

Unit 33

Guidelines to Research Project Assignment

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Learning Objectives

It is expected that after reading Unit 33, you would be able to get the following guidance to successfully complete one of the assignments of MSO 002.

- ❖ Obtain an overview of the course material of MSO 002.
- ❖ Understand the objectives of undertaking a research project.
- ❖ Begin preparations for planning and carrying out the research project.
- ❖ Work out the various stages of the research.
- ❖ Seeking help to overcome problems, if any, during the research.
Be informed about the submission and evaluation methodology of the research project.

33.1 Introduction

I hope that you have read in Book 1 the Introduction to MSO 002, where we mentioned on page xii that the first tutor marked assignment of MSO 002 would comprise a 5,000-word report on a small fieldwork-based research project on one of the subjects listed in the assignment booklet of MSO 002. Alternatively, you may choose your own subject of research. Unit 33 aims to provide you some guidelines to research project assignment. In addition, you may consult your academic counsellor at the Study Centre assigned to you.

33.2 Overview of Research Methodologies and Methods (MSO 002)

It is useful to repeat what you have already read in Book 1 about organisation of the course material of MSO 002. This will provide a bird's eye view of what you have already read in MSO 002 and it is expected

that you will now be able to put into practice what you have learnt in the pages of MSO 002 course material. As explained earlier, the objective of MSO 002 is to train its learners to become good researchers and investigators of the social reality around us.

All attempts to make social research scientifically valid involve clarity of perspectives or orientations that guide one's quest for collection of facts and all such clarity is worthwhile only when it accompanies scientific methods and techniques of collecting and analysing/ interpreting facts. Then comes the documentation and presentation of one's analysis in technical summaries and reports or research publications. Following this very sequence, the second course of M.A. Sociology of IGNOU, (MSO 002) has been divided into three books.

❖ **Book 1, *Research Methodologies*:** Book 1 traces the philosophical roots of current methodologies in social research and sensitises its learners to take a critical look at them for obtaining conceptual clarity. It has three blocks, with eleven units.

❖ **Book 2, *Quantitative and Survey Methods*:** Book 2 deals with the study of a) research methods as a way to understand social phenomena and b) statistical and survey methods of gathering, organizing and analysing the data collected.

❖ **Book 3, *Qualitative Methods and Presentation of Research Findings*:** Book 3 is concerned with qualitative methods of research and writing up the findings of the research. In addition, as a novel input to a research methods course, the book covers the applications of the tools that information technology has made available to social science researchers for analysing and presenting their research data.

Having completed your reading of the units in the three books of MSO 002, you are now fully sensitised to the need of critically looking at different perspectives, methods and techniques of social research. You have reached the stage when you can receive an exposure, however limited, to fieldwork that would inculcate in you the spirit of inquiry through real life experience of sociological research.

33.3 Research Project Objectives

The objective of the Research Project is to provide you with an opportunity to utilise the knowledge and apply the skills gained from the three books of MSO 002 so that you may be able to use social science research methodologies and methods in the world of work and for pursuing research degrees like M. Phil. and Ph. D. in the social sciences. You would need to read the contents of the three books in detail from the point of view of the subject of your research project. You would study in depth the relevant theoretical foundations, appropriate methods and techniques for carrying out field research in order to generate your own data. In

the process, you may come across constraints at any stage of your research project. You would need to overcome those constraints and present the results of your research in about five thousand words. This discussion would take us to the next section of this unit, that is, preparing for the research project.

33.4 Preparation for Research Project

Here we give, in brief, the main stages of the research project and in the next section you will read their details.

❖ The planning stage

This stage begins as soon as you enrol for MSO 002. The effort you put into your research project would be optimum if you work systematically. Some of the steps that you need to follow are listed in the next section for your reference. Just to start with a few of them are

- a) Start a diary or a logbook to systematically record the process and activities you undertake throughout the research project.
- b) Identify and determine the theme for your research project within six to ten weeks of receiving your learning material of MSO 002 by browsing through each of the three books.
- c) Start making entries in your diary/ logbook[®]. This will help you in later stages of your research.
- d) Consult the academic counsellor and discuss with her/ him the feasibility of carrying out your research.
- e) Give yourself some degree of flexibility for changing your research topic. This should of course be done keeping in mind the time and resources available at your end.
- f) Visit the libraries close to the place of your residence for consulting the books in the reading list suggested by the social scientists you had spoken to.

The above steps would be enough to get going with your research project. You would now be ready for the second stage of your research.

❖ Working on the Research Project

- a) Getting an overview of your research project through a review of secondary data[®]
- b) Contextualising general observations with the objectives of your research project
- c) Description of case study projects, if any
- d) Identifying the key actors/ informants/ participants and their social networks
- e) Selecting method(s) for data gathering and analysis

- f) Data analysis
- g) Drawing conclusions

After working on your research project will come the stage of putting it down on paper or let us say that this is the stage of writing up your material.

❖ **Research Project Report**

- a) Writing or typing the report
- b) Selecting the format of the report
- c) Organising accordingly the presentation of the data and its analysis.

Going through the above three stage of the research project will see you build a capacity for conducting a social research. We will now discuss in detail all stages of research including the above three mentioned in this section.

33.5 Stages of the Research Project

The discussion in this section is to give you guidelines so that you are able to carry out the research in a systematic and confident manner without any apprehension and fear of failure. Let us begin with the first stage.

❖ **Stage 1: Planning stage**

At the planning stage, you will need to accomplish the following four tasks in a careful manner. This is so because good planning is likely to provide you a clear and concise understanding of what you are going to do.

i) Work out a timetable for completing the reading of the three books of MSO 002. Along with this task, plan your timetable for carrying out all your assignments and make a conscious effort to maintain your work progress as planned. Make sure to assign some time for research project in your timetable.

ii) Exploring options for individual research project would entail the following steps.

