notes) or official document (e.g. case notes, clinical notes, appraisal reports). The data collected can be analyzed using different theories (e.g. grounded theory, interpretative phenomenological analysis, text interpretation (e.g. thematic coding) etc. All the approaches mentioned here use preconceived categories in the analysis and they are ideographic in their approach, i.e. they focus on the individual case without reference to a comparison group.

Case studies are widely used in psychology and amongst the best known were the ones carried out by Sigmund Freud. He conducted very detailed investigations into the private lives of his patients in an attempt to both understand and help them overcome their illnesses. Freud's most famous case studies include 'Little Hans' (1909a) and 'The Rat Man' (1909b). Even today case histories are one of the main methods of investigation in abnormal psychology and psychiatry.

For students of these disciplines they can give a vivid insight into what those who suffer from mental illness often have to endure. Case studies are often conducted in clinical medicine and involve collecting and reporting descriptive information about a particular person or specific environment, such as a school. In psychology, case studies are often confined to the study of a particular individual.

The information is mainly biographical and relates to events in the individual's past (i.e. retrospective), as well as to significant events which are currently occurring in his or her everyday life. In order to produce a fairly detailed and comprehensive profile of the person, the psychologist may use various types of accessible data, such as medical records, employer's reports, school reports or

psychological test results. The interview is also an extremely effective procedure for obtaining information about an individual, and it may be used to collect comments from the person's friends, parents, employer, work mates and others who have a good knowledge of the person, as well as to obtain facts from the person him or herself.

In a case study, nearly every aspect of the subject's life and history is analyzed to seek patterns and causes for behavior. The hope is that learning gained from studying one case can be generalized to many others. Unfortunately, case studies tend to be highly subjective and it is difficult to generalize results to a larger population.

Characteristics of Case Study Method

- Case study research is not sampling research. Selecting cases must be done so as to maximize what can be learned in the period of time available for the study.
- The unit of analysis is a critical factor in the case study. It is typically a system of action rather than an individual or group of individuals. Case studies tend to be selective, focusing on one or two issues that are fundamental to understanding the system being examined.
- Case studies are multi-perspectives analyses. This means that the researcher considers not just the voice and perspective of the actors, but also of the relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. This one aspect is a salient point in the characteristic that case studies possess. They give a voice to the powerless and voiceless.
- Case study is known as a triangulated research strategy. Snow and Anderson (1991) asserted that triangulation can occur with data, investigators, theories, and even methodologies. Stake (1995) stated that the protocols that are used to ensure accuracy and alternative explanations are called triangulation. The need for triangulation arises from the ethical need to confirm the validity of the processes. In case studies, this could be done by using multiple sources of data (Yin, 1984).

The problem in case studies is to establish meaning rather than location. Denzin (1984) identified four types of triangulation: Data source triangulation, when the researcher looks for the data to remain the same in different contexts; Investigator triangulation, when several investigators examine the same phenomenon; Theory triangulation, when investigators with different viewpoints interpret the same results; and Methodological triangulation, when one approach is followed by another, to increase confidence in the interpretation. Characteristics of the case study method in legal research can be described shortly as follows –

- Any researcher can hold research into one single or more social unit such as a person, family, society and so on for the accomplishment of the aim of his/her study under this method. He/she can hold comprehensive and intensive study in different aspects of the unit so selected. Under this method, he/she can give the weight and consideration towards all the aspects of a person, group or society so selected for study. All aspects can be deeply and intensively studied.
- Any researcher does not only hold the study to find out how many crimes have been committed by a man but also deeply hold study into causes that forces or abets him to commit such crimes.

In this example, one of the main objectives of the researcher could be to give suggestion to referring the criminals.

- Under this method, any researcher can endeavor to know the relationship of causal factors interlinked.
- Under this method, all the related aspects of the unit, which is in subject to study, can be directly or indirectly studied.
- Case study method helps to find out the useful data and enables to generalize the knowledge also.

