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SOCIAL RESEARCH

BASOC-304

[Sociology]

Paper II



RAJIV GANDHI UNIVERSITY

Arunachal Pradesh, INDIA - 791 112

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About the University

Rajiv Gandhi University (formerly Arunachal University) is a premier institution for higher education in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and has completed twenty-five years of its existence. Late Smt. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India, laid the foundation stone of the university on 4th February, 1984 at Rono Hills, where the present campus is located.

Ever since its inception, the university has been trying to achieve excellence and fulfill the objectives as envisaged in the University Act. The university received academic recognition under Section 2(f) from the University Grants Commission on 28th March, 1985 and started functioning from 1st April, 1985. It got financial recognition under section 12-B of the UGC on 25th March, 1994. Since then Rajiv Gandhi University, (then Arunachal University) has carved a niche for itself in the educational scenario of the country following its selection as a University with potential for excellence by a high-level expert committee of the University Grants Commission from among universities in India.

The University was converted into a Central University with effect from 9th April, 2007 as per notification of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

The University is located atop Rono Hills on a picturesque tableland of 302 acres overlooking the river Dikrong. It is 6.5 km from the National Highway 52-A and 25 km from Itanagar, the State capital. The campus is linked with the National Highway by the Dikrong bridge.

The teaching and research programmes of the University are designed with a view to play a positive role in the socio-economic and cultural development of the State. The University offers Undergraduate, Post-graduate, M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes. The Department of Education also offers the B.Ed. programme.

There are fifteen colleges affiliated to the University. The University has been extending educational facilities to students from the neighbouring states, particularly Assam. The strength of students in different departments of the University and in affiliated colleges has been steadily increasing.

The faculty members have been actively engaged in research activities with financial support from UGC and other funding agencies. Since inception, a number of proposals on research projects have been sanctioned by various funding agencies to the University. Various departments have organized numerous seminars, workshops and conferences. Many faculty members have participated in national and international conferences and seminars held within the country and abroad. Eminent scholars and distinguished personalities have visited the University and delivered lectures on various disciplines.

The academic year 2000-2001 was a year of consolidation for the University. The switch over from the annual to the semester system took off smoothly and the performance of the students registered a marked improvement. Various syllabi designed by Boards of Post-graduate Studies (BPGS) have been implemented. VSAT facility installed by the ERNET India, New Delhi under the UGC-Infonet program, provides Internet access.

In spite of infrastructural constraints, the University has been maintaining its academic excellence. The University has strictly adhered to the academic calendar, conducted the examinations and declared the results on time. The students from the University have found placements not only in State and Central Government Services, but also in various institutions, industries and organizations. Many students have emerged successful in the National Eligibility Test (NET).

Since inception, the University has made significant progress in teaching, research, innovations in curriculum development and developing infrastructure.

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Social Research

Syllabi	Mapping in Book
Unit 1 Types of Research Basic, Applied; Historical, Empirical; Descriptive, Exploratory, and Experimental.	Unit 1: Types of Research
Unit 2 Techniques of Data Collection Questionnaire, Schedule, Interview Case Study, Observation and Content Analysis.	Unit 2: Techniques of Data Collection
Unit 3 Analysis and Use of Statistics Use of Statistics—Mean, Median, Mode and Standard Deviation.	Unit 3: Analysis and Use of Statistics
Unit 4 Report Writing Importance of Report Writing; Components of Report—Preliminary Pages, Main Text and End Text.	Unit 4: Report Writing

CONTENTS

UNIT 1 TYPES OF RESEARCH

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Unit Objectives
- 1.2 Basic, Applied and Empirical Research
 - 1.2.1 Empirical Research
- 1.3 Historical Research
- 1.4 Exploratory Research
- 1.5 Descriptive Research
- 1.6 Experimental Research
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Key Terms
- 1.9 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 1.10 Questions and Exercises
- 1.11 Further Reading

UNIT 2 TECHNIQUES OF DATA COLLECTION

- 2.0 Introduction
 - 2.1 Unit Objectives
 - 2.2 Observation
 - 2.2.1 Types of Observation
 - 2.2.2 Recording Techniques of Observation
 - 2.2.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Observation
 - 2.2.4 Characteristics of Observation for Research
 - 2.3 Questionnaire Tools
 - 2.3.1 Types of Questionnaire
 - 2.3.2 Questionnaire Administration Modes
 - 2.3.3 Appropriateness of Questionnaire
 - 2.4 Types of Questions
 - 2.4.1 Steps for Preparing and Administering the Questionnaire
 - 2.4.2 Importance and Limitations of Questionnaire Method
 - 2.5 Schedules
 - 2.5.1 Types of Schedules
 - 2.5.2 Organization of the Schedule
 - 2.5.3 Difference between Questionnaire and Schedule
 - 2.6 Interview
 - 2.6.1 Types of Interviews
 - 2.6.2 Important Elements of Research Interview
 - 2.6.3 Indifferent Attitude of the Respondent and the Role of the Research Worker
 - 2.6.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interview Method
 - 2.7 Projective Techniques
 - 2.7.1 Evaluating Projective Techniques
 - 2.8 Case Study and Content Analysis
 - 2.8.1 Content Analysis
 - 2.9 Summary
 - 2.10 Key Terms
 - 2.11 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
 - 2.12 Questions and Exercises
 - 2.13 Further Reading
-

UNIT 3 ANALYSIS AND USE OF STATISTICS

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Unit Objectives
- 3.2 Mean
- 3.3 Median
- 3.4 Mode
 - 3.4.1 Quartiles, Deciles and Percentiles
 - 3.4.2 Measures of Dispersion
 - 3.4.3 Standard Deviation
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 Key Terms
- 3.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 3.8 Questions and Exercises
- 3.9 Further Reading

UNIT 4 REPORT WRITING

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Unit Objectives
- 4.2 Need for Effective Documentation
 - 4.2.1 Importance of Report Writing
 - 4.2.2 Types of Research Reports
- 4.3 Components of Report
- 4.4 Report Writing: Report Formulation
 - 4.4.1 Guidelines for Effective Documentation
 - 4.4.2 Research Briefings: Oral Presentation
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 Key Terms
- 4.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 4.8 Questions and Exercises
- 4.9 Further Reading

INTRODUCTION

Research is the search for knowledge or a systematic investigation in order to establish facts. The basic aim of research is to discover, interpret and develop methods and systems to advance human knowledge on diverse scientific matters. Social research refers to the conduction of research on various groups of a society by social scientists. Research methodology refers to the way research can be conducted. It is also known as the process of collecting data for various research projects.

Social research pertains to research carried out by social scientists on various facets of society. Research plays a very significant role in the field of social science. In order to study the importance and relationship between social science and research, social research is conducted or undertaken. The research that attempts to measure, describe, explain and predict the social and economic phenomena or social behaviour of human beings is known as 'social research'.

The methodology of social research is the science of studying how research is conducted scientifically. It helps to understand both the products as well as the process of scientific enquiry. A research process involves selection and formulation of a research problem, research design, sample strategy or sample design, as well as the interpretation and preparation of research report. Research can be undertaken in the form of descriptive/survey research, applied or fundamental research, quantitative or qualitative research, conceptual or empirical research, and other types of research.

This book, *Social Research*, is written in a self-instructional format and is divided into seven units. Each unit begins with an *Introduction* to the topic followed by an outline of the *Unit Objectives*. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with *Check Your Progress* questions to test the reader's understanding of the topic. A list of *Questions and Exercises* is also provided at the end of each unit, and includes short-answer as well as long-answer questions. The *Summary* and *Key Terms* section are useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.

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UNIT 1 TYPES OF RESEARCH

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Unit Objectives
- 1.2 Basic, Applied and Empirical Research
 - 1.2.1 Empirical Research
- 1.3 Historical Research
- 1.4 Exploratory Research
- 1.5 Descriptive Research
- 1.6 Experimental Research
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Key Terms
- 1.9 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 1.10 Questions and Exercises
- 1.11 Further Reading

NOTES

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall discuss the different types of research in detail. Research design is a detailed plan used by the researcher to understand the methods by which he can achieve the objectives set forth in the study. It involves:

- Selection of the type of research design
- Selecting appropriate data sources
- Selecting the sampling plan
- Determining the sample size
- Understanding the issues related to measurement and scale selection

There are varied types of research design available for the researcher to choose. Each one has different purpose and sample size apart from the techniques. Additionally, each type of research also has certain advantages and limitations. It depends on the researcher, the topic of research and the tools available which play a crucial role in determining the selection of type of research. The unit will provide you a basic understanding of basic, applied, conceptual and empirical research along with descriptive, exploratory and experimental type of research.

1.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Identify the concept of basic and applied research
- Describe conceptual and empirical research
- Discuss the purpose, advantages and disadvantages of historical research
- Assess exploratory research
- Analyse descriptive and experimental research

1.2 BASIC, APPLIED AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

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Research can be either fundamental (basic or pure) or action-oriented (applied) research. Fundamental research focuses on finding generalizations and formulating theories. It is the research done for knowledge enhancement; the research which does not have immediate commercial potential; and the research which is done for human welfare, animal welfare and plant kingdom welfare. For example, research on the institution of marriage came into being is an example of basic or fundamental research. Here the main motivation is to expand man's knowledge and not to create or invent something. Basic research lays down the foundation for the applied research.

Applied research is designed to solve practical problem of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for the sake of knowledge. Its goal is to improve the human condition. It focuses on analysis and solving social and real life problems. This research is usually conducted on large scale basis and is expensive. Thus, it is often conducted with the support of some financing agency like government, public corporation, World Bank, UNICEF, UGC, etc. Examples of applied research topics include persuasion, eyewitness memory, clinical treatments of psychological disorders, behavioral interventions for children with autism, decision making, etc.

1.2.1 Empirical Research

Conceptual research is that which is related to some abstract idea(s) or theory. It is generally used by philosophers and thinkers to develop new concepts or to reinterpret existing ones. In a conceptual research, a concept is chosen for examination, and the research involves quantifying and tallying its presence. 'Scoping of Vulnerability Definitions of Polio' —the research done by the United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS) is an example of conceptual research. As part of the Global Pulse initiative's design and development phase, the UNU-EHS conducted a series of research to help the project gain a better understanding of how different communities of practice use the term 'vulnerability'. As part of the research, UNU-EHS analysed 76 definitions of vulnerability used by UN agencies, NGOs, scientific organizations and academia. In addition, the Institute's researchers scanned through 68 reports to draw out key lessons for the development of vulnerability indicator sets.

The development of psychoanalysis as a science and clinical practice is another example of conceptual research. Research has clarified, formulated and reformulated psychoanalytic concepts permitting to better shape the findings emerging in the clinical setting. By enhancing clarity and explicitness in concept usage it has facilitated the integration of existing psychoanalytic thinking as well as the development of new ways of looking at clinical and extra-clinical data.

Empirical research, on the other hand, relies only on real experiences and observations. It is data-based research and its conclusions can be verified by observations or experiments. It is also called experimental type of research. In empirical research, all facts are obtained at first hand, at their source, and at times by stimulating the production of desired information. To prove a given hypothesis, the evidence gathered through empirical studies and experiments is considered to be the most powerful and accurate. Research design varies by field and by the question being investigated. Many researchers combine qualitative and quantitative forms of analysis to better answer questions which cannot be studied in laboratory settings, particularly in the social sciences and in education.

In some fields, empirical research may begin with a research question. For example: ‘Does listening to vocal music during the learning of a word list have an effect on later memory for these words?’ This question is tested through experimentation in a lab. Usually, a researcher has a certain theory regarding the topic under investigation. Based on this theory, some statements or hypotheses are proposed, for example, ‘listening to vocal music has a negative effect on learning a word list’. From these hypotheses, predictions about specific events are derived, for example, ‘people who study a word list while listening to vocal music will remember fewer words on a later memory test than people who study a word list in silence’. These predictions are then tested with a suitable experiment. Depending on the outcomes of the experiment, the theory on which the hypotheses and predictions were based will be supported or not.

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1.3 HISTORICAL RESEARCH

History is a meaningful record of past events. It is a valid integrated account of social, cultural, economic and political forces that had operated simultaneously to produce historical events. It is not simply a chronological listing of events but an integrated assessment of the relationship between people, events, times and places. It is used to understand the present on the basis of what we know about past events and developments.

Historical research attempts to establish facts so as to arrive at a conclusion concerning past events. It is a process by which a researcher is able to come to a conclusion as to the likely truth of an event in the past by studying objects available for observation in the present. Historical research is a dynamic account of the past, which seeks to interpret past events in order to identify the nuances, personalities and ideas that have had an influence on these events.

According to Kerlinger: ‘Historical research is the critical investigation of events, developments, and experience of the past, the careful weighing of the evidence of the validity of sources of information of the past, and the interpretation of the weighed evidence.’

According to Gay (1981): ‘Historical research is the systematic collection and objective evaluation of data related to past occurrences in order to test hypotheses concerning causes, effects, or trends of those events which may help to explain present events and anticipate future events.’

Therefore, it can be concluded that true historical research is a process of reconstructing the past through systematically and objectively collecting, evaluating, verifying and synthesizing evidence relating to the past events to establish facts and defensible conclusions, often in relation to particular hypotheses (if appropriate), to arrive at a scholarly account of what happened in the past.

Nature and Value of Historical Research

The main aim of historical research is to obtain an exact account of the past to gain a clearer view of the present. Historical research tries to create facts to arrive at conclusions concerning past events. It is usually accompanied by an interpretation of these events at the end of their relevance to present circumstances and what might happen in the future. This knowledge enables us, at least partially, to predict and control our future existence.

- Historical research as many other types of research, includes the delimitation of a problem, formulating hypothesis or tentative generalization, gathering and

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analysing data, and arriving at conclusions or generalizations, based upon deductive-inductive reasoning. However, the historian faces greater difficulties than researchers in any field.

- The job of the historian becomes more complicated when he derives truth from historical evidence. The major difficulty lies in the fact that the data on which historical facts are based cannot be substantiated and is relatively inadequate.
- It may be difficult to determine the date of occurrence of a certain historical event partly because of changes brought in the system of calendar and partly due to incomplete information. The historian lacks control over both treatment and measurement of data.

The historical method has taken two principal forms. In the first form, the method concentrates upon the issues of origin, development and transformation of social institutions, societies and civilizations. In the other form, the historical changes of social structure and types of society are investigated and compared i.e., both causal explanation and historical interpretation takes place. In sociological research, the comparative (or cross-cultural) method is based on the assumption that a society (or a social system) cannot be fully understood without comparing it with other societies or systems.

Types of Historical Research

The various types of historical research are:

- **Legal research:** It is of immense value and interest to educational administrators. It seeks to study the legal basis of social institutions run by different religions and castes, central and state schools, school finance, etc. But this type of research need special training in the field of law. Anybody without this training is not competent to do this type of research.
- **Biographic research:** It aims at determining and presenting truthfully the important facts about the life, character and achievements of famous and important figures in history.
- **Studying the history of ideas:** This involves the tracing of major philosophical or scientific thoughts from their origins through their different stages of development. It aims at tracing changes in popular thought and attitudes over a given period of time.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Historical Research

The advantages of historical research are:

- The researcher is not physically involved in the situation under study.
- No danger of experimenter-subject interaction.
- Documents are located by the researcher, data is gathered, and conclusions are drawn out of sight.
- Historical method is much more synthetic and eclectic in its approach than other research methods, using concepts and conclusions from many other disciplines to explore the historical record and to test the conclusions arrived at by other methodologies.
- Perhaps more than any other research method, historical research provides librarians with a context. It helps to establish the context in which librarians carry

out their work. Understanding the context can enable them to fulfil their functions in society.

- It provides evidence of ongoing trends and problems.
- It provides a comprehensive picture of historical trends.
- It uses existing information.

Historical research suffers from several limitations, some are natural due to the very nature of the subject and others extraneous to it and concerning the capabilities of the researcher.

- Good historical research is a slow, painstaking and exacting process. An average researcher finds it difficult to cope with these requirements.
- Historical research requires high level of knowledge, language skills and art of writing on the part of the researcher.
- Historical research requires a great commitment to methodological scholarly activity.
- Sources of data in historical researches are not available for the direct use of the researcher and historical evidence is, by and large, incomplete.
- Interpretation of data is very complex.
- It is difficult to predict the future, through historical research.
- Scientific method cannot be applied to historical evidence.
- Modern electronic aids (like computers) have not contributed much towards historical research.
- It is not possible to construct 'historical laws' and 'historical theories'.
- Man is more concerned with the present and future and there is a tendency to ignore the past and the importance of historical research.
- It is time-consuming.
- Resources in historical research are scarce.
- Data in historical research can be contradictory.
- The historical research may not be conclusive.
- Gaps in data cannot be filled as there are no additional sources of information available in historical research.

A historian can generalize but not predict or anticipate, can take precautions but not control; can talk of possibilities but not probabilities.

Process of Historical Research

Historical research includes the delimitation of a problem, formulating hypothesis or tentative generalizations, gathering and analysing data, and arriving at conclusions or generalizations based upon deductive-inductive reasoning. However, according to Ary, *et al.*, (1972) the historian lacks control over both treatment and measurement of data. The historian has relatively little control over sampling and he has no opportunity for replication. As historical data is the closed class of data located along a fixed temporal locus, the historian has no choice of sampling his data. He is supposed to include every type of data that comes his way. Historical research is not based upon experimentation, but upon reports of observation, which cannot be authenticated. The historian handles

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data which are mainly traces of past events in the form of various types of documents, relics, records and artefacts, which have a direct or indirect impact on the event under study.

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In deriving the truth from historical evidence, the major difficulty lies in the fact that the data on which historical research is based are relatively inadequate. It may be difficult to determine the data of occurrence of a certain historical event partly because of changes brought out in the system of calendar and partly due to incomplete information. Historical research attempts to establish facts to arrive at a conclusion concerning the past events.

Steps in Historical Research

The steps involved in undertaking a historical research are not different from other forms of research. But the nature of the subject matter presents a researcher with some peculiar standards and techniques. In general, historical research involves the following steps:

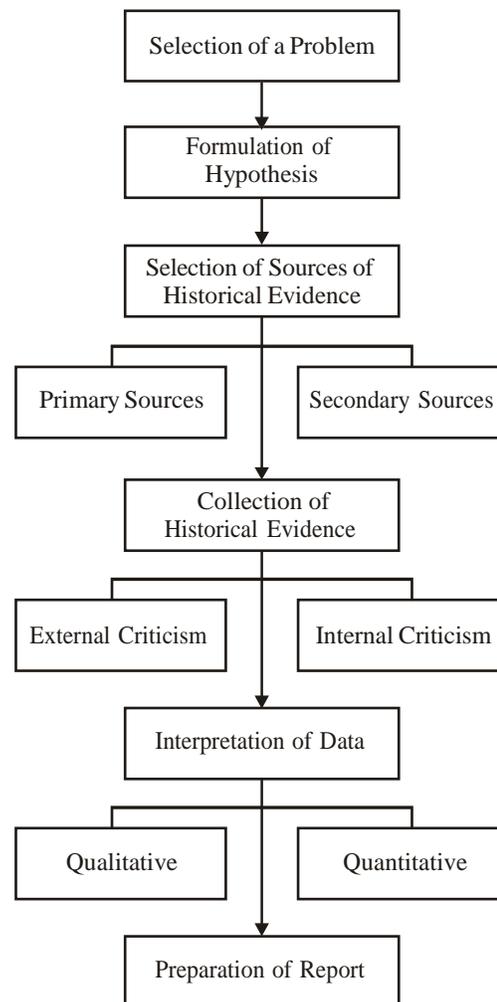


Fig. 4.1 Steps in Historical Research

Step1: The first step is to make sure the subject falls in the area of the history of society. One topic could be the study of the various social systems and how they have changed with the passing of time. The researcher may be interested in a historical investigation of

those aspects of society that have not been touched upon by any studies yet. Moreover, the researcher may be interested in re-examining the validity of current interpretations of certain historical problems which have already been studied.

Step 2: This necessitates that a thought is given to the various aspects of the problem and various dimensions of the problem are identified. Hypothesis also needs to be formulated. The hypothesis in historical research may not be able to be tested, they are written as explicit statements that tentatively explain the occurrence of events and conditions. While formulating a hypothesis, a researcher may formulate questions that are most appropriate for the past events he is investigating. Research is then directed towards seeking answers to these questions with the help of the evidence.

Step 3: Collection of historical evidence involves following two sub-steps:

- (i) Selection of sources of historical evidence
- (ii) Cutting out the historical evidence from them

Historical evidence is hidden broadly in two types of historical sources and is useful to the researcher in many respects. The primary sources, however, are closest to the researcher's heart and kept at the highest pedestal.

Step 4: Historical evidence collected must be truthful; hence for establishing the validity of these sources, the dual processes of external and internal criticism are used. External criticism is undertaken to establish the authenticity of the documents of source, correctness of author or builder, data or period to which it belongs, etc. Internal criticism is done to judge the correctness of the contents of sources.

Step 5: Though statistical testing of hypothesis is not possible, the relationship among various facts still needs to be established, and synthesis and integration of the facts in terms of generalization needs to be done.

Three strategies are used:

- (i) **Generic Analysis:** Identifies the essential meanings of a concept and isolates those elements that distinguished the concept from other words.
- (ii) **Differential Analysis:** Is used when a concept means to have more than one standard meaning and the basis for differentiating between meanings is unclear.
- (iii) **Conditions Analysis:** Involves identification of the context condition in which it can be safely said that the concept was present. Such conditions are rejected, revised and new conditions added.

In this type of investigation, the researcher must be very cautious while dealing with the 'cause and effect' relationship.

Step 6: The final stage of the study is the preparation of a systematic and comprehensive report. It is not just the data which is of significance in such a study. Of prime relevance are the ideas and insights of the researcher, particularly his assessment of the interaction between the data and the ideas that are used to explain the data.

Sources of Data in Historical Research

In this section, we discuss the three sources of data in historical research: (i) Primary sources, (ii) Secondary sources, and (iii) Tertiary sources.

- (i) **Primary Sources:** Primary sources are eye witness accounts and are the only firm basis of historical enquiry. Good, Barr and Scates (1941) have called them the 'first witness to a fact'.

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Direct observation, and reporting or recording of the same, comprise primary sources of data. These provide first-hand information about events that have occurred in the past. Some of the main types of primary sources are:

- Verbal narratives written by the participants or observers. These may take various forms, such as official minutes or records, biographies, letters, contracts, deeds, wills, certificates, magazines or newspaper accounts, maps, pictures, books, etc.
- Personal primary sources which are typically a person's observation of events in which he has participated.
- Physical artefacts like museum collections, artefacts in historical spots such as remains or relics, as well as various other types of institutions.
- Mechanical artefacts represent information that is observed through the medium of non-natural items like photographs, films, and audio cassettes.

(ii) Secondary Sources: Secondary sources of data basically refer to information that is obtained second-hand. For instance, the person from whom information is obtained neither participated nor witnessed the events. Some types of secondary sources are magazine and newspaper articles, interviews referred to in the articles, research papers, research reports, documentaries, etc.

While carrying out historical studies, primary sources of data have highest credibility when they are used to authenticate presented facts. However, second-hand information that is available, should also be considered in order to develop a more holistic view.

Advantages of Secondary Sources

- (a) They may acquaint a researcher with major theoretical issues in his field and to the work that has been done in the area of study.
- (b) They may suggest possible solutions of the problem and working hypotheses and may introduce the researcher to important primary sources.

Some type of data may be primary sources for some purposes and secondary sources for another. For example, a high school textbook in Indian history will be ordinarily classified as secondary source, but the book would be a primary source of data if one were making a study of the changing emphasis on national integration in high school history textbooks.

(iii) Tertiary Sources: These sources include bibliographies, catalogues and indexes that guide a researcher to primary and secondary sources.

Evaluation of Data

The main feature of historical research is the evaluation of historical data. The backbone of historiography is the authenticity of data collected through different sources. Even when the data are collected through different sources, doubts can be raised about their validity, reliability and relevance. The process of judging validity, reliability and relevance of data is carried out through two devices viz., (a) External criticism and (b) Internal criticism.

(a) External Criticism

External criticism is also known as lower criticism. It involves testing the sources of data for integrity, i.e., every researcher must test the information received to ensure that any source of data is in fact what it seems to be. External criticism helps to determine whether it is what appears or claims to be and whether it reads true to the original so as to save the researcher from being the victim of fraud. On the whole, the general criteria followed for such criticism depends on:

- A good chronological sense, a versatile intellect, common sense, an intelligent understanding of human behaviour, and plenty of patience and persistence on the part of the researcher.
- Recent validation of the quality of the source.
- A good track record of the source.

This information may be found in relevant literature. Thereafter, these literary sources can be verified for genuineness of content by verifying signatures, handwriting, writing styles, language, etc. Further, material sources of information can be verified through physical and chemical tests on the ink, paint, paper, cloth, metal, wood, etc.

(b) Internal Criticism

After the integrity of the data sources are established, the actual data content is subject to verification—this process is known as the internal criticism of the data. It is also called higher criticism which is concerned with the validity, truthfulness, or worth of the content of document.

At the outset, the information obtained through a particular source is examined for internal consistency. The higher the internal consistency, the greater the accuracy. The researcher should establish the literal as well as the real meaning of the content within its historical context.

This is followed by an evaluation of the external consistency of the data. This is important because, although the authorship of a report is established, the report may comprise distorted pictures of the past. For verifying that the content is accurate, the researcher should firstly compare the information received through two independent sources, and secondly match new information obtained with the information already on hand which has been tested for reliability. Fox (1969) suggested three major principles that need to be followed in order to establish external consistency of the data: (i) Data from two independent sources to be matched for consistency, (ii) Data must have been obtained from at least one independent primary source, and (iii) Data should not be gathered from a source that has a track record of providing contradictory information. It is recommended that the researcher apply his professional knowledge and judgment to make a final evaluation in case it is not possible to find matching information from two comparable sources.

The following series of questions have been listed by Good, Barr and Scates (1941) to guide a researcher in the process of external and internal criticism of historical data:

- Who was the author, not merely what his name was but what his personality, character and position were like, etc.?
- What were his general qualifications as a reporter—alertness, character and bias?

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- What were his special qualifications as a reporter of the matters here treated?
- How was he interested in the events related?
- Under what circumstances was he observing the events?
- Had he the necessary general and technical knowledge for learning and reporting the events?
- How soon after the events was the document written?
- How was the document written, from memory, after consultation with others, after checking the facts, or by combining earlier trial drafts?
- How is the document related to other documents?
- Is the document an original source—wholly or in part? If the latter, what parts are original, what borrowed? How credible are the borrowed materials? How accurately is the borrowing done? How is the borrowed material changed and used?

Perpetually, the researcher needs answers for all these questions and, therefore, he has to depend, somewhat, upon evidence he can no longer verify. At times, he will have to rely on the inferences based upon logical deductions in order to bridge the gaps in the information.

Purpose of Historical Research

Historical research is carried out to serve the following purposes:

- **To discover the context of an organizational situation:** In order to explore and explain the past, a historian aims to seek the context of an organization/a movement/ the situation being studied.
- **To answer questions about the past:** There are many questions about the past to which we would like to find answers. Knowing the answers can enable us to develop an understanding of past events.
- **To study the relationship of cause and effect:** There is a cause and effect relationship between two events. A historian would like to determine such a relationship.
- **To study the relationship between the past and the present:** The past can often help us get a better perspective about current events. Thus, a researcher aims to identify the relationship between the past and the present, whereby we can get a clear perspective of the present.
- **To reorganize the past:** A historian reconstructs the past systematically and objectively, reaching conclusions that can be defended.
- **To discover unknown events:** There are some historical events that could have occurred in the past that are not known. A historian seeks to discover these unknown events.
- **To understand significance of events:** There may be significant events that could have been responsible for shaping the organization/movement/situation/ individual being studied by a historian.
- **To record and evaluate the accomplishments of individuals, institutions and other kinds of organizations:** Historians are greatly interested in recording and evaluating the accomplishments of leading individuals and different kinds of organizations including institutions and agencies as these influence historical events.

- **To provide understanding of the immediate phenomenon of concern:** A researcher may be investigating a phenomenon. Historical perspective can enable him to get a good understanding of the immediate phenomenon of concern.

Problems in Historical Research

The problems encountered in historical research are:

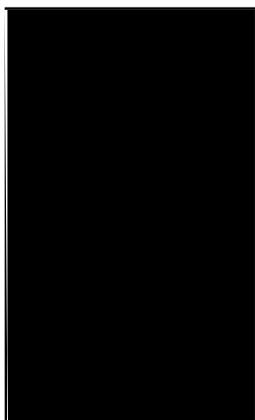
- **Amount of data:** Often, it is difficult to decide as to how much data is sufficient to reach meaningful conclusions.
- **Selection of data:** A historian must avoid improper or faulty selection of data which may be the result of relying too heavily on some data, ignoring other data, etc. This can result in a bias in the study.
- **Evaluation of historical data and their sources:** Inadequate evaluation of data and their sources can lead to misleading results.
- **Synthesis of data into a narrative account:** Due to the very nature of historical research, it becomes most fruitful, if a researcher is able to successfully synthesize or integrate the facts into meaningful generalizations. Thus, a failure on the part of a researcher to interpret data adequately is considered a serious setback.

There are four problems at the stage of synthesis and in report preparation as given below:

- (i) The ability to establish causation from interrelated events is the first problem. It is incorrect to infer that one event caused the other just because they occurred simultaneously.
- (ii) The second problem is to accurately define the keywords and terms such that ambiguity is avoided and the correct connotation is established.
- (iii) Distinguishing between evidence indicating how people should behave *vs.* how they did behave is the third problem.
- (iv) The fourth problem involves distinguishing between the intent and the outcome. This means that educational historians ensure that the consequences of some activity or policy were actually the intended consequences.

Historical synthesis and interpretation are considered an art, which is subjective in nature. This raises a serious problem of subjectivity. 'Historical synthesis is necessarily a highly subjective art. It involves the intuitive perception of patterns and relationships in the complex web of events, as well as the art of narrative writing. Explanations and judgments may be called for, that will involve the historian's own personality, experience, assumptions, and moral values. Inevitably there are personal differences among historians in this respect, and prolonged academic disputes among historians of different schools or nationalities have arisen over practically every event. The initial reduction of complex events of the recent past to comprehensible pattern is particularly difficult and subjective...'. Since the very process of writing a narrative is a human one, therefore, total objectivity is almost impossible. As a consequence, bias and distorting of facts to fit preconceived notions or ideas are not unusual. It may also be kept in mind that historical conclusions are conditioned by place, time and the author. In order to overcome some of these inherent weaknesses, the writer must clearly indicate the underlying assumptions in his approach. In case he belongs to a particular school of thought, the same must be stated clearly.

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1.4 EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

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Exploratory research is essentially a method of collecting data either by using available secondary sources, or by using primary data that has been collected by unstructured method. Exploratory research is generally carried out to know more about the problem, particularly if the available information is insufficient to proceed further. It is primarily qualitative in nature, and the purpose of the entire research design is to get more elaborate information. Therefore, methods such as focus groups, depth interviews, experience interviews, and projective techniques are used to gather data. These methods typically entail obtaining detailed information about relevant aspects of the problem in hand from a small number of respondents. Since the number of respondents is less, and the data is loosely structured, its reliability cannot be tested. However, rich information is obtained by probing.

The primary disadvantage of the exploratory design is that the sample size is small. Therefore, the results of the research cannot be generalized for the entire population. A further research (usually of a descriptive nature) will have to be undertaken to reach conclusive results.

Usually, exploratory design is used when additional information is needed to define the problem more clearly. It is also used when the researcher wants to gather attitudinal or perceptual data regarding the respondents.

As stated earlier, exploratory research involves the use of qualitative-research methods. While quantitative research methods involve the use of structured research procedures by selecting an appropriate sample, size that is representative to the population under study, qualitative research primarily uses a loosely structured research technique. The basic purpose of the qualitative research is to enhance the existing knowledge of the marketer regarding the problem at hand. When secondary data is not adequate to clearly formulate the problem, or state the objectives of the research, an exploratory research becomes necessary before proceeding further.

Data is obtained by probing the respondent. Depth interviews and focus groups are typical methods of obtaining information in qualitative research. The information obtained through these methods is difficult to assimilate. This is because the information is obtained by probing, or by asking open-ended questions. Therefore, codification of the responses is difficult. The interpretation of data obtained from this form of research requires experts.

Advantages

- Qualitative researches use smaller samples. Therefore, they can be completed at a lesser cost and on time.
- The information obtained from this type of research method is rich and extremely useful in understanding the problem better. In-depth information can be collected from respondents.
- Most of the information obtained through qualitative research gives insights about consumers to the researcher. Additionally, since the researcher does not go with any preset structured format of presenting questions to the respondent, he comes across information that he might not have anticipated, but is useful for the problem in hand. This is absent in case of a highly structured, quantitative research study.

- Methods like observation allow the researcher to see and understand the actual behaviour of consumers. Researchers can, for instance, observe consumers in situations such as in a retail store.

Disadvantages

- Qualitative research suffers from some drawbacks such as the inability of the researcher to draw conclusions based on the data obtained. This is because of the limitation of the sample size, and the nature of the research, as it is unstructured. Unstructured research makes it extremely difficult to classify the data obtained from respondents, as the information does not have a common structured format, which can be used for classification.
- It is also more expensive to conduct qualitative research on a larger scale as compared to quantitative research.
- Since statistical tools cannot be used in interpreting data, it becomes difficult to understand the extent of differences among respondents. In quantitative research, the magnitude of differences can be gauged.
- It is also difficult to find researchers who are experts in conducting qualitative research studies, and have the ability to accurately interpret the information obtained.

Experience Surveys

An experience survey involves the use of experts to obtain information about a problem at hand. The researcher based on his judgement identifies the experts. The expert is selected based on his ability to guide the researcher in the right direction by providing appropriate information pertaining to an industry, product, market or customer segment.

Projective Techniques

As the name indicates, the respondent is asked to project his thought process about a particular object in a certain manner indicated by the researcher. The technique finds its underpinnings in psychology. These techniques are, for instance, particularly useful in the area of motivational research. Some of the projective techniques are:

- **Word association test:** This test involves the use of words to elicit appropriate responses from the respondents. The respondent reads a word, and writes the first word that comes to his mind. That word is presumed to be most strongly associated with the given word stimulus for the respondent. Thus, the researcher can use the word association test for designing advertising.
- **Sentence completion test:** Respondents are asked to complete incomplete sentences about the desired object. The test is often used to understand customers' choice criteria, and brand image.
- **Picture tests:** Respondents are given pictures and asked to write a story based on the given picture. These stories are used to understand customer perceptions, attitudes or preferences.

Depth Interview

A depth interview involves the researcher to conduct a detailed interview with a selected respondent. The method extensively employs the use of probing to elicit responses. The information is obtained by using an unstructured questionnaire, that has a detailed outline

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of all the information that is required by the researcher from the respondent. However, the questionnaire allows for probing for seeking clarifications from the respondent. The basic purpose of the depth interview is to collect detailed information. The objective of using this method is to make the respondent talk as much about the object as possible, so that his implicit feelings, attitudes, perceptions or motivations are revealed. These are not possible with a structured questionnaire. The interviewer constantly asks the respondent questions such as 'why,' 'how,' 'why not the other option,' etc.

The interviewer will be able to achieve the desired results only if he is skilled in interviewing. He must put the respondent at ease, and establish a connection with him in the beginning. This helps the respondent to open up, thus, lending more information to the interviewer. The interviewer should also be very clear about the required information. Therefore, if the respondent moves away from the main object of discussion, the interviewer has to bring him back to the track. Therefore, the interviewer should be a very good listener.