- a) You would need to explore options for an appropriate topic from the list in the assignment booklet. Because of the time constraints and demands of your other than study responsibilities, like a job, family obligations etc, it would be most appropriate if you select a research topic that is contextualised in the area of your work or residence. In this matter you need to first decide your area of interest, for example, environment, ecology, natural resources, education, minority communities, socially marginalised groups, girl child, working women, family, marriage and kinship etc. (the list can be a really long one).

- b) After selecting the theme or an area of your interest, you can proceed to determine the nature and location of your research. As per your convenience you need to conduct field research in a manner that does not make a heavy demand on your time, energy and resources as you have many other tasks to complete during the course of your study at IGNOU.
- c) The next task is to determine the extent, quality and type of secondary data available, as there has to be ample background information on your research topic to give you an understanding of the social processes involved in taking the situation to its current state. This would require you to collect secondary data from various sources. You only need adequate data to get a clear picture of the current status of the social situation so that you can contextualise your own research project.
- iii) Making an arrangement with the academic counsellor at your Study Centre to seek help and advice when you feel the need for a discussion on your research or when you find that you are facing some difficulty in carrying out your research.
- iv) Preparing a research proposal. This needs to be a brief statement with the following heads.
 - a) Title of Research Project
 - b) Purpose and Objectives of Research
 - c) Research Methods
 - d) Time Frame

You can discuss the research proposal with your academic counsellor and consider it once more from the point of view of the time and resources available to you for completing the research. Make modifications, if any, at this stage and once you have begun working on it make efforts to stick to your plan. If you keep making changes again and again, you will waste time, energy and resources without achieving much. The evaluation of this assignment will focus on the efforts made by you rather than on achieving a superbly finished product. That you may do after completing your master's programme in sociology.

❖ Stage 2: Actual Carrying out of Research

The details of the following depend mostly on the type of research you undertake. Here are the five steps you can take in order to execute your research plans.

- i) **Determine data requirements**
The data you will require will relate to
 - a) Relevant Acts and policies, if any, existing about the topic of your research
 - b) Maps and other visual materials

- c) Census enumeration of the general/ particular area of research
- d) Socio-economic survey of sample population to prepare a profile of the people
- e) Socio-cultural, economic and political issues identified through participatory methods
- f) Institutional structure, procedures and processes
- g) Case-study or extended method report to reflect social change and/ or conflict

ii) Prepare for data collection

You need to find out if there is existing data available on the topic of your research and whether it would be suitable for your research project. It is necessary to determine and record who collected the data, when it was collected and how reliable the information is. You need to remember to note the following details about every source of information you refer to

- a) Full title of the document, book, journal, map, etc
- b) Author, department, agency that has prepared the document, book, journal, map etc
- c) Date/ year when the document, map, etc , was prepared
- d) Date/ year when the document, book, journal, map was published
- e) Edition, place of publication and publisher for books and articles

After this initial exercise, determine the specific requirements for additional data that may pertain to both primary and secondary data for achieving the objectives of your research.

iii) Identify secondary data sources

Sources can range from newspapers, books, and articles to specialists in the area of your research in public life, administrative bureaucracy, and the Internet search options.

iv) Data collection and methods

Before you begin data collection, review the requirements you have identified for primary data and discuss with the academic counsellor about the need to collect primary data. Clearly define what you need and for what objectives. Then determine the most appropriate data collection method. It is necessary to go through the following steps in order to ensure that the data analysis presented in your research project report is reliable. For this purpose you need to explain and justify

- a) The design of the survey questionnaire form or the appropriateness and selection of participatory technique or tools used for specific data collection
- b) Method of field work including how persons helping in your research were identified and how they were briefed/ trained to help you with the survey work

- c) Process followed for field supervision and/ or recording, verification and quality control
- d) How data was processed, including use of any computer software packages and how it was analysed

❖ **Stage 3: Research Project Report**

Once you have collected data and analysed them, you will need to prepare the report by systematically reporting your work as per the following steps.

i) Report components

The research project report has the following two components.

- a) The logbook or diary that you maintained as an aid for actual preparation of the report (this is only as an evidence of your systematic pursuit of your research)
- b) The written report and the documentation in a medium of your choice, including written text, video film, photographs etc

ii) Report format and organisation

The format of report and documentation needs to follow the structure given below.

- a) **Cover page:** The first page of the report is to indicate the titles of your research project, name and location of the place where fieldwork was carried out and your name with your enrolment number.
- b) The second page is to carry a summary of your research project in less than 300 words.
- c) The third page is to give acknowledgements
- d) The fourth page is to list alphabetically a list of abbreviations
- e) The fifth page is to provide the table of contents, including list of tables, maps and figures/ illustrations
- f) From the sixth page onward, you need to give first an introduction to your research project, its approach, including key issues that determined selection of the research project
- g) Next in order of presentation will be the description of techniques or methods adopted for data collection and analysis
- h) Then would come stating findings from your research
- i) After stating the findings, you need to put down the conclusions drawn.
- j) In the end, you need to give a list of references in the manner you find in the three books of MSO 002. This means that the list should be arranged alphabetically by the author's surname followed by initials or forename(s) and the year of publication of the particular

book/ article/ other document, full title of the document, which has to be italicised. This should be followed by the name of the publishing firm and place of publication. You need to take care to mention the sources of data or quotations, whether from books, journals, other published and unpublished documents and websites referred to in the research project report. Please note that this is an important aspect of your research project assignment and take care to pay attention to this in order to obtain better grades.