- The main characteristics of the case study method includes continuing, completeness, validity, and data as it deals with the life of social unit or units or society as whole.
- explain complex causal links in real-life interventions;
- describe the real-life context in which the intervention has occurred;
- describe the intervention itself; and explore those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear set of outcomes.

Sources of Information in Case Study

There are a number of different sources and methods that researchers can use to gather information about an individual or group. The six major sources that have been identified by researchers (Yin, 1994; Stake, 1995) are –

Direct Observation: This strategy involves observing the subject, often in a natural setting. While an individual observer is sometimes used, it is more common to utilize a group of observers.

Interviews: One of the most important methods for gathering information in case studies. An interview can involve structured survey-type questions, or more open-ended questions.

Documents: Letters, newspaper articles, administrative records, etc. Archival Records: Census records, survey records, name lists, etc. Physical Artifacts: Tools, objects, instruments and other artifacts often observed during a direct observation of the subject.

Participant Observation: Involves the researcher actually serving as a participant in events and observing the actions and outcomes.

Category of Case Study

There are several categories of case study. Prospective: A type of case study in which an individual or group of people is observed in order to determine outcomes. For example, a group of individuals might be watched over an extended period of time to observe the progression of a particular disease.

Retrospective: A type of case study that involves looking at historical information. For example, researchers might start with an outcome, such as a disease, and then backwards at information about the individuals life to determine risk factors that may have contributed to the onset of the illness. Explanatory: Explanatory case studies examine the data closely both at a surface and deep level in order to explain the phenomena in the data. On the basis of the data, the researcher may then form a theory and set to test this theory (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). Furthermore, explanatory cases are also deployed for causal studies where pattern-matching can be used to investigate certain phenomena in very complex and multivariate cases. Yin and Moore (1987) note that these complex and multivariate cases can be explained by three rival theories - a knowledge-driven theory, a problem-solving theory, and a social-interaction theory. The knowledge-driven theory stipulates that eventual commercial products are the results of ideas and discoveries from basic research. Similar notions can be said for the problem-solving theory. However, in this theory, products are derived from external sources rather than from research. The social-interaction theory, on the other hand, suggests that overlapping professional network causes researchers and users to communicate frequently with each other. Exploratory: A case study that is sometimes used as a prelude to further, more in-depth research.

This allows researchers to gather more information before developing their research questions and hypotheses. A pilot study is considered an example of an exploratory case study (Yin, 1984; McDonough and McDonough, 1997) and is crucial in determining the protocol that will be used. Descriptive: Descriptive case studies set to describe the natural phenomena which occur within the data in question. The goal set by the researcher is to describe the data as they occur. McDonough and McDonough (1997) suggest that descriptive case studies may be in a narrative form. An example of a descriptive case study is the journalistic description of the Watergate scandal by two reporters (Yin, 1984).

The challenge of a descriptive case study is that the researcher must begin with a descriptive theory to support the description of the phenomenon or story. If this fails there is the possibility that the description lacks rigor and that problems may occur during the project.

Intrinsic: A type of case study in which the researcher has a personal interest in the case.

Collective: Involves studying a group of cases.

Instrumental: Occurs when the individual or group allows researchers to understand more than what is initially obvious to observers. According to McDonough and McDonough (1997) other categories include interpretive and evaluative case studies. Through interpretive case studies, the researcher aims to interpret the data by developing conceptual categories, supporting or challenging the assumptions made regarding them. In evaluative case studies, the researcher goes further by adding their judgment to the phenomena found in the data.

Intrinsic - when the researcher has an interest in the case; Instrumental - when the case is used to understand more than what is obvious to the observer;

Collective - when a group of cases is studied.

Exploratory cases are sometimes considered as a prelude to social research.

Explanatory case studies may be used for doing causal investigations.