The main advantage of the depth interview is that the information obtained is unparalleled in terms of its detail. In addition, the method is extremely flexible.

The biggest disadvantage of the method is the cost involved. In addition, the method is heavily dependent on the skill level of the interviewer. Thirdly, the information obtained cannot be generalized.

Focus Group

A focus group is formal gathering of respondents in groups of about eight to twelve members each. Each group discusses certain issues posed to them by a group moderator. The moderator has an unstructured questionnaire that details the information to be elicited from the participants. Each group discussion can last for an hour to about three hours depending on the amount of information solicited and the extent of participation of the respondents.

The advantages of the focus group are:

- The focus group solicits in-depth information. It resembles the depth interview in this sense. This is also the main advantage of the focus group. In addition, there can be opinions and counter-opinions that form the outcome of the discussion. Interesting and fruitful revelations can come up during the course of the focus groups.
- The focus group can be used to gain clearer understanding about the problems that require decision-making.
- It also enables the marketer to generate new ideas for advertising, new products, or for improving existing products.
- The marketer uses this method to elicit comparisons between his product and those of his competitors', and understand customer perceptions about his offerings.
- Hidden motivations, perceptions, or attitudes can be brought forth using this method. This, however, requires the use of a skilled focus group moderator.
- He can also understand emerging consumer trends among the target customers, or understand how consumer preferences are changing.

Participants for the focus group should be selected very carefully. They should be representative of the population. For every sub-group (age, gender, income), separate focus groups should be conducted. The participants should be encouraged to voice their

opinions. The role of the moderator is most important in the discussion, as no individual should be allowed to dominate the proceedings, and if any individual is very silent, he should be encouraged to talk. The focus group can be conducted in a central hotel, or a convention centre. The participants can be rewarded for their participation at the end of the session.

The data thus, gathered suffers from the same limitations as the other qualitative data. It cannot be generalized, and is difficult to interpret. However, focus groups can be recorded and observed. This should be done with the consent of the participants. It allows the researcher to not only record the information, but also allows him to observe the nonverbal communication of the participants. The transcripts of the focus groups are thereafter, documented verbatim first, and then results are drawn from it. As in the case of other qualitative researches, an expert must do the data interpretation.

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1.5 DESCRIPTIVE RESEARCH

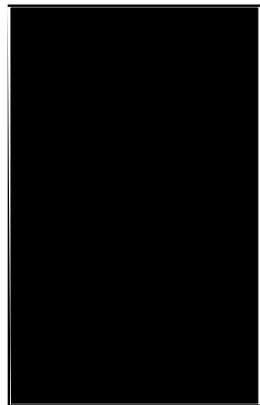
A descriptive research design involves the use of quantitative studies and use of statistical tools to understand the target customers of a company. Usually, this type of research design involves a survey based framework. The purpose of this research design is to reach conclusions about the existing preferences of the target customer, or understand their reactions to changes such as introduction of new products, changes in product features, pricing or communication. Since the sample size of respondents is large the results thus, obtained can be generalized for the population. Managers can draw inferences from the study, and can use the results to formulate marketing strategies. However, descriptive does not establish a cause-effect relationship between variables. It only informs the manager the extent to which one variable can influence the other, as the effect of other variables in the environment has not been controlled. For instance, the manager can find out the extent to which price influence sales, however, he cannot determine if price change is the cause of changes in sales. Generally, descriptive research are used to understand consumer attitudes, perceptions, buying intentions, comparisons among competing brands, choice criteria, and evaluations of any other element of the marketing mix.

One of the most important aspects of any research is time. Some studies are done at a particular point in time. Such a research is referred to as a cross-sectional study. It is called so because the researcher is only attempting to study a slice, or cross-section of a particular phenomenon. Longitudinal study is when a researcher studies a problem over a period of time.

One of the biggest disadvantages of cross-sectional study is that since it involves the completion of the research by the respondents only once at a particular time, it is prone to systematic error (that arises from the data from a single source). This can be eliminated by using longitudinal research design. Cross-sectional designs are also limited in their ability to result in causal inferences. In general, when the theoretical constructs are well developed, when the scales used are heterogeneous, relationship between constructs are strong, the likelihood of intervening events are high, and likelihood of alternative explanations are low, the cross-sectional design should be the preferred method.

Causal Research Design/Experimental Research Design

The main purpose of the causal research is to establish a cause-effect relationship among variables. This type of research design is extremely useful for marketers when they want to establish the exact cause outcomes. For instance, if the marketer wants to



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understand the exact impact of the increase in prices by 10 per cent on sales of a particular product, he can use experimental research. However, the causal research is extremely difficult and expensive to conduct. There are several variables in the environment that cannot be controlled. In order to conduct an accurate causal research, it is extremely important that all variables other than the ones under study be kept constant, so that the marketer can understand exactly how much one variable influences the other. In real market circumstances, this is not possible. Even if it were made possible under artificial laboratory conditions, the results would not be accurate. Therefore, causal designs are used rarely in marketing research.

A descriptive research design uses the survey based research technique to arrive at conclusions that can enable marketers to take appropriate decisions. This type of research design is best suited for evaluating marketing decisions, particularly in ascertaining customer perceptions and acceptance. The results of the research can be generalized for the population as a large sample size is chosen for doing the research. The sample chosen is representative of the population.

The qualitative (exploratory) and quantitative (descriptive) research designs are not mutually exclusive. In fact, many a times, the exploratory research precedes the descriptive research. The descriptive research is used after the nature of the problem has been well understood, or more information has been collected, so that the research objectives can be clearly formulated. Thereafter, the descriptive research begins, as for a descriptive research design, clear problem or objective formulation is absolutely necessary.

Advantages

One of the biggest advantages of the survey design is the use of the large sample, and the ability of the manager to draw results from the study. A quantitative research can also be generalized for the population, unlike the qualitative research, out of which conclusions cannot be drawn. Another important advantage is the low cost of conducting the research as compared to qualitative research.

It is also easy to carry out the survey, as the survey instrument (usually a questionnaire) is structured. Therefore, the data obtained is standardized, and there is no need for an expert to interpret even the raw data. Respondents also find it easier to answer questions that are well formed and structured.

Rich analysis of the data is extremely important for the marketer. He can analyse data across various socio- economic variables, and use sophisticated statistical package to draw conclusions.

Disadvantages

A very important problem with survey research is the sampling and non-sampling errors that arise in the survey process. Unless the sampling plan is accurate, and the sample is sufficiently representative, the results drawn from the research would be completely erroneous and misleading. The survey instrument should be reliable and validated to ensure accuracy of data collected.

Survey researches also involves highly structured questionnaires, thus, eliminating the possibility of probing the respondent. Therefore, deep insights into the customer's behaviour cannot be obtained. Most of the times, even the questions are close-ended to facilitate codification and analysis of data. This, however, restricts the responses of the respondent.

All survey methods rely on the veracity of the respondent. In case the respondent is not telling the truth, there is not much that the surveyor can do about it. Also, most surveys rely on the memory of the respondent. Therefore, surveys should not solicit information that happened long back.

Mall-Intercept Survey

Due to the amount of money and time that needs to be spent for a survey method, a mall intercept survey is becoming more acceptable method. In this, an interviewer stands in a shopping mall, and conducts face- to- face interviews with suitable respondents who visit the mall.

The method is definitely less expensive than the self- administered survey, as the respondents are captive at a single physical location. It is thus, convenient for the interviewer as well. It also enables the administration of the questionnaire at the point of purchase, and may elicit better responses from the respondents.

However, the biggest disadvantage is that the customers who visit the mall may not be the best or the only respondents representative of the population. Also, they may be very inclined to answer questions while they are in the mall.

Telephone Survey

The telephone is a cost-effective method of conducting surveys. This is the primary advantage of the phone-based survey. It is also faster, and a large number of respondents can be reached using the phone in a relatively shorter time at low cost. It is also possible to monitor the calls made by the interviewers. The researcher can call back in case of unavailability of the respondent. This process is also cheaper and faster than a face- to- face survey. In case respondents are scattered in far flung areas with access to phone facilities, this may be the best survey method available. Also, the phone surveys are most suitable for those questions where respondents may not want to disclose their identity.

However, the primary disadvantage of the phone survey is that a lengthy survey is not possible over the phone. The respondent may disconnect the phone. Also, it is not possible to use show cards, or pictures while conducting the survey. Even if there are many options in a question, the respondent may be forced to recollect all of them. Therefore, only short questions and instruments can be suitably used in a phone-based survey. Telemarketing may also be considered to be a source of intense displeasure by many respondents.

If the phone-based survey is used, first the respondents need to be selected by using a telephone directory. The selection of the respondents should be random. Usually a random selection of the telephone numbers of respondents can be done by using an appropriate software.

Self-Administered Survey

In a self-administered survey, the respondent reads the questions himself, and answers the survey instrument. The advantage for the interviewer is that he has to spend less time with the respondents. Also, the interviewer's bias gets reduced if the respondent fills up the instrument himself. However, the disadvantage of this aspect is that the interviewer does not have the opportunity to clarify any doubts that the respondent might have while filling up the survey instrument.

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Direct-Mail Survey

One of the methods of a self-administered survey is the direct-mail survey. In this, the questionnaires are mailed to the respondent. The respondent upon receiving the survey instrument fills it up and sends it back to the researcher. Direct mail is the best method of research in case a strong database of relevant respondents and their addresses are available.

The main problem with the direct-mail survey is that the response rate is very low. A response rate of around 2 per cent is considered to very good in case of a direct-mail survey. The main reason for the low response rate is the respondent's inertia to fill in the questionnaire. However, researchers have tried to overcome this drawback by offering an incentive to the respondent, for instance, in the form of a discount coupon. Also, they can be sent a self-addressed envelope in which the respondent can send back the completed questionnaire. This measure can increase the response rate to some extent.

Survey Methods

Online Survey: An online survey is the latest method of conducting research. The online survey uses the Internet as the medium for receiving responses to the survey instrument. The Internet based survey can be done at low cost and is less time consuming to undertake the survey. The basic problem with the online survey is that it is not possible to find out whether the person taking the survey is a correct respondent. But this problem can be overcome by sending the questionnaires to identified respondents.

While selecting the appropriate survey-research method, the researcher must consider several factors such as the availability of time and money. The difficulty of the questionnaire is an important consideration to find out if a self-administered survey or a telephonic survey would work, or a person administered survey will have to be undertaken. The length of the questionnaire is also an important determinant of the same decision.

Person-Administered Surveys: In the person-administered survey, the survey instrument or the questionnaire is administered by field interviewers who received training about the procedure. The interviewers are trained to identify the right respondent, elicit his interest in answering the questionnaire, filling up the data properly and to avoid any interviewer biases.

1.6 EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

Experimentation is the method wherein the cause-effect relationship is examined between variables. Descriptive research does not involve the establishment of cause and effect. It involves the understanding of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Experimental designs also use independent and dependent variables. However, the independent variable is used to directly measure the impact of its variation on the outcome of the dependent variable. The difference between the experimental research design and the descriptive research design is that in experimental research design, only the independent variable is varied, while all other variables that can cause variations are kept constant. Thus, the marketer can exactly judge the cause-effect relationship. Whereas in descriptive research, the independent variable only impacts the dependent variable, though the researcher knows that other variables in the environment can also cause variations in the dependent variable.

The researcher has to keep other variables constant in order to understand the causal relationship. The variables that are kept constant are called control variables. The researcher tries his best to keep the other variables constant in the environment. Some variables cannot be controlled by the researcher. These include any variations in external, uncontrollable factors. These factors are called extraneous variables.

Test marketing is a typical example of an experimental design. Test marketing involves the launch of the new product in one or few geographical areas chosen to be representative of its intended market. A new product is sold into distribution outlets so that performance can be gauged face-to-face with rival products. The product is promoted as it would be in a national launch and consumers are asked to choose it against competitors' products as they would if the new product went national. By projecting test marketing results to the full market, an assessment of the new product's likely success can be gauged. Test marketing does have problems. Test towns and areas may not be representative of the national market and thus, sales projections may be inaccurate. Competitors may invalidate the test market by giving distribution incentives to stock their product, thereby denying the new product shelf space. Test markets need to be long enough to measure the repeat purchase rate for the product. This can mean a delay in national launch stretching to many months and years. In the meantime, competitors that are more aggressive can launch a rival product nationally and therefore, gain pioneer advantage. Getting the cooperation of the distributors is important. Sometimes, they refuse to take part in test marketing activities or charge heavy fees.

The advantage of test marketing is that the information provided by test marketing facilitates the go / no go national launch decision. Sometimes, a number of test areas are used with different marketing mix combinations to predict the most successful launch strategy. Its purpose is to prevent a costly and embarrassing national launch mistake. Test marketing is commonly used with FMCG goods. For very expensive equipments it is impractical. On global scale, companies roll out products from one country to another. They gain some of the benefits of test marketing in that the lessons learnt from an early launch in a country market can be applied to later launches.

1.7 SUMMARY

- Research can be either fundamental (basic or pure) or action-oriented (applied) research. Fundamental research focuses on finding generalizations and formulating theories. It is the research done for knowledge enhancement; the research which does not have immediate commercial potential; and the research which is done for human welfare, animal welfare and plant kingdom welfare.
- Applied research is designed to solve practical problem of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for the sake of knowledge. Its goal is to improve the human condition. It focuses on analysis and solving social and real life problems.
- Conceptual research is that which is related to some abstract idea(s) or theory. It is generally used by philosophers and thinkers to develop new concepts or to reinterpret existing ones.
- Empirical research relies only on real experiences and observations. It is data-based research and its conclusions can be verified by observations or experiments. It is also called experimental type of research.

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- Historical research attempts to establish facts so as to arrive at a conclusion concerning past events. The true historical research is a process of reconstructing the past through systematically and objectively collecting, evaluating, verifying and synthesizing evidence relating to the past events to establish facts and defensible conclusions, often in relation to particular hypotheses, to arrive at a scholarly account of what happened in the past.
- Historical research includes the delimitation of a problem, formulating hypothesis or tentative generalizations, gathering and analysing data, and arriving at conclusions or generalizations based upon deductive-inductive reasoning.
- Steps in historical research include: making sure that the subject falls in the area of the history of society, giving thought to the various aspects of the problems and the various dimensions of the problems, collecting historical evidence, checking the authenticity of the historical evidence selected, establishing relationship between various facts and preparing a systematic and comprehensive report.
- There are three sources of data in historical research: primary, secondary and tertiary.
- The process of judging validity, reliability and relevance of data in historical research is carried out through two devices: external criticism and internal criticism.
- The major problems in historical research are: amount of data, selection of data, evaluation of historical data and their sources and synthesis of data into a narrative account.
- Exploratory research is a method of collecting data either by using available secondary sources, or by using primary data that has been collected by unstructured method.
- The methods such as focus groups, depth interviews, experience interviews, and projective techniques are used to gather data.
- An experience survey involves the use of experts to obtain information about a problem at hand. The researcher based on his judgement identifies the experts.
- In projective techniques, the respondent is asked to project his thought process about a particular object in a certain number indicated by the researcher.
- A depth interview involves the researcher to conduct a detailed interview with a selected respondent. The method extensively employs the use of probing to elicit responses.
- A focus group is formal gathering of respondents in groups of about eight to twelve members each. Each group discusses certain issues posed to them by a group moderator.
- The descriptive research design involves the use of quantitative studies and use of statistical tools to understand the target customers of a company.
- The main purpose of causal research is to establish a cause-effect relationship among variables. This type of research design is extremely useful for marketers when they want to establish the exact cause outcomes.
- In a mall-intercept survey, an interviewer stands in a shopping mall, and conducts face-to-face interviews with suitable respondents who visit the mall.

- Experimentation is the method wherein the cause-effect relationship is examined between variables. Descriptive research does not involve the establishment of cause and effect. It involves the understanding of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

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1.8 KEY TERMS

- **Fundamental research:** It refers to the research that focuses on finding generalizations and formulating theories.
- **Applied research:** It refers to the research which is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world rather than to acquire knowledge for the sake of knowledge.
- **Historical research:** It is a process by which a researcher is able to come to a conclusion as to the likely truth of an event in the past by studying objects available for observation in the present.
- **Exploratory research:** It is essentially a method of collecting data either by using available secondary sources, or by using primary data that has been collected by unstructured method.
- **Experimental research:** It refers to research activity wherein the manipulation of variables takes place, and the resultant effect on other variables is studied.
- **Descriptive research:** involves the understanding of the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

1.9 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. Empirical research is also called experimental type of research.
2. The main aim of historical research is to obtain an exact account of the past to gain a clearer view of the present.
3. Conditional analysis is a strategy of hypothesis testing which involves identification of the context condition in which it can be safely said that the concept was present. Such conditions are rejected, revised and new conditions added.
4. Some examples of tertiary sources of data in historical research are bibliographies, catalogues and indexes.
5. Some of the methods used to gather data in exploratory research are: focus groups, depth interviews, experience interviews, and projective techniques.
6. An exploratory design is used when additional information is needed to define the problem more clearly. It is also used when the researcher wants to gather attitudinal or perceptual data regarding the respondents.
7. An experience survey involves the use of experts to obtain information about a problem at hand.
8. The descriptive research design involves the use of quantitative studies and use of statistical tools to understand the target customers of a company.

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9. The main purpose of the causal research is to establish a cause-effect relationship among variables. This type of research design is extremely useful for marketers when they want to establish the exact cause's outcomes.
10. One of the biggest advantages of the survey design is the use of the large sample, and the ability of the manager to draw results from the study.
11. Experimentation is the method wherein the cause-effect relationship is examined between variables.
12. Test marketing is a typical example of an experimental design.

1.10 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. List the limitations of historical research.
2. What are the two types of historical research?
3. Give two advantages of historical research.
4. Write a short note on exploratory design.
5. What are experience surveys?
6. Write a short note on projective techniques.
7. Define descriptive research design.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the concept of conceptual research and empirical research.
2. Discuss the steps involved in historical research.
3. Compare and contrast exploratory, descriptive and causal research designs.
4. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the exploratory research design.
5. Discuss the characteristics of focus groups. List at least four characteristics and explain why it is important to consider each of them.

1.11 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 TECHNIQUES OF DATA COLLECTION

NOTES**Structure**

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Unit Objectives
- 2.2 Observation
 - 2.2.1 Types of Observation
 - 2.2.2 Recording Techniques of Observation
 - 2.2.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Observation
 - 2.2.4 Characteristics of Observation for Research
- 2.3 Questionnaire Tools
 - 2.3.1 Types of Questionnaire
 - 2.3.2 Questionnaire Administration Modes
 - 2.3.3 Appropriateness of Questionnaire
- 2.4 Types of Questions
 - 2.4.1 Steps for Preparing and Administering the Questionnaire
 - 2.4.2 Importance and Limitations of Questionnaire Method
- 2.5 Schedules
 - 2.5.1 Types of Schedules
 - 2.5.2 Organization of the Schedule
 - 2.5.3 Difference between Questionnaire and Schedule
- 2.6 Interview
 - 2.6.1 Types of Interviews
 - 2.6.2 Important Elements of Research Interview
 - 2.6.3 Indifferent Attitude of the Respondent and the Role of the Research Worker
 - 2.6.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interview Method
- 2.7 Projective Techniques
 - 2.7.1 Evaluating Projective Techniques
- 2.8 Case Study and Content Analysis
 - 2.8.1 Content Analysis
- 2.9 Summary
- 2.10 Key Terms
- 2.11 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 2.12 Questions and Exercises
- 2.13 Further Reading

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit discusses the techniques of data collection. To understand the multitude of choices available to a researcher for collecting the project/ study-specific information, one needs to be fully cognizant of the resources available for the study and the level of accuracy required. To appreciate the truth of this statement, one needs to examine the gamut of methods available to the researcher. The data sources could be either contextual and primary or historical and secondary in nature.

Primary data as the name suggests is original, problem- or project-specific, collected for the specific objectives and needs to be spelt out by the researcher. The authenticity and relevance is reasonably high. The monetary and resource implications of this are quite high and sometimes a researcher might not have the resources or the time or both to go ahead with this method. In this case, the researcher can look at

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alternative sources of data which are economical and authentic enough to take the study forward. These include the second category of data sources—namely the secondary data.

Secondary data, as the name implies, is that information which is not topical or research specific and has been collected and compiled by some other researcher or investigative body. The said information is recorded and published in a structured format, and thus, is quicker to access and manage. Secondly, in most instances, unless it is a data product, it is not too expensive to collect. As suggested in the opening vignette, the data to track consumer preferences is readily available and the information required is readily available as a data product or as the audit information which the researcher or the organization can procure and use for arriving at quick decisions. In comparison to the original research-centric data, secondary data can be economically and quickly collected by the decision maker in a short span of time. Also the information collected is contextual; what is primary and original for one researcher would essentially become secondary and historical for someone else.

Qualitative research, thus, is presumed to go beyond the obvious of constructs and variables that are not visible or measurable; rather they have to be deduced by various methods like observation, schedule, questionnaire, interview, projective, case study, focus groups and content analysis. There are a variety of such methods which will be discussed in detail in this unit. However, common premise of all these are that they are relatively loosely structured and require a closer dialogue or interaction between the investigator and the respondent. The information collected is more in-depth and intensive and results in rich insights and perspectives than those delivered through a more formal and structured method. However, since the element of subjectivity is high, they require a lot of objectivity on the part of the investigator while collecting and interpreting the data. Conducting a qualitative research is an extremely skillful task and requires both aptitude and adequate training in order to result in valuable and applicable data.

2.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain observation schedule as a tool of data collection
- Discuss the concept of questionnaire as a method of data collection
- Assess schedule as a method of data collection
- Describe how conducting interviews are an important source of data collection
- Explain projective method as a tool of data collection
- Discuss how case studies and content analysis are important sources of data collection

2.2 OBSERVATION

Observations have led to some of the most important scientific discoveries in human history. Charles Darwin used his observations of animal and marine life at the Galapagos Islands to formulate his theory of evolution which he described in *On the Origin of Species*. Today, social scientists, natural scientists, engineers, computer scientists, educational researchers and many others use observation as a primary research method.

The kind of observations one makes depends on the subject being researched. Traffic or parking patterns on a campus can be observed to ascertain what kind of improvements can be made. Clouds, plants or other natural phenomena can be observed as can people, though in the case of the latter, one may often have to ask for permission so as to not violate any privacy issue.

Observation may be defined as ‘*a process in which one or more persons monitor some real-life situation and record pertinent occurrences*’. It is used to evaluate the overt behaviour of the individual in controlled and uncontrolled situations.

According to Marie Jahoda: ‘Observation method is a scientific technique to the extent that it (a) serves a formulated research purpose, (b) is planned systematically rather than occurring haphazardly, (c) is systematically recorded and related to more general propositions than presented as a set of interesting curios, and (d) is subjected to checks and controls with respect to validity, reliability, and precision much as is all other scientific evidence.’

According to Good and Hatt: ‘Observation may take many forms and is at once the most primitive and the most modern of research techniques. It includes the most casual, uncontrolled experiences as well as the most exact film records of laboratory experimentation.’

2.2.1 Types of Observation

Observation can be of the following types:

1. **Participant observation:** In the process of ‘participant observation’, the observer becomes more or less one of the group members and may actually participate in some activity or the other of the group. The observer may play any one of the several roles in observation, with varying degrees of participation, as a visitor, an attentive listener, an eager learner or as a participant observer.
2. **Non-participant observation:** In the process of ‘non-participant observation’, the observer takes a position where his/her presence is not felt by the group. He/She may follow the behaviour of an individual or characteristics of one or more groups closely. In this type of observation, a one-way ‘vision screen’ permits the observer to see the subject but prevents the subject from seeing the observer.

Observation may also be classified into the following categories:

- **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 behaviour of the observed. Improvement in the collection of information can be done with the help of natural observation.
- **Subjective and objective observation:** All observations consist of 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 one’s own immediate experience, whereas the observation involving an observer as an entity apart from the thing being observed is referred to as ‘objective observation’. Objective observation is also known as ‘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/she present and then this type of observation

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monitors what takes place. Indirect method of observation involves studies of mechanical recording or recording by some other means like photographic or electronic. Direct observation is relatively straightforward as compared to indirect observation.

- **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 special instruments for the purpose of data collection that are also structured in nature. But in the case of unstructured observation, its basics are diametrically against the structured observation. In such observations, the observer has the freedom to note down what he/she feels is correct and unlike point of study. This approach of observation is very suitable for exploratory research.
- **Controlled and non-controlled observation:** Controlled observations are the observations made under the influence of some external forces. Such observations rarely lead to improvement in the precision of the research results. However, these observations can be very effective if these are made to work in coordination with mechanical synchronizing devices, film recordings, etc. Non-controlled observations are made in the natural environment, and unlike to the controlled observation, these observations involve no influence or guidance of any type of external force.

2.2.2 Recording Techniques of Observation

Many different techniques may be employed to study and document a subject's behaviour. The data collection techniques are all accurate but may be suitable for different purposes. While certain methods help gather detailed descriptions of behaviour, certain others facilitate documenting behaviour promptly with bare minimum description.

- **Anecdotal records:** Anecdotal records refer to a few sentences jotted down in a notebook. These sentences pertain to what the subject is engaged in at a particular moment. Only those behaviours that can be seen or heard and that can be counted are documented while creating an anecdotal record.
- **Narrative description:** Narrative description is also known as running behaviour record and specimen record, and is a formal method of observation. When following this technique, one is supposed to record continuously and in as much detail as possible, like what the subject is doing and saying when alone or when interacting with other people. In its methodology, it is similar to anecdotal record but is definitely more detailed. The researcher studies the context setting, the behaviour patterns, and the order in which they take place. The main aim of this technique is to gain an objective description of a subject's behaviour without conjecture, analysis, or assessment.
- **Checklists:** Checklists are usually standardized forms which list specific skills and behaviours based on standard levels or are specifically compiled by the researcher for a particular research study.
- **Interviewing:** In this observation technique, the researching team tries to identify the feelings and beliefs of the subjects, that are not visible through simple

observation. During the process of interviewing, everything that the subject says must be recorded exactly as it is. The interviewer should avoid any kind of editing of the interview transcript.

- **Time sampling:** This method is distinct from others in two ways—it monitors and keeps an account of a few chosen samples of subject's behaviour, and is carried out only during prearranged periods of time. When a behaviour pattern is seen during the specified time interval, it is recorded. This technique therefore helps to gather representative examples of behaviour.
- **Frequency counts:** In some cases, a researcher may be more interested in studying the frequency of an occurrence or behaviour or another pattern, such as how often a consumer buys a particular product or how often an individual started a conversation with a colleague. To get this data, the researcher will have to keep a count of the frequency of the particular behaviour and study how long the behaviour lasts. This is usually done by simply marking an occurrence on a chart each time the behaviour is repeated.
- **Event sampling:** This technique is focused on observing specific behaviours or events in a subject's behaviour pattern. However, it does not take into account the frequency or the length of the recording interval.

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2.2.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Observation

The advantages of observation are as follows:

- The observer through participant observation is able to participate in the group, he has access to a vast body of information.
- The observer is able to give a context to the behaviour displayed by the members of the group, which is far better than the information received through a questionnaire and interview.
- The observer through the method of observation gains information as to what the members of a group actually do rather than what they say, which is considered a more credible information about the behaviour.
- The observation method like participant observation used by ethnographers takes a long period of time. This allows the researcher to dig deeper and uncover varied deep rooted aspects related to the research question.
- Observation is far more flexible than other methods of data collection as it is not rigid and based strictly on a set and pre-defined questions. The researcher has the freedom to be more open minded.

The disadvantages of observation are as follows:

- It is very difficult to establish the validity of observations.
- Many items of observation cannot be defined.
- The problem of subjectivity is involved.
- Observation may give undue stress to aspects of limited significance simply because they can be recorded easily, accurately and objectively.
- Various observers observing the same event may concentrate on different aspects of a situation.

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- The observers have little control over the physical situation.
- There are certain situations which observers are not allowed to observe, and are expected to produce an accurate account.
- It may not be feasible to classify all the events to be observed.
- Observation is a slow and laborious process.
- There may be lack of agreement among the observers.
- The data to be observed may be unmanageable.
- Observation needs competent observers and it may be difficult to find them.
- Observation is a costly affair. It involves lot of expenses on travelling, staying at the places where the events are taking place and purchasing sophisticated equipment to help in observation.

2.2.4 Characteristics of Observation for Research

The characteristics of observation for research are as follows:

- Observation schedule should be specific.
- The steps should be systematic.
- It should be quantitative.
- It should be recorded immediately.
- It should be made by experts.
- Schedule should be scientific. We should be able to check and substantiate the results.

Jennifer Symonds gives a list of nine essential characteristics of good observation, which are as follows:

- Good eyesight
- Alertness
- Ability to estimate
- Ability to discriminate
- Good physical condition
- An immediate record
- Good perception
- Freedom from preconceptions
- Emotional disinterest

Planning Administration Aspect of Observation

This includes the following:

- Securing an appropriate group of persons to observe
- Deciding and arranging any special conditions for the group
- Determining the length of each observation period, the interval between periods and the number of periods

Points to be Considered while Defining the Activities

These are as follows:

- Inclusion of those activities which are true representatives of the general category one is studying
- Defining those activities very carefully.

While arranging for the record, the following points should receive attention:

- Deciding the form for recording so as to make note-making easy and rapid
- Deciding the use of appropriate symbols, abbreviations and some use of shorthand

One can train oneself by:

- Training oneself to observe others as perception improves with practice
- Studying manuals that list observation techniques

Planning Effective Observation

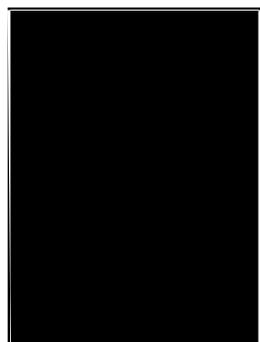
This includes the following:

- Sampling to be observed should be adequate; appropriate group of subjects should be there
- Units of behaviour should be defined as accurately as possible
- Method of recording should be simplified
- Detailed instructions may be given to observers to eliminate the difference in the perspectives of observers
- Too many variables may not be observed simultaneously
- Excessively long periods of observation without interspersed rest periods should be avoided
- Observers should be fully trained
- Observers should be well equipped
- Conditions of observation should remain constant
- Number of observations should be adequate
- Records of observation must be comprehensive
- Length of each observation period, interval between periods, and number of periods should be clearly stated
- Interpretations should be carefully made

2.3 QUESTIONNAIRE TOOLS

A questionnaire is 'a tool for research, comprising a list of questions whose answers provide information about the target group, individual or event'. Although they are often designed for statistical analysis of the responses, this is not always the case. This method was the invention of Sir Francis Galton. Questionnaire is used when factual information is desired. When opinion rather than facts are desired, an opinionative or attitude scale is

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used. Of course, these two purposes can be combined into one form that is usually referred to as ‘questionnaire’.

Questionnaire may be regarded as a form of interview on paper. The procedure for the construction of a questionnaire follows a pattern similar to that of the interview schedule. However, because the questionnaire is impersonal, it is all the more important to take care of its construction.

A questionnaire is a list of questions arranged in a specific way or randomly, generally in print or typed and having spaces for recording answers to the questions. It is a form which is prepared and distributed for the purpose of securing responses. Thus, a questionnaire relies heavily on the validity of the verbal reports.

According to Goode and Hatt, ‘in general, the word questionnaire refers to a device for securing answers to questions by using a form which the respondent fills himself.’

Barr, Davis and Johnson define questionnaire as, ‘questionnaire is a systematic compilation of questions that are submitted to a sampling of population from which information is desired’ and Lundberg says, ‘fundamentally, questionnaire is a set of stimuli to which literate people are exposed in order to observe their verbal behaviour under these stimuli.’

2.3.1 Types of Questionnaire

Figure 5.1 depicts the types of questionnaires that are used by researchers.

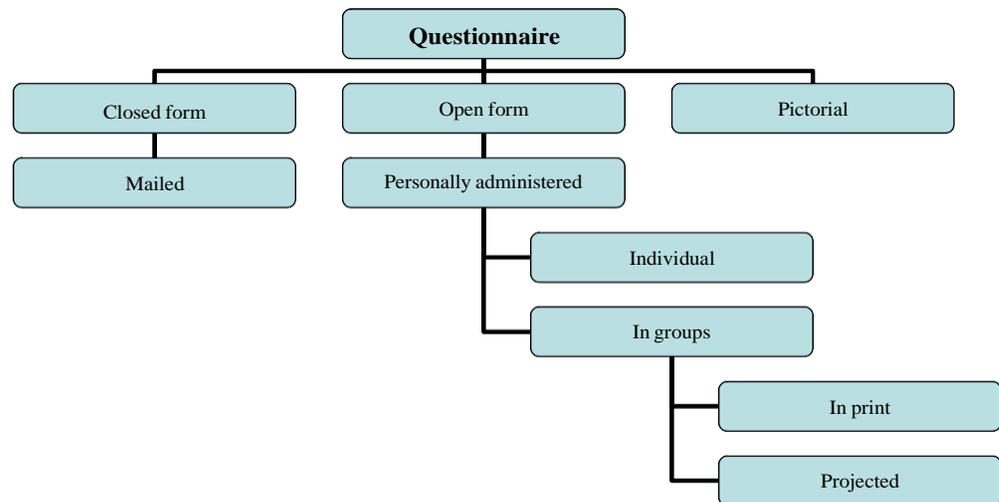


Fig. 5.1 Types of Questionnaires

Commonly used questionnaires are:

- 1. Closed form:** Questionnaire that calls for short, check-mark responses are known as closed form type or restricted type. They have highly structured answers like mark a ‘yes’ or ‘no’, write a short response or check an item from a list of suggested responses. For certain types of information, the closed form questionnaire is entirely satisfactory. It is easy to fill out, takes little time, keeps the respondent on the subject, is relatively objective and is fairly easy to tabulate and analyse.

These types of questionnaires are very suitable for research purposes. However, construction of such a type of questionnaire requires a lot of labour and thought. It is generally lengthy as all possible alternative answers are given under each question.

2. **Open form:** The open form or unrestricted questionnaire requires the respondent to answer the question in their own words. The responses have greater depth as the respondents have to give reasons for their choices. The drawback of this type of questionnaire is that not many people take the time to fill these out as they are more time consuming and require more effort, and it is also more difficult to analyse the information obtained. No alternative or plausible answers are provided. The open form questionnaire is good for depth studies and gives freedom to the respondents to answer the questions without any restriction.

Limitations of open questionnaire are as follows:

- Difficult to fill out
- Respondents may never be aware of all the possible answers
- Takes longer to fill
- Returns are often few
- Information is too unwieldy and unstructured, and hence difficult to analyse, tabulate and interpret

Some investigators combine the approaches and the questionnaires carry both the closed and open form items. In the close ended questions, the last alternative is kept open for the respondents to provide their optimum response.

3. **Pictorial form:** Pictorial questionnaires contain drawings, photographs or other such material rather than written statements and the respondents are to choose answers in terms of the pictorial material. Instructions or directions can be given orally. This form is useful in working with illiterate persons, young children and persons who do not know a specific language. It keeps up the interest of the respondent and decreases subjects' resistance to answer.