- k) Please keep in mind that when abbreviating names of organisations, terms etc in the written text, provide the name in full form when you mention it for the first time with the abbreviated form in brackets. Subsequently, use the abbreviated form. All abbreviations in the text should be listed on the fourth page of your report along with their full forms stated.

iii) Language and editing

The research project report is to be written in the language that has been opted for by you for completing MSO 002. All the report material like photographs, films, etc, should have the same language scripts. It is a very good idea to write the first draft and then edit it both in terms of its content and language. You may also like to give it to your co-learners of MSO 002 for their comments and suggestions for modifications and you may extend a similar gesture to them. This will help you to refine the presentation of your report.

33.6 Supervision During the Research Project

You will be basically working on your research project on your own but you can always discuss your problems with the academic counsellor at your study centre as well as with your co-learners. There is no formal arrangement for supervision of this practical exercise of MSO 002. You are required mainly to consult the course material of MSO 002 and carry out your research at a modest level so that this exercise gives you a taste of what it is like to do research. You need not make it a too time-consuming and lengthy exercise.

33.7 Submission of Research Project

The written report should be submitted on A4 paper size format, typed in double spacing in a bound volume. The length of the report should be five thousand words, excluding appendices, other documents.

The report should be submitted at the Study Centre in the same manner as you would submit other assignments. Do not forget to retain a copy of the report with you. Obtain an acknowledgement receipt after submission of the report at the Study Centre.

If you allow your research work report to be copied by your co-learners for submission as their reports, you and those who submit such copies would be disqualified and you and others will have to work all over again and produce another piece of work.

33.8 Methodology for Evaluating Research Project

Evaluation methodology of research project report is as follows.

The evaluation will be done at the Study Centre by the same evaluator who would evaluate other assignments of MSO 002. The assignment of the research project will carry a weight similar to assignment 1 of other courses of Master's Programme in sociology. The per cent of total marks of this assignment will be distributed as given in Box 31.1.

Box 31.1 Distribution of total marks of Assignment 1 of the Research Project

- i) Diary or logbook documenting the process of fieldwork-based research 20 per cent
- ii) Clarity of topic, language, coherence, style etc 20 per cent
- iii) Clarity of objectives and methodology as well as methods 20 per cent
- iv) Understanding and practice of fieldwork-based research 20 per cent
- v) Extent to which the learning objectives of the each of the three books of MSO 002 are reflected in the body of the research project report 20 per cent.

33.9 Conclusion

Unit 33 has provided you guidelines to undertake a mini research project as one of the assignments of MSO 002. The inputs in this unit are considered to be fairly adequate for the need of carrying out a fieldwork-based research of modest proportions.

In case, you face problems in completing this assignment, you are recommended to consult your academic counsellor and/ or the co-ordinator of MSO 002 at headquarters in IGNOU, Maidan Garhi, New Delhi.

I wish you best of luck for completing the assignment and also the full course of MSO 002.

Further Reading

Read once more your own research project and try to improve it in terms of style, language and substantive content.



Glossary

(Explanations of glossary words have been prepared with the help of information available on the Internet and in other sources.)

Animations: The word refers to the act, process, or result of imparting life, interest, spirit, motion, or activity. In the context of the MSO 002 text, it refers to the art or process of preparing animated cartoons.

Anonymisation: It refers to the process of giving pseudonyms to persons/ places in order to hide their identity. This is a regular practice among social scientists who often work on sensitive topics and disclosing the identities of real persons/ places may in some cases give rise to problems of moral and ethical nature and in such circumstances taking recourse to anonymisation may be necessary.

Bar Charts: Bar Charts, like pie charts, are useful for comparing classes or groups of data. In bar charts, a class or group can have a single category of data, or they can be broken down further into multiple categories for greater depth of analysis. Bar charts are familiar to most people, and interpreting them depends largely on what information you are looking for. You might look for:

- ❖ the tallest bar.
- ❖ the shortest bar.
- ❖ growth or shrinking of the bars over time.
- ❖ one bar relative to another.
- ❖ change in bars representing the same category in different
- ❖ classes

Watch out for inconsistent scales. If you're comparing two or more charts, be sure they use the same scale. If they don't have the same scale, be aware of the differences and how they might trick your eye.

Be sure that all your classes are equal. For example, don't mix weeks and months, years and half-years, or newly invented categories with ones that have trails of data behind them.

Be sure that the interval between classes is consistent. For example, if you want to compare current data that goes month by month to older data that is only available for every six months, either use current data for every six months or show the older data with blanks for the missing months.

For each bar in the bar chart, the following statistics are useful:

Mean	the average height of all the bars.
Maximum	the maximum value (tallest bar) in the series.
Minimum	the minimum value (shortest bar) in the series.
Sample Size	the number of values (bars) in the series.
Range	the maximum value minus the minimum value.
Standard Deviation	Indicates how widely data is spread around the mean.

Bivariate: The term refers to the fact of having two variables, for example bivariate binomial distribution.

Boolean: The term refers to a logical combinatorial system treating variables, such as propositions and computer logic elements, through the operators AND, OR, NOT, and

XOR, a browser that supports Boolean searches. It relates to a data type or variable in a programming language that can have one of two values, true or false.

The term is named so after George BOOLE.

Browser or Web browser: It is the program that serves as your front end to the Web on the Internet. In order to view a site, you type its address (URL) into the browser's Location field; for example, www.computerlanguage.com, and the home page of that site is downloaded to you. The home page is an index to other pages on that site that you can jump to by clicking an underlined hyperlink or an icon. Links on that site may take you to other related sites.

Browsers have a Bookmark or Favorites feature that lets you store references to your favorite sites. Instead of having to type in the URL to visit the site again, you select the bookmark. It Started with Mosaic. The Mosaic browser put the Web on the map in 1993, but by the mid 1990s, Netscape Navigator (commonly called "Netscape") had 80% of the market. Vying for top spot, Netscape and Microsoft's Internet Explorer (IE) constantly added new features and functions that fragmented Web sites into competing camps. Today, IE, which is included with every Windows PC, has approximately 90% of the market. Netscape is still popular among devotees, and it wound up spawning Mozilla and Firefox, the latter gaining a lot of attention when released in 2004. Opera also has a nice following, and Safari is the browser for Mac OS X.