Descriptive cases require a descriptive theory to be developed before starting the project. In all of the above types of case studies, there can be single-case or multiple-case applications. Procedure of Case Study Method

In short, for the case study, the researchers recommend the above procedures in study –

- Design the case study protocol
  - Determine the required skills
  - Develop and review the protocol
- Conduct the case study

➢ Prepare for data collection

➢ Distribute questionnaire

➢ Conduct interview

• Analyze case study evidence

➢ Analytic strategy

• Develop conclusions, recommendations, and implications based on the evidence. Each section begins with the procedures recommended in the literature, followed by the application of the recommended procedure in the study.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Case Studies

A good case study should always make clear which information is factual description and which is inference or the opinion of the researcher. The strengths of case studies are - Provides detailed (rich qualitative) information; Provides insight for further research; Permitting investigation of otherwise impractical (or unethical) situations.

Merits of case study method can be described briefly as follows -

❖ The case study helps to study and understand the human nature and conducts very intensively. As a result, any researcher can formulate a valid hypothesis.

❖ Any researcher can get actual and exemplary records of experience that may be useful as guidelines to others life as this method carries out intensive study of all aspects of a unit or a problem selected for research.

❖ This case study method is very useful in sampling as it efficiently and orderly classifies the units selected for research based on data and information so collected.

❖ Under the case study, any researcher can undertake one or more research method(s) under the existing circumstances. S/he can use various methods as interviews, questionnaires, report, sampling and similar other methods.

❖ As this method emphasizes historical analysis, this method is taken as a means of knowing and understanding the past life of a social unit. That is why; it can suggest the possible measures to be taken for having improvements in present life

by the lesson of past life. In other words, it is said that the old is gold and morning show the day.

❖ Under this case study method, any researcher can find out new helpful things as it holds perfect study of sociological materials that can represent real image of experience.

❖ Under this case study method, any research may increase his/her analytical ability and skill of the study of practical experiences.

❖ This method makes possible the study, to bring positive changes in the society. As this method holds overall study of life of a social unit, the researcher can know and understand the changes occurred in our society and can suggest to make corrections in human behavior for the welfare, as well.

❖ As this case study method holds study of all aspects of a social unit, terms of past, present and future time, it gives the matured knowledge that could also be useful to his/her personal and public life.

❖ This case study method is also taken as indispensable and significant as regards to taking decision on many management issues. Case data are also very useful for diagnosis and thereby of practical case issues. It can be taken as an example to be followed in future.

Case studies can help us generate new ideas (that might be tested by other methods). They are an important way of illustrating theories and can help show how different aspects of a person's life are related to each other. The method is therefore important for a holistic point of view. Despite its merits as referred to in above, demerits of the case study method can be described shortly as follows –

- This case study method is a very vague process. There is no mechanism to control researcher. Generalization is almost impossible to a larger similar population.
- Under this case study method, letters and other documents can be used. A write up is generally prepared to impress and give undue influence to personal matters. It

always depends on the personal feeling and thought. As a result, the study of the researcher may be worthless and meaningless by virtue of possible occurrence of distortion.

- Under this case study method, there is no limitation of study. The researcher always finds difficulties in deciding when s/he should stop to collect data for his/her study. He/she may find all things to be pertinent.
- This case study method is always based on several assumptions. However, sometimes, they may not be realistic. Under such circumstances, such data should be tested.
- Under this case study method, the result is drawn up on the basis of all post experiences.

Collection of much data and information may lead to confusion to find out pertinent and specific information.

- This case study method is based on comparison with the post life. However, human value, attitude, behavior, reactions, circumstance are very wide and differ with each other. It is difficult to compare from one another.
- This case study method always collects post information and data of the society. However, there is no system of checking. Difficult to replicate.
- This case study method is time consuming, expensive and complex.

IV. КЕЙСЛАР

CASE 1 One person's experience

This case study exemplifies a contrast between two working cultures: Canadian and Taiwanese.

Read the text and the list of possible actions. Then makerecommendations as to what the Canadian should do.

