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Course: Research Methods II

Book: Research Methods in Applied Linguistics Author: Dr. H. Farhady Chapters 10 to 15 Slide production: Dr. H. Iravani **Shahriar Center** Number of slides: 198



Section Four Testing The Research Hypothesis

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Testing the hypothesis: Empirical verification of the relationship between the variables (collecting and analyzing the data)





Chapter 10

Techniques of Data Collection



Two important factors in data collection:

1. Sampling (from whom we collect the data)

2. Ethics (how to collect)



Data can be qualitative or quantitative.
Qualitative words few, small, large, happy, competent)
Quantitative words (size, frequency)



Qualitative data should be translated into quantitative data:
1. To be measurable
2. To be processed statistically



•From whom should we collect the data?

•If the population is too large, we should do sampling.

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 Population (universe) includes all the members of a unit (the size of population is relative).



• Collecting data from the whole population is time and energy consuming and also very costly.



What is the solution? Instead of working on the population, we collect data on a number of representative members (sample).



Representative criterion:
The sample should reflect the characteristics of the population.



Randomization (the first sampling technique): the process by which every single member of a population is given an equal chance to be included in the sample (≠bias).



Random samples:
1. Simple random sampling
2. Systematic random sampling (for large populations, every nth subject is selected)



3. Stratified random sampling: It takes the proportion of the subjects into account, so it is more representative and advantageous over simple random sampling.



4. Cluster sampling: It is based on selecting larger units instead of individuals. As in selecting groups of freshmen from the universities in Tehran.



Meeting the Representative Criterion is important. Why? Because it helps us generalize the findings for the whole population.



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Non-Random samples are used when randomization is not possible. The data from non-random samples are not as valid/representative as the data from random samples.



Non-Random Samples:

1. Accidental or availability samples: Selecting those available and willing to participate (person-onthe-street interview)



2. Purposive sampling: Obtaining a certain type of members with predetermined characteristics (selecting subjects from the already known people).



 Deciding on the sample size depends on a number of factors: energy, cost, time, nature of research but the larger the better.



How large should the sample be?
In educational settings, samples of 30 or more are large enough.





Ethics in research:
If subjects are human beings, they have different attitudes, personalities, beliefs, backgrounds, nationalities, ...



•Eliciting information from unwilling subjects is unethical and the results are surely invalid.



Ethical considerations (3):
1. Anonymity
2. Privacy: freedom to answer questions on private matters.
3. Confidentiality



To do research, certain instruments are used: 1. Questionnaire A. Open-ended B. Closed

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Open-ended questionnaires have two problems:

 Written replies are difficult to categorize, analyze and interpret.
 The responses may not be valid.



Closed (structured) questionnaire:1. The choices are uniform2. The questions are easy to answer



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Closed-ended questionnaires (problems):

The respondents almost have no freedom in answering the questions
 The researchers bias influences the choices



•The compromise between the two may be ideal: open-ended questions are classified and categorized.



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Distributing the questionnaire:
1. Direct method: referring directly to the respondents
2. Indirect method: through mail (it

can cover a large range of subjects)



Guidelines for constructing a questionnaire:

There should be a theory behind it
 Clarity and wording are essential



3. The ordering of the questions is critical from simple, interesting and neutral items to more difficult and personal)



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4. The content matters a lot. The questions should not be threatening and they should elicit honest responses and relevant to the subjects' area of interest.



Observation (research instrument): 1. Direct 2. Indirect Important points: objectivity, consistency in observations and impartiality



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Interview: 1. Structured 2. Unstructured

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Tests (research instrument) Two important concepts are: 1. Validity 2. Reliability

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Validity:

The extent to which a test is measuring what it is supposed to measure.



Types of Validity:
1. Content validity
2. Concurrent validity
3. Predictive validity
4. Construct validity

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Content validity (logical or curricular validity): Correspondence between the content of the test and the materials to be tested.



Concurrent Validity: The degree to which the scores on a test are related to or correlated with the scores on another already established test given at the same time.



Predictive Validity:
The extent to which a test can predict how well an individual will perform on a future situation.



 Construct Validity:
 The extent to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct (ability or trait such as intelligence, reading ability)



 Constructs are mainly unobservable and manifested through behavior.



 Reliability (consistency):
 The degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it measures.



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• Reliability is consistency of scores over time.

Ways of establishing reliability: test-retest; parallel forms; split half; rational equivalence



Inventories:

They are not tests but instruments to obtain information on one or more aspects of an individuals behavior (interest, attitude, ...).



•Likert scale is a scale used often in Inventories (strongly agree-agreeundecided-disagree-strongly agree)



 Here the subjects may give socially acceptable responses. To avoid this, we can use Projective measures.







 The purpose of the test is not clear to the respondent in Projective measures (mainly used in psychology).



CHAPTER 11 Summarizing the Data





•To organize the data, the first step is summarizing the data without losing any important piece of information.