When a site says "best viewed by Netscape" or "best viewed by Internet Explorer," it means that the pages were programmed for that particular browser. Using the other browser will ignore some of the page's visual features until a subsequent release supports them. See Mosaic, Opera, Mozilla, Firefox, Safari, hyperlink, World Wide Web, HTML and microbrowser.

Chi-square test: Chi-square test is a test that uses the chi-square statistic to test the fit between a theoretical frequency distribution and a frequency distribution of observed data for which each observation may fall into one of several classes.

"Clickability": Clickability works with organizations online who want to generate revenue, reduce costs, and strengthen relationships with their audience. Clickability provides solutions and tools for enhancing user interactivity, managing content, and improving navigation.

Code: As a noun the word refers to the stuff that software writers write, either in source form or after translation by a compiler or assembler. Often used in opposition to "data", which is the stuff that code operates on. Among hackers this is a mass noun, as in "How much code does it take to do a bubble sort?", or "The code is loaded at the high end of RAM." Among scientific programmers it is sometimes a count noun equivalent to "program"; thus they may speak of "codes" in the plural. Anyone referring to software as "the software codes" is probably a newbie or a suit.

In the sense of writing a code, the word always refers to source code rather than compiled. "I coded an Emacs clone in two hours!" This verb is a bit of a cultural marker associated with the Unix and minicomputer traditions (and lately Linux); people within that culture prefer the verb 'code' to the verb 'program' whereas outside it the reverse is normally true.

In communications, a code is a rule for converting a piece of information (for example, a letter, word, or phrase) into another form or representation, not necessarily of the same sort.

In the history of cryptography, codes were once common for ensuring the confidentiality of communications, although ciphers are now used instead.

Codes in communication are used for brevity. Code can be used for brevity. When telegraph messages were the state of the art in rapid long distance communication,

elaborate commercial codes which encoded complete phrases into single words (commonly five-letter groups) were developed, so that telegraphers became conversant with such "words" as BYOXO ("Are you trying to weasel out of our deal?"), LIUUY ("Why do you not answer my question?"), BMULD ("You're a skunk!"), or AYYLU ("Not clearly coded, repeat more clearly."). Code words were chosen for various reasons: length, pronounceability, etc. Meanings were chosen to fit perceived needs: commercial negotiations, military terms for military codes, diplomatic terms for diplomatic codes, any and all of the preceding for espionage codes. Codebooks and codebook publishers proliferated, including one run as a front for the American Black Chamber run by Herbert Yardley between WWI and WWII. The purpose of most of these codes was to save on cable costs. The use of data coding for data compression predates the computer era; an early example is the telegraph Morse code where more frequently-used characters have a short representation. Techniques such as Huffman coding are now used by computer-based algorithms to compress large data files into a more compact form for storage or transmission.

Coding: Coding means to systematise and arrange (laws and regulations) into a code or to convert (a message, for example) into code. In Computer Science coding refers to write or revise a computer program. In communications and information processing, encoding is the process by which a source (object) performs this conversion of information into data, which is then sent to a receiver (observer), such as a data processing system. Decoding is the reverse process of converting data, which has been sent by a source, into information understandable by a receiver. It is an implementation of that rule (or algorithm) for coding and decoding, for example MP3, which may be a hardware implementation or a software implementation, and which may include compression.

One reason for coding is to enable communication in places where ordinary spoken or written language is difficult or impossible. For example, a cable code replaces words (e.g., ship or invoice) into shorter words, allowing the same information to be sent with fewer characters, more quickly, and most important, less expensively. Another example is the use of semaphore flags, where the configuration of flags held by a signaller or the arms of a semaphore tower encodes parts of the message, typically individual letters and numbers. Another person standing a great distance away can interpret the flags and reproduce the words sent.

Consistency: It refers to condition of adhering together or firmness of material substance. In the context of units of MSO 002, the word refers to ability to be asserted together without contradiction or agreement or harmony of parts or features to one another or a whole.

Content analysis: Content analysis (also called: textual analysis) is a standard methodology in the social sciences on the subject of communication content. Harold Lasswell formulated the core questions of content analysis: "Who says what, to whom, why, to what extent and with what effect?". Ole Holsti (1969: 14) offers a broad definition of content analysis as "any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages".

The method of content analysis enables the researcher to include large amounts of textual information and identify systematically its properties, e.g. the frequencies of most used keywords (KWIC = Keyword In Context) by detecting the more important structures of its communication content. Yet such amounts of textual information must be categorised according to a certain theoretical framework, which will inform the data analysis, providing at the end a meaningful reading of content under scrutiny. David Robertson (1976: 73-75) for example created a coding frame for a comparison of modes of party competition between British and American Parties. It was developed further in 1979 by the Manifesto Research Group aiming at a comparative content-analytic approach on the policy positions of political parties. This classification scheme

was also used to accomplish a comparative analysis between the 1989 and 1994 Brazilian party broadcasts and manifestos by F. Carvalho (2000).

The creation of coding frames is intrinsically related to a creative approach to variables that exert an influence over textual content. In political analysis, these variables could be political scandals, the impact of public opinion polls, sudden events in external politics, inflation etc. Mimetic Convergence, created by F. Carvalho for the comparative analysis of electoral proclamations on free-to-air television is an example of creative articulation of variables in content analysis. The methodology describes the construction of party identities during long-term party competitions on TV, from a dynamic perspective, governed by the logic of the contingent. This method aims to capture the contingent logic observed in electoral campaigns by focusing on the repetition and innovation of themes sustained in party broadcasts. According to such post-structuralist perspective from which electoral competition is analysed, the party identities, 'the real' cannot speak without mediations because there is not a natural centre fixing the meaning of a party structure, it rather depends on ad-hoc articulations. There is no empirical reality outside articulations of meaning. Reality is an outcome of power struggles that unify ideas of social structure as a result of contingent interventions. In Brazil, these contingent interventions have proven to be mimetic and convergent rather than divergent and polarised, being integral to the repetition of dichotomised worldviews.