1 Choose from the list below those activities you think he should carry out.

2 Rank them in order of priority.

3 Add any other actions you think necessary.

Dave Thompson is a Canadian working for a 'Baby Bell' company which owns shares in a Taiwanese mobile phone company. They have recently acquired a licence to operate in this crowded and competitive market. Dave has been posted to Taiwan on a three-year contract. He has now been living there for three months. He has good experience of the mobile phone business, both technically and strategically, and was previously involved in the startup of a new mobile phone company in Lithuania.

He believes he has the opportunity to make the new company a great success by adopting the management style of his home company: open, innovative, confident and aggressive. In Taiwan he faces a tradition based on Chinese hierarchies and family-run businesses. The Taiwanese company Dave works for belongs to one of these families, but the current generation sees the advantages of a western approach in what is for them a new kind of business. So they back his efforts to 'turn the company around'. Dave's biggest problem is one of time: he wants to get on with building up a western-style company, and is prepared to trust people, take risks, and act fast to improve market share in a rapidly developing market. The deregulated market is not so transparent to him, depending as it does on old traditions, complicated business practices, and personal connections. On top

of all this, only a few of his top managers speak English. The rest of his managers speak Mandarin, and have to be addressed through an interpreter. Although Dave is keen to leap into action, his colleagues need time to build up trust with him, as with all strangers. They also believe in consensus, not the kind of questioning and challenging of ideas which leads easily to conflict. At meetings, they always appear to accept what Dave suggests, deferring to his status as a respected senior and an outsider. Dave decides he must do something. He draws up the following list of possible actions:

- send some of his managers to Work in North America
- organise a one-day seminar on business cultures
- organise a meeting at which all the cultural problems are discussed
- bring in a local management consultant
- learn Mandarin
- bring in more Western managers
- organise lectures for his employees on Western business practices
- learn more about Taiwan
- slow down his approach

CASE 2

English language expert arrived in Uzbekistan in 2017 to examine and provide recommendations for the improvement of the National In-Service Language Teacher Education Program in Tashkent. This program provided university language teachers with recent language teaching methodological discussions, and provided teachers up-to-date information about best practices for language teaching, which included using tasks and TBLT. The TBLT discussions were well-received by the teachers and many people said they were going to incorporate TBLT into their language classes. However, after observing ten teachers across the Republic, it was clear to the English language expert that the university teachers did not use TBLT as they had said they would. Additionally, they did not give tasks for group work or pair work, and they mostly

utilized the exercises from their course books. Mostly, in all the observed lessons, students were bored doing those exercises. There was a disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes.

Think about the case above. What could be the disconnect between what was taught in the training and what the teachers did in their classes? What do you think are some solutions?

CASE 3

While observing an in-service teacher training class, the director of the Innovation Center under the Uzbekistan State University of World Languages, witnessed how a male teacher trainer was talking to a female teacher about an inappropriate behavior. The female was talking on the phone during the class. She believed she remained unnoticed. However, the male trainer saw the teacher and then started communicating with her in the following way:

Trainer: Hello

Teacher: Sorry

Trainer: How are you?

Teacher: Excuse me!

Trainer: I think, you published a book last year on the topic that we are talking today, didn't you?

Teacher: I am sorry, because my child is ill and thus I am worrying, and thus I am trying to know about how he is now.

Think about the problem indicated in the vignette. Why did the teacher not answer any of the trainer's questions during their communication? Was the trainer satisfied by the teacher's justification about her talking on the phone during the class session?

CASE 4

I was invited to the private language center to work with teachers. My duties comprised of lesson observations and running teacher training seminars. I observed all teachers to understand what kind of problems they faced and find

possible solutions. The majority of teachers were young, with good English, and very ambitious. The lesson observations revealed that although they had different experiences and teaching styles, many of them lacked understanding of principles of language teaching. I wanted to start the first teacher training seminar with an exploration of teachers' attitudes towards language teaching. I decided to start with participants reading and discussing statements related to teaching like, whether our learners should know grammar; what is the role of reading aloud and translation; the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign languages; and the role of encouragement and reward ... in the middle of the discussion one young teacher stood up and said: 'I don't think this discussion will help me. You must give me something tangible, ready-made recipes, which I can take to my class on Monday!'