2.3.2 Questionnaire Administration Modes

The main modes of questionnaire administration are as follows:

- **Through mail:** Mailed questionnaires are the most widely used and also perhaps the most criticized tool of research. They have been referred to as a 'lazy person's way of gaining information'. The mailed questionnaire has a written and signed request as a covering letter and is accompanied by a self-addressed, written and stamped envelope for the return by post. The method of mailing out the questionnaire is less expensive in terms of time, funds required; it provides freedom to the respondent to work at his/her own convenience and enables coverage of a large population.
- **Personal contact/face-to-face:** Personally administered questionnaires both in individual and group situations are helpful in some cases and have the following advantages over the mailed questionnaire: (i) the investigator can establish a rapport with the respondents; (ii) the purpose of the questionnaire can be explained; (iii) the meaning of the difficult terms and items can be explained to the

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respondents; (iv) group administration when the respondents are available at one place is more economical in time and expense; (v) the proportion of non-response is cut down to almost zero; and (vi) the proportion of usable responses becomes larger. However, it is more difficult to obtain respondents in groups and may involve administrative permission which may not be forthcoming.

- **Computerized questionnaire:** It is a mode of questionnaire administration where the questions need to be answered on the computer.
- **Adaptive computerized questionnaire:** It is a mode of questionnaire administration presented on the computer where the next questions are adjusted automatically according to the responses given as the computer is able to gauge the respondent's ability or traits.

2.3.3 Appropriateness of Questionnaire

The qualities and features which make questionnaires an effective instrument of research and help to elicit maximum information are discussed below:

- **Type of information required:** The usefulness and effectiveness of a questionnaire is determined by the kind of information sought. Not every type of questionnaire can be elicited through it. A questionnaire which will consume more than 10–20 minutes is unlikely to get good response. Also, the questions should be explicit and capable of clear-cut replies.
- **Type of respondent reached:** A good deal depends upon the types of respondents covered by the questionnaire. All types of individuals cannot be good respondents. Only literate and socially conscious individuals would give any consideration to a questionnaire. Also, the respondent must be competent to answer the kind of questions contained in a particular questionnaire.
- **Accessibility of respondents:** Questionnaires sent by e-mail can help to survey the opinion of the people living in far-flung places.
- **Precision of the hypothesis:** Appropriateness of the questionnaire also depends upon how realistic is the hypothesis in the mind of the researcher. The researcher must frame questions in such a manner that they elicit responses needed to verify the hypothesis.

2.4 Types of Questions

There are many types of questions that can be asked, but the way to get to the correct answer is to know which is the right question. It requires knowledge and expertise to design the correct type of questionnaire.

The following is a list of the different types of questions which can be included in a questionnaire design:

- **Open format questions:** Open format questions are those which give the respondent a chance to communicate their individual opinions. There are no set answers to choose from. Responses from open format questionnaires are insightful and even unexpected. Qualitative questions are an example of open format questions. An ideal questionnaire is one which ends with an open format question giving the respondents the chance to state their opinion or ask for their suggestions.

Example: State your opinion about the reservation system.

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 person being tested has to complete a sentence (sentence completion item).

- **Closed format questions:** Multiple choice questions are the best example of closed format questions. Closed format questions generate responses that can be statistics or percentages in nature. Preliminary analysis can also be performed with ease. Closed format questions have the added advantage of being able to monitor opinions over a period of time as they can be put to different groups at different intervals.
- **Leading questions:** These types of questions force the audience to give a particular type of answer.
For example, asking a question with answer options: fair, good, excellent superb.
- **Likert questions:** Likert questions can help you ascertain how strongly your respondent agrees with a particular statement. Likert questions can also help to assess liking and disliking.
Example: How often do you see beggars at the traffic light?
- **Rating scale questions:** In rating scale questions, the respondent is asked to rate a particular issue on a scale that may range from poor to good. Rating scale questions usually have an even number of choices, so that respondents are not given the choice of a middle option.
For example, questions with answers options: good, fair, poor or very poor.

Questions to be Avoided during Preparation of a Questionnaire

The following questions should be avoided when preparing a questionnaire:

- **Embarrassing questions:** Embarrassing questions are those that ask respondents about their personal and private life. Embarrassing questions are mostly avoided.
- **Positive/Negative connotation questions:** While defining a question, strong negative or positive overtones must be avoided. Depending on the positive or negative association of our question, we will get different data. Ideal questions should have neutral or subtle overtones.
- **Hypothetical questions:** Hypothetical questions are questions that are based on assumption and hope. An example of a hypothetical question would be 'If you were a director in the Tribal Affairs department, what changes would you bring about?' These types of questions force the respondents to give their ideas on a particular subject. However, these kinds of questions do not give consistent or clear data.

2.4.1 Steps for Preparing and Administering the Questionnaire

The steps involved in preparing and administering the questionnaire are as follows:

- **Planning the questionnaire:** One should get all the help possible in planning and constructing the questionnaire. Other questionnaires should be studied and items should be submitted for criticism to other members of the class or faculty.
- **Modifying questions:** Items can be refined, revised or replaced by better items. If a computer is not readily available for easily modifying questions and rearranging

the items, it is advisable to use a separate card or slip for each item. This procedure

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- also provides flexibility in arranging items in the most appropriate psychological order before the instrument is finalized.
- **Validity and reliability of questionnaire:** Questionnaire designers rarely deal with the degree of validity and reliability of their instrument. There are ways to improve both validity and reliability of questionnaires. Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking questions in the least ambiguous way. The meaning of all terms must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents. The panel of experts may rate the instrument in terms of how effectively it samples significant aspects of content validity. The reliability of the questionnaire may be tested by a second administration of the instrument with a small sub-sample, comparing the responses with those of the first. Reliability may also be estimated by comparing the responses of an alternate form with the original.
 - **Try out or pilot testing:** The questionnaire should be tried on a few friends and acquaintances. What may seem perfectly clear to the researcher may be confusing to the other person who does not have the frame of reference that the researcher has gained from living with and thinking about an idea over a long period. It is also a good idea to pilot test the instrument with a small group of persons similar to those who will be used in the study. They may reveal defects that can be corrected before the final form is printed.
 - **Information level of respondents:** It is important that the questionnaire be sent only to those who possess the desired information and are likely to be sufficiently interested to respond objectively and conscientiously. A preliminary card asking whether the individual would respond is recommended by some research authorities.
 - **Getting permission:** If the questionnaire is to be used in a public school, it is essential that approval for the project is secured from the Principal. Students should be informed that participation is voluntary. If the desired information is delicate or intimate in nature, the possibility of providing for anonymous responses should be considered. The anonymous instrument is most likely to produce objective and honest responses.
 - **Cover letter:** A courteous, carefully constructed cover letter should be included to explain the purpose of the study. The cover letter should assure the respondent that all information will be held in strict confidence. The letter should promise some sort of inducement to the respondent for compliance with the request. In educational circles, a summary of questionnaire results is considered an appropriate reward, a promise that should be scrupulously honoured after the study has been completed.
 - **Follow-up procedures:** Recipients are often slow to return completed questionnaires. To increase the numbers of returns, a vigorous follow-up procedure may be necessary. A courteous postcard reminding the recipient may bring in some additional responds. A further step in follow-up may involve a personal letter or reminder. In extreme cases, it may be appropriate to send the copy of questionnaire with a follow-up letter.
 - **Analysing and interpreting questionnaire responder:** Data obtained by the questionnaire is generally achieved through calculation and counting. The total is converted into proportion or percentages. Calculation of contingency coefficient of correlation is often made in order to suggest probability of relation among data. Computation of chi-square statistics in it is also advisable.

Improving the Validity of a Questionnaire

The validity of the information collected through a questionnaire can be improved by using the following techniques:

- The questions should be relevant to the subject or problem.
- The questions should be perfectly clear and unambiguous.
- The questions should be retroactive and not repulsive.
- Check whether the information has been collected from a reasonably good proportion of respondents.
- The information should show a reasonable range of variety.
- The information should be consistent with what is already known or is expected.
- Use another external criterion like consultation of documents or interview with a small group of respondents to cross check the truthfulness of the information given through the questionnaire.

The question sequence should be the following:

- Questions should flow logically from one to the next.
- The researcher must make sure that the answer to a specific question is not prejudiced by earlier questions.
- Questions should flow from the more general to the more specific.
- Questions should follow an order which starts from the least sensitive to the most sensitive.
- Questions should flow from factual and behavioural questions to attitudinal and opinion questions.
- Questions should flow from unaided to aided questions.

The three stages theory (also known as the sandwich theory) should be applied when sequencing questions. The order to be followed should be first, screening and rapport questions; second, the product specific questions; and third, demographic questions.

Questionnaire Construction Issues

The following problems are faced by a researcher while constructing a questionnaire.

- It is very important to know exactly how you are going to use the information received from the research conducted. If the research or information cannot be implemented or acted upon, then the research would just have been a waste of time, money and effort.
- Clear parameters regarding the research's aims and scope should be drawn before starting the research. This would include the questionnaire's time frame, budget, manpower, intrusion and privacy.
- The target audience selected will depend on how arbitrarily one has chosen the respondents and what the selection criteria are.
- The framework of expected responses should be clearly defined so that the responses received are not random.
- Only relevant questions should be included in the questionnaire as unrelated questions are a burden on the researcher and respondent.

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- If you have formed a hypothesis which you want to study then you will know what questions need to be asked.
- The respondents' background and education should not influence the way they answer the questions.
- The type of scale, index, or typology to be used shall be determined.
- The questions asked (closed, multiple-choice, and open) should adhere to the statistical data analysis techniques available and the goals of the study.
- Questions and prepared responses to choose from should not be biased. A biased question or questionnaire influences the responses given.
- The order in which the questions are presented or asked is also important as the earlier questions and their responses may influence the later ones.
- The language should be kept simple to avoid ambiguity. Ambiguous words may cause misunderstanding, possibly invalidating questionnaire results. Double negatives should also be avoided.
- Questions should address only one issue at a time so that the respondent is not confused as to what response is required.
- The list of possible responses should be comprehensive so that respondents should not find themselves without a suitable response. A solution to this would be to add the category of 'other' in the options.
- Categories in the questionnaire should be kept separate. For example, in both the 'married' category and the 'single' category—there may be a need for separate questions on marital status and living situation.
- Writing style should be informal yet to the point and suitable for the target audience.
- Personal questions about age, income, marital status, etc., should be placed at the end of the survey so that even if the respondent is hesitant to give out personal information, they would still have answered the other questions.
- Questions which try to trick the respondent may end in inaccurate responses.
- Presentation which is pleasing to the eye with the use of colours and images can end up distracting the respondent.
- Numbering the questions would be helpful.
- Whoever administers the questionnaire, be it research staff, volunteers or whether self-administered by the respondents, it should have clear, detailed instructions.

Factors Affecting Reliability of Answers

Factors affecting reliability of answers are as follows:

- **Confusing questions:** If the questions are not easily understood or they are capable of being interpreted in more than one way, the answers might be unreliable because the answer may be the result of misinterpretation of the questions not intended by the researcher.
- **Prejudice regarding sample:** The responses received from the sample may not be true representations of the sample.
- **Lack of coverage to illiterates:** This method is inapplicable to illiterates and semi-illiterates as they will be unable to read the questions.

- **Response selectivity:** The respondents of a questionnaire may belong to a selected group. Therefore, the conclusions lack the kind of objectivity and representativeness essential for its validity.

2.4.2 Importance and Limitations of Questionnaire Method

As a matter of fact, this method can be applied in a very narrow field. It can be used only if the respondents are educated and willing to cooperate. However, it is still widely used, owing to the following merits:

- **Economical:** The questionnaire requires paper, printing and postage only. There is no need to visit the respondents personally or continue the study over a long period.
- **Time saving:** Besides saving money, the questionnaire also saves time. Data can be collected from a large number of people within a small time frame.
- **Most reliable in special cases:** It is a perfect technique of research in some cases.
- **Research in wide area:** Mailed questionnaire comes very handy if the sample comprises people living at great distances.
- **Suitable in specific type of responses:** The information about certain problems can be best obtained through the questionnaire method.

Limitations of the Questionnaire Method

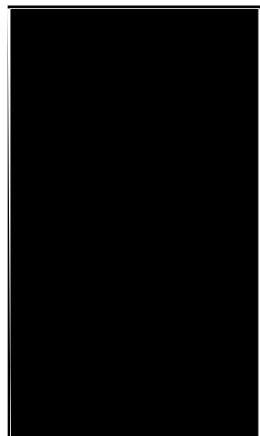
Like all other methods, the questionnaire is also limited in value and application. This means that it cannot be used in every situation and that its conclusions are not always reliable. Key limitations of the method are as follows:

- **Limited response:** As noted earlier, this method cannot be used with illiterate or semi-illiterate groups. The number of persons who cooperate and respond to the questionnaire is very small.
- **Lack of personal contact:** There is very little scope of personal contact in this method. In the absence of personal contact, very little can be done to persuade the respondents to fill up the questionnaire.
- **Useless in-depth problems:** If a problem requires deep and long study, it is obvious that it cannot be studied by the questionnaire method.
- **Possibility of wrong answers:** A respondent may not really understand a question or may give the answer in a casual manner. In both cases, there is a strong likelihood of misleading information being given.
- **Illegibility:** Some persons write so badly that it is difficult to read their handwriting.
- **Incomplete response:** There are people who give answers which are so brief that the full meaning is incomprehensible.

2.5 SCHEDULES

A schedule is a questionnaire containing a set of questions that are required to be answered to collect data about a particular item. A schedule is generally used in a face-to-face situation. The following are the objectives for which a schedule is created:

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- It is created for a definite item of inquiry. A schedule sets the boundaries for the subject under study.
- It acts as an aid to memorize the information being collected by the interviewer from various respondents. It helps to avoid being confused while analysing and tabulating the data.
- It helps in tabulating and analysing the data in a systematic and standardized manner.

Characteristics of a Good Schedule

The essential characteristics of a good schedule are as follows:

- The information or questions included in the schedule should be accurate and should enable the respondent to understand properly the context in which the questions are being asked.
- The schedule should be pre-arranged and structured in such a manner that the information gathered or collected should be accurate and tenable. For this, the following points must be considered:
 - o The size of the schedule should be accurate.
 - o The questions in the schedule should be understandable and definite.
 - o The questions should not contain any biased evaluation.
 - o All the questions of the schedule should be properly interlinked.
 - o The information gathered should be organized in a table so that it can be easily used for statistical analysis.

Suitability of the Schedule Method

The schedule method is mostly applied in the following situations:

- When the field of investigation is wide and dispersed
- When the researcher requires quick results at lesser cost
- When the respondents are well-trained and educated

2.5.1 Types of Schedules

There are five types of schedules, which are as follows:

- **Observation schedule:** This schedule is used to observe all the activities and record the responses of the respondents under some predefined conditions. The main idea behind examining the activities is to verify the required information.
- **Rating schedule:** It is used to measure and rate the thoughts, preferences, self-consciousness, perceptions and other similar characteristics of the respondent.
- **Document schedule:** It is used for collecting important data and preparing a source list. This schedule is mostly used to attain data from autobiographies, diaries or government records regarding written facts and case histories.
- **Institution survey schedule:** It is used for studying the problems of institutions.
- **Interview schedule:** It is used to ask the interviewee questions and record the responses in the space provided in the questionnaire itself.

Merits and Limitations of the Schedule Method

The merits of the schedule method are as follows:

- In this method, the researcher is always there to help the respondents. So, the response rate is high as compared to other methods of data collection.
- The presence of the researcher not only removes doubts present in the mind of the respondent, but also avoids false replies from the respondent due to fear of cross-checking.
- In this method, there is personal contact between the researcher and the respondent. Thus, the data can be collected easily and can also be relied upon.
- This method helps to better understand the personality, living conditions and values of the respondents.
- It is easy for the researcher to detect and rectify defects in the schedule during sampling.

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Limitations of the Schedule Method

The limitations of this method are as follows:

- It is a costly and time-consuming method.
- It requires well-trained and experienced field workers for conducting interviews of the respondents.
- Sometimes, the respondent may not be able to speak out due to the physical presence of the researcher.
- If the field of research is dispersed, it becomes difficult to organize the various activities of the research.

2.5.2 Organization of the Schedule

The schedule is prepared by performing the following steps:

- **Selection of respondents:** Usually, the sampling method is used for the selection of respondents. The sample should be representative of the respondents and should contain all the relevant information about the respondents.
- **Selection and training of field workers:** Since the field workers interview the respondents and collect the required data, this should be done carefully and proper training should be provided to them.
- **Conducting interviews:** For a successful interview and correct results, the following points must be kept in mind:
 - **Follow correct approach:** The field worker should go to the respondent with the correct approach so that the respondent can clearly understand the purpose of the interview.
 - **Generating accurate responses:** For proper and accurate response from the respondents, the respondents should not be misunderstood in their perspective and context.

2.5.3 Difference between Questionnaire and Schedule

When you work with questionnaires and schedules, you will observe that there are several similarities between the two. However, there are prominent differences also, which are as follows:

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- A questionnaire is mostly sent by the interviewer to the interviewee by mail and is filled by the interviewee, whereas a schedule is filled by the interviewer at the time of interview.
- Data collection through a questionnaire is cheaper as compared to a schedule, as money is spent only in preparing the schedules and mailing them. In the schedule method, extra money is spent on appointing interviewers and imparting training to them.
- In the case of a questionnaire, response is generally low because many people do not respond. On the other hand, response is high in the case of schedules since the interviewer fills them at the time of the interview.
- The identity of the respondent is not always clear in the case of a questionnaire, whereas in the case of schedules, the identity of the interviewee or respondent is known.
- The questionnaire method is time consuming as the respondent may not return the questionnaire in time. There is no such problem with the schedule method because the schedule is filled at the time of the interview.
- The questionnaire method does not allow personal contact with the respondent but the schedule method does.
- The questionnaire method is useful only if the respondent is literate, while in the case of a schedule, it is not necessary for the interviewee to be literate.
- The risk of incomplete and incorrect information is more in a questionnaire, while in a schedule, the information collected is complete and more accurate.

2.6 INTERVIEW

One of the main methods of data collection is conducting interviews. It takes place as a two-way conversation between the researcher and the respondent, whereby information is gathered by asking topic related questions.

We learn not only from the respondents' responses but also his/her gestures, facial expressions and pauses. Interviewing can be conducted either face-to-face or over the telephone by skilled personnel by using a structured schedule or an unstructured guide.

According to Rummel J. Francis: 'The interview method of collecting data requires the actual physical proximity of two or more persons, and generally requires that all the normal channels of communication be open to their use. It is necessary to see one another, to hear each other's voices, to understand one another's language, and to use all that is psychologically inherent in physical proximity. It usually entails a non-reciprocal relation between the individuals concerned. One party desires to get information from another—one party interviews the other—for a particular purpose.'

Check Your Progress

8. What is a schedule?
9. When is the interview schedule used?

Theodore L. Torgerson has stated that the interview method of study extends certain aspects of the observational technique.

Thus, the interview method permits the gathering of development data to supplement the cross-sectional data obtained from observations. The interviewer can probe into casual factors, determine attitudes, discover when the problem started, enlist the interviewee in an analysis of his own problem and secure his support of the therapy to be applied.

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2.6.1 Types of Interviews

The different types of interviews are as follows:

- **Group interview:** A proper setting for group interviews requires a group of not more than 10 to 12 persons with some social, intellectual, and educational homogeneity, which ensures effective participation by all. For a full spontaneous participation of all, it is better to arrange a circular seating arrangement.
- **Diagnostic interview:** Its purpose is to locate the possible causes of an individual's problems, getting information about his past history, family relations and personal adjustment problem.
- **Clinical interview:** Such an interview follows after the diagnostic interview. It is a means of introducing the patient to therapy.
- **Research interview:** Research interview is aimed at getting information required by the investigator to test his/her hypothesis or solve his/her problems of historical, experimental, survey or clinical type.
- **Single interview or panel interviews:** For the purpose of research, a single interviewer is usually present. In case of selection and treatment purposes, panel interviews are held.
- **Directed interview:** It is structured, includes questions of the closed type and is conducted in a prepared manner.
- **Non-directive interview:** It includes questions of the open-ended form and allows much freedom to the interviewee to talk freely about the problem under-study.
- **Focused interview:** It aims at finding out the responses of individuals to exact events or experiences rather than on general lines of enquiry.
- **Depth interview:** It is an intensive and searching kind of interview. It emphasizes certain psychological and social factors relating to attitudes, emotions or convictions.

It may be observed that on occasions several types are used to obtain the needed information.

Other classifications of interviews are as follows:

- Intake interview, as the initial stage in clinic and guidance centres
- Brief talk contacts as in schools and recreation centres
- Single hour interview
- Clinical psychological interview, stressing psychotherapeutic counselling and utilizing case history data and active participation by the counsellor in the re-education of the client

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- Psychiatric interviews, similar to psychological counselling, but varying with the personality and philosophical orientation of the individual worker and with the setting in which used
- Psychoanalytic interviews
- Interview form of test
- Group interviews for selecting applicants for special course
- Research interview

2.6.2 Important Elements of Research Interview

The important elements of research interview are as follows:

1. Preparation for Research Interview

- Decide the category and number of persons that you would like to interview.
- Have a clear conception of the purpose and the information required.
- Prepare a clear outline, a schedule or a checklist of the best sequence of questions that will systematically bring out the desired information.
- Decide the type of interview that you are going to use, i.e., structured or non-structured interview.
- Have a well thought-out plan for recording responses.
- Fix up the time well in advance.
- Procure the tools to be used in recording responses.

2. Executing an Interview

- Be friendly and courteous and put the respondent at ease so that he talks freely.
- Listen patiently to all opinions and never show surprise or disapproval to a respondent's answer.
- Assume an interested manner towards the respondent's opinion, and as far as possible do not divulge your own.
- Keep the direction of the interview in your own hands and avoid irrelevant conversation and try to keep the respondent on track.
- Repeat your questions slowly and with proper emphasis in case respondent shows signs of failing to understand a particular question.

3. Obtaining the Response

Perhaps the most difficult part of the job of an interviewer is to obtain a specific, complete response. People can often be evasive and answer 'do not know' if they do not want to make an effort of thinking. They can also misunderstand the question and answer incorrectly in which case the interviewer would have to probe more deeply.

An interviewer should be skilled in the technique as only then can the interviewer gauge whether the answers are incomplete or non-specific. Each interviewer must fully understand the motive behind asking particular questions and whether the answer is giving the information required. The interviewer should form the habit of asking himself/herself, 'Does that completely answer the question that I just asked?'

Throughout the interview, the interviewer must be extremely careful as to not suggest a possible reply. The interviewer should always content himself with mere repetition (if the question is not understood to answer).

4. Reporting the Response

There are two chief means of recording opinion during an interview. If the question is preceded, the interviewer only needs check a box or circle or code, or otherwise indicate which code comes closest to the respondent's opinion. If the question is not preceded, the interviewer is expected to record the response verbatim.

The following points may be kept in view in this respect:

- Quote the respondents directly, just as if the interviewers were newspaper reporters taking down the statement of an important official without paraphrasing the reply, summarizing it in the interviewer's own words, 'polishing up' any slang or correcting bad grammar that distorts the respondent's meaning and emphasis.
- Ask the respondent to wait until the interviewer gets down 'that last thought'.
- Do not write as soon as you have asked the question and do not write while the respondent talks. Wait until the response is completed.
- Use common abbreviations.
- Do not record and evaluate the responses simultaneously.

5. Closing the Interview

It should be accompanied by an expression of thanks giving recognition to the respondent's generosity in sparing time and effort.

6. Use of Tape Recorder in Interview

- It reduces the tendency of the interviewer to make an unconscious selection of data favouring the interviewer's biases.
- The tape recorded data can be played more than once, and thus it permits a thorough study of the data.
- Tape recorder speeds up the interview process.
- Tape recorder permits the recording of some gestures.
- The tape recorder permits the interviewer to devote full attention to the respondent.
- No verbal productions are lost in a tape recorded interview.
- Other things being equal, the interviewer who uses a tape recorder is able to obtain more interviews during a given time period than an interviewer who takes notes or attempts to reconstruct the interview from memory after the interview has been completed.

2.6.3 Indifferent Attitude of the Respondent and the Role of the Research Worker

It is observed that the research worker is likely to encounter several problems arising out of the apathy of the respondents. In such a situation, the following points may be kept in view:

- When the respondent is really busy and has no time, the field worker may request for a more convenient time.

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- When the respondent simply wants to avoid the interview and is not inclined to be bothered about it, the field worker should try to explain to the respondent the importance of the study, and how the respondent's own response is of material value in the case.
- When the respondent is afraid to give the interview as it affects his boss or the party to which he belongs or any other cause which is likely to harm his interest, the field worker must assure the respondent that absolute secrecy would be maintained by the researcher and the organization.
- When the respondent does not hold a high opinion about the outcome of such interviews in general, or has a poor opinion about the research organization or institution conducting it, it is the duty of the research worker at such times to explain to the respondent the importance of the problem, and convince the respondent regarding the status of the research body.
- When the respondent is suspicious and he thinks that the enquiry is either from the income tax department or some other secret agency, at such times he may generally ask such questions. Who are you? Who told you our name? Have you interviewed the neighbour? etc. The research worker should try to eliminate the respondent suspicion. A letter of authority, the letter head or the seal of the research body would prove to be useful on such occasions.
- When the respondent is unsocial or otherwise confined to his own family (such a tendency is mostly found in the case of newly married couples), the research worker at such times will try to create the respondent's interest in the subject of investigation.
- When the respondent is too haughty and thinks it below his dignity to grant an interview to petty research workers, the investigator should get a letter of introduction from an influential person.

2.6.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interview Method

The advantages of the interview method over other techniques are as follows:

- A well-trained interviewer can obtain more data and greater clarity by altering the interview situation. This cannot be done in a questionnaire.
- An interview permits the research worker to follow-up leads as contrasted with the questionnaire.
- Questionnaires are often shallow and they fail to dig deeply enough to provide a true picture of opinions and feelings. The interview situation usually permits much greater depth.
- It is possible for a skilled interviewer to obtain significant information through motivating the subject and maintaining rapport, other methods do not permit such a situation.
- The respondents when interviewed may reveal information of a confidential nature which they would not like to record in a questionnaire.
- Interview technique can be used in the case of children and illiterate persons who cannot express themselves in writing. This is not possible in a questionnaire.
- The percentage of response is much higher than in case of a mailed questionnaire.
- The field worker is personally present to remove any doubt or suspicion regarding the nature of enquiry or meaning of any question or term used. The answers are, therefore, not biased because of any misunderstanding.

- The field worker may create a friendly atmosphere for proper response. The field worker may start a discussion, and develop the interest of the respondent before showing the schedule. A right atmosphere is very conducive for getting correct replies.
- The interviewee may disclose personal and confidential information which the interviewee would not ordinarily place in writing on paper. The interviewee may need the stimulation of personal contacts in order to be drawn out.
- The interview enables the investigator to follow-up leads and to take advantage of small clues, in dealing with complex topics and questions.
- The interview permits an exchange of ideas and information. It permits 'give and take'.
- It is useful in the case of some categories of persons. The interview enables the interviewee to deal with young children, illiterates and those with limited intelligence or who's state of mind is not quite normal.
- Interviews are also used for pupil counselling, for selection of candidates for instructional purposes, for employment, for psychiatric work, etc.
- The respondent does not feel tired or bored. Supplementary questions may be put to enliven the whole discussion.
- The difficulties of bad handwriting of the respondent, use of pencil, etc., are also avoided as every schedule is filled in by the interviewer.
- A probe into life pattern is possible. The personal contact with the respondent enables the field worker to probe more deeply into the character, living conditions and general life pattern of the respondent. These factors have a great bearing in understanding the background of any reply.
- The information gathered through interviews has been found to be fairly reliable.
- It is possible for the interviewer to probe into attitudes, discover the origin of the problem, etc.
- Interview technique is very close to the teacher. It is generally accepted that no research technique is as close to the teacher's work as the interview.
- Sometimes interviews can be held at suitable intervals to trace the development of behaviour and attitudes.
- Interviews can be used for student counselling, occupational adjustment, selection of candidates for educational courses, etc.
- Interviews can be used for all kinds of research methods—normative, historical, experimental, case studies and clinical studies.
- Interview techniques provide scope for cross questioning.
- This technique allows the interviewer to remain in command of the situation throughout the investigation.
- Through the respondent's incidental comments, facial expression, bodily movements, gestures, etc., an interviewer can acquire information that could not be obtained easily by other means.
- Cross questioning by the interviewer can enable him/her to judge the sincerity, frankness and insight of the interviewee.

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Disadvantages of Interview Method

The method of interview, in spite of its numerous advantages has the following limitations:

- **Very costly:** It is a very costly affair. The cost per case is much higher in this method than in case of mailed questionnaires. Generally speaking, the cost per questionnaire is much less than the cost per interview. A large number of field workers may have to be engaged and trained in the work of collection of data. All this entails a lot of expenditure and a research worker with limited financial means finds it very difficult to adopt this method.
- **Biased information:** The presence of the field worker while encouraging the respondent to reply, may also introduce a source of bias in the interview. At times the opinion of the respondent is influenced by the field worker and his replies may not be based on what he thinks to be correct but what he thinks the investigator wants.
- **Time consuming:** It is a time consuming technique as there is no guarantee how much time each interview can take, since the questions have to be explained, interviewees have to be assured and the information extracted.
- **Expertness required:** It requires a high level of expertise to extract information from the interviewee who may be hesitant to part with this knowledge.

Among the important qualities to be possessed by an interviewer are objectivity, insight and sensitivity.

2.7 PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

The idea of projecting oneself or one's feelings on ambiguous objects is the basic assumption in projective techniques. The 19th century saw the origin of these techniques in clinical and developmental psychology. However, it was after second World War that these techniques were adopted for use in advertising agencies and market research firms. Ernest Dichter (1960) was one of the pioneers who used these techniques in consumer and motivational research. Consumer surveys and research were considered incomplete if they did not make use of projective techniques (Henry, 1956; Rogers and Beal, 1958; Newman, 1957). However, with the advent of technology and computer-aided analysis, these subjective methods were generally forgotten.

It was only in the 1990s that work done on semiotics, in-depth interviews and renewed interest in human emotions and needs, especially the latent needs and brand personalities led to resurgence of these methods (Belk et al., 1997 and Zaltman, 1997).

Unlike the other approaches discussed in the unit, these methods involve indirect questioning. Instead of asking direct questions, the method involves a relatively ambiguous stimuli and indirect questions related to imaginary situations or people. The purpose of the research is to present a situation to the respondents to project their underlying needs, emotions, beliefs and attitudes. The ambiguity of the situation is non-threatening and thus a person has no hesitation in revealing his/her true inner motivations and emotions. The more the degree of ambiguity, the more is the range of responses one gets from the respondents. In the theoretical sense, projective techniques unearth beliefs, attitudes and feelings that might underlie certain behaviour or interaction situations. Thus, the respondents' attitudes are uncovered by analysing their responses to the scenarios that

are deliberately constructed to stimulate responses from the right side of the brain, which is stated to be the affective side. The second premise of projective techniques is to uncover the different levels of consciousness (Freud, 1911). Generally, the structured methods look at primary motivations; however, it is the underlying latent needs which might drive the individual to behave in a certain manner. The third is to reveal data that is inhibited by socially-desirable and correct responses. Sometimes individuals hesitate to express their prejudices or feelings towards other individuals, groups or objects. Indirect and ambiguous stimuli might reveal startling results in such cases. In psychology, there are a wide variety of techniques available. These can be categorized on the basis of the conduction process. Some of these techniques are briefly discussed below.

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1. Association techniques: These are the most frequently used methods in management research. They essentially involve presenting a stimulus to the respondent and he needs to respond with the first thing that comes to his mind. The method is essentially borrowed from clinical psychology, the most well-known being the Rorschach Inkblot test. The set of inkblots are ambiguous in nature, however, these are standardized blots symmetrical in nature. The first few are in shades of black and white and the others are coloured. Each of these is presented in a sequence to the consumer. The responses, time taken, the direction in which the blot is turned, are noted. There are norms and scores available for evaluating the personality of the individual. They require a considerable amount of training in conduction and interpretation and, thus, are not commonly used. A technique based on the same principle is called the word association test. This found its earliest uses in 1936 by Houghton for advertising evaluations. The technique involves presenting a group of words and the respondent needs to respond instantly with the first thing that comes to his mind. The critical words are disguised and come after a few neutral or mundane words. The idea is that the element of surprise will reveal associations that lie in the subconscious or the unconscious mind. The words which are selected to address the objectives of the study are called test words and the others are called fillers.

For example, to attest the extent of eco-friendly attitude of a community, one could have a number of words like 'environment', 'plastic', 'water', 'earth', 'tigers', 'clean', etc. These would be embedded in the fillers to see the extent to which the consumer is aware. The person's exact response is either noted or recorded; in case one is doing this manually, it is critical to note the reaction time of the person, as hesitating would mean that there was a latent response which the person was not comfortable about revealing. In this case, the response needs to be discarded or evaluated through other responses. Another variation of the test used in individual and brand personality is to ask the person to think of an animal/object that one associates with a brand or a person.

For example, the word 'wall' is associated with a famous Indian cricketer.

The obtained answers are measured in terms of:

- Similarity of responses given to a test word by a number of respondents
- Unique responses
- Time taken for a response
- Non-response

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In case a person does not respond at all, it is assumed that there is emotional block hampering. A person’s attitudes and feelings related to the topic can be measured by this technique.

Illustration: Talking to elders: A popular pharmaceutical firm produces a range of expensive products meant for old age consumers. The company plans to use television advertising to create awareness about the products. Word association was used to study old people’s attitudes towards medication and supportive therapy. Six men and six women were selected to administer the test; they were matched on income, class, age, education and current status of living with their married sons/daughters. The test words used and the responses obtained are in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Test Word Used and Responses Obtained

Test words	Responses		
Health	Care (3)	Bad (2)	Good (1)
Life	Difficult (2)	Relaxed (3)	Good (1)
Medicines	Necessity (4)	Prevention (2)	Avoid (1)
Walking stick	Support (3)	Avoid (2)	Carved ivory (1)
Adult diapers	Embarrassment (4)	Necessity (2)	
Treatment	In time (2)	Expensive (4)	
Bones	Weak (3)	Brittle (3)	
Death	The end (1)	Inevitable (5)	

The major responses are highlighted and reveal that the seniors are not afraid of dying, are realistic about failing health and supportive medicines or walking stick. However, they have clearly stated that they do not want to be embarrassed. Thus, talking about their health problems on a public platform and offering solutions would not be welcome. They are conscious and positive about medicines being essential, however, their dignity must be kept intact.

This research was taken as a reflection of the attitude of the elderly at large and the company does not use television advertising at all, rather it relies on doctors and chemists to push the product.

An extension of the association technique is the completion technique.

2. Completion techniques: These techniques involve presenting an incomplete object to the respondent, which can be completed by the respondent in any way.

Old age is

Sentence completion is the most popular of all projective techniques and is inevitably used in almost all measuring instruments as an open-ended question. However, the incomplete sentence of a typical projective test needs to be more ambiguous than a typical open-ended question. Generally, they are given a single word or phrase and asked to fill it in, for example:

Working at IBM is. Or

McDonald is.

Another extension of the technique is story completion. Here, the individual is given an incomplete story or idea. One provides a backdrop and a background for a possible topic. However, the possible end is left open-ended. The subject

is supposed to complete the story and provide a conclusion. The theoretical assumption is that the completion of the story/sentence reflects the underlying attitude and personality traits of the person.

- 3. Construction techniques:** These techniques might appear similar to completion technique, however here, the focus is on the completed object, which could be a story, a picture, a dialogue or a description. Here again, the level of ambiguity and scope for letting loose the respondents' imagination is vast.