The Process of a Content Analysis

According to Klaus Krippendorff (1980 and 2004), six questions must be addressed in every content analysis:

- ❖ Which data are analysed?
- ❖ How are they defined?
- ❖ What is the population from which they are drawn?
- ❖ What is the context relative to which the data are analysed?
- ❖ What are the boundaries of the analysis?
- ❖ What is the target of the inferences?

According to Zipf Law, the assumption is that words and phrases mentioned most often are those reflecting important concerns in every communication. Therefore, quantitative content analysis starts with word frequencies, space measurements (column centimetres in the case of newspapers), time counts (for radio and television time) and keyword frequencies. However, content analysis extends far beyond plain word counts, e.g. with KWIC routines words can be analysed in their specific context to be disambiguated. Synonyms and homonyms can be isolated in accordance to linguistic properties of a language. Qualitatively it can involve any kind of analysis where communication content (speech, written text, interviews, images) is categorised and classified. While on its start with the first newspapers at the end of 19th century, it was done by manually measuring the amount of lines and space e.g. on newspapers. With the rise of common computing facilities like PCs, computer based methods of analysis are growing in popularity. Answers to open ended questions, newspaper articles, political party manifestoes, medical records or systematic observations in experiments can all be subject to systematic analysis of textual data. By having contents of communication available in form of machine readable texts, the input is analysed for frequencies and coded into categories for building up inferences. Weber (1990: 12-14) notes: "To make valid inferences from the text, it is important that the classification procedure be reliable in the sense of being consistent. Different people should code the same text in the same way". The validity, inter-coder reliability and intra-coder reliability are subject to intense methodological research efforts over long years (see Krippendorff, 2004).

One more distinction is between the manifest contents (of communication) and its latent meaning. "Manifest" describes what (an author or speaker) definitely has written, while latent meaning describes what an author intended to say/write. Normally, content

analysis can only be applied on manifest contents, that are the words, sentences, texts in general.

A further step in analysis is the distinction between dictionary-based (quantitative) approaches and qualitative approaches. Dictionary-based approaches set up a list of categories derived from the frequency list of words and control the distribution of words and their respective categories over the texts. While methods in quantitative content analysis in this way transform observations of found categories into quantitative statistical data, the qualitative content analysis focuses more on the intentionality and its implications.

Copycat: One that closely imitates or mimics another. When used as an adjective, the word refers to closely imitating or following another: a copycat version of a successful product; a copycat crime.

Cursor: In Computer Science the word means a bright, usually blinking, movable indicator on a display, marking the position at which a character can be entered, corrected, or deleted.

Cyber café: The words refer to a cafe from which customers can access the Internet. It refers also to a chatroom.

Database: A collection of data arranged for ease and speed of search and retrieval. Also called data bank.

Debriefing: The term refers to the act or process of debriefing or of being debriefed or the information imparted during the process of being debriefed.

Demographers: The word refers to persons who engage in the study of the characteristics of human populations, such as size, growth, density, distribution, and vital statistics.

Diachronic: The word is concerned with phenomena, such as linguistic features, as they change through time. The word is used to describe the study of a phenomenon as it changes through time.

Dialectic: The history of the term dialectic would by itself constitute a considerable history of philosophy. Briefly, the term "dialectic" owes much of its prestige to its role in the philosophy of Plato, where it figures as the logical method of philosophy in the Socratic dialectical method of cross-examination. The term was given new life by Hegel, whose dialectically dynamic model of nature and history made it, as it were, a fundamental aspect of the nature of reality (instead of regarding the contradictions into which dialectics leads as a sign of the sterility of the dialectical method, as Kant tended to do in his *Critique of Pure Reason*). In the mid-nineteenth century, the concept of "dialectic" was appropriated by Marx (see, for example, *Das Kapital*, published in 1867) and Engels and retooled in a non-idealist manner, becoming a crucial notion in their philosophy of dialectical materialism. Thus this concept came, for a time, to play a prominent role on the world stage and in world history. Today, "dialectics" can also refer to an understanding of how we can or should perceive the world (epistemology), an assertion of the interconnected, contradictory, and dynamic nature of the world outside our perception of it (ontology), or a method of presentation of ideas or conclusions. Basically, it is the art or practice of arriving at the truth by the exchange of logical arguments.

Dialog: Dialog refers to the first commercial online information retrieval system, created by Roger Summit in 1967 and launched as a service in 1972. For years, DIALOG has offered the largest single collection of information available online, claiming over 900 databases in areas such as business, science, finance and law. Searching is free, but there are fees for viewing the results. Access is available via the Web or by separate dial-up numbers as was the norm before the Internet became popular. DIALOG's searchable content is considered to be part of the deep Web

Digital mode: The word "digital" is commonly used in computing. A digital system is one that uses discrete values rather than a continuous spectrum of values: compare analog.

The word comes from the same source as the word digit: the Latin word for finger (counting on the fingers) as these are used for discrete counting.

The distinction digital versus analog can refer to data storage and transfer, the internal working of an instrument, and the kind of display. A system working with discrete values would be described as bring in digital mode.

Discourse analysis: Discourse analysis is any of a number of approaches to analysing language use beyond the sentence or clause level. The language in question can be written or spoken texts or systems of texts. The term discourse analysis first entered general use in a paper published by Zellig Harris in 1952.