Think about the case above.

What is the disconnect between the teacher trainer and the language teacher? Do you share the teacher's opinion? If so, why; if not, why not?

V. ГЛОССАРИЙ

Тушунчалар	Уларнинг шарҳи
Action Research	a group of people identify a problem, do something to resolve it, see how successful their efforts were, and if not satisfed, try again. Action research is known by many other names, including participatory research, collaborative inquiry, emancipatory research, action learning, and contextural action research, but all are variations on a theme.
Attrition	A reduction in the number of participants during the course of a study. If more participants withdraw from one group than another group, this can introduce bias and threaten the internal validity of the research
Bias	A loss of balance and accuracy in the use of research methods. It cancreep into research via sampling, while interviewing, in the design ofquestions, or in the way data are analysed and presented. Bias means that the research fndings will not be representative of, or generalisable to, a wider population.
Biographical Research	Primarily qualitative, and includes gathering/ using data in the form of diaries, stories and life histories.
Categorical variable	A variable with discrete values (e.g. a person’s gender or a person’s marital status).
Causal relationship	A relationship where variation in one variable causes variation in another.
Chi-square	Chi-square is a family of distributions commonly used for significance testing. Te most common variants are the Pearson chi-square test and the likelihood ratio chi-square test.
Coded data (coding)	Refers to a way of recording material at data collection, either manually or on computer, for analysis. Te data are put into groups or categories,

	such as age groups, and each category is given a code number.
Cohort study	A cohort study is one in which subjects who presently beneft from anactivity are followed over time and compared with another group who are not benefting from the activity or intervention under investigation.
Confdence interval	A confdence interval identifes a range of values that includes the true population value of a particular characteristic at a specifed probability level (usually 95%). (See Statistical Analysis).
Confdence level	Te confdence level tells you how sure you can be that this inference is correct (See section on Statistical Analysis).
Construct	Something that exists theoretically but is not directly observable.
Continuous variable	A variable that can take on an infnite range of values along a specifc continuum (e.g. weight, height).
Controlled variables	Researchers may control some variables in order to allow the researchto focus on specifc variables without being distorted by the impact of the excluded variables.
Correlation coefcient	A measure of the degree of relationship between two variables. A correlation coefcient lies between +1 (indicating a perfect positive relationship), through to 0 (indicating no relationship between two variables) to -1.0 (a perfect negative relationship). (See Statistical Analysis section for more details).
Cross-tabulating	Te process of analysing data according to one or more key variables.A common example is to analyse data by the gender of the research subject or respondent, so that you can compare fndings for men withfndings for women. Also known as cross-referencing. (See Statistical

	Analysis section for more details).
Cross-sectional research	Cross-sectional research is used to gather information on a populationat a single point in time.
Data saturation	Te point at which data collection can cease, when data becomes repetitive and contains no new ideas, the researcher can be reasonably confdent that the inclusion of additional participants is unlikely to generate any new ideas. (Sometimes simply referred to as saturation.)
Demographics	Information about a population sample that includes data such as age, sex, social class, number of children, etc.
Dependant variables	In a research project which seeks to establish cause and effect betweenvariables, the potential causal variable is known as the independent variable, and the variable(s) where effects are under scrutiny is dependent.
Descriptive statistics	Statistical methods used to describe or summarise data collected froma specifc sample (e.g. mean, median, mode, range, standard deviation). (See Statistical Analysis section for more details).
Determinism	Te belief that everything is caused by specifed factors in a predictableway rather than haphazardly; a key assumption within the positivist paradigm.
Deviation	Te difference of a score from the mean.
Discrete variable	A variable which can only have whole numbers (integers).
Emancipatory research	Conducted on and with people from marginalised groups/communitiesand is conducted largely for the purpose of empowering members of that community and improving services for them. Empirical researchResearch conducted ‘in the feld’, where data are gathered frst hand. Case studies and surveys are examples of empirical research.
Ethnography	Uses feldwork to provide a descriptive study of human societies.