Clinical psychology has a whole range of construction techniques, but here we will refer only to the ones which are actively used in business research. These are:

- **Story construction tests:** The most often used test is the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) developed by Henry (1956). There are a total of 20 pictures, most of them having the profile of a man, woman or child either clearly visible or diffused. The pictures are given to the respondent and he is asked about what is happening here? What happened or led to this? What do you think is going to happen now? The assumption is, that in most instances the person puts himself into the shoes of the protagonist and actually indicates how he would respond in the given situation. The story gives an indication of the person's personality and need structure. For example, an individual may be characterized as extroverted, or a pessimistic or high on creativity or high on dogmatism, and so on. The TAT is used extensively, in parts (a few selected pictures) or in totality in a number of organizations, including the armed forces. The usage is majorly done for selection and recruitment process.
 - **Cartoon tests:** The tests make use of animated characters in a particular situation (Masling, 1952). They are considered ambiguous as the figures bear no resemblance to a living being and thus are considered non-threatening. The cartoon usually has a picture that has two or more characters talking to each other; usually the statement/question by one character is denoted and one needs to fill in the response made by the other character. The picture has a direct relation with the topic under study and is assumed to reveal the respondent's attitude, feelings or intended behaviour. They are one of the easiest to administer, analyse and score.
- 4. Choice or ordering techniques:** These techniques involve presenting the respondents with an assortment of stimuli—in the form of pictures or statements—related to the study topic. The subject is supposed to sort them into categories, based on the study instructions given. For example, in a study on measuring desired supervisor-subordinate relations, a set of Tom and Jerry cartoon pictures were used, some in which Tom is overpowering Jerry, some neutral pictures where they are carrying out their respective tasks and others where Jerry, the mouse outwits Tom. The respondent needs to sort them into good, neutral and bad picture piles.

These sets are not similar to cartoon tests as they do not require completion or closure. These require sorting, in order to measure any stereotyped or typical behaviour of the respondent. The pictures that have been given to the person carry an expert score (that is they have been categorized on a rating scale to

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reveal different degrees of the attitude). The higher the selection of pictures with extreme scores, the more rigid is the respondent's attitude and in case modification or enhancement is required, the task would be more difficult. The test is used to measure attitudes and the strength of the existing attitude.

5. Expressive techniques: The focus on the other five techniques was on the end result or the output. However, in expressive techniques, the method or means or expressions used in attempting the exercise are significant. The subject needs to express not his/her own feelings and opinions but those of the protagonist(s) in a given verbal or visual situation. Again the presumption is that people are uncomfortable giving personal opinion on a sensitive issue, but, do not mind or are less inhibitive when it is in the third person. There are many examples: Clay modelling—here the emphasis is on the manner in which the person uses or works with clay and not on the end result.

Psychodrama (Dichter, 1964)—here the person needs to take on the roles of living or inanimate object, like a brand(s) and carry out a dialogue.

Object personification (Vicary, 1951)—here the person personifies an inanimate object/brand/organization and assigns it human traits.

Role playing is another technique that is used in business research. The respondents are asked to play the role or assume the behaviour of someone else. The details about the setting are given to the subject(s) and they are asked to take on different roles and enact the situation.

The third-person technique is again considered harmless as here, the respondent is presented with a verbal or visual situation and needs to express what might be the person's beliefs and attitudes. The person may be a friend, neighbour, colleague, or a 'typical' person. Asking the individual to respond in the third person reduces the social pressure, especially when the discussion or study is about a sensitive issue. For example, no respondent even when assured of anonymity, would own up to being open to an extra-marital affair; however, if asked whether a colleague/friend/person in his/her age group might show an inclination for the same, the answers might be starkly different.

2.7.1 Evaluating Projective Techniques

As can be seen from the description of the techniques available to the researcher, the projective techniques are unsurpassed in revealing latent yet significant responses. These would not surface through a more structured or standardized techniques like focus group discussions or interviews. The ambiguity and the third-person setting give the respondent a sufficient camouflage and confidence to feel comfortable about revealing attitudes, interests and beliefs about sensitive issues. There might also be instances where the respondent is unaware of his underlying motivations, beliefs and attitudes that are operating at a subconscious level. Projective techniques are helpful in unearthing these with considerable ease and expertise.

However, this richness of data also has its disadvantages. The conduction and analysis of the technique requires specialists and trained professionals. This is also the reason why the tests are expensive and time consuming in usage. Most of the techniques require varying degrees of ambiguity and the higher the ambiguity, the richer is the response. But, at the same time, it makes the analysis and interpretation difficult and

subjective. Role playing and psychodrama require interaction and participation by the subject, thus the person who volunteers to participate in the study, might be unusual in some way. Therefore, generalizing the results of the analysis might be subject to error.

2.8 CASE STUDY AND CONTENT ANALYSIS

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Case studies are discussions of individual cases under topics of discussion which help researchers to corroborate known facts proved previously through research. Social scientists, in particular, used the case study method to conduct research for many years. A variety of disciplines used this method of research to corroborate their findings in real life situations. Researcher Robert K. Yin defines the case study research method as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin, 1984, p. 23).

However, critics feel that the case study method is not reliable enough for establishing a rule or principle as it portrays only a minuscule population which forms not even a part of the entire population. Some feel that this method is only a reliable exploratory tool. Literature supports reports of carefully planned and crafted studies of the case study method. Robert E. Stake, Helen Simmons, and Robert Yin are renowned researchers who have written about the utility of case studies in social sciences. They have prescribed six steps that should be used when utilizing the case study method. These are:

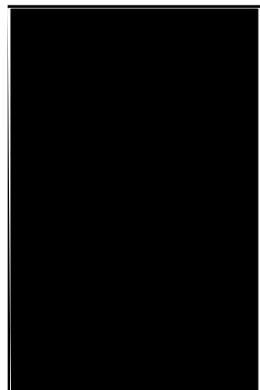
- Determine and define the research questions
- Select the cases and determine data gathering and analysis techniques
- Prepare to collect the data
- Collect data in the field
- Evaluate and analyse the data
- Prepare the report

1. Determine and define the research questions

Before a case study research is undertaken, cementing a research focus is important so that the researcher can refer to it during the course of study. The research object is often a person, an organizational policy, a group of people, etc. A number of data gathering methods are used by the researcher who studies every case study in depth. The researcher reads the available literature to understand where the topic stands in terms of prior research and undertakes a thorough planning before embarking on the actual case study. Literature and previous studies help him to decide where to look for evidence to corroborate his findings on the concerned topic. These help in designing the blueprint for the current study.

2. Select the cases and determine data gathering and analysis techniques

While designing the study, researchers finalize the approaches, methods of data extraction and data gathering for real-life cases that they need to study. While using multiple cases, each case is treated as a single case. The conclusions of these cases can then be utilized for underlining various facets of their study. The researchers need to discriminate positively



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for the case study that they want to utilize for corroborating their findings. Researchers should decide whether they want to study cases that are conventional or extraordinary while conducting the study. In case they are hesitant, they may go back to the purpose of the study that they had enumerated before beginning the research. The decision to choose a single or multiple case studies is an important one, while a single case study may be examined for analysing more than one inherent principle. These types of case studies involve two different levels of analysis which increases the complexity of data collected. Multiple sources and techniques in the data collecting process is a key strength of the case study method. Researchers need to determine what data they would wish to gather by examining a case and how to analyse the data collection. The tools they may use are interviews, surveys, documentation review, observation and collection of physical artefacts. During the design phase of the research, researchers should make sure that the study ensures construct validity, external validity, internal validity and reliability. Researchers need to use the correct measures for ensuring construct validity. Internal validity is ensured when the conditions may be used over and over again to prove validity of the case. External validity is ensured when the findings may be generalized beyond the case or cases. A case study is said to be more externally valid when it can withstand more people, places and procedures. Techniques known as within-case examination and cross-case examination and literature review help ensure the validity of the case.

3. Prepare to collect the data

Researchers using the case study method generally gather a large amount of data from a number of sources. Organizing this data in a systematic manner is a challenge in itself. Researchers should plan ahead to prevent getting overwhelmed by this data. They might even lose sight of the original purpose of gathering the data. Researchers sort, categorize, store and retrieve data for analysis with the help of databases. Extraordinary cases help researchers by providing an efficient training programme, establishing proper protocols and conducting a pilot study before entering fieldwork. The training programme covers the concept to be studied, terminology, processes, methods, etc. The researchers also learn the application of techniques used in the study. In order to gather data from the interviewed population, researchers have to be skilled enough to retain or record the interviews without the gadget coming in the interviewee's way. Researchers should know how to steer conversation towards the questions they intend to ask next. They should be trained in analysing body language and interpret answers not expected by them. Researchers need to read between the lines and in case the topic is sensitive, understand a respondent's hesitation and silence. Researchers should not feel threatened by missed appointments and lack of space for holding the interview or unexpected turns of events during the interview; for example, a respondent may break down while answering a sensitive question. Researchers should be humane, understanding and flexible in approach. They should revisit the research design that they had created before starting the case studies and make changes as and when required.

4. Collect data in the field

Researchers should be trained to collect and store multiple sources of evidence in various formats while going about studying the case. Though case study research is flexible, any change that comes up needs to be documented carefully. The multiple storing of data is required so that converging lines of enquiry and patterns may be discovered. Field notes

may be used for recording intuitions, hunches, feelings, and also for documenting the work in progress. Illustrations, anecdotes and special records may be written in the field notes so that the researcher may refer to it when making case study reports. The data and the field notes should be kept separately for analysis. The researcher needs to document, classify and cross-refer all evidence so that these could be efficiently recalled for examination and sorting as and when required.

5. Evaluate and analyse the data

The raw data gathered by the researchers need to be interpreted at different levels to find linkages between the objectives of the research and the outcome of studying the case. Researchers must remain open to new insights and opportunities throughout the evaluation and analysis process. They can triangulate data with the help of different techniques and collection methods inherent to the case study method. Researchers will be provided with new insights and conflicting data by case studies which are extraordinary. They would need to categorize, tabulate and combine data to address the purpose of the study. In order to cross-check data collected, short, repeated interviews need to be conducted. Placing information into arrays, creating matrices of categories, making flow charts or other displays, etc., may be used by the researcher as specific techniques. The quantitative data collected may be used to corroborate the qualitative data collected during interviews. Many research organizations may also use multiple researchers to verify the data collected. When these multiple observations converge, researchers may become more confident of their findings. Conflicting observations need in-depth study of the findings. The cross-case search technique requires that researchers look at data from different angles and do not reach a premature conclusion. Across all cases investigated, the cross-case search divides data by type. When a pattern from one data is vouched for by another data, the finding is stronger. When these evidences do not form a data, a further probe is essential.

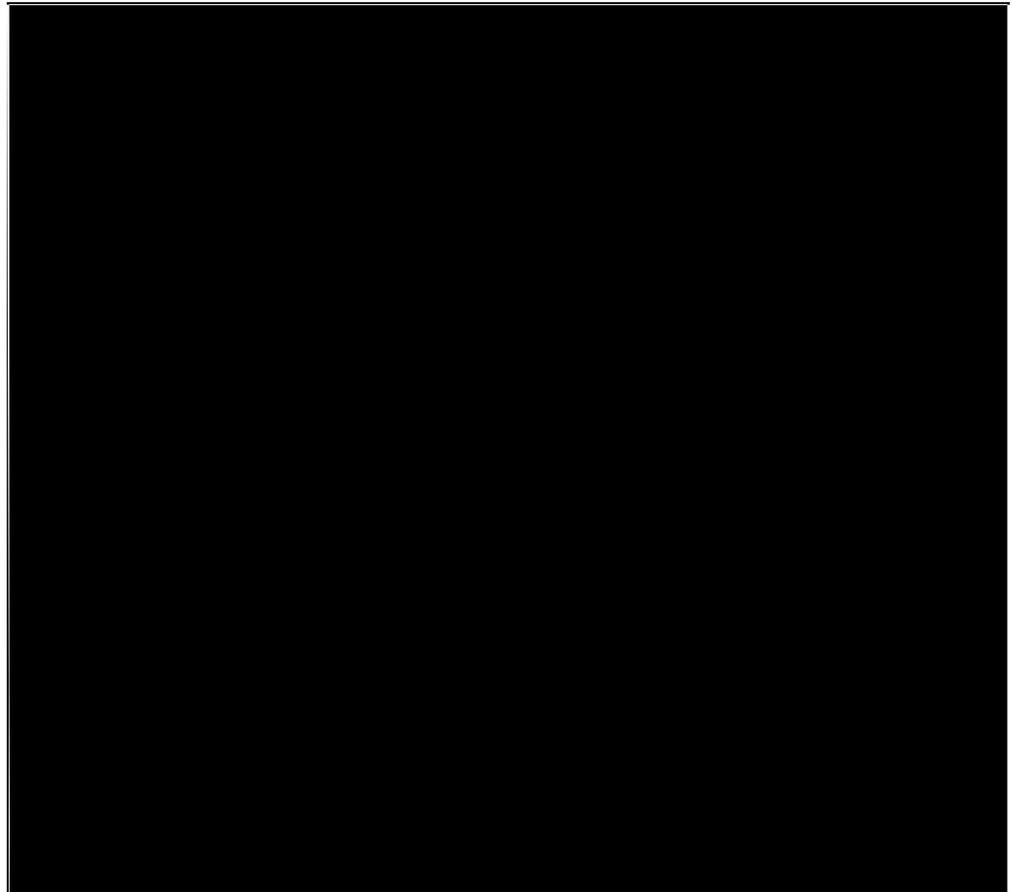
6. Prepare the report

An exemplary case study report transforms the manner in which a complex issue is presented. Case study reports are often published so that readers may apply the experience in their real-life situations. Case studies mostly display evidences to gain the confidence of the readers. Researchers also underline the boundaries of the case and draw the attention of the readers to conflicting propositions. Many researchers present case study reports in the form of a chronological account. Some may treat a case as a fresh chapter. Once a report is completed, the researcher should always edit and examine it for loopholes. Representative audience group is used for comments and criticisms and the valid criticisms are incorporated in the next draft. Since case studies involve multiple sources of data, or may include more than one case within a study, they often become complex. The case study method is generally used by researchers from various disciplines to build upon a theory, to produce a new theory, to challenge or dispute a theory, to explore new horizons, to apply solutions to situations, to describe a phenomenon, etc. There are a number of advantages of the case-study method. These are: applicability to real life situations, to contemporary social situations and easy accessibility to its published reports. Case studies help common man understand a complex theory through easy, real-life situations that are used to exemplify the principle being discussed.

NOTES

Some examples of case studies are given below.

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Case Study 5.3**Candy-Ho! (A)**

The evening sky was overcast. Looking out from the window of his office on the 12th floor, Sagar Ahuja could still see the etched out skyline of New Delhi. Sighing wearily, he turned his thoughts back to his comfortable job at Indore where he was marketing spicy Gujarati namkeen, and wondered what on earth he was doing in an alien city whose complexities and multiplicities seemed to defy any description to his simple mind. Having been a star performer at his regional office, and responsible for the launch of two revolutionary products for his company, he had been approached by head hunters to join Nefertiti—the famous global confectionary company in India. As his first assignment he had been given the job of swimming in deep waters and launch a new bubblegum that had been developed.

The Product

It was a sugar-coated, round-shaped, centre-filled liquid gel bubblegum in two flavours—strawberry and blueberry. The product was packed in mono pillow packs and was going to be priced at ₹.00 per piece. The name of the product was to be *Moondrops*.

He had in front of him the results of a research conducted by Offspring Research Agency—a market research company specializing in child research studies.

Research Objectives

- To understand the meaning of a candy/bubblegum in a child's life.
- To analyse the response to two advertisements that had been created to market the bubblegum.
- To arrive at a decision on how to position and market the gum, and the advertisement that would be more suitable for the purpose.

Weighted base: Those whose favourite category is bubblegum and chewing gum	771
Like the taste/like to eat it	87
Soft to chew	26
Easily available everywhere	18
Helps in passing time/kills boredom/overcomes feeling of restlessness	18
Freshens breath	17
Taste you never get tired of/can keep eating repeatedly	11
Has variety of flavours	11
Not costly/Does not cost much	11
Improves taste of mouth/removes bad taste in mouth	10
Can be had any time of the day	10
Makes me feel happy/fun to have	9
Liked by my friends	7
Worth the price I pay for it/value for money	6

Data Source: Primary Research carried out by Nefertiti Company. Random Interviews with SEC A and B consumers equally split between male and female respondents, in the top eight cities, total sample size was 1,000 respondents.

FGD Analysis

The result of 24 focus groups across age groups and metros revealed the following data from a projective technique that involved personifying the bubblegum. The responses are across age groups and are in the decreasing order of most stated.

- *I want to play with my bubblegum*
- *The bubblegum has lots of friends—lot of names*
- *The bubblegum is very naughty—no one can catch him*

NOTES

NOTES

- *The bubblegum is my friend and helps me fight the older kids*
- *If all bubblegums were to fight, my bubblegum would win*
- *If I am feeling sad, my bubblegum would make me laugh*
- *My bubblegum is the bravest*

Post the FGC. Select respondents (children) were shown two advertisements. reaction to these are listed below:

(a) The Race Ad

The storyboard was that at a school annual function race, where the 'hero' of the story deliberately loses the race and comes third instead of first to get the third prize of two big jars of Moondrops. Followed by the punchline '*Moondrops ke liye kuch bhi ho sakta hai*'.

Reactions (With loud laughter)

All the kids were involved with the ad while viewing it and liked the storyboard with comments such as:

- '*It was interesting*'.
- '*Main soch raha tha ki yeh ladka ruk kyon gaya*'. (I was wondering why the boy stopped.)

The children enjoyed when the kid smiles with two big Moondrop jars in his hand.

- '*Jab who ladka race mein finish line ke pas aake ruk jata hai*'. (When the boy stops near the finish line.)
- '*Jab use third prize Moondrops milta hai aur use doorse do first and second prize wale ladke ghoor ke dekhte hain*'. (When he gets Moondrops as the third prize and the first and second prize winners stare at him.)
- '*We feel proud to win a race even if we do not get any prize.*'
- '*If I win the race then Mummy and Daddy will anyway buy me Moondrops*'.
- '*Mein sirf Moondrops ke liye race nahin haroonga*'. (I'll never lose a race just for Moondrops.)
- '*Woh ladka buddhoo tha, kyonki usne jeeti hui race har di.*' (That boy was a fool, as he lost a race that he was winning.)

The kids were surprised when the child stops just near the finish line and when the other two children are surprised and shocked that he is getting the Moondrops as the third prize.

Empathy/Relatability

Not many of the kids could relate to the ad. They did not see themselves doing the same just for getting two jars of Moondrops, the underlying reason being that they had to lose (If they could finish first, then why finish third).

(b) Kitty Party Ad

The story starts with a child returning from school to see a kitty party in progress at home (lots of fat aunties chatting and eating samosas and pakoras). One fat aunty pulls his cheek affectionately and much to his disgust, kisses him. He then feels happy when his reward is a Moondrop from the fat aunty. Seeing that he gets a Moondrop when the aunty kisses him, he plays a prank on all the aunties by jumping on the table and the sofa and kissing all the aunties there. His reward is lots of Moondrops. Followed by the punchline, '*Moondrops ke liye kuch bhi ho sakta hai*'.

Reactions

The scene where the fat aunty kisses the boy and they show her fat lips. The boy kissing the aunties by jumping on the sofa, on the table and by hugging an aunty.

- ‘*Jab who moti aunty ke lips dikhate hain*’. (When they show the fat aunty’s lips.)
- ‘*Jab who moti aunty use kiss karti hain*’. (When the fat aunty kisses him.)
- ‘*Jab who sari aunties ko kiss karta hai aur aunties hairan ho jati hain*’. (When he surprises all the aunties by kissing them.)

Likeability

- ‘*Dekhne mein maza aaya*’ (It was fun to watch.)
- ‘*Jab usne aunties ko kiss kiya to bahut accha laga*’ (It was really good to see him kissing the aunties.)
- ‘*Aunty ka face itna funny tha, unko dekh ke hasi aayi*’ (Aunty’s face was so funny that we felt like laughing.)

Empathy/Relatability

- ‘*Chii, hum naughty nahin hain*’ (Ugh, we are not naughty.)
- ‘*Aunty ko kiss nahin karenge, beizzati hoti hai.*’ (Will not kiss the aunty, it is insulting.)
- ‘*Ganda lagta hai*’. (Don’t like it.)
- ‘*Aunty ko kis karenge to manjan karna padega*’. (Will have to brush teeth if we kiss aunty.)

1. Can you help Mr Ahuja arrive at a decision?

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2.8.1 Content Analysis

This technique involves studying a previously recorded or reported communication and systematically and objectively breaking it up into more manageable units that are related to the topic under study. It is peculiar in its nature that it is classified as a primary data collection technique and yet makes use of previously produced or secondary data. However, since the analysis is original, first hand and problem specific, it is categorized under primary methods. Some researchers classify it under observation methods, the reason being that in this, one is also analysing the communication in order to measure or infer about variables. The only difference being that one analyses communication that is ex-post facto rather than live. One can content-analyse letters, diaries, minutes of meetings, articles, audio and video recordings. The method is structured and systematic and thus of considerable credibility.

The first step involves defining U, or the *universe of content*. For example, in the case of Ritu, who wants to know what makes the young Indian tick, she could make use of the blogs written by youngsters, essays and reality shows featuring the age group. She decides that she wants to assess value systems, attitudes towards others/elders, clarity of life goal and peer influences. This step is extremely critical as this indicates the assumptions or hypotheses the researcher might have formulated.

This universe can be reported in any of five different formats (Berelson, 1954). The smallest reported unit could be a *word*. This is especially useful as it can be easily subjected to a computer analysis. In Ritu’s case, the values that she wants to evaluate are individualistic or collectivistic, aggressive or compliant. Thus, she can sift the communication and place words such as ‘I’ or ‘we’ under the respective heads. Words like ‘hate’ ‘dislike’ go under aggression and ‘alright’ ‘fine’ ‘maybe not so good’ for complacency. Then counts and frequencies are calculated to arrive at certain conclusions.

The next level is a *theme*. This is very useful but, a little difficult to quantify as this involves reporting the propositions and sentences or events as representing a theme.

NOTES

For example, disrespect towards elders is the theme and one picks out the following as a representative: a young teen's blog which says *my old man (father) has gone senile and needs to be sent to the looney bin for expecting me to become a space scientist, just because he could not become one.....*

This categorization becomes more complex as the element of observer's bias comes into play. Thus, this kind of analysis could be extremely useful when carried out by an expert. However, in the case of an untrained analyst, the reliability and validity of the findings would be questionable.

The other units are *characters* and *space and time measures*. The character refers to the person producing the communication, for example the young teenager writing the blog. Space and time are more related to the physical format, i.e., the number of pages used, the length of the communication and the duration of the communication.

The last unit is the *item*, which is more Gestaltian in nature and refers to categorizing the entire communication as say 'responsible and respectful' or 'aggressive and amoral'. As in the case of theme, this categorization is equally complex as the observer's bias is likely to be high. Thus, to ensure the reliability of the findings, one may ask another coder to evaluate the same data. Cohen (1960) states the measuring of the percentage of agreement between the two analyses by the following formula:

$$K = \frac{\text{Pr}(a) - \text{Pr}(e)}{1 - \text{Pr}(e)}$$

Here, Pr(a) is the relative observed agreement between the two raters. Pr(e) is the probability that this is due to chance. If the two raters are in complete agreement, then Kappa is 1. If there is no agreement, then Kappa = 0, 0.21–0.40 is fair, 0.41–0.80 is good and 0.81–1.00 is considered excellent.

Content analysis of large volumes becomes tedious and prone to error if handled by humans. Thus, there are various computer programmes available that can assist in the process. For computers running on Windows, one can use TEXTPACK, this is a dictionary word approach, where it can tag defined words for word frequency by sorting them alphabetically or by frequencies. Open-ended questions can be sorted by a programme called Verbastat (generally used by corporate users) or Statpac, which has an automatic coding module and is of considerable use to individual researchers.

Content analysis is a very useful technique when one has a large quantity of text as data and it needs to be structured in order to arrive at some definite conclusions about the variables under study. Computer assistance has greatly aided in the active usage of the technique. However, it can appear too simplistic, when one reduces the whole data to counts or frequencies.

2.9 SUMMARY

- Observations have led to some of the most important scientific discoveries in human history. Charles Darwin used his observations of animal and marine life at the Galapagos Islands to help him formulate his theory of evolution which he described in *On the Origin of Species*.
- Observation may be defined as 'a process in which one or more persons monitor some real-life situation and record pertinent occurrences'.

- In the process of ‘participant observation’, the observer becomes more or less one of the group members and may actually participate in some activity or the other of the group.
- All observations consist of 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.
- Observation is a costly affair. It involves lot of expenses on travelling, staying at the places where the event is taking place and purchase of sophisticated equipment.
- A questionnaire is ‘a tool for research, comprising a list of questions whose answers provide information about the target group, individual or event’.
- Questionnaire that calls for short, check-mark responses are known as closed form type or restricted type. They have highly structured answers like mark a ‘yes’ or ‘no’, write a short response or check an item from a list of suggested responses.
- The open form or unrestricted questionnaire requires the respondent to answer the question in their own words.
- The three stages theory (also known as the sandwich theory) should be applied when sequencing questions. The order to be followed should be first, screening and rapport questions; second, the product specific questions; and third, demographic questions.
- Whoever administers the questionnaire, be it research staff, volunteers or whether self-administered by the respondents, it should have clear, detailed instructions.
- The respondents of a questionnaire may belong to a selected group. Therefore, the conclusions lack the kind of objectivity and representativeness essential for its validity.
- A schedule is a questionnaire containing a set of questions that are required to be answered to collect data about a particular item. A schedule is generally used in a face-to-face situation.
- Observation schedule is used to observe all the activities and record the responses of the respondents under some predefined conditions. The main idea behind examining the activities is to verify the required information.
- Data collection through a questionnaire is cheaper as compared to a schedule, as money is spent only in preparing the schedules and mailing them. In the schedule method, extra money is spent on appointing interviewers and imparting training to them.
- One of the main methods of data collection is conducting interviews. It takes place as a two-way conversation between the researcher and the respondent, whereby information is gathered by asking topic related questions.
- A proper setting for group interviews requires a group of not more than 10 to 12 persons with some social, intellectual, and educational homogeneity, which ensures effective participation by all.
- There are two chief means of recording opinion during the interview. If the question is preceded, the interviewer need only check a box or circle or code, or otherwise indicate which code comes closest to the respondent’s opinion. If the question is not preceded, the interviewer is expected to record the response verbatim.

NOTES

NOTES

- A proper setting for group interviews requires a group of not more than 10 to 12 persons with some social, intellectual, and educational homogeneity, which ensures effective participation by all.
- Research interview is aimed at getting information required by the investigator to test his hypothesis or solve his problems of historical, experimental, survey or clinical type.
- Perhaps the most difficult part of the job of an interviewer is to obtain a specific, complete response. People can often be evasive and answer 'do not know' if they do not want to make the effort of thinking. They can also misunderstand the question and answer incorrectly in which case the interviewer would have to probe more deeply.
- A well-trained interviewer can obtain more data and greater clarity by altering the interview situation. This cannot be done in a questionnaire.
- An interview permits the research worker to follow-up leads as contrasted with the questionnaire.
- The idea of projecting oneself or one's feelings on to ambiguous objects is the basic assumption in projective techniques. The 19th century saw the origin of these techniques in clinical and developmental psychology.
- Ernest Dichter (1960) was one of the pioneers who used these techniques in consumer and motivational research. Consumer surveys and research were considered incomplete if they did not make use of projective techniques.
- In the theoretical sense, projective techniques unearth beliefs, attitudes and feelings that might underlie certain behaviour or interaction situations.
- Cartoon tests make use of animated characters in a particular situation (Masling, 1952). They are considered ambiguous as the figures bear no resemblance to a living being and thus are considered non-threatening.
- Case studies are discussions of individual cases under topics of discussion which help researchers to corroborate known facts proved previously through research.
- Researchers using case study method generally gather a large amount of data from a number of sources. Organizing this data in a systematic manner is a challenge in itself. The researcher should plan ahead to prevent getting overwhelmed by this data.
- An exemplary case study report transforms the manner in which a complex issue is presented. Case study reports are often published so that readers may apply the experience in his or her real-life situations. The case studies mostly display evidences to gain the reader's confidence.
- Content analysis involves studying a previously recorded or reported communication and systematically and objectively breaking it up into more manageable units that are related to the topic under study.
- Content analysis of large volumes becomes tedious and prone to error if handled by humans. Thus, there are various computer programmes available that can assist in the process. For computers running on Windows, one can use TEXTPACK, this is a dictionary word approach, where it can tag defined words for word frequency by sorting them alphabetically or by frequencies.

- Content analysis is a very useful technique when one has a large quantity of text as data and it needs to be structured in order to arrive at some definite conclusions about the variables under study.

2.10 KEY TERMS

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- **Observation:** It may be defined as a process in which one or more persons monitor some real-life situation and record pertinent occurrences.
- **Questionnaire:** It is a tool for research, comprising a list of questions whose answers provide information about the target group, individual or event.
- **Schedule:** It is a questionnaire containing a set of questions that are required to be answered to collect data about a particular item; it is generally used in a face-to-face situation.
- **Case studies:** They are discussions of individual cases under topics of discussion which help researchers to corroborate known facts proved previously through research.

2.11 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. Observation may be defined as ‘a process in which one or more persons monitor some real-life situation and record pertinent occurrences’.
2. All observations consist of 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.
3. The disadvantages of observation are as follows:
 - It is very difficult to establish the validity of observations.
 - Many items of observation cannot be defined.
4. A questionnaire is ‘a tool for research, comprising a list of questions whose answers provide information about the target group, individual or event’.
5. Limitations of open questionnaire are as follows:
 - They are difficult to fill out.
 - The respondents may never be aware of all the possible answers.
 - They take longer to fill.
6. The three stages theory (also known as the sandwich theory) should be applied when sequencing questions. The order to be followed should be first, screening and rapport questions; second, the product specific questions; and third, demographic questions.
7. The limitations of the questionnaire method is:
 - **Limited response:** As noted earlier, this method cannot be used with illiterate or semi-illiterate groups. The number of persons who cooperate and respond to the questionnaire is very small.
 - **Lack of personal contact:** There is very little scope of personal contact in this method. In the absence of personal contact, very little can be done to persuade the respondents to fill up the questionnaire.

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8. A schedule is a questionnaire containing a set of questions that are required to be answered to collect data about a particular item. A schedule is generally used in a face-to-face situation.
9. The interview schedule is used to ask the interviewee questions and record the responses in the space provided in the questionnaire itself.
10. According to Rummel J. Francis: 'The interview method of collecting data requires the actual physical proximity of two or more persons, and generally requires that all the normal channels of communication be open to their use. It is necessary to see one another, to hear each other's voices, to understand one another's language, and to use all that is psychologically inherent in physical proximity. It usually entails a non-reciprocal relation between the individuals concerned. One party desires to get information from another—one party interviews the other—for a particular purpose.'
11. Research interview is aimed at getting information required by the investigator to test his hypothesis or solve his problems of historical, experimental, survey or clinical type.
12. A tape recorder is very helpful in an interview because:
 - It reduces the tendency of the interviewer to make an unconscious selection of data favouring his/her biases.
 - The tape recorded data can be played more than once, and thus it permits a thorough study of the data.
13. The 19th century saw the origin of these techniques in clinical and developmental psychology.
14. Cartoon tests make use of animated characters in a particular situation (Masling, 1952). They are considered ambiguous as the figures bear no resemblance to a living being and thus are considered non-threatening.
15. Case studies are discussions of individual cases under topics of discussion which help researchers to corroborate known facts proved previously through research.
16. Critics feel that the case study method is not reliable enough for establishing a rule or principle as it portrays only a minuscule population which forms not even a part of the entire population.
17. Content analysis involves studying a previously recorded or reported communication and systematically and objectively breaking it up into more manageable units that are related to the topic under study.

2.12 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Differentiate between participant and non-participant observation.
2. What are the recording techniques of observation?
3. Enumerate the advantages of the observation method of data collection.
4. What are the types of questionnaires?
5. List the questions that should be avoided during the preparation of a questionnaire.

6. State the importance of the questionnaire method of data collection.
7. What are the characteristics of a good schedule?
8. What are the major differences between a schedule and a questionnaire?
9. What is the interview method of data collection? What are its types?
10. How is the attitude of a respondent significant for a researcher during an interview?
11. What are projective techniques? How is it different from the other methods of data collection?
12. Write a note on the evaluation of projective techniques.
13. How do case studies help the common man?
14. What is the content analysis technique of data collection?

NOTES

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain observation schedule as a tool of data collection.
2. Discuss the concept of questionnaire as a method of data collection.
3. Assess schedule as a method of data collection. Also, assess the difference between a schedule and a questionnaire.
4. List the merits and limitations of the schedule method of data collection.
5. Critically analyse how conducting interviews are an important source of data collection.
6. 'The idea of projecting oneself or one's feelings on to ambiguous objects is the basic assumption in projective techniques.' Explain projective method as a tool of data collection.
7. How are case studies an important source of data collection? What are the steps that should be used when utilizing the case study method?
8. Describe content analysis as a technique of data collection.

2.13 FURTHER READING

- Chawla, D. and N. Sondhi. 2011. *Research Methodology*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.
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UNIT 3 ANALYSIS AND USE OF STATISTICS

NOTES

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Unit Objectives
- 3.2 Mean
- 3.3 Median
- 3.4 Mode
 - 3.4.1 Quartiles, Deciles and Percentiles
 - 3.4.2 Measures of Dispersion
 - 3.4.3 Standard Deviation
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 Key Terms
- 3.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 3.8 Questions and Exercises
- 3.9 Further Reading

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The unit will begin with a discussion on data processing. The processing of data involves analysis and manipulation of the collected data by performing various functions. The data has to be processed in accordance with the outline laid down at the time of developing the research plan. Processing of data is essential for ensuring that all relevant data has been collected for performing comparisons and analyses. Editing of data involves the testing of data collection instruments in order to ensure maximum accuracy. Coding of data can be defined as representing the data symbolically using some predefined rules. You will also learn about the classification of data. Classification of data involves arrangement of data in groups or classes on the basis of some common characteristics. The methods of classification can be divided under the two headings: classification according to attributes and classification according to class intervals. Further, you will learn about the tabulation of data. In simple terms, tabulation means placing the data collected and results from research in a tabular form. Tabulation can be done by hand or mechanically using various electronic devices. Several factors like the size and type of study, cost considerations, time pressures and availability of tabulating machines decide the choice of tabulation. You will also learn about the analysis of data. Analysis of data is the process of transforming data for the purpose of extracting useful information,

Self-Instructional

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which in turn facilitates the discovery of some useful conclusions. Finding conclusions from the analysed data is known as interpretation of data. However, if the analysis is done, in the case of experimental data or survey, then the value of the unknown parameters of the population and hypothesis testing is estimated. Moreover, you will learn about the statistical; tools for data analysis. There are certain basic statistical methods which can be classified into three groups: descriptive statistics, inferential statistics and measures of central tendency and dispersion. The unit will also discuss the measures of central tendency and dispersion.

3.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the tools tables, graphs and diagrams
 - Assess the use of statistics including mean, median, mode and standard deviation
-

USE OF STATISTICS

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In the preceding section, you learnt the techniques of data collection, summarizing and condensing data into various tables, diagrams and charts. Now, let us discuss arithmetic procedures that can be used for analysing and interpreting quantitative data. These measures and procedures relate to some properties and characteristics of data which include measures of central location of data, other measures of non-central location, measures of dispersion of data in itself and around the mean and the shape of the data.

3.2 Mean

This section pertains to arithmetic mean.

Arithmetic Mean

There are several commonly used measures such as arithmetic mean, mode and median. These values are very useful not only in presenting the overall picture of the entire data but also for the purpose of making comparisons among two or more sets of data.