The concept of discourse analysis has been taken up in a variety of disciplines, including linguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology, each of which is subject to its own assumptions and methodologies. The following are some of the specific theoretical perspectives and analytical approaches used in linguistic discourse analysis:

- ❖ Interactional sociolinguistics
- ❖ Ethnography of communication
- ❖ Pragmatics, particularly speech act theory
- ❖ Conversation analysis, which is based on the theories of Harvey Sacks
- ❖ Variation analysis
- ❖ Discursive psychology, particularly as developed by Jonathan Potter.

Critical discourse analysis combines discourse analysis with critical theory (particularly that of the Frankfurt School and Michel Foucault, as well as literary, semiotic and psychoanalytic influences from Julia Kristeva, Roland Barthes, and Jacques Lacan), to create a politically engaged form of linguistic discourse analysis.

Although each approach emphasises different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction, and are concerned with the social contexts in which discourse is embedded. In the social sciences discourse analysis has come to occupy a significant place.

Elicitory: The word means to bring or draw out (something latent); ~~et~~duce. It also means to arrive at (a truth, for example) by logic or to call forth, draw out, or provoke (a reaction, for example).

Ethnographer: Ethnographer is a person who engages with the branch of anthropology that studies the scientific description of specific human cultures.

Ethnomethodology: It is the branch of sociology that deals with the codes and conventions that underlie everyday social interactions and activities.

Fieldwork: Fieldwork is the work done or firsthand observations made in the field as opposed to that done or observed in a controlled environment. In the context of the units of MSO 002 the word refers to the collecting of sociological or anthropological data in the field.

Folklorist: The word means a person who engages in the study of traditional customs, tales or sayings preserved orally among a people. Folklore is a comparative science that investigates the life and spirit of a people as revealed in their folklore.

Footnote: Footnote is a note placed at the bottom of a page of a book or manuscript that comments on or cites a reference for a designated part of the text. It is something related to but of lesser importance than a larger work or occurrence: for example, a political scandal that was but a footnote to modern history. As a verb it is used to denote furnishing with or comment on in footnotes.

Foucault: Foucault, Michel (1926-1984) was a French philosopher and historian who explored the role played by power in shaping knowledge. His works include *Madness and Civilization* (1961) and the multi-volume *History of Sexuality* (1976-1986). He was

professor at the Collège de France (1970-84).

Gatekeepers: The word refers to those in charge of passage through a gate. In the context of the units of MSO 002, it refers to those who monitor or oversee the actions of others and are therefore important persons of the community (proposed to be the subject of study by a sociologist/ anthropologist).

Glacier: The word refers to a huge mass of ice slowly flowing over a land mass, formed from compacted snow in an area where snow accumulation exceeds melting and sublimation.

Grounded theory: It is a general research method for behavioural science developed by two sociologists. One was Barney Glaser (b. 1930), who was trained in quantitative sociology by Paul Lazarsfeld. The other person was Anselm Strauss (1916-1996), who was trained in symbolic interactionism by Herbert Blumer. The successful collaboration of Glaser and Strauss in research on dying in hospitals evolved into the “constant comparative method”, or grounded theory (GT). The name underscores the generation of theory from data.

GT is the most quoted method by researchers doing qualitative data analysis in the world according to database searches (Google, Medline, CINAHL, PsycLit, Econlit).

Most chapters in the first GT methodology “The Discovery of Grounded Theory” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) were written by Glaser, trained in methodology generation. Glaser alone wrote the second methodology “Theoretical Sensitivity” (Glaser 1978) and has since written five more books on the method and edited five readers with a collection of GT articles and dissertations. The Grounded Theory Review is a peer-reviewed journal publishing grounded theories and articles on different aspects of doing GT.

Strauss and Juliet Corbin (Strauss and Corbin 1990) took GT in a different direction from what Glaser had outlined in Theoretical Sensitivity and the 1967 book. There was a clash of ideas between the discoverers and Glaser in 1992 wrote a book arguing against the Strauss and Corbin book chapter by chapter. Hence GT was divided into Strauss and Corbin’s method, and Glaser’s GT with the original ideas from 1967 and 1978 still in operation.

Hardware and software: Though in general hardware refers to metal goods and utensils such as locks, tools, and cutlery, in Computer Science it refers to a computer and the associated physical equipment directly involved in the performance of data-processing or communications functions. Software refers to the programs, routines, and symbolic languages that control the functioning of the hardware and direct its operation.

Histogram: It is a bar graph of a frequency distribution in which the widths of the bars are proportional to the classes into which the variable has been divided and the heights of the bars are proportional to the class frequencies. It is a charting format that displays horizontal or vertical bars. The length of the bars is in proportion to the values of the data items they represent. Many digital cameras use histograms to display the brightness of the image. Using 256 vertical bars to represent brightness levels from 0 to 255, the bar on the leftmost side of the chart is the darkest pixel level (0), and the rightmost bar is the lightest (255). The height of the bars represents the relative number of pixels in the image that contain that brightness level.

HTML: HTML is a markup language used to structure text and multimedia documents and to set up hypertext links between documents, used extensively on the World Wide Web. It is an acronym for Hyper Text Markup Language.

Imponderabilia: The term refers to that cannot undergo precise evaluation: imponderable problems.

Institution: In the context of the units of MSO 002, the term refers to a custom, practice, relationship, or behavioural pattern of importance in the life of a community or society, for example, the institutions of marriage and the family.

In general terms, the word means an established organisation or foundation, especially one dedicated to education, public service, or culture.