Evaluation	A form of research used to assess the value or effectiveness of social care interventions or programmes.
Experimental group	Te group that receives the treatment is called the experimental group and the other group is called the control group.
Extraneous variables	Tese are variables that influence the outcome of research, though theyare not the variables that are actually of interest. Tese variables are undesirable because they add error to an analysis.
Facilitator	A facilitator is someone who skillfully helps a group of people understand their common objectives and assists them to plan to achieve them without taking a particular position in the discussion.
Feminist research	Research into the relationship and understanding of the social constructions of gender.
Filter	When only a section of the total sample are required to answer the question.
Frequency distribution	A visual display of numerical values ranging from the lowest to thehighest, showing the number of times (frequency) each value occurs.
Frequency tables	A set of data, which provides a count of the number of occasions onwhich a particular answer/response has been given across all of those respondents who answered the question.
Gaussian distribution	A theoretical frequency distribution for a set of variable data, usuallyrepresented by a bell-shaped curve symmetrical about the mean. Statisticians and mathematicians uniformly use the term “normal distribution” while physicists sometimes call it a Gaussian distribution.
Generalisable	In technical use, has a meaning of how results from a sample can begeneralised to a greater or lesser extent according to the outcome of statistical tests of signifcance.
Hard data	Precise data, like dates of birth or income levels, which can reasonably be subjected to precise forms of analysis, such as statistical testing.

Hypothesis	A theory or prediction made about the relationship between two variables.
Independent variables	Te causal variable is known as the independent variable, and the variable(s) where effects are under scrutiny are dependent variables.
Inference	Te reasoning involved in drawing a conclusion or making a logical judgment.
Inferential statistics	Statistics that allow a researcher to make inferences about whetherrelationships observed in a sample are likely to occur in the wider population from which that sample was drawn.
Informed consent	Te process of obtaining voluntary participation of individuals in research based on a full understanding of the possible benefts and risks.
Interval level	See confidence level
Interval variable	An interval variable is similar to an ordinal variable, except that theintervals between the values of the interval variable are equally spaced.
Likert scale	A method used to measure attitudes, which involves respondents indicating their degree of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements. Scores are summed to give a composite measure of attitudes.
Literature review	Brings together a range of information on a topic to develop an awareness of the current state of knowledge in the subject. It is commonly used to set the scene for introducing new research or a new perspectiveon the research.
Longitudinal research	A research process, which is repeated on several occasions over a periodof time, as far as possible replicating the chosen methodology each time. The key aim of such research is to monitor changes over time.
Macro	A macro is a rule or pattern that specifes how a certain input sequence(often a sequence of characters) should be mapped to an output sequence (also often a sequence of characters) according to

	a defined procedure. Used in computer programs to conduct repetitive tasks.
Median	If you rank the observations according to size, the median is the observation that divides the list into equal halves. (2,6,9,32,74 = 9).
Method/Methodology	While 'method' describes what you as a researcher have done, methodology is about your reasons for doing it.
Meta-analysis	A statistical technique for combining and integrating the data derivedfrom a number of experimental studies undertaken on a specifc topic.
Multivariate analysis	Techniques used to analyse data that arises from more than one variable.
Naturalistic paradigm	Tis paradigm assumes that there are multiple interpretations of reality and that the goal of researchers working within this perspective is to understand how individuals construct their own reality within their social context.
Nominal scale	A nominal scale is one that allows the researcher to assign subjectsto certain categories or groups. For example, with variable of gender, respondents can be grouped into two categories male and female. Tesetwo groups can be assigned code numbers 0 and 1.
Normal distribution	A theoretical frequency distribution for a set of variable data, usually represented by a bell-shaped curve symmetrical about the mean. Statisticians and mathematicians uniformly use the term "normal distribution" while physicists sometimes call it a Gaussian distribution.
Null Hypothesis	The prediction that there is no relationship between your treatment and your outcome.
Ordinal Variable	Variables with an ordered series, e.g. "very poor, poor, no opinion,good, very good". Numbers assigned to such variables indicate rank order only, the "distance" between the numbers has no meaning.
Panel studies	Panel studies measure the same sample of respondents at differentpoints in time.
Paradigm	A philosophical and theoretical framework of a scientifc