As an example, questions like ‘How hot is the month of June in Delhi?’ can be answered generally by a single figure of the average for that month. Similarly, suppose we want to find out if boys and girls of age 10 years differ in height for the purpose of making comparisons. Then, by taking the average height of boys of that age and the average height of girls of the same age, we can compare and record the differences.

While arithmetic mean is the most commonly used measure of central tendency, mode and median are more suitable measures under certain set of conditions and for certain types of data. However, each measure of central tendency should meet the following requisites.

- It should be easy to calculate and understand.
- It should be rigidly defined. It should have only one interpretation so that the personal prejudice or the bias of the investigator does not affect its usefulness.
- It should be representative of the data. If it is calculated from a sample, the sample should be random enough to be accurately representing the population.
- It should have a sampling stability. It should not be affected by sampling fluctuations. This means that if we pick ten different groups of college students at random and compute the average of each group, then we should expect to get approximately the same value from each of these groups.
- It should not be affected much by extreme values. If few, very small or very large items are present in the data, they will unduly influence the value of the average by shifting it to one side or other, so that the average would not be really typical of the entire series. Hence, the average chosen should be such that it is not unduly affected by such extreme values.

Arithmetic mean is also commonly known as the mean. Even though average, in general, means measure of central tendency, when we use the word average in our daily routine, we always mean the arithmetic average. The term is widely used by almost everyone in daily communication. We speak of an individual being an average student or of average intelligence. We always talk about average family size or average family income or grade point average (GPA) for students, and so on.

For discussion purposes, let us assume a variable X which stands for some scores such as the ages of students. Let the ages of 5 students be 19, 20, 22, 22 and 17 years. Then variable X would represent these ages as follows:

$$X: 19, 20, 22, 22, 17$$

Placing the Greek symbol Σ (Sigma) before X would indicate a command that all values of X are to be added together. Thus:

$$\Sigma X = 19 + 20 + 22 + 22 + 17$$

The mean is computed by adding all the data values and dividing it by the number of such values. The symbol used for sample average is \bar{X} so that:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{19 + 20 + 22 + 22 + 17}{5}$$

In general, if there are n values in the sample, then

$$\bar{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

In other words,

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n}, \quad i = 1, 2 \dots n$$

According to this formula, the mean can be obtained by adding up all values of X_i , where the value of i starts at 1 and ends at n with unit increments so that $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots n$.

If instead of taking a sample, we take the entire population in our calculations of the mean, then the symbol for the mean of the population is μ and the size of the population is N , so that:

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N X_i}{N}, \quad i = 1, 2 \dots N$$

If we have the data in grouped discrete form with frequencies, then the sample mean is given by:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma f(X)}{\Sigma f}$$

Here, Σf = Summation of all frequencies
= n

$\Sigma f(X)$ = Summation of each value of X multiplied by its corresponding frequency (f)

Example 6.5: Let us take the ages of 10 students as follows:

19, 20, 22, 22, 17, 22, 20, 23, 17, 18

Solution: This data can be arranged in a frequency distribution as follows:

(X)	(f)	f(X)
17	2	34
18	1	18
19	1	19
20	2	40
22	3	66
23	1	23
Total = 10		200

NOTES

In this case, we have $\sum f = 10$ and $\sum f(X) = 200$, so that:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{X} &= \frac{\sum f(X)}{\sum f} \\ &= 200/10 = 20 \end{aligned}$$

NOTES

Example 6.6: Calculate the mean of the marks of 46 students given in the following table.

Frequency of Marks of 46 Students

Marks (X)	Frequency (f)
9	1
10	2
11	3
12	6
13	10
14	11
15	7
16	3
17	2
18	1
Total	46

Solution: This is a discrete frequency distribution, and is calculated using the equation

$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum f(x)}{\sum f}$. The following table shows the method of obtaining $\sum f(X)$.

Marks (X)	Frequency (f)	f(X)
9	1	9
10	2	20
11	3	33
12	6	72
13	10	130
14	11	154
15	7	105
16	3	48
17	2	34
18	1	18
	$\sum f = 46$	$\sum f(X) = 623$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum f(X)}{\sum f} = \frac{623}{46} = 13.54$$

Characteristics of the mean

The arithmetic mean has three interesting properties. These are as follows:

- (i) The sum of the deviations of individual values of X from the mean will always add up to zero. This means that if we subtract all the individual values from their mean, then some values will be negative and some will be positive, but if all these differences are added together then the total sum will be zero. In other words, the positive deviations must balance the negative deviations. Or symbolically:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}) = 0, i = 1, 2, \dots n$$

- (ii) The second important characteristic of the mean is that it is very sensitive to extreme values. Since the computation of the mean is based upon inclusion of all values in the data, an extreme value in the data would shift the mean towards it, thus making the mean unrepresentative of the data.
- (iii) The third property of the mean is that the sum of squares of the deviations about the mean is minimum. This means that if we take differences between individual values and the mean and square these differences individually and then add these squared differences, then the final figure will be less than the sum of the squared deviations around any other number other than the mean. Symbolically, it means that:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 = \text{Minimum, } i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

The following examples will make the concept clear about properties of mean.

- (iv) The product of the arithmetic mean and the number of values on which the mean is based is equal to the sum of all given values. In other words, if we replace each item in series by the mean, then the sum of these substitutions will equal the sum of individual items. Thus, in the figures 3, 5, 7, 9, if we substitute the mean for each item 6, 6, 6, 6 then the total is 24, both in the original series and in the substitution series.

This can be shown like this.

Since,
$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

∴
$$N\bar{X} = \sum X$$

For example, if we have a series of values 3, 5, 7, 9, the mean is 6. The squared deviations are:

X	$X - \bar{X} = X'$	X'^2
3	$3 - 6 = -3$	9
5	$5 - 6 = -1$	1
7	$7 - 6 = 1$	1
9	$9 - 6 = 3$	9
		$\sum X'^2 = 20$

This property provides a test to check if the computed value is the correct arithmetic mean.

Example 6.7: The mean age of a group of 100 persons (grouped in intervals 10–, 12–, ..., etc.) was found to be 32.02. Later, it was discovered that age 57 was misread as 27. Find the corrected mean.

Solution: Let the mean be denoted by \bar{X} . So, putting the given values in the formula of arithmetic mean, we have,

$$32.02 = \frac{\sum X}{100}, \text{ i.e., } \sum X = 3202$$

Correct
$$\sum X = 3202 - 27 + 57 = 3232$$

∴ Correct AM =
$$\frac{3232}{100} = 32.32$$

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Example 6.8: The mean monthly salary paid to all employees in a company is ₹500. The monthly salaries paid to male and female employees average ₹520 and ₹420, respectively. Determine the percentage of males and females employed by the company.

Solution: Let N_1 be the number of males and N_2 be the number of females employed by the company. Also, let x_1 and x_2 be the monthly average salaries paid to male and female employees and \bar{x} be the mean monthly salary paid to all the employees.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{N_1 x_1 + N_2 x_2}{N_1 + N_2}$$

or $500 = \frac{520N_1 + 420N_2}{N_1 + N_2}$ or $20N_1 = 80N_2$

or $\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{80}{20} = \frac{4}{1}$

Hence, the males and females are in the ratio of 4 : 1 or 80 per cent are males and 20 per cent are females in those employed by the company.

Short-cut methods for calculating mean

We can simplify the calculations of mean by noticing that if we subtract a constant amount A from each item X to define a new variable $X' = X - A$, the mean \bar{X}' of X' differs from \bar{X} by A . This generally simplifies the calculations and we can then add back the constant A , termed as the *assumed mean*:

$$\bar{X} = A + \bar{X}' = A + \frac{\sum f(X')}{\sum f}$$

Table 6.6 illustrates the procedure of calculation by short-cut method using the data given in Example 6.8. The choice of A is made in such a manner as to simplify calculation the most, and is generally in the region of the concentration of data.

Table 6.6 Short-Cut Method of Calculating Mean

X	(f)	Deviation from Assumed Mean (13) X'	$f(X')$
9	1	-4	-4
10	2	-3	-6
11	3	-2	-6
12	6	-1	-6
13	10	0	-22
14	11	+1	+11
15	7	+2	+14
16	3	+3	+9
17	2	+4	+8
18	1	+5	+5
			+47
			-22
	$\sum f = 46$		$\sum fX' = 25$

The mean,

$$\bar{X} = A + \frac{\sum f(X')}{\sum f} = 13 + \frac{25}{46} = 13.54$$

This mean is same as calculated in Example 6.9.

In the case of grouped frequency data, the variable X is replaced by midvalue m , and in the short-cut technique; we subtract a constant value A from each m , so that the formula becomes:

$$\bar{X} = A + \frac{\sum f(m - A)}{\sum f}$$

In cases where the *class intervals are equal*, we may further simplify calculation by taking the factor i from the variable $m - A$ defining,

$$X' = \frac{m - A}{i}$$

where i is the class width. It can be verified that when X' is defined, then, the mean of the distribution is given by:

$$\bar{X} = A + \frac{\sum f(X')}{\sum f} \times i$$

The following examples will illustrate the use of the short-cut method.

Example 6.9: The ages of twenty husbands and wives are given in the following table. Form frequency tables showing the relationship between the ages of husbands and wives with class intervals 20–24; 25–29; etc.

Calculate the arithmetic mean of the two groups after the classification.

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Age of Husband</i>	<i>Age of Wife</i>
1	28	23
2	37	30
3	42	40
4	25	26
5	29	25
6	47	41
7	37	35
8	35	25
9	23	21
10	41	38
11	27	24
12	39	34
13	23	20
14	33	31
15	36	29
16	32	35
17	22	23
18	29	27
19	38	34
20	48	47

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Solution:

Calculation of Arithmetic Mean of Husbands' Age

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Class Intervals	Midvalues <i>m</i>	Husband Frequency (<i>f</i> ₁)	$x_1' = \frac{m - 37}{5}$	<i>f</i> ₁ <i>x</i> ' ₁
20–24	22	3	–3	–9
25–29	27	5	–2	–10
30–34	32	2	–1	–2
				– 21
35–39	37	6	0	0
40–44	42	2	1	2
45–49	47	2	2	4
				6
$\Sigma f_1 = 20$				$\Sigma f_1 x_1' = -15$

Husband age, arithmetic mean:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\Sigma f_1 x_1'}{N} \times i + A = \frac{-15}{20} \times 5 + 37 = 33.25$$

Calculation of Arithmetic Mean of Wives' Age

Class Intervals	Midvalues <i>m</i>	Wife Frequency (<i>f</i> ₂)	$x_2' = \frac{m - 37}{5}$	<i>f</i> ₂ <i>x</i> ' ₂
20–24	22	5	–3	–15
25–29	27	5	–2	–10
30–34	32	4	–1	–4
35–39	37	3	0	0
40–44	42	2	1	2
45–49	47	1	2	2
				$\Sigma f_2 x_2' = -25$
$\Sigma f_2 = 20$				

Wife age, arithmetic mean:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\Sigma f_2 x_2'}{N} \times i + A = \frac{-25}{20} \times 5 + 37 = 30.75$$

Weighted arithmetic mean

In the computation of arithmetic mean we had given equal importance to each observation in the series. This equal importance may be misleading if the individual values constituting the series have different importance as in the following example:

The Raja Toy shop sells

- Toy cars at ₹3 each
- Toy locomotives at ₹5 each
- Toy aeroplanes at ₹7 each
- Toy double decker at ₹9 each

What shall be the average price of the toys sold, if the shop sells 4 toys, one of each kind?

$$\text{Mean price, i.e., } \bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{4} = \text{Rs } \frac{24}{4} = \text{₹}$$

In this case, the importance of each observation (price quotation) is equal in as much as one toy of each variety has been sold. In the above computation of the arithmetic mean, this fact has been taken care of by including ‘once only’ the price of each toy.

But if the shop sells 100 toys: 50 cars, 25 locomotives, 15 aeroplanes and 10 double deckers, the importance of the four price quotations to the dealer is **not equal** as a source of earning revenue. In fact, their respective importance is equal to the number of units of each toy sold, i.e.,

The importance of toy car	50
The importance of locomotive	25
The importance of aeroplane	15
The importance of double decker	10

It may be noted that 50, 25, 15, 10 are the quantities of the various classes of toys sold. It is for these quantities that the term ‘weights’ is used in statistical language. Weight is represented by symbol ‘w’, and $\sum w$ represents the sum of weights.

While determining the ‘average price of toy sold’, these weights are of great importance and are taken into account in the manner illustrated as follows:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + w_4x_4}{w_1 + w_2 + w_3 + w_4} = \frac{\sum wx}{\sum w}$$

When w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4 are the respective weights of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 which in turn represent the price of four varieties of toys, viz., car, locomotive, aeroplane and double decker, respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{(50 \times 3) + (25 \times 5) + (15 \times 7) + (10 \times 9)}{50 + 25 + 15 + 10} \\ &= \frac{(150) + (125) + (105) + (90)}{100} = \frac{470}{100} = \text{₹}4.70 \end{aligned}$$

The table below summarizes the steps taken in the computation of the weighted arithmetic mean.

Table 6.7 Weighted Arithmetic Mean of Toys Sold by the Raja Toy Shop

Toys	Price per Toy ₹x	Number Sold w	Price × Weight xw
Car	3	50	150
Locomotive	5	25	125
Aeroplane	7	15	105
Double Decker	9	10	90
		$\sum w = 100$	$\sum xw = 470$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum w &= 100; \quad \sum wx = 470 \\ \bar{x} &= \frac{\sum wx}{\sum w} = \frac{470}{100} = 4.70 \end{aligned}$$

The weighted arithmetic mean is particularly useful where we have to compute the *mean of means*. If we are given two arithmetic means, one for each of two different

NOTES

NOTES

series, in respect of the *same variable*, and are required to find the arithmetic mean of the combined series, the weighted arithmetic mean is the only suitable method of its determination.

Example 6.10: The arithmetic mean of daily wages of two manufacturing concerns A Ltd. and B Ltd. is ₹5 and ₹7, respectively. Determine the average daily wages of both concerns if the number of workers employed were 2,000 and 4,000 respectively.

Solution: (i) Multiply each average (viz. 5 and 7), by the number of workers in the concern it represents.

(ii) Add up the two products obtained in (i) above.

(iii) Divide the total obtained in (ii) by the total number of workers.

Weighted Mean of Mean Wages of A Ltd. and B Ltd.

<i>Manufacturing Concern</i>	<i>Mean Wages x</i>	<i>Workers Employed w</i>	<i>Mean Wages × Workers Employed wx</i>
A Ltd.	5	2,000	10,000
B Ltd.	7	4,000	28,000
		∑ w = 6,000	∑ wx = 38,000

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x} &= \frac{wx}{w} \\ &= \frac{38,000}{6,000} \\ &= ₹6.33\end{aligned}$$

The above mentioned examples explain that ‘Arithmetic Means and Percentage’ are not original data. They are derived figures and their importance is relative to the original data from which they are obtained. This relative importance must be taken into account by weighting while averaging them (means and percentage).

Advantages of mean

- Its concept is familiar to most people and is intuitively clear.
- Every data set has a mean, which is unique and describes the entire data to some degree. For example, when we say that the average salary of a professor is ₹25,000 per month, it gives us a reasonable idea about the salaries of professors.
- It is a measure that can be easily calculated.
- It includes all values of the data set in its calculation.
- Its value varies very little from sample to sample taken from the same population.
- It is useful for performing statistical procedures such as computing and comparing the means of several data sets.

Disadvantages of mean

- It is affected by extreme values, and hence, are not very reliable when the data set has extreme values especially when these extreme values are on one side of the ordered data. Thus, a mean of such data is not truly a representative of such data. For example, the average age of three persons of ages 4, 6 and 80 years gives us an average of 30.

- It is tedious to compute for a large data set as every point in the data set is to be used in computations.
- We are unable to compute the mean for a data set that has open-ended classes either at the high or at the low end of the scale.
- The mean cannot be calculated for qualitative characteristics such as beauty or intelligence, unless these can be converted into quantitative figures such as intelligence into IQs.

NOTES

Geometric mean

The geometric mean (G) is the n th root of the product of n values.

$$G = \sqrt[n]{x_1 \times x_2 \times \dots \times x_n}$$

The G.M. of 2, 4, 8 is the cube root of their product.

$$G = \sqrt[3]{2 \times 4 \times 8} = \sqrt[3]{64} = 4$$

If the frequencies of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k are respectively f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k ($\sum f = n$)

$$G = \sqrt[n]{x_1^{f_1} \times x_2^{f_2} \times \dots \times x_k^{f_k}}$$

Logarithms may be used in the calculation of G.M.

$$\text{Log } G = \frac{1}{n} [f_1 \log x_1 + f_2 \log x_2 + \dots + f_k \log x_k] = \frac{\sum f \log x}{n}$$

$$G = \text{Antilog } \frac{\sum f \log x}{n}$$

If there are no frequencies, $G = (x_1 x_2 \dots x_n)^{\frac{1}{n}}$ and $\log G = \frac{1}{n} \sum \log x$

Merits and uses of geometric mean

Most of the properties and merits of G.M. resemble those of A.M.

- The GM takes into account all the items in the data and condenses them into one representative value.
- It has a downward bias. It gives more weight to smaller values than to larger values.
- It is determinate. For the same data there cannot be two geometric means.
- It balances the ratios of the values on either side of the data. It is ideally suited to average rates of change such as index numbers and ratios between measures and percentages.
- It is amenable to algebraic manipulations like the A.M.

Demerits of geometric mean

- It is difficult to use and to compute.
- It is determined for positive values and cannot be used for negative values of zero. A zero will convert the whole product into zero.

NOTES

3.3 Median

The second measure of central tendency that has a wide usage in statistical works is the median. Median is that *value* of a variable which divides the series in such a manner that the number of items below it is equal to the number of items above it. Half the total number of observations lie below the median, and half above it. The median is thus a positional average.

The median of ungrouped data is found easily if the items are first arranged in order of the magnitude. The median may then be located simply by counting, and its value can be obtained by reading the value of the middle observations. If we have five observations whose values are 8, 10, 1, 3 and 5, the values are first arrayed: 1, 3, 5, 8 and 10. It is now apparent that the value of the median is 5, since two observations are below that value and two observations are above it. When there is an even number of cases, there is no actual middle item and the median is taken to be the average of the values of the items lying on either side of $(N + 1)/2$, where N is the total number of items. Thus, if the values of six items of a series are 1, 2, 3, 5, 8 and 10, then the median is the value of item number $(6 + 1)/2 = 3.5$, which is approximated as the average of the third and the fourth items, i.e., $(3+5)/2 = 4$.

Thus, the steps required for obtaining median are:

1. Arrange the data as an array of increasing magnitude.
2. Obtain the value of the $(N + 1)/2$ th item.

Even in the case of grouped data, the procedure for obtaining median is straightforward as long as the variable is discrete or non-continuous as is clear from the following example.

Example 6.11: Obtain the median size of shoes sold from the following data.

Number of Shoes Sold by Size in One Year

<i>Size</i>	<i>Number of Pairs</i>	<i>Cumulative Total</i>
5	30	30
$5\frac{1}{2}$	40	70
6	50	120
$6\frac{1}{2}$	150	270
7	300	570
$7\frac{1}{2}$	600	1170
8	950	2120
$8\frac{1}{2}$	820	2940
9	750	3690
$9\frac{1}{2}$	440	4130
10	250	4380
$10\frac{1}{2}$	150	4530
11	40	4570
$11\frac{1}{2}$	39	4609
Total		4609

Solution: Median, is the value of $\frac{(N + 1)}{2}$ th = $\frac{4609 + 1}{2}$ th = 2305th item. Since the items are already arranged in ascending order (size-wise), the size of 2305th item is easily determined by constructing the cumulative frequency. Thus, the median size of shoes sold is $8\frac{1}{2}$, the size of 2305th item.

In the case of grouped data with continuous variable, the determination of median is a bit more involved. Consider the following table where the data relating to the distribution of male workers by average monthly earnings is given. Clearly the median of 6291 is the earnings of $(6291 + 1)/2 = 3146$ th worker arranged in ascending order of earnings.

From the cumulative frequency, it is clear that this worker has his income in the class interval 67.5–72.5. But, it is impossible to determine his exact income. We therefore, resort to approximation by assuming that the 795 workers of this class are distributed *uniformly* across the interval 67.5 to 72.5. The median worker is $(3146 - 2713) = 433$ rd of these 795, and hence, the value corresponding to him can be approximated as,

$$67.5 + \frac{433}{795} \times (72.5 - 67.5) = 67.5 + 2.73 = 70.23$$

Distribution of Male Workers by Average Monthly Earnings

Group No.	Monthly Earnings (₹)	No. of Workers	Cumulative No. of Workers
1	27.5–32.5	120	120
2	32.5–37.5	152	272
3	37.5–42.5	170	442
4	42.5–47.5	214	656
5	47.5–52.5	410	1066
6	52.5–57.5	429	1495
7	57.5–62.5	568	2063
8	62.5–67.5	650	2713
9	67.5–72.5	795	3508
10	72.5–77.5	915	4423
11	77.5–82.5	745	5168
12	82.5–87.5	530	5698
13	87.5–92.5	259	5957
14	92.5–97.5	152	6109
15	97.5–102.5	107	6216
16	102.5–107.5	50	6266
17	107.5–112.5	25	6291
Total			6291

The value of the median can thus be put in the form of the formula,

$$Me = l + \frac{\frac{N+1}{2} - C}{f} \times i$$

Where l is the lower limit of the median class, i its width, f its frequency, C the cumulative frequency upto (but not including) the median class, and N is the total number of cases.

NOTES

Finding median by graphical analysis

The median can quite conveniently be determined by reference to the ogive which plots the cumulative frequency against the variable. The value of the item below which half the items lie, can easily be read from the ogive.

NOTES

Example 6.12: Obtain the median of data given in the following table.

Monthly Earnings	Frequency	Less Than	More Than
27.5		0	6291
32.5	120	120	6171
37.5	152	272	6019
42.5	170	442	5849
47.5	214	656	5635
52.5	410	1066	5225
57.5	429	1495	4796
62.5	568	2063	4228
67.5	650	2713	3578
72.5	795	3508	2783
77.5	915	4423	1868
82.5	745	5168	1123
87.5	530	5698	593
92.5	259	5957	334
97.5	152	6109	182
102.5	107	6216	75
107.5	50	6266	25
112.5	25	6291	0

Solution: It is clear that this is grouped data. The first class is 27.5–32.5, whose frequency is 120, and the last class is 107.5–112.5, whose frequency is 25. Figure 6.7 shows the ogive of less than cumulative frequency. The median is the value below which $N/2$ items lie, is $6291/2 = 3145.5$ items lie, which is read of from Figure 6.8 as about 70. More accuracy than this is unobtainable because of the space limitation on the earning scale.

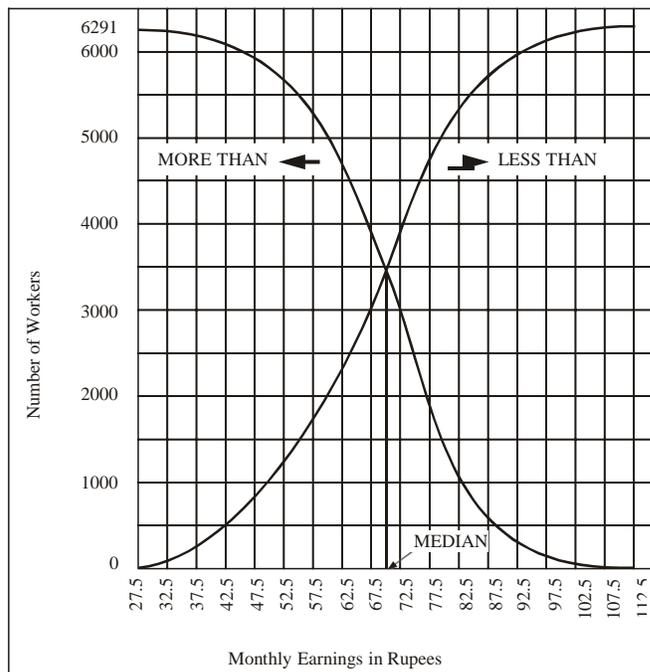


Fig. 6.7 Median Determination by Plotting Less than and More than Cumulative Frequency

The median can also be determined by plotting both ‘less than’ and ‘more than’ cumulative frequency as shown in Figure 6.7. It should be obvious that the two curves should intersect at the median of the data.

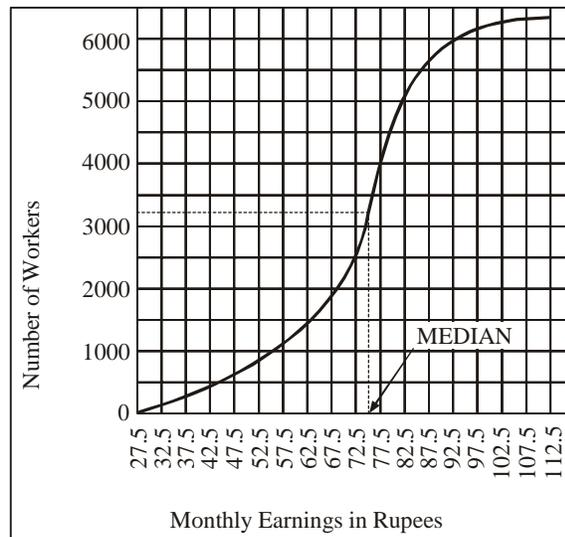


Fig. 6.8 Median

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Advantages of median

- Median is a positional average and hence the extreme values in the data set do not affect it as much as they do to the mean.
- Median is easy to understand and can be calculated from any kind of data, even from grouped data with open-ended classes.
- We can find the median even when our data set is qualitative and can be arranged in the ascending or the descending order, such as average beauty or average intelligence.
- Similar to mean, median is also unique, meaning that, there is only one median in a given set of data.
- Median can be located visually when the data is in the form of ordered data.
- The sum of absolute differences of all values in the data set from the median value is minimum. This means that, it is less than any other value of central tendency in the data set, which makes it more central in certain situations.

Disadvantages of median

- The data must be arranged in order to find the median. This can be very time consuming for a large number of elements in the data set.
- The value of the median is affected more by sampling variations. Different samples from the same population may give significantly different values of the median.
- The calculation of median in case of grouped data is based on the assumption that the values of observations are evenly spaced over the entire class interval and this is usually not so.
- Median is comparatively less stable than mean, particularly for small samples, due to fluctuations in sampling.
- Median is not suitable for further mathematical treatment. For example, we cannot compute the median of the combined group from the median values of different groups.

NOTES

3.4 Mode

The mode is that value of the variable which occurs or repeats itself the greatest number of times. The mode is the most ‘fashionable’ size in the sense that it is the most common and typical, and is defined by Zizek as ‘the value occurring most frequently in a series (or group of items) and around which the other items are distributed most densely’.

The mode of a distribution is the value at the point around which the items tend to be most heavily concentrated. It is the most frequent or the most common value, provided that a sufficiently large number of items are available, to give a smooth distribution. It will correspond to the value of the maximum point (ordinate), of a frequency distribution if it is an ‘ideal’ or smooth distribution. It may be regarded as the most typical of a series of values. The modal wage, for example, is the wage received by more individuals than any other wage. The modal ‘hat’ size is that, which is worn by more persons than any other single size.

It may be noted that the occurrence of one or a few extremely high or low values has no effect upon the mode. If a series of data are unclassified, not have been either arrayed or put into a frequency distribution, the mode cannot be readily located.

Taking first an extremely simple example, if seven men are receiving daily wages of ₹5, 6, 7, 7, 7, 8 and 10, it is clear that the modal wage is ₹7 per day. If we have a series such as 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10 and 11, it is apparent that there is no mode.

There are several methods of estimating the value of the mode. But, it is seldom that the different methods of ascertaining the mode give us identical results. Consequently, it becomes necessary to decide as to which method would be most suitable for the purpose in hand. In order that a choice of the method may be made, we should understand each of the methods and the differences that exist among them.

The four important methods of estimating mode of a series are: (i) Locating the most frequently repeated value in the array; (ii) Estimating the mode by interpolation; (iii) Locating the mode by graphic method; and (iv) Estimating the mode from the mean and the median. Only the last three methods are discussed in this unit.

Estimating the mode by interpolation

In the case of continuous frequency distributions, the problem of determining the value of the mode is not so simple as it might have appeared from the foregoing description. Having located the modal class of the data, the next problem in the case of continuous series is to interpolate the value of the mode within this ‘modal’ class.

The interpolation is made by the use of any one of the following formulae:

$$(i) Mo = l_1 + \frac{f_2}{f_0 + f_2} \times i; \quad (ii) Mo = l_2 - \frac{f_0}{f_0 + f_2} \times i$$

$$(iii) Mo = l_1 + \frac{f_1 - f_0}{(f_1 - f_0) + (f_1 - f_2)} \times i$$

Where l_1 is the lower limit of the modal class, l_2 is the upper limit of the modal class, f_0 equals the frequency of the preceding class in value, f_1 equals the frequency of the modal class in value, f_2 equals the frequency of the following class (class next to modal class) in value, and i equals the interval of the modal class.

Example 6.13: Determine the mode for the data given in the following table.

Wage Group	Frequency (f)
14 — 18	6
18 — 22	18
22 — 26	19
26 — 30	12
30 — 34	5
34 — 38	4
38 — 42	3
42 — 46	2
46 — 50	1
50 — 54	0
54 — 58	1

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Solution: In the given data, 22 – 26 is the modal class since it has the largest frequency. The lower limit of the modal class is 22, its upper limit is 26, its frequency is 19, the frequency of the preceding class is 18, and of the following class is 12. The class interval is 4. Using the various methods of determining mode, we have,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (i) Mo &= 22 + \frac{12}{18+12} \times 4 & (ii) Mo &= 26 - \frac{18}{18+12} \times 4 \\
 &= 22 + \frac{8}{5} & &= 26 - \frac{12}{5} \\
 &= 23.6 & &= 23.6 \\
 (iii) Mo &= 22 + \frac{19 - 18}{(19 - 18) + (19 - 12)} \times 4 = 22 + \frac{1}{8} \times 4 = 22.5
 \end{aligned}$$

In formulae (i) and (ii), the frequency of the classes adjoining the modal class is used to pull the estimate of the mode away from the midpoint towards either the upper or lower class limit. In this particular case, the frequency of the class preceding the modal class is more than the frequency of the class following and therefore, the estimated mode is less than the midvalue of the modal class. This seems quite logical. If the frequencies are more on one side of the modal class than on the other it can be reasonably concluded that the items in the modal class are concentrated more towards the class limit of the adjoining class with the larger frequency.

The formula (iii) is also based on a logic similar to that of (i) and (ii). In this case, to interpolate the value of the mode within the modal class, the differences between the frequency of the modal class, and the respective frequencies of the classes adjoining it are used. This formula usually gives results better than the values obtained by the other and exactly equal to the results obtained by graphic method. The formulae (i) and (ii) give values which are different from the value obtained by formula (iii) and are more close to the central point of modal class. If the frequencies of the class adjoining the modal are equal, the mode is expected to be located at the midvalue of the modal class, but if the frequency on one of the sides is greater, the mode will be pulled away from the central point. It will be pulled more and more if the difference between the frequencies of the classes adjoining the modal class is higher and higher. In Example 6.13, the frequency of the modal class is 19 and that of preceding class is 18. So, the mode should be quite close to the lower limit of the modal class. The midpoint of the modal class is 24 and lower limit of the modal class is 22.

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Locating the mode by the graphic method

The upper corners of the rectangle over the modal class have been joined by straight lines to those of the adjoining rectangles as shown in the diagram; the right corner to the corresponding one of the adjoining rectangle on the left, etc. If a perpendicular is drawn from the point of intersection of these lines, we have a value for the mode indicated on the base line. The graphic approach is, in principle, similar to the arithmetic interpolation explained earlier.

The mode may also be determined graphically from an ogive or cumulative frequency curve. It is found by drawing a perpendicular to the base from that point on the curve where the curve is most nearly vertical, i.e., steepest (in other words, where it passes through the greatest distance vertically and smallest distance horizontal). The point where it cuts the base gives us the value of the mode. How accurately this method determines the mode is governed by: (i) The shape of the ogive, (ii) The scale on which the curve is drawn.

Estimating the mode from the mean and the median

There usually exists a relationship among the mean, median and mode for moderately asymmetrical distributions. If the distribution is symmetrical, the mean, median and mode will have identical values, but if the distribution is skewed (moderately) the mean, median and mode will pull apart. If the distribution tails off towards higher values, the mean and the median will be greater than the mode. If it tails off towards lower values, the mode will be greater than either of the other two measures. In either case, the median will be about one-third as far away from the mean as the mode is. This means that,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mode} &= \text{Mean} - 3(\text{Mean} - \text{Median}) \\ &= 3 \text{ Median} - 2 \text{ Mean} \end{aligned}$$

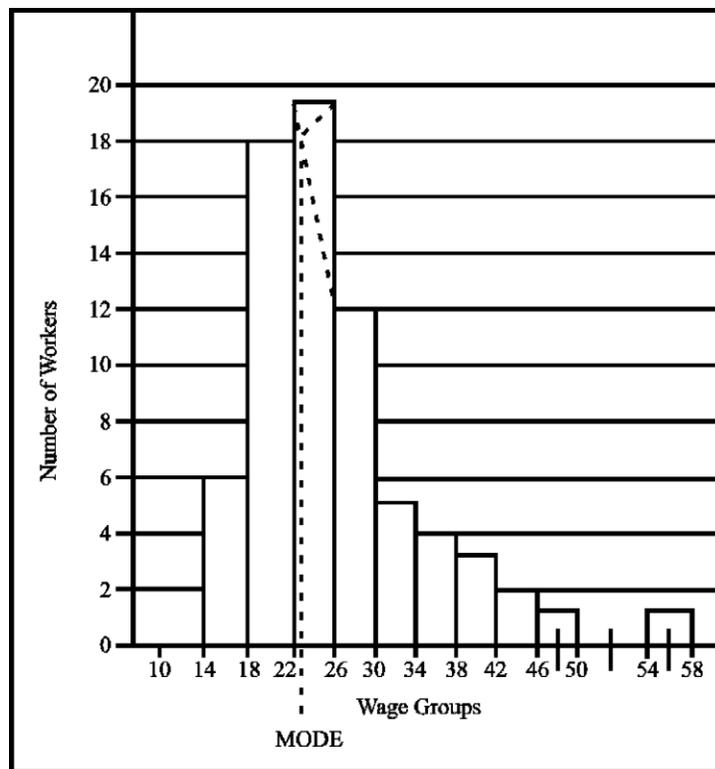


Fig. 6.9 Method of Mode Determination by Graphic Interpolation

In the case of the average monthly earnings, the mean is 68.53 and the median is 70.2. If these values are substituted in the above formula, we get,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mode} &= 68.5 - 3(68.5 - 70.2) \\ &= 68.5 + 5.1 = 73.6\end{aligned}$$

According to the formula used earlier,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mode} &= l_1 + \frac{f_2}{f_0 + f_2} \times i \\ &= 72.5 + \frac{745}{795 + 745} \times 5 \\ &= 72.5 + 2.4 = 74.9\end{aligned}$$

OR

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mode} &= l_1 + \frac{f_1 - f_0}{2f_1 - f_0 - f_2} \times i \\ &= 72.5 + \frac{915 - 795}{2 \times 915 - 795 - 745} \times 5 \\ &= 72.5 + \frac{120}{290} \times 5 = 74.57\end{aligned}$$

The difference between the two estimates is due to the fact that the assumption of relationship between the mean, median and mode may not always be true which is obviously not valid in this case.