Interpretative social science: The second theme of Schutz's theory of the cultural sciences is the clarification of the categories or "basic concepts" of the sciences. To show what this is about, it is most efficient merely to quote the list on the first page of Schutz's *Aufbau* of the basic concepts of interpretative sociology that he then attempts to clarify in his book: "the interpretation of one's own and others' experiences, meaning-establishment and meaning-interpretation, symbol and symptom, motive and project, meaning-adequacy and causal adequacy, and, above all, the nature of ideal-typical concept formation." Investigation beyond Schutz's work should pursue similar concepts in other disciplines, beginning from the science-theoretical reflections of the scientists themselves while always being prepared to go further.

Interpretative sociology or verstehen: Interpretative Sociology (or *verstehen*, a German word for understanding, pronounced as though it rhymes with fair-stain) was used by Max Weber to describe a process in which outside observers of a culture (such as anthropologists) relate to an indigenous people on the observer's own terms. This concept has been both expanded and criticized by later social scientists. Proponents laud this concept as the only means by which researchers from one culture can examine and explain behaviours in another. While the exercise of *verstehen* has been more popular among social scientists in Europe such as Jürgen Habermas, *verstehen* was effectively introduced into the practice of sociology in the United States by Talcott Parsons, an American follower of Max Weber. Parsons incorporated this concept into his 1937 work, *The Structure of Social Action*.

Critics of *verstehen* such as Mikhail Bakhtin and Dean MacCannell counter that is simply impossible for a person born of one culture to ever completely understand another culture, and that it is arrogant and conceited to attempt to interpret the significance of one culture's symbols through the terms of another (supposedly superior) culture.

IP address: IP address is an acronym for Internet Protocol address, which is the address of a device attached to an IP network (TCP/IP network). Every client, server and network device must have a unique IP address for each network connection (network interface). Every IP packet contains a source IP address and a destination IP address.

An IP network is somewhat similar to the telephone network in that you have to have the phone number to reach a destination. The big difference is that IP addresses are often temporary.

Each device in an IP network is either assigned a permanent address (static IP) by the network administrator or is assigned a temporary address (dynamic IP) via DHCP software. Routers, firewalls and proxy servers use static addresses as do most servers and printers that serve multiple users. Client machines may use static or dynamic IP addresses. The IP address assigned to your service by your cable or DSL Internet provider is typically dynamic IP. In routers and operating systems, the default configuration for clients is dynamic IP.

IP addresses are written in "dotted decimal" notation, which is four sets of numbers separated by periods; for example, 204.171.64.2. If you knew the IP address of a Web site, you could enter the dotted decimal number into your browser instead of the domain name (which is why we have DNS!).

Although the next version of the IP protocol offers a virtually unlimited number of unique addresses, the traditional IP address (IPv4) uses a 32-bit number that defines both the network and the host computer. The network class determines how many of the 32 bits are used for the network address, leaving the remaining bits for use as the host number (note the numbers of networks and hosts in the table below). The host number can be further divided between subnetworks and hosts.

Iterative-inductive research: The word iterative means 'involving repetition'. Inductive refers to application of logical validity. Iterative-inductive research is a research that applies scientific methods or processes, which are considered fundamental to scientific investigation and acquisition of new knowledge based upon physical evidence by scientific communities. Scientists use observations and reasoning to propose tentative explanations for natural phenomena, termed hypotheses. Predictions from these hypotheses are tested by various different experiments, and an hypothesis so verified is considered a theory and new predictions are based upon it. Any erroneous predictions, internal inconsistencies or lacunae, or unexplained phenomena initiate the generation of new hypotheses, which are themselves tested, and so on. Any hypothesis which is cogent enough to make predictions can be tested in this way.

Notably, an unverified hypothesis may gain considerable currency among specialists based on its elegance or some intuitive sense of its validity or anticipation of its verification, though it is not formally accepted until convincing experimental proof. An example is the theory of general relativity.

The development of new technologies is enmeshed in the development of knowledge according to the scientific method, and can serve both as a further test of the validity of the underlying ideas and a source for new tools with which to advance the acquisition of knowledge, by broadening the scope of the observable or improving the quality of observations. Moreover, the need to understand or exploit some natural phenomenon in developing a technology can motivate scientific inquiry into the nature of that phenomenon.

A common viewpoint is to take scientific methods as the underlying logic of scientific practices, e.g., Karl Popper. However, the emphasis on underlying logic is disputed by those emphasising sociological aspects. Scientific methods are means used by scientific communities for building supportable, evidence-based understandings of our natural world. There is often controversy in scientific communities about various aspects of these understandings.

Kurtosis: Kurtosis refers to the general form or a quantity indicative of the general form of a statistical frequency curve near the mean of the distribution.

Legends: The word means an unverified story handed down from earlier times, especially one popularly believed to be historical. It means also a body or collection of such stories or a romanticized or popularised myth of modern times. It is also used for one that inspires legends or achieves legendary fame. In the context of the unit in which this word has occurred, it means an explanatory caption accompanying an illustration or an explanatory table or list of the symbols appearing on a map or chart.

Logbook: The word means the official record book of a ship or an aircraft. In the context of the unit in which this word has occurred, it means a record book with periodic entries.

Lupus erythematosus: It refers to any of several connective tissue disorders, especially systemic lupus erythematosus, that primarily affect women of childbearing age, have a variety of clinical forms, and are characterized by red scaly skin lesions.

Metadata: It means the data that describes data. The term "metadata" is widely used to refer to "data about data,"

Modus operandi: The phrase means a method of operating or functioning or it refers to a person's manner of working.

Monograph: The word refers to a scholarly piece of writing of essay or book length on a specific, often limited subject.

Multivariate: It means having or involving more than one variable, for example, multivariate statistical analysis.

Ndembu: Ndembu is the name of a Central African society of Zambia. Victor W. Turner conducted extensive fieldwork among the Ndembu during 1950-1954.

Output: It means the act or process of producing; production and it refers to an amount produced or manufactured during a certain time. For example, intellectual or creative production can be described as literary output; artistic output. In Computer Science the term refers to the information produced by a program or process from a specific input.