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Summarizing the data includes:
1. Coding the data
2. Performing simple numerical computations
3. Displaying the data in graphic form



Coding the data:
Data re coded differently on nominal, ordinal and interval scales (chapter 6).



Simple Numerical Computations

 Simple frequency
 Relative frequency
 percentage 4. Cumulative frequency 5. Relative cumulative frequency 6. Percentile



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Simple frequency:
Counting the number of times a particular score has occurred in the data (absolute frequency = f).



X: score	Tally	f: absolute
	*	frequency
10	////	4
9		6
8		9

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•To make the absolute frequency more meaningful, the total number of scores should be taken into consideration.



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•When the number of absolute frequency is adjusted by taking the total number of scores into account, the outcome is called relative frequency (proportion).



f (absolute f.)

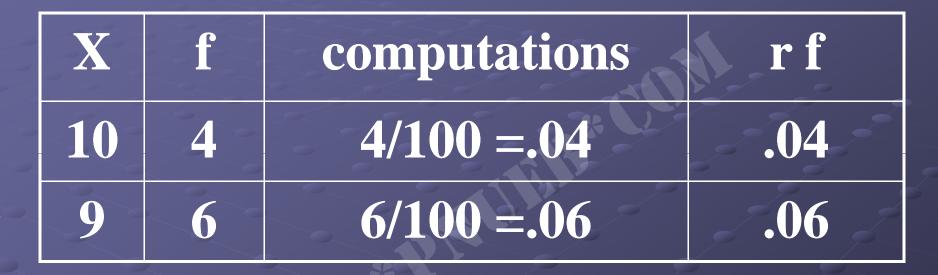


 $\mathbf{rf} =$

N (total number of scores)







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To check the accuracy of the proportions, or rfs, the sum of rfs should equal 1 (Σ r f = 1)



Percentage: The number of occurrence of a score on the scale of 100 [p = rf (100) or p = f/N (100) because rf = f/N].



To check the accuracy of the computations, the sum of the percentages should equal 100 $(\Sigma p = 100)$. Remember: $\Sigma r f = 1$



Up to now, we can say:
1. How many and what percentage of people obtained a score
2. How many and what percentage of people obtained the minimum and maximum scores.



3. What the most frequent score is and how many people obtained it.

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Cumulative frequency (F): shows the standing of a particular score within a group of scores.





To check the accuracy of the computations, the value of the highest cumulative frequency should equal 100. If F – 100, how do we interpret it?



If F equals 100, it means that all the subjects scored below the score corresponding to 100, i. e., 10 (table 11.5 p. 244)



Relative Cumulative Frequency (RF) To calculate RF, Cumulative Frequencies (F) are divided by N (in this case 100) → RF = F/N



Percentile (P): relative cumulative frequency is multiplied by 100. Percentile scores show the rank of the subjects or scores on a scale of 100.



What does the percentile rank of 100 mean?

It means 100 percent of scores fall at or below that score.







What does it mean if one gets a percentile rank of 80?It means that he scored higher than 79 percent of the subjects and lower than 19 percent of them.

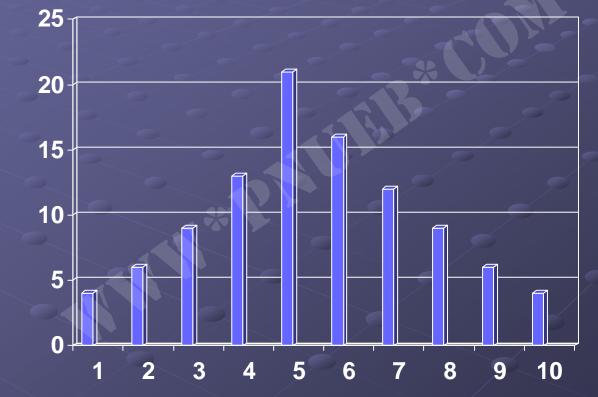


•Displaying the data: to show the data, the first step is displaying them in tables, the second step is summarizing the data on graphs.











•Mode is the most frequent score in a polygon. Different shapes may be formed based on the place and number of modes.



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Unimodal distribution
 Bimodal distribution
 skewed distribution

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Negatively skewed: (a few low scores cause the skewedness) Positively skewed: (a few high scores cause the skewedness)





•Flat distribution happens when no score is obtained more frequently than the other scores.



CHAPTER 12 DESCRIBING THE DATA

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Describing the data: A set of procedures which lead to finding certain figures showing the data accurately and briefly.



The most useful figures are:1. Measures of central tendency2. Measures of variability



Measures of central tendency: Numbers toward the center of the distribution would be better representatives of the scores



•Most of the scores tend to fall around the center of the distribution. This is called central tendency.



Measures of central tendency:
1. Mode
2. Median
3. Mean

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The Mode: The most frequently obtained score in the distribution (around the peak of the distribution). 1 2 2 3 3 3 4444 5 5 5 6 6 7



Limitations of the Mode:

1. When the scores are not many, a shift in one or two scores changes the mode.

2. For flat distributions, mode is useless.





The Median: The point or score value which falls at the 50th percentile of a distribution.