Example 6.14: (i) In a moderately symmetrical distribution, the mode and mean are 32.1 and 35.4 respectively. Calculate the median.

(ii) If the mode and median of moderately asymmetrical series are respectively 16" and 15.7", what would be its most probable median?

(iii) In a moderately skewed distribution, the mean and the median are respectively 25.6 and 26.1 inches. What is the mode of the distribution?

Solution: (i) We know,

$$\text{Mean} - \text{Mode} = 3 (\text{Mean} - \text{Median})$$

or $3 \text{ Median} = \text{Mode} + 2 \text{ Mean}$

or $\text{Median} = \frac{32.1 + 2 \times 35.43}{3}$
 $= \frac{102.9}{3}$
 $= 34.3$

(ii) $2 \text{ Mean} = 3 \text{ Median} - \text{Mode}$

or $\text{Mean} = \frac{1}{2} (3 \times 15.7 - 16.0) = \frac{31.1}{2} = 15.55$

(iii) $\text{Mode} = 3 \text{ Median} - 2 \text{ Mean}$

$$= 3 \times 26.1 - 2 \times 25.6 = 78.3 - 51.2 = 27.1$$

Advantages of mode

- Similar to median, the mode is not affected by extreme values in the data.
- Its value can be obtained in open-ended distributions without ascertaining the class limits.

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- It can be easily used to describe qualitative phenomenon. For example, if most people prefer a certain brand of tea, then this will become the modal point.
- Mode is easy to calculate and understand. In some cases, it can be located simply by observation or inspection.

Disadvantages of mode

- Quite often, there is no modal value.
- It can be bi-modal or multi-modal, or it can have all modal values making its significance more difficult to measure.
- If there is more than one modal value, the data is difficult to interpret.
- A mode is not suitable for algebraic manipulations.
- Since the mode is the value of maximum frequency in the data set, it cannot be rigidly defined if such frequency occurs at the beginning or at the end of the distribution.
- It does not include all observations in the data set, and hence, less reliable in most of the situations.

3.4.1 Quartiles, Deciles and Percentiles

Some measures other than measures of central tendency are often employed when summarizing or describing a set of data where it is necessary to divide the data into equal parts. These are positional measures and are called quantiles and consist of quartiles, deciles and percentiles. The quartiles divide the data into four equal parts. The deciles divide the total ordered data into ten equal parts and percentiles divide the data into 100 equal parts. Consequently, there are three quartiles, nine deciles and 99 percentiles. The quartiles are denoted by the symbol Q so that Q_1 will be such point in the ordered data which has 25 per cent of the data below and 75 per cent of the data above it. In other

words Q_1 is the value corresponding to $\left(\frac{n+1}{4}\right)$ th ordered observation. Similarly, Q_2 divides the data in the middle, and is also equal to the median and its value Q_2 is given by:

$$Q_2 = \text{The value of } 2\left(\frac{n+1}{4}\right)\text{th ordered observation in the data.}$$

Similarly, we can calculate the values of various deciles. For instance,

$$D_1 = \left(\frac{n+1}{10}\right)\text{th observation in the data, and}$$

$$D_7 = 7\left(\frac{n+1}{10}\right)\text{th observation in the ordered data.}$$

Percentiles are generally used in the research area of education where people are given standard tests and it is desirable to compare the relative position of the subject's performance on the test. Percentiles are similarly calculated as:

$$P_7 = 7\left(\frac{n+1}{100}\right)\text{th observation in the ordered data.}$$

and,

$$P_{69} = 69\left(\frac{n+1}{100}\right)\text{th observation in the ordered data.}$$

Quartiles

The formula for calculating the values of quartiles for grouped data is given as follows.

$$Q = L + (j/f)C$$

where,

Q = The quartile under consideration.

L = Lower limit of the class interval which contains the value of Q .

j = The number of units we lack from the class interval which contains the value of Q , in reaching the value of Q .

f = Frequency of the class interval containing Q .

C = Size of the class interval.

Let us assume we took the data of the ages of 100 students and a frequency distribution for this data has been constructed as shown.

The frequency distribution is as follows:

Ages (CI)	Mid-point (X)	(f)	f(X)	f(X) ²
16 and upto 17	16.5	4	66	1089.0
17 and upto 18	17.5	14	245	4287.5
18 and upto 19	18.5	18	333	6160.5
19 and upto 20	19.5	28	546	10647.0
20 and upto 21	20.5	20	410	8405.0
21 and upto 22	21.5	12	258	5547.0
22 and upto 23	22.5	4	90	2025.0
		Totals = 100	1948	38161

In our case, in order to find Q_1 , where Q_1 is the cut off point so that 25 per cent of the data is below this point and 75 per cent of the data is above, we see that the first group has 4 students and the second group has 14 students making a total of 18 students. Since Q_1 cuts off at 25 students, it is the third class interval which contains Q_1 . This means that the value of L in our formula is 18.

Since we already have 18 students in the first two groups, we need 7 more students from the third group to make it a total of 25 students, which is the value of Q_1 . Hence, the value of (j) is 7. Also, since the frequency of this third class interval which contains Q_1 is 18, the value of (f) in our formula is 18. The size of the class interval C is given as 1. Substituting these values in the formula for Q , we get

$$\begin{aligned} Q_1 &= 18 + (7/18)1 \\ &= 18 + .38 = 18.38 \end{aligned}$$

This means that 25 per cent of the students are below 18.38 years of age and 75 per cent are above this age.

Similarly, we can calculate the value of Q_2 , using the same formula. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_2 &= L + (j/f)C \\ &= 19 + (14/28)1 = 19.5 \end{aligned}$$

This also happens to be the median.

By using the same formula and same logic we can calculate the values of all deciles as well as percentiles.

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We have defined the median as the value of the item which is located at the centre of the array. We can define other measures which are located at other specified points. Thus, the N th percentile of an array is the value of the item such that N per cent items lie below it. Clearly then the N_{th} percentile P_n of grouped data is given by

$$P_n = l + \frac{\frac{nN}{100} - C}{f} \times i$$

where l is the lower limit of the class in which $nN/100$ th item lies, i its width, f its frequency, C the cumulative frequency upto (but not including) this class, and N is the total number of items.

We similarly define the N th decile as the value of the item below which $(nN/10)$ items of the array lie. Clearly,

$$D_n = P_{10n} = l + \frac{\frac{nN}{10} - C}{f} \times i$$

where the symbols have the obvious meanings.

The other most commonly referred to measures of location are the quartiles. Thus, n th quartile is the value of the item which lies at the $n(N/5)$ th item. Clearly Q_2 , the second quartile is the median, for grouped data.

$$Q_n = P_{25n} = l + \frac{\frac{nN}{4} - C}{f} \times i$$

3.4.2 Measures of Dispersion

A measure of dispersion, or simply dispersion may be defined as statistics signifying the extent of the scatteredness of items around a measure of central tendency.

A measure of dispersion may be expressed in an 'absolute form', or in a 'relative form'. It is said to be in an absolute form when it states the actual amount by which the value of an item on an average deviates from a measure of central tendency. Absolute measures are expressed in concrete units, i.e., units in terms of which the data have been expressed, e.g., rupees, centimetres, kilograms, etc., and are used to describe frequency distribution.

A relative measure of dispersion computed is a quotient by dividing the absolute measures by a quantity in respect to which absolute deviation has been computed. It is as such a pure number and is usually expressed in a percentage form. Relative measures are used for making comparisons between two or more distributions.

A measure of dispersion should possess all those characteristics which are considered essential for a measure of central tendency, viz.

- It should be based on all observations.
- It should be readily comprehensible.
- It should be fairly easily calculated.
- It should be affected as little as possible by fluctuations of sampling.
- It should be amenable to algebraic treatment.

The following are some common measures of dispersion:

(i) The range, (ii) the semi-interquartile range or the quartile deviation, (iii) the mean deviation, and (iv) the standard deviation. Of these, the standard deviation is the best measure. We describe these measures in the following sections.

Range

The crudest measure of dispersion is the range of the distribution. The range of any series is the difference between the highest and the lowest values in the series. If the marks received in an examination taken by 248 students are arranged in ascending order, then the range will be equal to the difference between the highest and the lowest marks.

In a frequency distribution, the range is taken to be the difference between the lower limit of the class at the lower extreme of the distribution and the upper limit of the class at the upper extreme.

Table 6.8 Weekly Earnings of Labourers in Four Workshops of the Same Type

Weekly earnings ₹	No. of workers			
	Workshop A	Workshop B	Workshop C	Workshop D
15–16	2	...
17–18	...	2	4	...
19–20	...	4	4	4
21–22	10	10	10	14
23–24	22	14	16	16
25–26	20	18	14	16
27–28	14	16	12	12
29–30	14	10	6	12
31–32	...	6	6	4
33–34	2	2
35–36
37–38	4	...
Total	80	80	80	80
Mean	25.5	25.5	25.5	25.5

Consider the data on weekly earning of worker on four workshops given in the Table 6.8. We note the following:

Workshop	Range
A	9
B	15
C	23
D	15

From these figures, it is clear that the greater the range, the greater is the variation of the values in the group.

The range is a measure of absolute dispersion and as such cannot be usefully employed for comparing the variability of two distributions expressed in different units. The amount of dispersion measured, say, in pounds, is not comparable with dispersion measured in inches. So the need of measuring relative dispersion arises.

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An absolute measure can be converted into a relative measure if we divide it by some other value regarded as standard for the purpose. We may use the mean of the distribution or any other positional average as the standard.

For Table 6.8, the relative dispersion would be:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Workshop A} &= \frac{9}{25.5} & \text{Workshop C} &= \frac{23}{25.5} \\ \text{Workshop B} &= \frac{15}{25.5} & \text{Workshop D} &= \frac{15}{25.5} \end{aligned}$$

An alternate method of converting an absolute variation into a relative one would be to use the total of the extremes as the standard. This will be equal to dividing the difference of the extreme items by the total of the extreme items. Thus,

$$\text{Relative Dispersion} = \frac{\text{Difference of extreme items, i.e., Range}}{\text{Sum of extreme items}}$$

The relative dispersion of the series is called the coefficient or ratio of dispersion. In our example of weekly earnings of workers considered earlier, the coefficients would be:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Workshop A} &= \frac{9}{21 + 30} = \frac{9}{51} & \text{Workshop B} &= \frac{15}{17 + 32} = \frac{15}{49} \\ \text{Workshop C} &= \frac{23}{15 + 38} = \frac{23}{53} & \text{Workshop D} &= \frac{15}{19 + 34} = \frac{15}{53} \end{aligned}$$

Merits and limitations of range

Merits

Of the various characteristics that a good measure of dispersion should possess, the range has only two, viz (i) it is easy to understand, and (ii) its computation is simple.

Limitations

Besides the aforesaid two qualities, the range does not satisfy the other test of a good measure and hence it is often termed as a crude measure of dispersion.

The following are the limitations that are inherent in the range as a concept of variability:

- (i) Since it is based upon two extreme cases in the entire distribution, the range may be considerably changed if either of the extreme cases happens to drop out, while the removal of any other case would not affect it at all.
- (ii) It does not tell anything about the distribution of values in the series relative to a measure of central tendency.
- (iii) It cannot be computed when distribution has open-end classes.
- (iv) It does not take into account the entire data. These can be illustrated by the following illustration. Consider the data given in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 Distribution with the Same Number of Cases,
but Different Variability

Class	No. of students		
	Section A	Section B	Section C
0–10
10–20	1
20–30	12	12	19
30–40	17	20	18
40–50	29	35	16
50–60	18	25	18
60–70	16	10	18
70–80	6	8	21
80–90	11
90–100
Total	110	110	110
Range	80	60	60

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The table is designed to illustrate three distributions with the same number of cases but different variability. The removal of two extreme students from section *A* would make its range equal to that of *B* or *C*.

The greater range of *A* is not a description of the entire group of 110 students, but of the two most extreme students only. Further, though sections *B* and *C* have the same range, the students in section *B* cluster more closely around the central tendency of the group than they do in section *C*. Thus, the range fails to reveal the greater homogeneity of *B* or the greater dispersion of *C*. Due to this defect, it is seldom used as a measure of dispersion.

Specific uses of range

In spite of the numerous limitations of the range as a measure of dispersion, there are the following circumstances when it is the most appropriate one:

- (i) In situations where the extremes involve some hazard for which preparation should be made, it may be more important to know the most extreme cases to be encountered than to know anything else about the distribution. For example, an explorer, would like to know the lowest and the highest temperatures on record in the region he is about to enter; or an engineer would like to know the maximum rainfall during 24 hours for the construction of a storm water drain.
- (ii) In the study of prices of securities, range has a special field of activity. Thus to highlight fluctuations in the prices of shares or bullion it is a common practice to indicate the range over which the prices have moved during a certain period of time. This information, besides being of use to the operators, gives an indication of the stability of the bullion market, or that of the investment climate.
- (iii) In statistical quality control the range is used as a measure of variation. We, e.g., determine the range over which variations in quality are due to random causes, which is made the basis for the fixation of control limits.

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Quartile Deviation

Another measure of dispersion, much better than the range, is the semi-interquartile range, usually termed as ‘quartile deviation’. As stated in the previous unit, quartiles are the points which divide the array in four equal parts. More precisely, Q_1 gives the value of the item $1/4$ th the way up the distribution and Q_3 the value of the item $3/4$ th the way up the distribution. Between Q_1 and Q_3 are included half the total number of items. The difference between Q_1 and Q_3 includes only the central items but excludes the extremes. Since under most circumstances, the central half of the series tends to be fairly typical of all the items, the interquartile range ($Q_3 - Q_1$) affords a convenient and often a good indicator of the absolute variability. The larger the interquartile range, the larger the variability.

Usually, one-half of the difference between Q_3 and Q_1 is used and to it is given the name of quartile deviation or semi-interquartile range. The interquartile range is divided by two for the reason that half of the interquartile range will, in a normal distribution, be equal to the difference between the median and any quartile. This means that 50 per cent items of a normal distribution will lie within the interval defined by the median plus and minus the semi-interquartile range.

Symbolically:

$$Q.D. = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2} \quad \dots(6.1)$$

Let us find quartile deviations for the weekly earnings of labour in the four workshop whose data is given in Table 6.8. The computations are as shown in Table 4.5.

As shown in the table, Q.D. of workshop A is ₹2.12 and median value in 25.3. This means that if the distribution is symmetrical the number of workers whose wages vary between $(25.3 - 2.1) = ₹3.2$ and $(25.3 + 2.1) = ₹7.4$, shall be just half of the total cases. The other half of the workers will be more than ₹2.1 removed from the median wage. As this distribution is not symmetrical, the distance between Q_1 and the median Q_2 is not the same as between Q_3 and the median. Hence the interval defined by median plus and minus semi inter-quartile range will not be exactly the same as given by the value of the two quartiles. Under such conditions the range between ₹ 23.2 and ₹27.4 will not include precisely 50 per cent of the workers.

If quartile deviation is to be used for comparing the variability of any two series, it is necessary to convert the absolute measure to a coefficient of quartile deviation. To do this the absolute measure is divided by the average size of the two quartile.

Symbolically:

$$\text{Coefficient of quartile deviation} = \frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{Q_3 + Q_1} \quad \dots(6.2)$$

Applying this to our illustration of four workshops, the coefficients of Q.D. are as given below.

Table 6.10 Calculation of Quartile Deviation

		Workshop A	Workshop B	Workshop C	Workshop D
Location of Q_2	$\frac{N}{2}$	$\frac{80}{2} = 40$	$\frac{80}{2} = 40$	$\frac{80}{2} = 40$	$\frac{80}{2} = 40$
	Q_2	$24.5 + \frac{40 - 30}{22} \times 2$ = 24.5 + 0.9 = 25.4	$24.5 + \frac{40 - 30}{18} \times 2$ = 24.5 + 1.1 = 25.61	$24.5 + \frac{40 - 30}{16} \times 2$ = 24.5 + 0.75 = 25.25	$24.5 + \frac{40 - 30}{16} \times 2$ = 24.5 + 0.75 = 25.25

Location of Q_1	$\frac{N}{4}$ 4	$\frac{80}{4} = 20$ 4	$\frac{80}{4} = 20$ 4	$\frac{80}{4} = 20$ 4	$\frac{80}{4} = 20$ 4
Q_1	$22.5 + \frac{20 \times 10}{22} \times 2$ = 22.5 + .91 = 23.41	$22.5 + \frac{20 \times 16}{14} \times 2$ = 22.5 + .57 = 23.07	$20.5 + \frac{20 \times 10}{10} \times 2$ = 20.5 + 2 = 22.5	$22.5 + \frac{20 \times 18}{16} \times 2$ = 22.5 + .25 = 22.75	
Location of Q_3	$\frac{3N}{4}$ $\frac{3 \times 80}{4} = 60$	60	60	60	60
Q_3	$26.5 + \frac{60 \times 52}{14} \times 2$ = 26.5 + 1.14 = 27.64	$26.5 + \frac{60 \times 48}{16} \times 2$ = 26.5 + 1.5 = 28.0	$26.5 + \frac{60 \times 50}{12} \times 2$ = 26.5 + 1.67 = 28.17	$26.5 + \frac{60 \times 50}{12} \times 2$ = 26.5 + 1.67 = 28.17	
Quartile Deviation	$\frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{2}$ $\frac{27.64 - 23.41}{2}$ = $\frac{4.23}{2} = \bar{x} 2.12$	$\frac{28 - 23.07}{2}$ = $\frac{4.93}{2} = \bar{x} 2.46$	$\frac{28.17 - 22.5}{2}$ = $\frac{5.67}{2} = \bar{x} 2.83$	$\frac{28.17 - 22.75}{2}$ = $\frac{5.42}{2} = \bar{x} 2.71$	
Coefficient of quartile deviation	$\frac{Q_3 - Q_1}{Q_3 + Q_1} = \frac{27.64 - 23.41}{27.64 + 23.41}$ = 0.083	$\frac{28 - 23.07}{28 + 23.07}$ = 0.097	$\frac{28.17 - 22.5}{28.17 + 22.5}$ = 0.112	$\frac{28.17 - 22.75}{28.17 + 22.75}$ = 0.106	

NOTES

Characteristics of quartile deviation

- The size of the quartile deviation gives an indication about the uniformity or otherwise of the size of the items of a distribution. If the quartile deviation is small it denotes large uniformity. Thus, a coefficient of quartile deviation may be used for comparing uniformity or variation in different distributions.
- Quartile deviation is not a measure of dispersion in the sense that it does not show the scatter around an average, but only a distance on scale. Consequently, quartile deviation is regarded as a measure of partition.
- It can be computed when the distribution has open-end classes.

Limitations of quartile deviation

Except for the fact that its computation is simple and it is easy to understand, a quartile deviation does not satisfy any other test of a good measure of variation.

Mean Deviation

A weakness of the measures of dispersion discussed earlier, based upon the range or a portion thereof, is that the precise size of most of the variants has no effect on the result. As an illustration, the quartile deviation will be the same whether the variates between Q_1 and Q_3 are concentrated just above Q_1 or they are spread uniformly from Q_1 to Q_3 . This is an important defect from the viewpoint of measuring the divergence of the distribution from its typical value. The mean deviation is employed to answer the objection.

Mean deviation also called average deviation, of a frequency distribution is the mean of the absolute values of the deviation from some measure of central tendency. In other words, mean deviation is the arithmetic average of the variations (deviations) of the individual items of the series from a measure of their central tendency.

NOTES

We can measure the deviations from any measure of central tendency, but the most commonly employed ones are the median and the mean. The median is preferred because it has the important property that the average deviation from it is the least.

Calculation of the mean deviation then involves the following steps:

- (a) Calculate the median (or the mean) Me (or \bar{X}).
- (b) Record the deviations $|d| = |x - Me|$ of each of the items, ignoring the sign.
- (c) Find the average value of deviations.

$$\text{Mean Deviation} = \frac{\sum |d|}{N} \quad \dots(6.3)$$

Example 6.15: Calculate the mean deviation from the following data giving marks obtained by 11 students in a class test.

14, 15, 23, 20, 10, 30, 19, 18, 16, 25, 12.

Solution: Median = Size of $\frac{11+1}{2}$ th item
= size of 6th item = 18.

Serial No.	Marks	$ x - \text{Median} $ $ d $
1	10	8
2	12	6
3	14	4
4	15	3
5	16	2
6	18	0
7	19	1
8	20	2
9	23	5
10	25	7
11	30	12
		$\sum d = 50$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mean deviation from median} &= \frac{\sum |d|}{N} \\ &= \frac{50}{11} = 4.5 \text{ marks.} \end{aligned}$$

For grouped data, it is easy to see that the mean deviation is given by

$$\text{Mean deviation, M.D.} = \frac{\sum f |d|}{\sum f} \quad \dots(6.4)$$

where $|d| = |x - \text{median}|$ for grouped discrete data, and $|d| = |M - \text{median}|$ for grouped continuous data with M as the mid-value of a particular group. The following examples illustrate the use of this formula.

Example 6.16: Calculate the mean deviation from the following data

Size of item	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Frequency	3	6	9	13	8	5	4

Solution:

Size	Frequency f	Cumulative frequency	Deviations from median (9) $ d $	$f d $
6	3	3	3	9
7	6	9	2	12
8	9	18	1	9
9	13	31	0	0
10	8	39	1	8
11	5	44	2	10
12	4	48	3	12
				60
48				

Median = the size of $\frac{48+1}{2} = 24.5$ th item which is 9.

Therefore, deviations d are calculated from 9, i.e., $|d| = |x - 9|$.

$$\text{Mean deviation} = \frac{\sum f|d|}{\sum f} = \frac{60}{48} = 1.25$$

Example 6.17: Calculate the mean deviation from the following data:

x	0–10	10–20	20–30	30–40	40–50	50–60	60–70	70–80
f	18	16	15	12	10	5	2	2

Solution:

This is a frequency distribution with continuous variable. Thus, deviations are calculated from mid-values.

x	Mid-value	f	Less than c.f.	Deviation from median $ d $	$f d $
0–10	5	18	18	19	342
10–20	15	16	34	9	144
20–30	25	15	49	1	15
30–40	35	12	61	11	132
40–50	45	10	71	21	210
50–60	55	5	76	31	155
60–70	65	2	78	41	82
70–80	75	2	80	51	102
					1182
80					

NOTES

NOTES

$$\text{Median} = \text{the size of } \frac{80}{2} \text{ th item}$$

$$= 20 + \frac{6}{15} \times 10 = 24$$

and then, mean deviation

$$= \frac{\sum f |d|}{\sum f}$$

$$= \frac{1182}{80} = 14.775.$$

Merits and demerits of the mean deviation

Merits

- It is easy to understand.
- As compared to standard deviation (discussed later), its computation is simple.
- As compared to standard deviation, it is less affected by extreme values.
- Since it is based on all values in the distribution, it is better than range or quartile deviation.

Demerits

- It lacks those algebraic properties which would facilitate its computation and establish its relation to other measures.
- Due to this, it is not suitable for further mathematical processing.

Coefficient of mean deviation

The coefficient or relative dispersion is found by dividing the mean deviations recorded. Thus,

$$\text{Coefficient of M.D.} = \frac{\text{Mean Deviation}}{\text{Mean}} \quad \dots(6.5)$$

(when deviations were recorded from the mean)

$$= \frac{\text{M.D.}}{\text{Median}} \quad \dots(6.6)$$

(when deviations were recorded from the median)

Applying the above formula to Example 6.17.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Coefficient of Mean deviation} &= \frac{14.775}{24} \\ &= 0.616 \end{aligned}$$

3.4.3 Standard Deviation

By far the most universally used and the most useful measure of dispersion is the standard deviation or root mean square deviation about the mean. We have seen that all the methods of measuring dispersion so far discussed are not universally adopted for want of adequacy and accuracy. The range is not satisfactory as its magnitude is determined by most extreme cases in the entire group. Further, the range is notable because it is dependent on the item whose size is largely matter of chance. Mean deviation method is also an unsatisfactory measure of scatter, as it ignores the algebraic signs of deviation.

We desire a measure of scatter which is free from these shortcomings. To some extent standard deviation is one such measure.

The calculation of standard deviation differs in the following respects from that of mean deviation. First, in calculating standard deviation, the deviations are squared. This is done so as to get rid of negative signs without committing algebraic violence. Further, the squaring of deviations provides added weight to the extreme items, a desirable feature for certain types of series.

Secondly, the deviations are always recorded from the arithmetic mean, because although the sum of deviations is the minimum from the median, the sum of squares of deviations is minimum when deviations are measured from the arithmetic average. The deviation from \bar{x} is represented by d .

Thus, standard deviation, σ (sigma) is defined as the square root of the mean of the squares of the deviations of individual items from their arithmetic mean.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{N}} \quad \dots(6.7)$$

For grouped data (discrete variables)

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f(x - \bar{x})^2}{\sum f}} \quad \dots(6.8)$$

and, for grouped data (continuous variables)

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f(M - \bar{x})^2}{\sum f}} \quad \dots(6.9)$$

where M is the mid-value of the group.

The use of these formulae is illustrated by the following examples.

Example 6.18: Compute the standard deviation for the following data:

11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21.

Solution:

Here formula (6.7) is appropriate. We first calculate the mean as $\bar{x} = \sum x/N = 176/11 = 16$, and then calculate the deviation as follows:

x	$(x - \bar{x})$	$(x - \bar{x})^2$
11	-5	25
12	-4	16
13	-3	9
14	-2	4
15	-1	1
16	0	0
17	+1	1
18	+2	4
19	+3	9
20	+4	16
21	+5	25
176		110

Thus by formula (7).

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{110}{11}} = \sqrt{10} = 3.16$$

NOTES

Example 6.19: Find the standard deviation of the data in the following distributions:

<i>x</i>	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	20
<i>f</i>	4	11	32	21	15	8	6	4

NOTES

Solution:

For this discrete variable grouped data, we use formula 6.8. Since for calculation of \bar{x} , we need $\sum fx$ and then for σ we need $\sum f(x - \bar{x})^2$, the calculations are conveniently made in the following format.

<i>x</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>fx</i>	<i>d = x - \bar{x}</i>	<i>d</i> ²	<i>fd</i> ²
12	4	48	-3	9	36
13	11	143	-2	4	44
14	32	448	-1	1	32
15	21	315	0	0	0
16	15	240	1	1	15
17	8	136	2	4	32
18	5	90	3	9	45
20	4	80	5	25	100
	100	1500			304

Here $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum fx}{\sum f} = 1500/100 = 15$

and
$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum fd^2}{\sum f}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{304}{100}} = \sqrt{3.04} = 1.74$$

Example 6.20: Calculate the standard deviation of the following data.

<i>Class</i>	1-3	3-5	5-7	7-9	9-11	11-13	13-15
<i>frequency</i>	1	9	25	35	17	10	3

Solution: This is an example of continuous frequency series and formula 6.9 seems appropriate.

<i>Class</i>	<i>Mid-point</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Deviation of mid-point <i>x</i> from mean (8)</i>	<i>Squared deviation</i>	<i>Squared deviation times frequency</i>	
	<i>x</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>fx</i>	<i>d</i> ²	<i>d</i> ²	
1-3	2	1	2	-6	36	36
3-5	4	9	36	-4	16	144
5-7	6	25	150	-2	4	100
7-9	8	35	280	0	0	0
9-11	10	17	170	2	4	68
11-13	12	10	120	4	16	160
13-15	14	3	42	6	36	108
		100	800			616

First the mean is calculated as

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum fx}{\sum x} = 800/100 = 8.0$$

Then the deviations are obtained from 8.0. The standard deviation

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f(M - \bar{x})^2}{\sum f}}$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum fd^2}{\sum f}} = \sqrt{\frac{616}{100}}$$

$$= 2.48$$

NOTES

Calculation of Standard Deviation by Short-cut Method

The three examples worked out above have one common simplifying feature, namely \bar{x} in each, turned out to be an integer, thus, simplifying calculations. In most cases, it is very unlikely that it will turn out to be so. In such cases, the calculation of d and d^2 becomes quite time-consuming. Short-cut methods have consequently been developed. These are on the same lines as those for calculation of mean itself.

In the short-cut method, we calculate deviations x' from an assumed mean A . Then,

for ungrouped data

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x'^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x'}{N}\right)^2} \quad \dots(6.10)$$

and for grouped data

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i d_i^2}{\sum f} - \left(\frac{\sum f_i d_i}{\sum f}\right)^2} \quad \dots(6.11)$$

This formula is valid for both discrete and continuous variables. In case of continuous variables, x in the equation $x' = x - A$ stands for the mid-value of the class in question.

Note that the second term in each of the formulae is a correction term because of the difference in the values of A and \bar{x} . When A is taken as \bar{x} itself, this correction is automatically reduced to zero. Examples 6.7 to 6.11 explain the use of these formulae.

Example 6.21: Compute the standard deviation by the short-cut method for the following data:

11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21

Solution: Let us assume that $A = 15$.

	$x' = (x - 15)$	x^2
11	-4	16
12	-3	9
13	-2	4
14	-1	1
15	0	0
16	1	1
17	2	4
18	3	9
19	4	16
20	5	25
21	6	36
$N = 11$	$\sum x' = 11$	$\sum x'^2 = 121$

NOTES

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sqrt{\frac{\sum x_i^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x_i}{N}\right)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{121}{11} - \left(\frac{11}{11}\right)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{11 - 1} \\ &= \sqrt{10} \\ &= 3.16. \end{aligned}$$

Another method

If we assumed A as zero, then the deviation of each item from the assumed mean is the same as the value of item itself. Thus, 11 deviates from the assumed mean of zero by 11, 12 deviates by 12, and so on. As such, we work with deviations without having to compute them, and the formula takes the following shape:

x	x^2
11	121
12	144
13	169
14	196
15	225
16	256
17	289
18	324
19	361
20	400
21	441
176	2,926

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x}{N}\right)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{2926}{11} - \left(\frac{176}{11}\right)^2} = \sqrt{266 - 256} = 3.16 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.22: Calculate the standard deviation of the following data by short method.

Person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Monthly income (Rupees)	300	400	420	440	460	480	580

Solution: In this data, the values of the variable are very large making calculations cumbersome. It is advantageous to take a common factor out. Thus, we use $x' = \frac{x - A}{20}$.

The standard deviation is calculated using x' and then the true value of σ is obtained by multiplying back by 20. The effective formula then is

$$\sigma = C \times \sqrt{\frac{\sum x_i'^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x_i'}{N}\right)^2}$$

where C represents the common factor.

Using $x' = (x - 420)/20$.

x	Deviation from Assumed mean $x' = (x - 420)$	x'	x^2
300	-120	-6	36
400	-20	-1	1
420	0	0	0
		-7	
440	20	1	1
460	40	2	4
480	60	3	9
580	160	8	64
		+ 14	
$N = 7$		7	115

NOTES

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= 20 \times \sqrt{\frac{\sum fx'^2}{N} - \frac{(\sum fx')^2}{N^2}} \\ &= 20 \sqrt{\frac{115}{7} - \frac{49}{49}} \\ &= 78.56 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.23: Calculate the standard deviation from the following data:

Size	6	9	12	15	18
Frequency	7	12	19	10	2

Solution:

x	Frequency f	Deviation from assumed mean 12	Deviation divided by common factor 3 x'	x' times frequency fx'	x'^2 times frequency fx'^2
6	7	-6	-2	-14	28
9	12	-3	-1	-12	12
12	19	0	0	0	0
15	10	3	1	10	10
18	2	6	2	4	8
	$N = 50$			$\sum fx' = -12$	$\sum fx'^2 = 58$

Since deviations have been divided by a common factor, we use

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= C \sqrt{\frac{\sum fx'^2}{N} - \frac{(\sum fx')^2}{N^2}} \\ &= 3 \sqrt{\frac{58}{50} - \frac{144}{2500}} \\ &= 3 \sqrt{1.1600 - .0576} = 3 \times 1.05 = 3.15. \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.24: Obtain the mean and standard deviation of the first N natural numbers, i.e., of $1, 2, 3, \dots, N-1, N$.

Solution: Let x denote the variable which assumes the values of the first N natural numbers.

NOTES

Then

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=1}^N x = \frac{N(N+1)}{2N} = \frac{N+1}{2}$$

because $\sum_{x=1}^N x = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (N-1) + N$

$$= \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$

To calculate the standard deviation σ , we use 0 as the assumed mean A . Then

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x}{N}\right)^2}$$

But $\sum x^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (N-1)^2 + N^2 = \frac{N(N+1)(2N+1)}{6}$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sqrt{\frac{N(N+1)(2N+1)}{6N} - \frac{N^2(N+1)^2}{4N^2}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{(N+1)(2N+1)}{6} - \frac{N+1}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{(N+1)(N-1)}{12}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus for first 11 natural numbers

$$\bar{x} = \frac{11+1}{2} = 6$$

and $\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{(11+1)(11-1)}{12}} = \sqrt{10} = 3.16$

Example 6.25:

	Mid-point x	Frequency f	Deviation from class of assumed mean x'	Deviation time frequency fx'	Squared deviation times frequency fx'^2
0-10	5	18	-2	-36	72
10-20	15	16	-1	-16	16
				-52	
20-30	25	15	0	0	0
30-40	35	12	1	12	12
40-50	45	10	2	20	40
50-60	55	5	3	15	45
60-70	65	2	4	8	32
70-80	75	1	5	5	25
				-60	
		79		60	242
				-52	
				$\sum fx' = 8$	

Solution: Since the deviations are from assumed mean and expressed in terms of class-interval units,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= i \times \sqrt{\frac{\sum x_i^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum fx_i}{N}\right)^2} \\ &= 10 \times \sqrt{\frac{242}{79} - \left(\frac{8}{79}\right)^2} \\ &= 10 \times 1.75 = 17.5. \end{aligned}$$

NOTES

Combining Standard Deviations of Two Distributions

If we were given two sets of data of N_1 and N_2 items with means \bar{x}_1 and \bar{x}_2 and standard deviations σ_1 and σ_2 respectively, we can obtain the mean and standard deviation \bar{x} and σ of the combined distribution by the following formulae:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{N_1\bar{x}_1 + N_2\bar{x}_2}{N_1 + N_2} \quad \dots(6.12)$$

and
$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{N_1\sigma_1^2 + N_2\sigma_2^2 + N_1(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + N_2(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_2)^2}{N_1 + N_2}} \quad \dots(6.13)$$

Example 6.26: The mean and standard deviations of two distributions of 100 and 150 items are 50, 5 and 40, 6 respectively. Find the standard deviation of all taken together.

Solution: Combined mean

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{N_1\bar{x}_1 + N_2\bar{x}_2}{N_1 + N_2} = \frac{100 \times 50 + 150 \times 40}{100 + 150} \\ &= 44 \end{aligned}$$

Combined standard deviation

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sqrt{\frac{N_1\sigma_1^2 + N_2\sigma_2^2 + N_1(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + N_2(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_2)^2}{N_1 + N_2}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{100 \times (5)^2 + 150 \times (6)^2 + 100 \times (44 - 50)^2 + 150 \times (44 - 40)^2}{100 + 150}} \\ &= 7.46. \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.27: A distribution consists of three components with 200, 250, 300 items having mean 25, 10 and 15 and standard deviation 3, 4 and 5, respectively. Find the standard deviation of the combined distribution.