As a verb it means to produce or manufacture (something) during a certain time.

Pane: It means a framed section of a window or door that is usually filled with a sheet of glass or other transparent material or the transparent material used to fill such a section.

It refers also to a panel, as of a door or wall or one of the flat surfaces or facets of an object, such as a bolt, having many sides.

Peer: The word refers to a person who has equal standing with another or others, as in rank, class, or age, for example, children who are easily influenced by their peers.

Pie charts: Pie charts are circular graphs having radii dividing the circle into sectors proportional in angle and area to the relative size of the quantities represented. They are also called circle graphs. Such charts are graphical representations of information in which each unit of data is represented as a pie-shaped piece of a circle.

Precision: It refers to the quality or state of being precise or exact.

Prestroika: The term refers to the restructuring of the Soviet economy and bureaucracy that began in the mid 1980s.

Primary data: The primary data is gathered through questionnaire, schedule, observation or interview or by using two or more of these methods.

Questionnaire: This refers to a form containing a set of questions, especially one addressed to a statistically significant number of subjects as a way of gathering information for a survey.

Quixotic: It means being caught up in the romance of noble deeds and the pursuit of unreachable goals; idealistic without regard to practicality.

Rapport: The term refers to the relationship, especially one of mutual trust or emotional affinity.

Repeatability: It refers to the quality of making, doing, or performing again

Robot: It is a mechanical device that sometimes resembles a human and is capable of performing a variety of often complex human tasks on command or by being programmed in advance. This machine or device operates automatically or by remote control. The term refers also to a person who works mechanically without original thought, especially one who responds automatically to the commands of others.

Secondary data: Secondary data can be defined as previously gathered or gathered by someone else. This data should be collected first and often such data will not answer all questions. Such data evaluate the original study and data in terms of their purpose, source, time period and method.

Skewness: It is a statistical term used to describe a situation's asymmetry in relation to a normal distribution. A positive skew describes a distribution favoring the right tail, whereas a negative skew describes a distribution favoring the left tail.

Snowballing: It refers to causing to increase or multiply at a rapidly accelerating rate.

Spreadsheet: It refers to a piece of paper with rows and columns for recording financial data for use in comparative analysis. In Computer Science it refers to an accounting or bookkeeping program that displays data in rows and columns on a screen.

Structuralist model: In his Structuralist Model, Etzioni (1964) argues that Weber and Marx together form the basis for the structural synthetic model. In this view, workers and managers are inevitably in conflict, and all workers are alienated from their labour (they don't own the means of production). Control is central to the concept of organisations. Etzioni sees the rational theorists like Weber contribute to this view by focusing attention on the distribution of power among organizational positions. Natural theorists like Barnard insist that power alienates unless the control structure is acceptable to the subordinates. Etzioni also proposes that his structural model gives equal weight to both formal and informal structures, social and material rewards, and the interaction between the organization and its environment. Still, it acknowledges the inevitable strains between management and workers, personal and corporate needs, rationality and non-rationality, etc. (Scott p. 97). Overall, the structuralist view sees both natural and rational systems as two sides of the same truth. They are in conflict because the elements they describe are in conflict.

Subjectivity: Subjectivity refers to proceeding from or taking place in a person's mind rather than the external world, for example a subjective decision. In Psychology, it refers that exists only within the experiencer's mind. In Medicine, it relates to, or designates a symptom or condition perceived by the patient and not by the examiner. It also expresses or brings into prominence the individuality of the artist or author.

Swap: It means to trade one thing for another or to exchange (one thing) for another.

Symbolic interactionism: Symbolic interactionism is a sociological perspective which examines how individuals and groups interact, focusing on the creation of personal identity through interaction with others. Of particular interest is the relationship between individual action and group pressures. This perspective examines the idea that subjective meanings are socially constructed, and that these subjective meanings interrelate with objective actions. Noted symbolic interactionists are Herbert Blumer and Erving Goffman. George Herbert Mead is seen as a predecessor to symbolic interactionism.

Synchronic: Synchronic relates to the study of phenomena, such as linguistic features, or of events of a particular time, without reference to their historical context.

Tabula rasa: The phrase refers to the state of the mind before it receives the impressions gained from experience or to the unformed, featureless mind in the philosophy of John Locke.

Transcripts: It refers to something transcribed, especially a written, typewritten, or printed copy, for example the transcript of court testimony; an academic transcript. In

Biology it refers a sequence of RNA produced by transcription.

Triangulation: It refers to the measurement of the elements necessary to determine the network of triangles into which any part of the earth's surface is divided in surveying. This method has been used in sociology for finding a position by means of bearings from two fixed points a known distance apart.

T-test: It means student's t-test. A t-test is any statistical hypothesis test in which the test statistic has a Student's t-distribution if the null hypothesis is true.

A statistical test of the null hypothesis is that the means of two normally distributed populations are equal. All such tests are usually referred to as Student's t-tests, though strictly speaking that name should only be used if the variances of the two populations are also assumed to be equal; the form of the test used when this assumption is dropped is sometimes called Welch's t-test. There are different versions of the t-test depending on whether the two samples are independent of each other (e.g., individuals randomly assigned into two groups), or paired, so that each member of one sample has a unique relationship with a particular member of the other sample (e.g., the same people measured before and after an intervention, or IQ test scores of a husband and wife).

If the t value that is calculated is greater than the threshold chosen for statistical significance (alpha conventionally equal to 0.05), then the null hypothesis that the two groups do not differ is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, which typically states that the groups do differ.

Twice-blessed: Blessed means enjoying happiness and twice-blessed is the same in a heightened manner.

Univariate: It means having one variable.

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(Please note that the list of references includes all the sources that the authors of the units have cited in the text. It includes also the books mentioned as Further Reading at the end of each unit of Book 2.)

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