	school or discipline within which theories, laws, and generalisations and the experiments performed in support of them are formulated.
Parameter	A quantity (such as the mean or variance) that characterises a statistical population and that can be estimated by calculations from sample data.
Phenomenology	A research methodology which has its roots in philosophy and which focuses on the lived experience of individuals.
Population	See research population
Positivism	A paradigm that assumes human behaviour is determined by external stimuli and that it is possible to use the principles and methods traditionally employed by the natural scientist to observe and measure social phenomena.
Predictive research	Concerned with identifying indicators of future behaviour or demand in a population on the basis of the current behaviour and demands of a sample. Predictive techniques use a number of statistical approaches.
Primary source	A primary source is a document, speech, or other sort of evidence written, created or otherwise produced during the time under study.
Qualitative	Concerned with a quality of information, qualitative methods attempt to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations for actions and establish how people interpret their experiences and the world around them. Qualitative methods provide insights into thesetting of a problem, generating ideas and/or hypotheses.
Quantitative	As the name suggests, is concerned with trying to quantify things; it asks questions such as ‘how long’ or ‘how many’. Quantitative methods look to quantify data and generalise results from a sample of the population of interest. They may look to measure the incidence of various views and opinions in a chosen sample, for example.
Random sample	A sample of a population where each member of the population has an equal chance of being in the sample.
Ratio scale	Ratio scales are like interval scales except they have a zero

	point. Agood example is height or temperature. Tese have a scale with an absolute zero. Tus, a height of 2 metres is twice as high as a height of 1 metre.
References	A reference is a formal system for drawing attention to a literaturesource, usually published, both in the report itself and in the bibliography or reading list at the end of the report. Tere are two main methods of referencing articles in journal and book publications. Tese areknown as the Harvard (author-date) and Vancouver (author-number) reference systems.
Relevance	Is about the closeness with which the data being gathered feeds intothe aims of the study.
Reliability	The extent to which the same result will be repeated/achieved by using the same measure.
Research plan	This is the researcher's guidebook for the project, and the yardstickagainst which the various stages of progress can be judged. It states the outputs to be delivered and the timescale.
Respondent	An individual or organisation that responds to research questions.
Response rate	The proportion of people asked to take part in research who actuallytake part.
Sampling	The process by which you reduce the total research population for aresearch project to a number which is practically feasible and theoretically acceptable (the sample).
Sampling: non random	Non random sampling means that the principle of randomness has not been maintained in the selection of a sample. Often it involves struc-tured sampling whereby the sample group is carefully matched to the overall population on key variables.
Sampling: simple random sampling	Each individual is chosen entirely by chance and each member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample.
Sampling: stratifed sampling	A stratifed sample is obtained by taking samples from each stratum orsub-group of a population.
Sampling frame	The listing of the accessible population from which you'll