Solution: In the usual notations, we are given here

$$\begin{aligned} N_1 &= 200, N_2 = 250, N_3 = 300 \\ \bar{x}_1 &= 25, \bar{x}_2 = 10, \bar{x}_3 = 15 \end{aligned}$$

The formulae (12) and (13) can easily be extended for combination of three series as

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= \frac{N_1\bar{x}_1 + N_2\bar{x}_2 + N_3\bar{x}_3}{N_1 + N_2 + N_3} \\ &= \frac{200 \times 25 + 250 \times 10 + 300 \times 15}{200 + 250 + 300} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{12000}{750} = 16$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= \sqrt{\frac{N_1\sigma_1^2 + N_2\sigma_2^2 + N_3\sigma_3^2 + N_1(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_1)^2 + N_2(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_2)^2 + N_3(\bar{x} - \bar{x}_3)^2}{N_1 + N_2 + N_3}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{200 \times 9 + 250 \times 16 + 300 \times 25 + 200 \times 81 + 250 \times 36 + 300 \times 1}{200 + 250 + 300}} \\ &= \sqrt{51.73} = 7.19. \end{aligned}$$

NOTES

Comparison of Various Measures of Dispersion

The range is the easiest to calculate the measure of dispersion, but since it depends on extreme values, it is extremely sensitive to the size of the sample, and to the sample variability. In fact, as the sample size increases the range increases dramatically, because the more the items one considers, the more likely it is that some item will turn up which is larger than the previous maximum or smaller than the previous minimum. So, it is, in general, impossible to interpret properly the significance of a given range unless the sample size is constant. It is for this reason that there appears to be only one valid application of the range, namely in statistical quality control where the same sample size is repeatedly used, so that comparison of ranges are not distorted by differences in sample size.

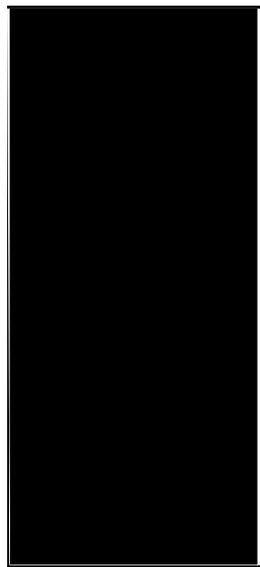
The quartile deviations and other such positional measures of dispersions are also easy to calculate but suffer from the disadvantage that they are not amenable to algebraic treatment. Similarly, the mean deviation is not suitable because we cannot obtain the mean deviation of a combined series from the deviations of component series. However, it is easy to interpret and easier to calculate than the standard deviation.

The standard deviation of a set of data, on the other hand, is one of the most important statistics describing it. It lends itself to rigorous algebraic treatment, is rigidly defined and is based on all observations. It is, therefore, quite insensitive to sample size (provided the size is 'large enough') and is least affected by sampling variations.

It is used extensively in testing of hypothesis about population parameters based on sampling statistics.

In fact, the standard deviations has such stable mathematical properties that it is used as a standard scale for measuring deviations from the mean. If we are told that the performance of an individual is 10 points better than the mean, it really does not tell us enough, for 10 points may or may not be a large enough difference to be of significance. But if we know that the s for the score is only 4 points, so that on this scale, the performance is $2.5s$ better than the mean, the statement becomes meaningful. This indicates an extremely good performance. This sigma scale is a very commonly used scale for measuring and specifying deviations which immediately suggest the significance of the deviation.

The only disadvantages of the standard deviation lies in the amount of work involved in its calculation, and the large weight it attaches to extreme values because of the process of squaring involved in its calculations.



3.5 SUMMARY

- Tabulation is a systematic arrangement of data in columns and rows. The analysis of the data is done so by arranging the columns and rows to facilitate analysis and comparisons. A table is constructed depending on the type of information to be presented and the requirements of the statistical analysis.
- Diagrams and graphs give visual indications of magnitudes, groupings, trends and patterns in the data. These important features are more simply presented in the form of graphs. Also, diagrams facilitate comparisons between two or more sets of data.
- While arithmetic mean is the most commonly used measure of central tendency, mode and median are more suitable measures under certain set of conditions and for certain types of data.
- Arithmetic mean is commonly known as the mean. Even though average, in general, means measure of central tendency, when we use the word average in our daily routine, we always mean the arithmetic average.
- Median is that value of a variable which divides the series in such a manner that the number of items below it is equal to the number of items above it.

NOTES

NOTES

- The mode of a distribution is the value at the point around which the items tend to be most heavily concentrated. It is the most frequent or the most common value, provided that a sufficiently large number of items are available, to give a smooth distribution.
- Some measures than other measures of central tendency are often employed when summarizing or describing a set of data where it is necessary to divide the data into equal parts. The quartiles divide the data into four equal parts, the deciles divide the total ordered data into ten equal parts and the percentile divide the data into 100 equal parts.
- A measure of dispersion, or simply dispersion may be defined as statistics signifying the extent of the scatteredness of items around a measure of central tendency. These can be in the form of mean deviation, quartile deviation or standard deviation.

3.6 KEY TERMS

- **Data processing:** It refers to the analysis and manipulation of the collected data by performing various functions.
- **Coding of data:** It is defined as representing the data symbolically using some predefined rules.
- **Analysis of data:** It is the process of transforming data for the purpose of extracting useful information, which in turn facilitates the discovery of some useful conclusions.
- **Mean:** It refers to the arithmetic average and measure of central location.
- **Mode:** It is a form of average that can be defined as the most frequently occurring value in the data.
- **Median:** It refers to a measure of central tendency that appears in the centre of an ordered data.
- **Standard deviation:** The square root of the average of the squared deviations from their mean of a set of observations.

3.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The functions that can be performed on data are: editing, coding, tabulation and classification.
2. Coding decisions are usually taken at the designing state of the questionnaire.
3. Class intervals refer to a range of values of a variable. This interval is used to calibrate the scale of a variable in order to tabulate the frequency distribution of a sample.
4. The following are the different methods used in hand tabulation: direct tally method, list and tally method and card sort method.
5. Bivariate analysis is a type of analysis that examines the relationship between two variables. It tries to find the extent of association that exists among these variables.
6. The ordinal scale of measurement is used to calculate and derive data pertaining to the median, percentage, rank order, correlations and percentile.

7. A frequency polygon is a line chart of frequency distribution in which, either the values of discrete variables or midpoints of class intervals are plotted against the frequencies and these plotted points are joined together by straight lines.
8. In histograms, the given data is plotted in the form of a series of rectangles. Class intervals are marked along the X-axis and the frequencies along the Y-axis according to a suitable scale.
9. The following are the characteristics of mean: the sum of the deviation of individual values of X from the mean will always add up to zero, it is very sensitive to extreme values, and the sum of the squares of the deviations about the mean is minimum.
10. When there is an even number of cases, there is no actual middle item and the median is taken to be the average of the values of the items lying on either side of $(N+1)/2$, where N is the total number of items.
11. The four important methods of estimating mode of a series are: (i) locating the most frequently repeated value in the array; (ii) estimating the mode by interpolation; (iii) locating the mode by graphic method; and (iv) estimating the mode from the mean and the median.
12. Range is the crudest measure of dispersion. It is the difference between the highest and lowest values in the series.
13. The median deviation is preferred over mean because it has the important property that the average deviation from it is the least.

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3.8 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Distinguish between the terms data classification according to attributes and class intervals.
2. State any three advantages of tabulation.
3. What is an Ogive curve?
4. Differentiate between a mean and a mode.
5. Write three characteristics of mean.
6. What is the importance of arithmetic mean in statistics?
7. Define quartiles, deciles and percentiles with suitable examples.
8. What is geometric mean? How is it calculated?
9. Write the definition and formula of quartile deviation.
10. How will you calculate the mean deviation of a given data?
11. Explain standard deviation. Why is it used in statistical evaluation of data?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Briefly describe the process and significance of coding of data.
2. Enumerate and elaborate on the methods of tabulation.
3. Elaborate on any three ways of representation of the collected data.
4. Discuss the various types of diagrams used for data representation.

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5. Explain the term descriptive statistics with the help of examples.
6. Discuss the various measures of central tendency.
7. Discuss the significance of diagrammatic representation of data.
8. Explain the common techniques of diagrammatic representation.
9. The following table gives the heights (in inches) of 100 boys of a class. Calculate mean, mode and median of the height.

<i>Height (inches)</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
60–62	5
62–64	18
64–66	42
66–68	20
68–70	8
70–72	7
	100

Solution: 65.58

10. The daily profits in rupees of 100 shops are distributed as follows. Draw a histogram of the data and then find the modal value. Check this value by direct calculation.

<i>Profits per shop</i>	<i>Number of shops</i>
0–100	12
100–200	18
200–300	27
300–400	20
400–500	17
500–600	6

Since class 200–300 has the highest frequency, i.e., 27, mode lies in this class.

Mode = 256.25

3.9 FURTHER READING

- Chandan, J. S. 1998. *Statistics for Business and Economics*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.
- Gupta, S. C. 2006. *Fundamentals of Statistics*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Gupta, S. P., 2005. *Statistical Methods*. New Delhi: Sultan Chand and Sons.
- Hooda, R. P. 2002. *Statistics for Business and Economics*. New Delhi: Macmillan India.
- Kothari, C. R., 1984. *Quantitative Techniques*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.
- Monga, G. S. 2000. *Mathematics and Statistics for Economics*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House.

UNIT 4 REPORT WRITING

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Unit Objectives
- 4.2 Need for Effective Documentation
 - 4.2.1 Importance of Report Writing
 - 4.2.2 Types of Research Reports
- 4.3 Components of Report
- 4.4 Report Writing: Report Formulation
 - 4.4.1 Guidelines for Effective Documentation
 - 4.4.2 Research Briefings: Oral Presentation
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 Key Terms
- 4.7 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 4.8 Questions and Exercises
- 4.9 Further Reading

NOTES

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The final unit will discuss the writing of research reports. A research study is a tedious task and calls for exhaustive investigation on the part of the researcher. This quite often leads to accumulation of bulk data obtained from the research study. Even if the concerned study results in brilliant hypotheses or a generalized theory, it is the responsibility of the researcher to format this bulk study into an easy-to-understand pattern or format. This is where a research report comes in.

One cannot overemphasize the significance of a well-documented and structured research report. This step is often taken as extremely rudimentary and is, thus, ignored. However, just like all the other steps in the research process, this requires careful and sequential progression. The unit will discuss in detail the formation and presentation of the research study. The format and the steps might be moderately adjusted and altered based on the reader's requirement. Thus, it might be for an academic and theoretical purpose or might need to be clearly spelt and linked with the business manager's decision dilemma.

4.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the importance of report writing
- Describe the types of research reports
- Explain the report preparation and presentation
- Identify the components of report
- Assess the formulation of report writing and guidelines

4.2 NEED FOR EFFECTIVE DOCUMENTATION

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On completion of the research study and after obtaining the research results, the real skill of the researcher lies in terms of analysing and interpreting the findings and linking them with the propositions formulated in the form of research hypotheses at the beginning of the study. The statistical or qualitative summary of results would be little more than numbers or conclusions unless one is able to present the documented version of the research endeavour.

4.2.1 Importance of Report Writing

Depending on the business researcher's orientation, the intention might be different and would be reflected in the form of the presentation but the significance is critical to both. Essentially, this is so because of the following reasons:

- The research report fulfills the historical task of serving as a concrete proof of the study that was undertaken. This serves the purpose of providing a framework for any work that can be conducted in the same or related areas.
- It is the complete detailed report of the research study undertaken by the researcher, thus it needs to be presented in a comprehensive and objective manner. This is a one-way communication of the researcher's study and analysis to the reader/manager, and thus needs to be all-inclusive and yet neutral in its reporting.
- For academic purposes, the recorded document presents a knowledge base on the topic under study and for the business manager seeking help in taking more informed decisions, the report provides the necessary guidance for taking appropriate action.
- As the report documents all the steps followed and the analysis carried out, it also serves to authenticate the quality of the work carried out and establishes the strength of the findings obtained.

Thus, effective recording and communicating of the results of the study becomes an extremely critical step of the research process. Based on the nature of the research study and the researcher's orientation, the report can take different forms.

4.2.2 Types of Research Reports

The form and structure of the research report might change according to the purpose for which it has been designed. Based on the size of the report, it is possible to divide the report into the following types:

Brief Reports

These kinds of reports are not formally structured and are generally short, sometimes not running more than four to five pages. The information provided is of a limited scope and is prepared either for immediate consumption or as a prelude to the formal structured report that would subsequently follow. These reports could be designed in several ways.

- **Working papers** or **basic reports** are written for the purpose of collating the process carried out in terms of scope and framework of the study, the methodology followed and instrument designed. The results and findings would also be recorded

here. However, the interpretation of the findings and study background might be missing, as the focus is more on the present study rather than past literature. These reports are significant as they serve as a reference point when writing the final report or when the researcher wants to revisit the detailed steps followed in collecting the study-related information.

- **Survey reports** might or might not have an academic orientation. The focus here is to present findings in an easy-to-comprehend format that includes figures and tables. The reader can then study the patterns in the findings to arrive at appropriate conclusions, essential for resolving the research problem. The advantage of these reports is that they are simple and easy to understand and present the findings in a clear and usable format.

Detailed Reports

These are more formal and pedantic in their structure and are essentially either academic, technical or business reports. Sometimes, the researcher may prepare both kinds—for an academic as well as for a business purpose. The language, presentation and format of the two kinds of reports would be vastly different as they would need to be prepared for the understanding of the reader’s capabilities and intentions.

Technical Reports

These are major documents and would include all elements of the basic report, as well as the interpretations and conclusions, as related to the obtained results. This would have a complete problem background and any additional past data/records that are essential for comprehending and interpreting the present study output. All sources of data, sampling plan, data collection instrument(s), data analysis outputs would be formally and sequentially documented.

Business Reports

These reports would not have the technical rigour and details of the technical report and would be in the language and include conclusions as understood and required by the business manager. The tables, figures and numbers of the first report would now be pictorially shown as bars and graphs and the reporting tone would be more in business terms rather than in conceptual or theoretical terms. If needed, the tabular data might be attached in the appendix.

4.3 COMPONENTS OF REPORT

Whatever the type of report, the reporting and dissemination of the study and its findings require a structured format and by and large, the process is standardized. As stated above, the major difference amongst the types of reports is that all the elements that essentially constitute a research report would be present only in a detailed technical report.

The entire research project needs to be recorded either as a single written report or into several reports, depending on the need of the readers. The researcher would need to assist the business manager in deciphering the report, executing the findings, and in case of need, to revise the report to suit the specific actionable requirements of the manager.

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Check Your Progress

1. State one extremely critical step of the research process.
2. Why is the purpose for writing working papers?

As presented in Figure 7.1, most research reports include the following sections:

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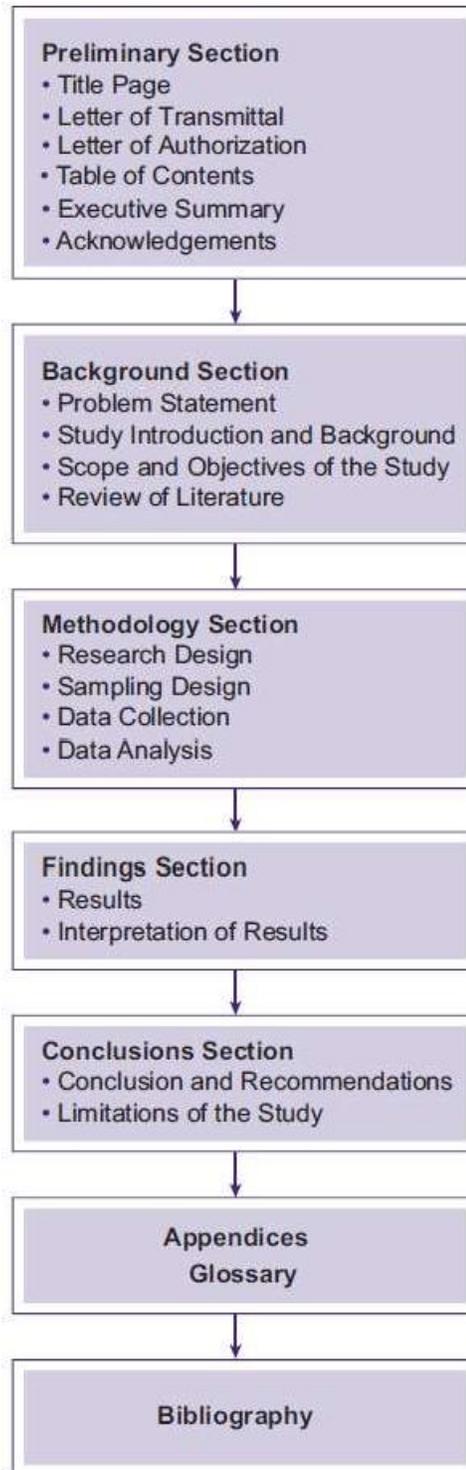


Fig. 7.1 The Process of Report Formulation and Writing

1. Preliminary Pages

This section mainly consists of identification information for the study conducted. It has the following individual elements:

Title page: This includes classification data about:

- The target audience, or the intended reader of the report.
- The report author(s), including their name, affiliation and address.
- The title of the study presented in a manner to clearly indicate the study variables; the relationship or status of the variables studied and the population to which the results apply. The title should be crisp and indicative of the nature of the project, as illustrated in the following examples.
 - o Comparative analysis of BPO workers and schoolteachers with reference to their work–life balance
 - o Segmentation analysis of luxury apartment buyers in the National Capital Region (NCR).
 - o An assessment of behavioural factors impacting consumer financial investment decisions.

Letter of transmittal: This is the letter that goes alongside the formalized copy of the final report. It broadly refers to the purpose behind the study. The tone in this note can be slightly informal and indicative of the rapport between the client-reader and the researcher. A sample letter of transmittal is presented in Exhibit 7.1. The letter broadly refers to three issues: It indicates the term of the study or objectives; next it goes on to broadly give an indication of the process carried out to conduct the study and the implications of the findings. The conclusions are generally indicative of the researcher's interest/learning from the study and in some cases may be laying the foundation for future research opportunities.

Letter of authorization: Sometimes the letter of authorization may be redundant as indications of the formal approval for conducting the study might be included in the letter of transmittal. The author of this letter is the business manager or corporate representative who formally gives the permission for executing the project. The tone of this letter, unlike the above document, is very precise and formal, leaving no room for speculation or interpretation.

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Exhibit 7.1 Sample Letter of Transmittal

To: Mr Prem Parashar	From: Nayan Navre
Company: Just Bondas Corporation (JBC)	Company: Jigyasa Associates
Location: Mumbai 116879	Location: Sabarmati Dham, Mumbai
Telephone: 48786767;4876768	Telephone: 41765888
Fax: 48786799	Fax: 41765899

Addendums: Highlight of findings (pages: 20)

15 January 2011

Dear Prem,

Please find the enclosed document which covers a summary of the findings of the November- December 2010 study of the new product offering and its acceptability. I would be sending three hard copies of the same tomorrow.

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Once the core group has discussed the direction of the expected results I would request you to kindly get back with your comments/queries/suggestions, so that they can be incorporated in the preparation of the final report document.

The major findings of the study were that the response of the non-vegetarians consuming the new *keema bonda pav* at Just Bondas was positive. As you can observe, however, the introduction of the non-vegetarian *bonda* has not been well received by the regular customers who visit the outlets for their regular *aloo bonda*. These findings, though on a small respondent base, are significant as they could be an indication of a deflecting loyal customer base.

Best regards,

Nayan

As explained, this letter is not critical to submission, in case reference to the same has been made in the transmittal letter. However, in case it is to be included in the report, it is advisable to reproduce the exact prototype of the original letter.

Table of contents: All reports should have a section that clearly indicates the division of the report based on the formal areas of the study as indicated in the research structure. The major divisions and subdivisions of the study, along with their starting page numbers, should be presented. The subheadings and the smaller sections of a topic need not be indicated here as then the presentation of the content seems cluttered.

Once the major sections of the report are listed, the list of tables come next, followed by the list of figures and graphs, exhibits (if any) and finally the list of appendices.

Executive summary: This is the last and the most critical element of the preliminary section. The summary of the entire report, starting from the scope and objectives of the study to the methodology employed and the results obtained, have to be presented in a brief and concise manner. In case the research requirement was to provide recommended changes based on the findings, it is advisable to provide short pointers here. Interestingly, it has been observed that in most instances the business managers read only the executive summary in its complete detail and most often just glance through the rest of the report. Thus, it becomes extremely critical to present a Gestaltan view of the entire report in a suitable condensed form.

The executive summary essentially can be divided into four or five sections. It begins with the study background, scope and objectives of the study, followed by the execution, including the sample details and methodology of the study. Next comes the findings and results obtained. The fourth section covers the conclusions which are more or less based on the opinion of the researcher. Finally, as stated earlier, in case the study objectives necessitates implications, the last section would include recommendations and suggestions.

Acknowledgements: A small note acknowledging the contribution of the respondents, the corporates and the experts who provided inputs for accomplishing the study is to be included here.

Though the executive summary comes before the main body of the report, it is always prepared after the entire report has been finalized and is ready in its final form. The length of this section is one or two pages only and the researcher needs to effectively present the most significant parts of the study in a succinct form. It has been observed that the executive summary is a standalone document that is often circulated independently to the interested managers who might be directly or indirectly related to the study.

2. Main Text

This is the most significant and academically robust part of the report. The sections of this division follow the essential pattern of a typical research study.

Problem definition: This section begins with the formal definition of the research problem. The problem statement is the research intention and is more or less similar to what was stated earlier as the title of the research study.

Study background: Study background presents details of the preliminary conceptualization of the management decision problem and all the groundwork done in terms of secondary data analysis, industry experts' perspectives and any other earlier reporting of similar approaches undertaken. Thus, essentially, the section begins by presenting the decision-makers' problem and then moves on to a description of the theoretical and contemporary market data that laid the foundation that guided the research.

In case the study is an academic research, there is a separate section devoted to the review of related literature, which presents a detailed reporting of work done on the same or related topic of interest.

Study scope and objectives: The logical arguments then conclude in the form of definite statements related to the purpose of the study. A clear definition of the scope and objective of the study is presented usually after the study background; in case the study is causal in nature, the formulated hypotheses are presented here as well.

Methodology of research: This section would not be sequentially placed here, for short reports or for a business report. In such reports, a short description of the methodology followed would be documented in the appendix. However, for a technical and academic report, this is a significant and primary contribution of the research study. The section would essentially have five to six sections specifying the details of how the research was conducted. These would essentially be:

- *Research framework or design:* The variables and concepts being investigated are clearly defined, with a clear reference to the relationship being studied. The justification for using a particular design has to be presented in a sequential and step-wise manner enlisting the experimental and control conditions, in case of a causal study. The researcher must take care to keep the technical details of the execution in the appendix and present the execution details in simple language, in the main body.
- *Sampling design:* The entire sampling plan in terms of the population being studied, along with the reasons for collecting the study-related information from the given group is given here. The execution details, in terms of sample size calculations, sampling frame considered and field work details can be recorded in the appendix rather than in the main body of the report. However, the sample profile and identification details are included in the main section. As stated earlier, the report needs to be reader-friendly, and too much technical information might not be required by the decision-maker.
- *Data collection methods:* In this section, the researcher should clearly list the information needed for the study as drawn from the study objectives stated earlier. The secondary data sources considered and the primary instrument designed for the specific study are discussed here. However, the final draft of the measuring instrument can be included in the appendix, which includes the execution details in terms of how the information was collected; how the open ended or opinion-

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based questions were handled; and how irregularities were handled and accounted for in the study. These and similar information enable a clear insight into the standardization of procedures maintained.

- *Data analysis:* Here, the researcher again needs to revisit the research objectives and the study design in order to justify the analytical tools and techniques used in the study. The assumptions and constraints of the analysis need to be explained here in simple, non-technical terms. There is no need to give a detailed description of the statistical calculations here.
- *Study results and findings:* This is the most critical chapter of the report and requires special care; it is probably also one of the longest chapters in the document. The researcher could, thus, consider either breaking this into subchapters or at least clear subheadings.

Researchers commonly divide the chapter on the basis of the data collection plan, i.e., there is a section on interview analysis, another one on focus group discussion and the third referring to the questionnaire analysis. This, however, does not serve any purpose as the results would then seem repetitive and disjointed. Instead, the result should be organized according to the information areas on which the data was collected or on the basis of the research objectives. There are also times when the data would be presented for the whole sample and then will be split and presented for the sub-population studied. For example, in the study on work-life balance, the findings were presented for the whole sample and then at the micro level for the BPO sector and separately for the school teacher segment. For each group, first the sample profile in terms of the demographic details of age, education, income (individual and family), years of experience, marital status, family size and other details was presented. Next, the descriptive data was made available on the seven sub-scales studied—and lastly—the predictive data—based on a multiple regression analysis with work-life balance as the dependent variable and the seven variables as independent, was presented. There was only one open-ended question related to the individual's suggestion as to what support was required from one's place of work to achieve work-life balance. This was presented last in the form of a bar chart showing variability in the responses given. Again as advised earlier, it is essential to present the findings in the form of simplified tables, graphs and figures, with the same being explained in simple text subsequently.

Interpretations of Results and Suggested Recommendations

The section study results and findings, i.e., the main report, presents a bird's eye view of the information as it exists in a summarized and numerical form. This kind of information might become difficult to understand and convert into actionable steps, thus the real skill of the researcher lies in simplifying the data in a reader-friendly language. Here, it is recommended that this section should be more analytical and opinion based. The results could be supported by the data that was presented earlier, for example, industry forecasts or the expert opinion. In case the report had an earlier section on literature review, the researcher could demonstrate the similarity of findings with past studies done on the topic. For example, in a study conducted on analysing the antecedents of turnover intention, the results obtained were explained as follows:

The results of the logit regression indicate that organizational commitment, age and marital status are significant at 5 per cent and 10 per cent levels respectively. The results indicate that as organizational commitment increases, the log of odd ratios in the favour of high turnover intention reduces, which is very logical. This is in accordance with the results obtained by Mobley, et al. (1978), Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Igarria and Greenhaus (1992), Ahuja, et al. (2007). Thus, when employees feel committed to an organization, they are more likely to stay with the organization.

Sometimes, the research results obtained may not be in the direction as found by earlier researchers. Here, the skill of the researcher in justifying the obtained direction is based on his/her individual opinion and expertise in the area of study. For example, in the same study on turnover intentions, contrary findings were explained as follows:

...the results indicate that the log of odd ratios in favour of high turnover intention is more in the case of older respondents; this is contrary to the findings of Zeffane and Gul (1995) and Finegold, et al. (2002). However, this has to be understood in the light of the profession, as in India, most people take the BPO sector as a stop-gap career and use the time at the BPO employment as an opportunity to enhance their academic qualification and then move on, which is also one of the reasons why this sector is a young sector.

Subsequent to the subsection on the interpretation of results, sometimes, the study requirement might be to formulate indicative recommendations to the decision-makers as well. Thus, in case the report includes recommendations, they should be realistic, workable and topically related to the industry studied. For example, to the business manager of organic food products, the following recommendation was made to build awareness amongst potential customers about the benefits of organic products:

Organic food study: An illustration: The power of the print media in promoting a high-involvement product is unsurpassed. Thus, articles by leading nutritionists and doctors (88 per cent of consumers are influenced by others in consuming health alternatives) on any aspect of organic food would work well. The organic players need to take care that they do not advertise only their product offerings and price alone but they also need to educate the consumer on the health benefits of the products in their advertisements.

The article/advertisement could be placed in the Sunday supplements of newspapers so that people would read them at leisure. The major decision-makers for groceries are women thus magazines like Femina, Health and Savvy would be likely choices (the magazines suggested are English fortnightlies and have a reader profile similar to our sample profile). This is also because the product is a premium and niche product and thus requires selective exposure.

Limitations of the Study

The last in this section is a brief discussion of the problems encountered during the study and the constraints in terms of time, financial or human resources. There could also have been constraints in obtaining the required information, either because the data about the topic of interest has not been collected or because it is not readily available to all. These clear revelations about the drawbacks are thus kept in mind by the reader when analysing the results and the implications of the study.

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3. End Text

The final section of the report provides all the supportive material in the study. Some of the common details presented in this section are as follows:

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Appendices: The appendix section follows the main body of the report and essentially consists of two kinds of information:

1. Secondary information like long articles or in case the study uses/is based on/ refers to some technical information that needs to be understood by the reader. Or long tables or articles or legal or policy documents.
2. Primary data that can be compressed and presented in the main body of the report. This includes: Original questionnaire, discussion guides, formula used for the study, sample details, original data, long tables and graphs which can be described in statement form in the text.

Bibliography: This is an important part of the final section as it provides the complete details of the information sources and papers cited in a standardized format. It is recommended to follow the publication manuals from the American Psychological Association (APA) or the Harvard method of citation for preparing this section. In fact, with the advancement in computer technology the latest version of Microsoft office Word 2007 can automatically generate a bibliography based on any of these formats, based on the source information provided in the document.

The reporting content of the bibliography could also be in terms of:

- **Selected bibliography:** Selective references are cited in terms of relevance and reader requirement. Thus, the books or journals, that are technical and not really needed to understand the study outcomes are not reported.
- **Complete bibliography:** All the items that have been referred to, even when not cited in the text, are given here.
- **Annotated bibliography:** Along with the complete details of the cited work, some brief information about the nature of information sought from the article is given. This could run into three or four lines or a brief paragraph.

At this juncture we would like to refer to another method of citation that an author might wish to use during report writing. This could be in the form of a footnote. To explain the difference we would first like to explain what a typical footnote is:

Footnote: A typical footnote, as the name indicates, is part of the main report and comes at the bottom of a page or at the end of the main text. This could refer to a source that the author has referred to or it may be an explanation of a particular concept referred to in the text.

The referencing protocol of a footnote and bibliography is different. In a footnote, one gives the first name of the person first and the surname next. However, this order is reversed in the bibliography. Here we start first with the surname and then the first name. In a bibliography, we generally mention the page numbers of the article or the total pages in the book. However, in a footnote, the specific page from which the information is cited is mentioned. A bibliography is generally arranged alphabetically depending on the author's name, but in the footnote the reporting is based on the sequence in which they occur in the text.

Glossary of terms: In case there are specific terms and technical jargon used in the report, the researcher should consider putting a glossary in the form of a word list of terms used in the study. This section is usually the last section of the report.

4.4 REPORT WRITING: REPORT FORMULATION

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An important point to remember in report writing is that the document compiled is meant for specific readers. Thus, one needs to design the same according to the needs of the reader. Listed below are some features of a good research study that should be kept in mind while documenting and preparing the report.

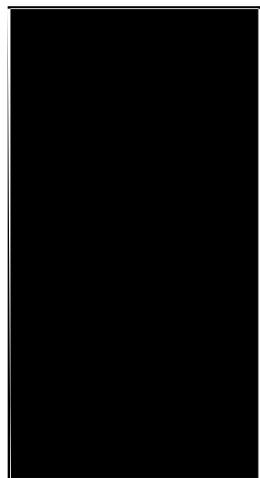
Clear report mandate: While writing the research problem statement and study background, the writer needs to be focused, precise and very explicit in terms of the problem under study, the background that provided the impetus to conduct the research and the study domain. This is prepared on the assumption that the writer at no point in time needs to be physically present in order to clarify the research mandate. One cannot make an assumption that the reader has earlier insights into the problem situation. The writer needs to be absolutely clear on the need for lucidity of thought and dissemination of this knowledge to the reader.

Clearly designed methodology: Any research study has its unique orientation and scope and thus has a specific and customized research design, sampling and data collection plan. The writer, thus, needs to be explicit in terms of the logical justification for having used the study methods and techniques. However, as stated earlier, the language should be non-technical and reader friendly and any technical explanations or details must be provided in the appendix. In researches, that are not completely transparent on the set of procedures, one cannot be absolutely confident of the findings and resulting conclusions.

Clear representation of findings: The sample size for each analysis, any special conditions or data treatment must be clearly mentioned either as a footnote or as an endnote, so that the reader takes this into account while interpreting and understanding the study results. The sample base is very important in justifying a trend or taking a strategic decision; for example, if amongst a sample of bachelors we say that 100 per cent young bachelors want to buy grocery online or on the telephone and the recommended strategy is to suggest this as the delivery channel, one might be making an error if the size of the bachelors was four out of a total sample of 100 grocery buyers considered. Thus, complete honesty and transparency in stating the treatment and editing of missing or contrary data is extremely critical.

Representativeness of study finding: A good research report is also explicit in terms of extent and scope of the results obtained, and in terms of the applicability of findings. This is also dependent on whether the assumptions and preconditions made for formulating the conclusions and recommendations of the study have been explicitly stated.

In order to ensure that one has been able to achieve the above stated objective, the reader must ensure a standardization of procedures in writing the document as well as follow standard protocols for preparing graphs and tables. In the following section we will briefly discuss some simple rules that the researcher can use as guidelines for this.



4.4.1 Guidelines for Effective Documentation

The following are certain guidelines that are needed for effective documentation.

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Command over the medium: Even though one may have done an extremely rigorous and significant research study, the fundamental test still remains as to how the learning has been disseminated. Regardless of how effective the graphs and figures are in showcasing the findings, the verbal description and explanation—in terms of why it was done, how it was done, and what was the outcome, still remain the acid test.

Thus, a correct and effective language of communication is critical in putting ideas and objectives in the vernacular of the reader/decision-maker. The writer may, thus, be advised to read professionally written reports and, if necessary, seek assistance from those proficient in preparing business reports.

Phrasing protocol: There is a debate about whether or not one makes use of personal pronoun while reporting. To understand this, one needs to revisit the responsibility of the researcher, which is to present the findings of his/her study, with complete objectivity and precision. The use of personal pronoun such as ‘I think.....’ or ‘in my opinion.....’ lends a subjectivity and personalization of judgement. Thus, the tone of the reporting should be neutral. For example:

‘Given the nature of the forecasted growth and the opinion of the respondents, it is likely that the.....’

Whenever the writer is reproducing the verbatim information from another document or comment of an expert or published source, it must be in inverted commas or italics and the author or source should be duly acknowledged.

For example:

Sarah Churchman, Head of Diversity, PricewaterhouseCoopers, states ‘At PricewaterhouseCoopers we firmly believe that promoting work–life balance is a ‘business-critical’ issue and not simply the ‘right thing to do’. Profitable growth and sustainable business depends on attracting and retaining top talent and we know, from our own research and experience that work–life policies are an essential ingredient of successful recruitment and retention strategies.’

The writer should avoid long sentences and break up the information in clear chunks, so that the reader can process it with ease. Similar is the case in structuring of the chapters or sections of the report that can be logically broken down into smaller sections that are comprehensive and complete and yet maintain a strong but logical link with the flow of reporting.

With the onset of the use of abbreviated communications in SMS and emails, most people tend to use shortened form as ‘cd.’ for could and ‘u’ for you, etc. Also the use of colloquial language and slangs must be avoided, as this is a formal document and one must maintain the sanctity of the formal documentation required in a research report.

Simplicity of approach: Along with grammatically and structurally correct language, care must be taken to avoid technical jargon as far as possible. The business manager, might have been a business student who had prepared a research report in his academic pursuits but now understands simple common terms and does not have the time or inclination to juggle the dictionary and the report together. In case it is imperative to use certain terminology, then, as stated earlier, the definition of these terms can be provided in the glossary of terms at the end of the report.

Sometimes the writer may prepare different research reports for the same study to suit the need of diverse readers, for example, the business report needs to be crisp and simple with definable and workable recommendations. On the other hand, an academic report could discuss extensively the literature review section, as well as the statistical analysis and interpretation.

Report formatting and presentation: In terms of paper quality, page margins and font style and size, a professional standard should be maintained. The font style must be uniform throughout the report. The topics, subtopics, headings and subheadings must be construed in the same manner throughout the report. Sometimes certain academic reports have a mandated format for presentation which the writers need to follow, in which case there is no choice in presentation.