	draw your sample is called the sampling frame.
Secondary source	A secondary data source is that collected by other people, so for example the Census.
Soft data	A characteristic of qualitative research. Data such as people's ideas and opinions.
Standard deviation	A descriptive statistic used to measure the degree of variability within a set of scores.
Statistical analysis	Statistical analysis refers to a collection of methods used to process large amounts of data and report overall trends.
Statistical tests	See section on statistical analysis for a description of the most commonstatistical tests.
Survey design	Survey design covers the defnition of all aspects of a survey from the establishment of a need for data to the production of fnal outputs.
Tabulations	A set of data, which provides a count of the number of occasions onwhich a particular answer/response has been given across all of those respondents who tackled the question.
Textual analysis	Used in analysis of secondary source data and also in qualitativeresearch. It involves working on a text in depth, looking for keywordsand concepts and making links between them. Te term also extends to literature reviewing. Increasingly, much textual analysis is done usingcomputer programs such as NVivo, ATLAS.ti, NU*DIST.
Trend studies	Trend studies establish a pattern over time to detect shifts and changesand are valuable in describing long-term changes in a population.
Triangulation	A multi-method approach, using different methods in order to focus onthe research topic from different viewpoints and to produce a multifaceted set of data. Also used to check the validity of fndings from any one method.
Type I Error	Rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true.
Type II Error	Accepting the null hypothesis when it is false.
Universe	Te term universe is used to denote whatever body of people is beingstudied. Validity Concerns the extent to which your

	research fndings can be said to beaccurate and reliable, and the extent to which the conclusions are warranted.
Variable	Any factor, which may be relevant to a research study. For example the age and gender of respondents would be variables. See also Standard Variables, Dependent/Independent variables, and Controlling variables.
Variation (variance)	A measure of the spread of the variable, usually used to describe thedeviation from a central value (e.g, the mean).
Weighting	Te process of weighting involves emphasising some aspects of a phenomenon, or of a set of data – giving them ‘more weight’ in the fnal effect or result.

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23. Тошкент ахборот технологиялари университети: www.tuit.uz.
24. Ўзбекистон Республикаси Давлат Ҳокимияти портали: www.gov.uz
25. Ўзбек интернет ресурсларининг каталоги: www.uz
26. Британия кенгаши веб сайти: www.Britishcouncil.org
27. Таълим портали: www.ziyonet.uz
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Қаракалпак мамлекетлик университети жанындағы педагог кадрларды кайта таярлаў хәм олардың қәнигелин жетилистириў аймақлық орайы жоқары оқыў орны профессор-оқытыўшылары ушын филология тәлим бағдары тынлаўшылары ушын "Илимий изертлеулер откериуде колланылатугын лингвистик метод хам усыллар" модулы бойынша дүзилген оқыў-методикалық комплекске

СЫН ПИКИР

"Илимий изертлеулер откериуде колланылатугын лингвистик метод хам усыллар" модулы бойынша дүзилген оқыў-методикалық комплекс Өзбекстан республикасы жоқарғы хәм орта арнаўлы билимлендириў Министрлигиниң 2020 жыл 2 ноябрьдеги 1023 санлы буйрығы менен татыйықланған үлгили оқыў реже хәм бағдарлама тийкарында ислеп шығылған.

Жоқары оқыў орынлары педагог кадрларының қәнийгелигин арттырыў курсының Илимий изертлеулер откериуде колланылатугын лингвистик метод хам усыллар модулиниң мақсети Илимий изертлеу хам изертлеуди шолкемлестириу ушын маглыуматлар жыйнау хам сол маглыуматларды анализлеу. Илимий изертлеудин методикалық тамийнлениуи. Маглыумат топлау тартиби. Сыпатлы усыл. Сан хам сапа усылы. Аралас усыл. Амелий жумыстын процеслерин билиу хам оларды амелиятта коллау болып табылады.

Бул оқыў- методикалық комплекс модул ис бағдарламасын, модулди оқытыўда колланылатуғын интерактив тәлим методлары, теориялық хам амелий сабак материаллары, кейслар, глоссарий хам пайдаланылган адебиятлар дизимин, сондай-ак сабак процессинде колланылатугын презентация материаллары хам тест сорауларын өз ишине камтыйды.

Модулди озлестириу аркалы ЖОО профессор окытыушылары Илимий изертлеулер откериуде колланылатугын лингвистик метод хам усыллар хаккында хам онын перспективалы профилине сай зарурли билим хам конликпелерин озлестириуде хам касиплик шеберлигин рауажландырыуда бул Методикалык комплекс ахмийетли.

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