However, when this is not clear, it is advisable that the writer creates his/her own formatting rules and saves it on a notepad so that they can be implemented in a standardized and professional manner.

The researcher can provide data relief and variation by adequately supplementing the text with graphs and figures. Pictorial representations are simple to comprehend and also break the monotony and fatigue of reading. They should be used effectively whenever possible in the report.

Guidelines for Presenting Tabular Data

We have discussed this topic in detail in the previous unit. In this section, we will recall some of the concepts again along with some new information.

Most research studies involve some form of numerical data, and even though one can discuss this in text, it is best represented in tabular form. The advantage of doing this is that statistical tables present the data in a concise and numeral form, which makes quantitative analysis and comparisons easier. Tables formulated could be general tables following a statistical format for a particular kind of analysis. These are best put in the appendix, as they are complex and detailed in nature. The other kind is simple summary tables, which only contain limited information and yet, are, essentially critical to the report text.

The mechanics of creating a summary table are very simple and are illustrated below with an example (Table 7.1). The illustration has been labelled with numbers which relate to the relevant section.

Table identification details: The table must have a title (1a) and an identification number (1b). The table title should be short and usually would not include any verbs or articles. It only refers to the population or parameter being studied. The title should be briefly yet clearly descriptive of the information provided. The numbering of tables is usually in a series and generally one makes use of Arabic numbers to identify them.

Data arrays: The arrangement of data in a table is usually done in an ascending manner. This could either be in terms of time, as shown in Table 7.1 (column-wise) or according to sectors or categories (row-wise) or locations, e.g., north, south, east, west and central. Sometimes, when the data is voluminous, it is recommended that one goes alphabetically, e.g., country or state data. Sometimes there may be subcategories to the main categories, for example, under the total sales data—a column-wise component of the revenue statement—there could be subcategories of department store, chemists and druggists, mass merchandisers and others. Then these have to be displayed under the sales data head, after giving a tab command as follows:

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Table 7.1 Automobile Domestic Sales Trends

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		Year-wise data (number of cars)				
		2002-2003	2003-2004	2004-2005	2006-2007	2007-2008
1a	Category					
2b	Passenger vehicles.....	707,198	902,098	1,061,572	1,143,076	1,379,979
	Commercial Vehicles.....	190,682	260,114	318,430	351,041	467,765
	Three-wheelers.....	231,529	284,078	307,862	359,920	403,910
7a	Two-wheelers.....	4,812,126	5,364,249	6,209,765	7,052,391	7,872,334
	Grand Total*	5,941,535	6,810,537	7,897,629	8,906,428	10,123,988
5b	*Does not include second hand car sales.					
6a	Source: SIAM					

Total sales

- Mass market
- Department store
- Drug stores
- Others (including paan beedi outlets)

Measurement unit: The unit in which the parameter or information is presented should be clearly mentioned.

Spaces, Leaders and Rulings (SLR): For limited data, the table need not be divided using grid lines or rulings. Simple white spaces add to the clarity of information presented and processed. In case the number of parameters are too many and the data seems to be bulky to be simply separated by space, it is advisable to use vertical ruling. Horizontal lines are drawn to separate the headings from the main data, as can be seen in Table 7.1. When there are a number of subheadings as in the sales data example, one may consider using leaders (.....) to assist the eye movement in absorbing and processing the information.

Total sales

- Mass market.....
- Department store.....
- Drug stores.....
- Others (including paan beedi outlets).....

Assumptions, details and comments: Any clarification or assumption made, or a special definition required to understand the data, or formula used to arrive at a particular figure, e.g., total market sale or total market size can be given after the main tabled data in the form of footnotes.

Data sources: In case the information documented and tabled is secondary in nature, complete reference of the source must be cited after the footnote, if any.

Special mention: In case some figure or information is significant and the reader should pay special attention to it, the number or figure can be bold or can be highlighted to increase focus.

Guidelines for Visual Representations: Graphs

Similar to the summarized and succinct data in the form of tables, the data can also be presented through visual representations in the form of graphs. As we have seen the previous unit, the visual representation of the findings in the form of lines or boxes and bars relative to a number line is easy to comprehend and interpret. There are some standard rules and procedures available to the researcher for this; also there are computer programs like MS Excel and SPSS, where the numbered data can be converted with ease into graphical form.

Line and curve graphs: Usually, when the objective is to demonstrate trends and some sort of pattern in the data, a line chart is the best option available to the researcher as the line is able to clearly portray any change in pattern during a particular time period. On the same chart, it is also possible to show patterns of growth of different sectors or industries in the same time period or to compare the change in the studied variable across different organizations or brands in the same industry. Certain points to be kept in mind while formulating line charts include:

- The time units or the causal variable being studied are to be put on the X-axis, or the horizontal axis.
- If the intention is to compare different series on the same chart, the lines should be of different colours or forms (Figure 7.2).
- Too many lines are not advisable on the same chart as then the data becomes too cluttered; an ideal number would be five or less than five lines on the chart.

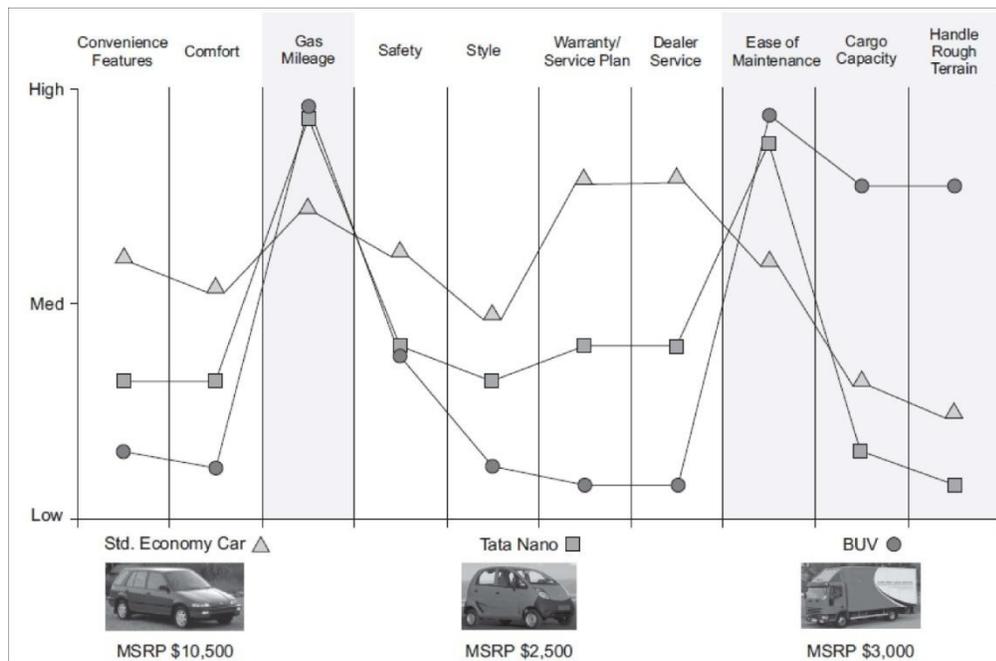


Fig. 7.2 Comparative Analysis of Vehicles (including Nano) on Features Desired by

Source: vytrak.com

- The researcher also must take care to formulate the zero baseline in the chart as otherwise, the data would seem to be misleading. For example, in Figure 7.3(a), in case the zero baseline is (as shown in the chart) the expected change in the number of hearing aids units to be sold over the time period 2002–03 to 2007–08,

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it can be accurately perceived. However, in Figure 7.3(b), where the zero is at 1,50,000 units, the rate of growth can be misjudged to be more swift.

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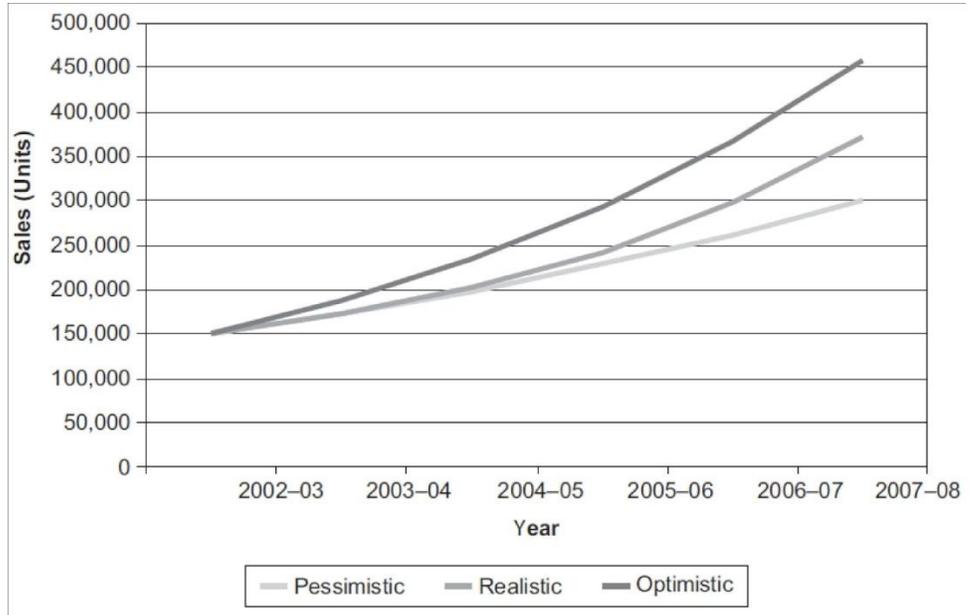


Fig. 7.3(a) Expected Growth in the Number of Hearing Aids Units to be Sold in North India (Three Perspectives)

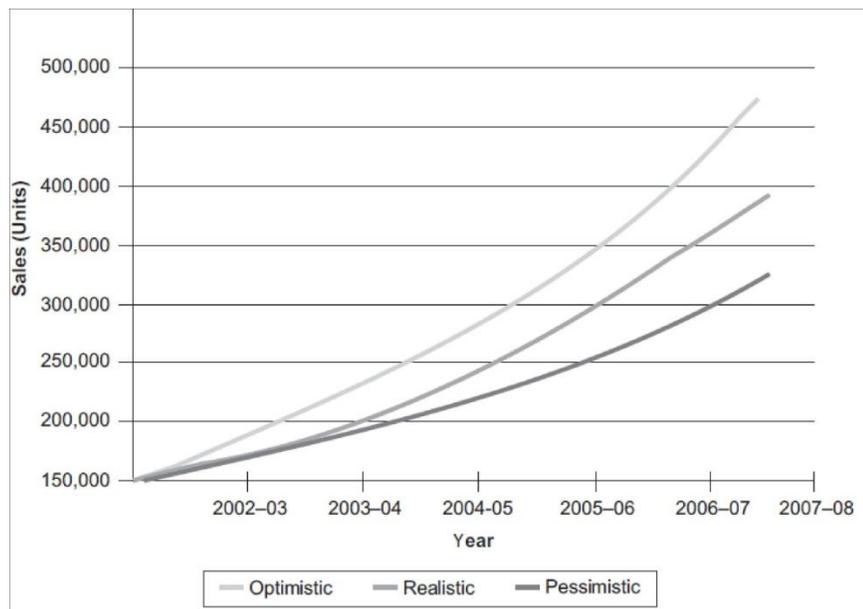


Fig. 7.3(b) Expected Growth in the Number of Hearing Aids Units to be Sold in North India (Three Perspectives)

Area or stratum charts: Area charts are like the line charts, usually used to demonstrate changes in a pattern over a period of time. However, here there are multiple lines that are essentially components of the original composite data. What is done is that the change in each of the components is individually shown on the same chart and each of them is stacked one on top of the other. The areas between the various lines indicate the scale or volume of the relevant factors/categories (Figure 7.4).

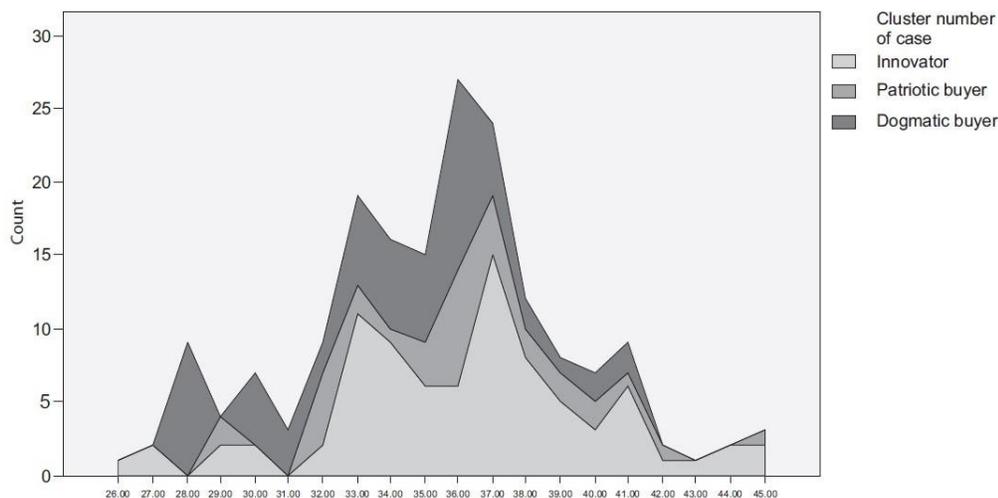


Fig. 7.4 Perception of Nano by Three Psychographic Segments of Two-wheeler Owners

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Pie charts: Another way of demonstrating the area or stratum or sectional representation is through the pie charts. The critical difference between a line and pie chart is that the pie chart cannot show changes over time. It simply shows the cross-section of a single time period. The sections or slices of the pie indicate the ratio of that section to the total area of the parameter being displayed. There are certain rules that the researcher should keep in mind while creating pie charts.

- The complete data must be shown as a 100 per cent area of the subject being graphed.
- It is a good idea to have the percentages displayed within or above the pie rather than in the legend as then it is easier to understand the magnitude of the section in comparison to the total. For example, Figure 7.5 shows the brand-wise sales in units for the existing brands of hearing aids in the North Indian market.

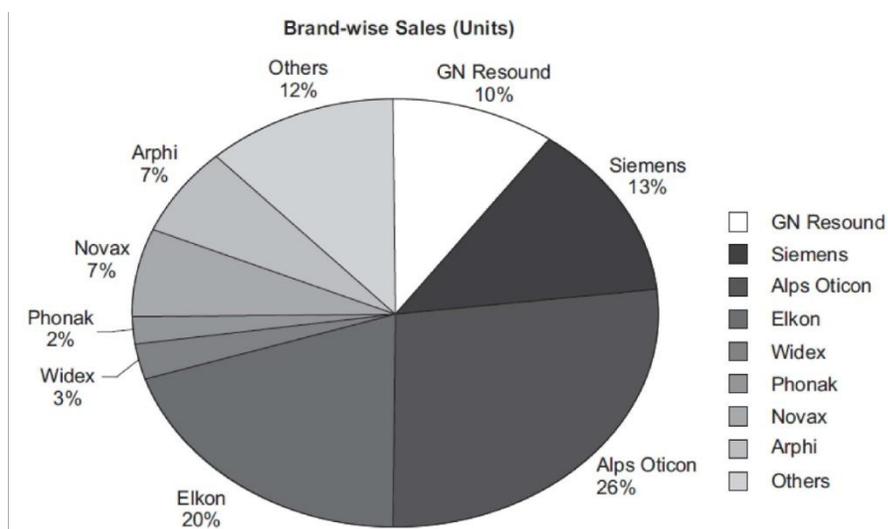


Fig. 7.5 Brand-wise Sales (units) of Hearing Aids in the North Indian Market (2002-03)

- Showing changes over time is difficult through a pie chart, as stated earlier. However, the change in the components at different time periods could be demonstrated as in Figure 7.6, showing share of the car market in India in 2009 and the expected market composition of 2015.

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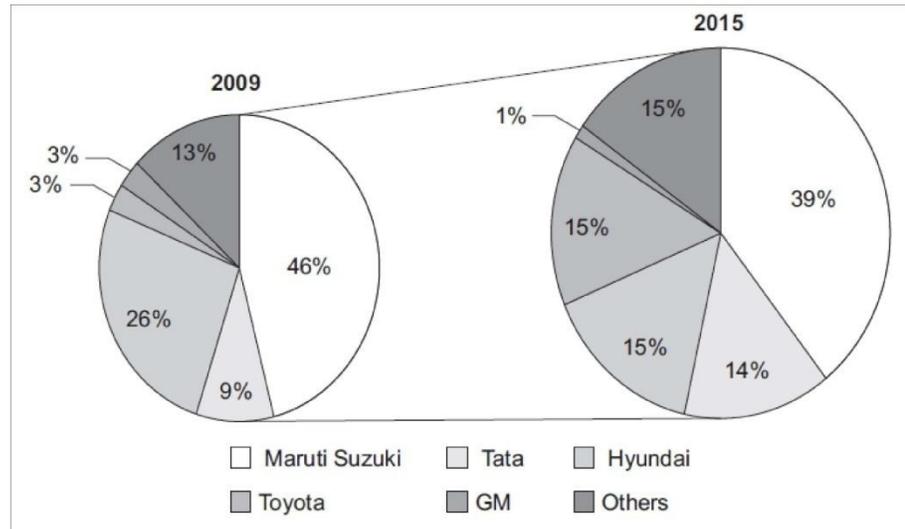


Fig. 7.6 Current Structure of the Indian Car Market (2009) and the Forecasted Structure for 2015

Bar charts and histograms: A very useful representation of quantum or magnitude of different objects on the same parameter are bar diagrams. The comparative position of objects becomes very clear. The usual practice is to formulate vertical bars; however, it is possible to use horizontal bars as well if none of the variable is time related [Figure 7.7(a)]. Horizontal bars are especially useful when one is showing both positive and negative patterns on the same graph [Figure 7.7(b)]. These are called bilateral bar charts and are especially useful to highlight the objects or sectors showing a varied pattern on the studied parameter. It is possible to generate bar graphs with relative ease with computer programs today and the distance between the bars can be extremely precise as compared to those created by hand.

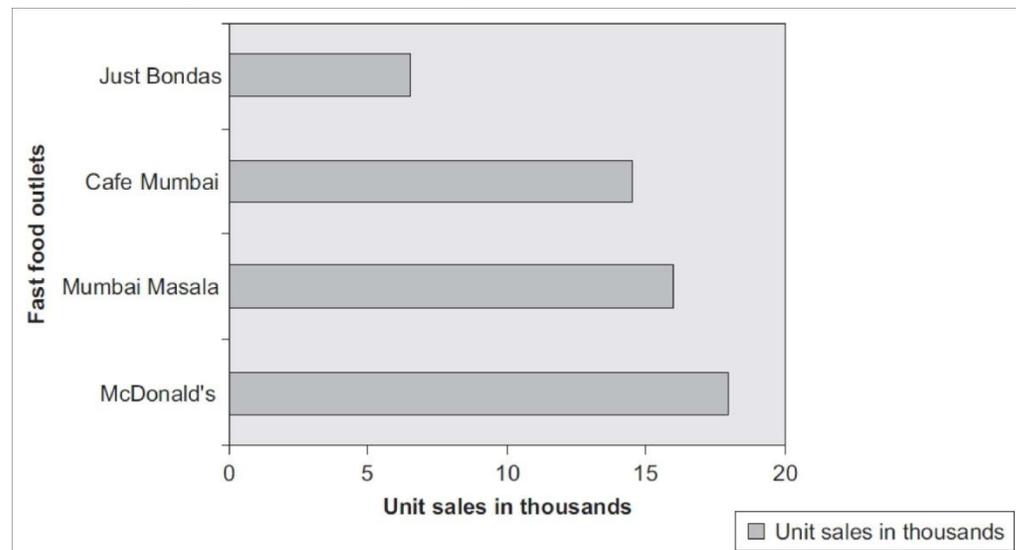


Fig. 7.7(a) Bar Chart Per day, Unit Sales (Thousands) at Fast Food Outlets in Mumbai

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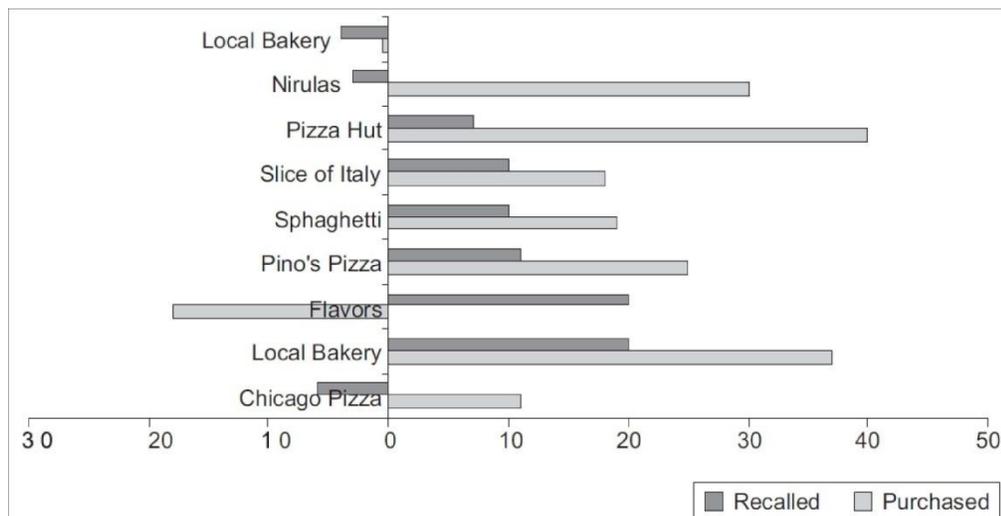


Fig. 7.7(b) Bilateral Bar Chart—the Brand Recall and Brand Purchase Response for Pizza Joints in the NCR

Another variation of the bar chart is the histogram (Figure 7.8) here the bars are vertical and the height of each bar reflects the relative or cumulative frequency of that particular variable.

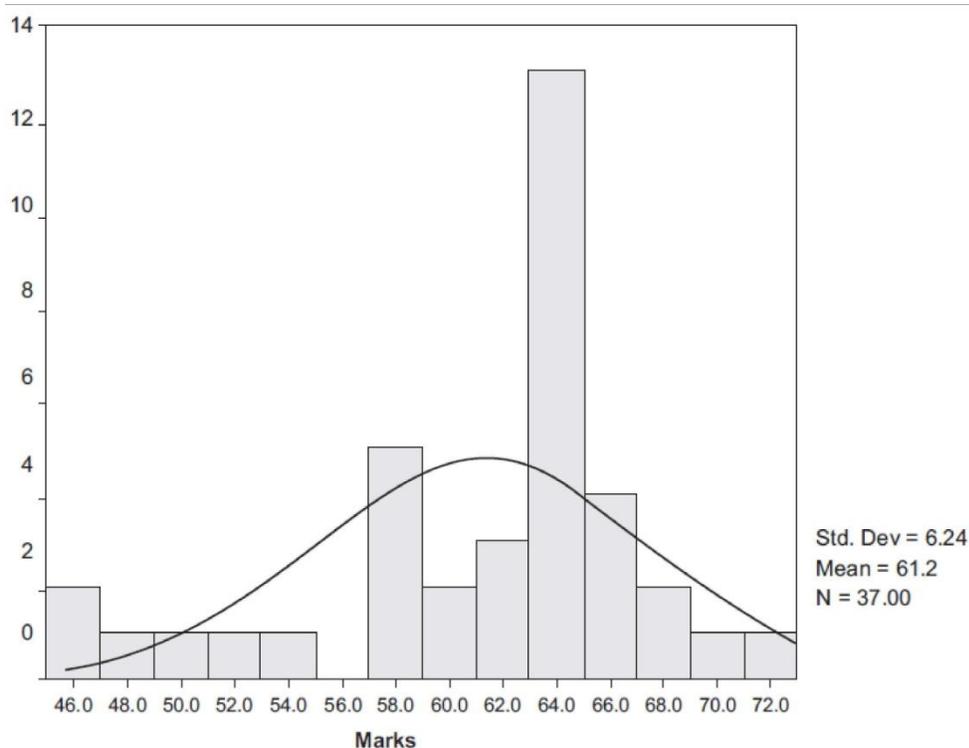


Fig. 7.8 Histogram (With Normal Curve) Displaying Marks in a Course on Research Methods for Management

Pictogram: A pictogram shows graphical representation of data. Pictograms are most often used in popular and general read such as in magazines and newspapers, as they are eye-catching and easy to comprehend by one and all. They are not a very accurate or scientific representation of the actual data and, thus, should be used with caution in an

academic or technical report. Examples of pictograph are given in Figures 7.9(a) and 7.9(b).

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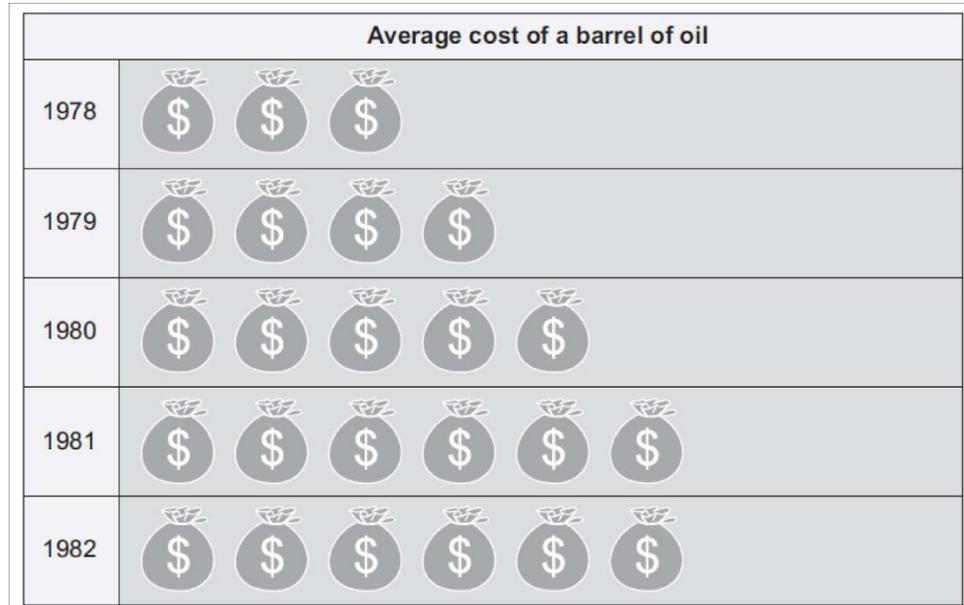


Fig. 7.9(a) Pictogram Displaying Change in the Cost of Oil Vver a Five-Year Block (1978–1982)

Source: tutorvista.com

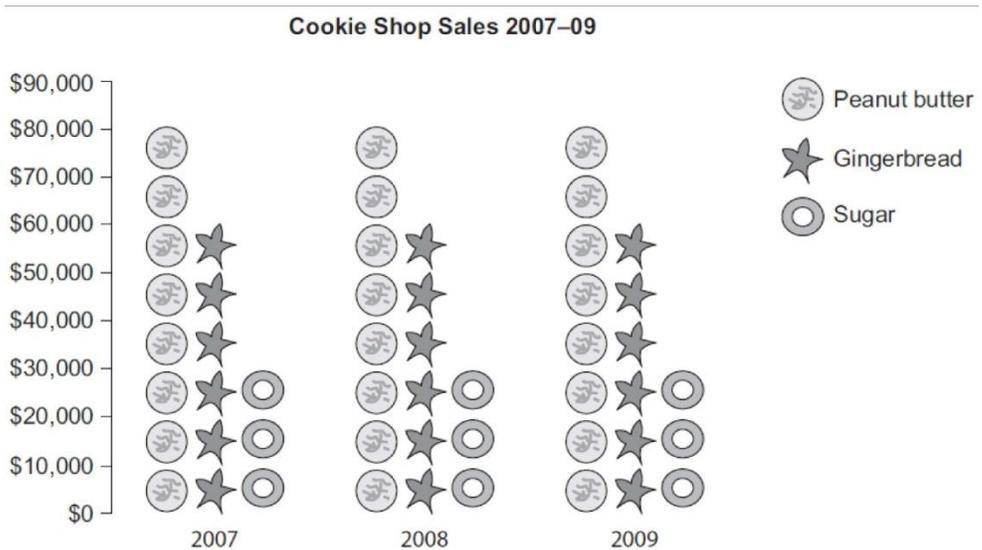


Fig. 7.9(b) Pictogram Displaying Sales for Cookie Shop over Three Years (2007–09)

Source: 4spreadsheets.pbworks.com

Geographic representation: Geographic or regional maps related to countries, states, districts, territories can be used as a base to show occurrence of the studied variable in various regions or to show comparative analysis about major brands or industries or minerals. In case of comparative data, the researcher must provide the legend in the displayed map, for example any map of the location may be given.

4.4.2 Research Briefings: Oral Presentation

Once the final draft of the research report is prepared and documented, the last stage is sharing the findings and research implications with the client or interested audience. This is usually done orally and with the support of visual aids. The presentation that the researcher might be making could be detailed for his team members or for an academic audience. However, in case the presentation is for the client or for a business audience, brevity and focus of the presentation is critical. A thumb rule for this is not to go beyond 20 minutes with more time for question and answers and interactive discussion on the findings.

Regardless of the audience for the presentation, the most critical aspect of the presentation is two-fold:

- (a) Who is the listener? What does he/she seek from the presentation?
- (b) What is the core of the briefing—is it background, or methodology, key findings or decision directions that the findings are indicating?

Once the researcher is clear on this, he needs to need to focus on three key aspects:

Study background: This should be essentially 10–15 per cent of the entire presentation. It should explain the impetus behind the study as briefly and with suitable emphasis as possible.

Study findings: The major conclusions of the study need to be shared in simple words and with appropriate supportive visuals or material. The researcher must be able to demonstrate clearly the link between the study objectives and the findings.

Study implications: In case this was agreed upon between the researcher and the client or was specified as a study objective by the researcher, this section would be the last section of the presentation. The link between what was found and what is suggested must be clear to the audience. The researcher may vary the discussion time between the earlier section and this as 45 per cent each or 30–70 or 70–30, depending on the study objective, i.e., more findings or more implication oriented. As supportive material the researcher can make use of:

Handouts: These could be in the form of the primary questionnaire designed for the study or company brochures and other related secondary material. They should be distributed to the audience when the presenter is referring to them.

Slides: These are created today with the help of computer programmes. There are endless possibilities enhancing the material be presented and for engaging the listener. The designing and creation of the material requires considerable skill and care to ensure that the presentation style should be the supportive aid for an effective delivery and not a showcase of the computer graphics that the researcher is well versed with. Too much clutter and a random mix of text and graphics should be avoided. Animation of the data in synchronization with the vocal delivery makes the presentation more forceful.

Chalkboards and flipcharts: These are additional visual aids that could be kept as standby for the question-and-answer session when an idea might have to be highlighted or demonstrated in the response of some query raised by the listeners. However, use of these means during an active presentation should be avoided as they necessitate the presenter to be engaged with the medium at the cost of losing contact with the listener.

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Video and audio tapes: Again, these are supportive materials that can be used to emphasize a point.

The world has become smaller as a consequence of technological innovations that make dissemination of knowledge seem like child's play. Thus, the significance of communication and presentation of this learning cannot be overemphasized.

4.5 SUMMARY

- On completion of the research study and after obtaining the research results, the real skill of the researcher lies in terms of analysing and interpreting the findings and linking them with the propositions formulated in the form of research hypotheses at the beginning of the study.
- The following is the significance of report: it fulfills the historical task of serving as a concrete proof, it ideally presents a comprehensive and objective study of the research problem, it presents a knowledge based on the topic under study, it documents all the steps followed and the analysis carried out.
- Research can be divided into brief reports, detailed reports, technical reports, and business reports.
- Whatever the type of report, the reporting and dissemination of the study and its findings require a structured format and by and large, the process is standardized.
- The following are the steps involved in the report formulation and presentation: a preliminary section with rudimentary parts, the background section with the scope, objectives, background etc; the methodology section and the conclusions.
- The preliminary pages include the letter of transmittal, letter of authorization, table of contents, executive summary and acknowledgements.
- The main text of the report includes problem definition, study background, study scope and objectives and the methodology of research.
- The end text of the report includes appendices, bibliography, footnote and glossary of terms.
- The features of a good research study: clear report mandate, clearly designed methodology, clear representation of findings, representativeness of study finding, etc.
- Guidelines for effective documentation include pointers related to command over the medium, phrasing protocol, simplicity of approach and report formatting and presentation.
- Guidelines for presenting tabular data includes discussion related to the table identification details, data arrays, measurement unit, space, leaders and rulings, assumptions, details and comments, data sources and special mention. There are also certain guidelines related to graphic representation and the use of different graphs.
- Once the final draft of the research report is prepared and documented, the last stage is sharing the findings and research implications with the client or interested audience. This is usually done orally with the support of visual aids.



4.6 KEY TERMS

- **Preliminary pages:** It is the initial section of the report which should carry a 'title' and a 'date,' followed by the acknowledgements in the form of Preface or Foreword.
- **Main text:** It is the main text of the report which comprises of the complete outline of the research report with all the details.
- **Letter of transmittal:** It is the letter that goes alongside the formalized copy of the final report containing the purpose behind the study.
- **Executive summary:** It includes the summary of the report starting from the scope and objectives of the study to the methodology employed and the results obtained in a brief and concise manner.

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4.7 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Effective recording and communicating of the results of the study is the extremely critical step of the research process.
2. Working papers or basic reports are written for the purpose of collating the process carried out in terms of scope and framework of the study, the methodology followed and instrument designed.
3. The following are the three issues addressed by the letter of transmittal: it indicates the term of the study or objectives, next it goes on to broadly give an indication of the process carried out to conduct the study and the implications of the findings.
4. An executive summary is the summary of the entire report, starting from the scope and objectives of the study to the methodology employed and the results obtained, have to be presented in a brief and concise manner.
5. The following sections specify the methodology of research: research framework, sampling design, data collection methods, data analysis and study results and findings.
6. Some examples of the primary data which are included in the appendices are: original questionnaire, discussion guides, formula used for the study, sample details, original data, and long tables and graphs which can be described in statement form in the text.
7. The research problem statement is prepared on the assumption that the writer at no point in time needs to be physically present in order to clarify the research mandate.
8. The advantage of presenting information in a tabular form is that the statistical tables present the data in a concise and numeral form, which makes quantitative analysis and comparisons easier.
9. The critical difference between a line and pie chart is that the pie chart cannot show changes over time. It simply shows the cross-section of a single time period. The sections or slices of the pie indicate the ratio of that section to the total area of the parameter being displayed.

10. The thumb rule to be followed to ensure the brevity and focus of the presentation is for the presentation to not go beyond 20 minutes with more time for question and answers and interactive discussion on the findings.

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4.8 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What is the significance of report writing?
2. List the classification of data included in the title page of a report.
3. Briefly explain the different types of graphs and their uses.
4. Explain the research briefings for oral presentation.
5. What is the difference between geographic representations and pictograms?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Explain the different types of report.
2. What are the guidelines for effective report writing? Illustrate with suitable examples.
3. Discuss the concept of methodology of report mentioned in the main text of the report.
4. Critically examine the interpretations of results and suggested recommendations
5. Discuss the features of the report writing.
6. 'Visual representations of results are best understood by a reader; thus special care must be taken for this formulation.' Examine the truth of this statement by giving suitable examples.

4.9 FURTHER READING

- Kothari, C.R. 2009. *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International Pvt. Ltd. Publishers.
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- Bajpai, Naval. 2011. *Business Research Methods*. 1st edition. New Jersey: Pearson Education.
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