 The Median is useful for skewed or asymmetric distributions. The Median is not sensitive to extreme scores (figures on p. 265).



The best way to calculate the median is to arrange scores from high to low: 10 9 9 8 8 8 7 7 6



When the number of scores is not odd, the average of the two scores in the middle will be the median:

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10 10 9 9 8 8 7 6 6 5 4 4



The Mean or Average (the most basic and frequent measure): The sum of the scores divided by the total number of scores.



$X bar = X1+X2+X3+ \dots + X n/N$ Or $X bar = \Sigma X / N$







The mean is the balance point of the scores: the algebraic sum of the differences of all scores from the mean is zero: $\Sigma (X - X bar) = 0$ (look at page 267)



•The problem with the mean is that it is very sensitive to extreme scores if the number of scores is not many.



In skewed distribution, mean is not a good representation of the data (here median is a better measure). If the scores are distributed symmetrically, the mean is the best measure.



In bell shaped or symmetrical distributions, Mode, Median and Mean are the same (page 270).







• The scatteredness of the scores around the mean is another important feature of distribution referred to <u>dispersion of the scores</u> or <u>variability</u>.



Measures of Variability:
1. range
2. Variance
3. Standard Deviation



•The greater the differences between the scores, the more spread or scattered the scores are in the distribution.





The Range: The difference between the highest and lowest scores: Range = X highest – X lowest

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•The range is not very reliable since it is very sensitive to maximum and minimum scores. It depends on two extreme scores in the distribution.





The Standard Deviation: It applies to the variability of all the scores in a distribution. It is sensitive to all scores (as opposed to the Range).



•Variation of scores is considered the distance of scores from the central point (mean).



• In the discussion of the mean we said that the sum of the differences from the mean equals zero. To solve the problem, we square the deviations.



$(X - Xbar)^2$ S X X - Xbar 2-4=-22 +4 4 - 4 = 02 4 6 - 4 = + 23 6 +4 $\Sigma = + 8$

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Degree of freedom refers to one piece of information which does not contribute to the computations.





The variance: Square of the standard deviation: $V = S^2$







CHAPTER 13 STANDARD SCORES







Raw scores can not be interpreted, nor can they be compared. What should we do?





In order to make scores comparable, we have to convert them into a single score. This score is called a standard score.

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Standard scores should be independent of the scales from which the raw scores are obtained.



The normal distribution: Normal distribution with large data is bell-shaped and symmetric with the most frequently occurred scores in the middle (p. 286).



•In a normal distribution (hypothetical, abstract, mathematical idealization), the mode, median and mean fall on the same point (in the middle).



Properties of a normal distribution: Data based distributions approximate the properties of the normal distribution.



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1. A normal distribution is unimodal. The greater the distance between an obtained score and the mean, the smaller the frequency of that score.



What is the most frequent score in a normal distribution?The one which falls on the mean of the distribution.



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2. A normal distribution is symmetric. The two sides of the distribution from the mean are equal in shape and frequency.



3. The third property results from the first two: the mode, median and mean are equal in value because of symmetry and bellshape.



This issue is important in determining the percentage of scores around the mean.



4. A normal distribution is asymptotic. The curves never meet the horizontal line.





It means that the normal distribution is continuous for all values of a variable from + infinite to – infinite.



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Nearly one third (34.13%) of scores fall between the mean and 1 SD above/below the mean.



•96% of the scores fall between two standard deviations above and 2 SDs below the mean (p. 288).



Standard scores: Different tests have different means and SDs. TOEFL has the mean of 500 and SD of 100.





•Standard scores show the relative position of raw scores in the distribution independent of the mean and SD of raw scores.



Raw scores are not comparable but standard scores are because they are on the same scale.



Z score is one of the best standard scores. It takes the mean and SD of the raw score into account.
Z = X - Xbar / S



• When the raw scores are converted into Z scores, the Z values can be plotted to construct a frequency distribution called Z distribution.



Z distribution contains three features:

1. The magnitude of Z indicates how many SDs a raw score is above or below the mean (Z is positive or negative).



 The mean of Z distribution is always Zero (X bar z = 0).
 The standard deviation and variance of the scores are the same and equal 1.



Transferring the raw score into Z score does not change the shape of the distribution. A skewed distribution of raw scores will lead to a skewed distribution of Z scores.



 By converting raw scores into z scores we can compare the raw scores (p. 290-293).







 The emotional problem of announcing Z scores: an average person may get 500 on TOEFL so his Z score is 0. this is very embarresing (Z = 500 – 500 / 100 = 0).



How do we calculate the raw score from the Z score? $Z = X - X bar / S \rightarrow X - X bar = Z (S)$ $\rightarrow X = X bar + Z (S)$



A person's Z score is 0 in TOEFL and the X bar of this test is 500 and SD is 100, what is his raw score? X = X bar + Z (S) = 500 + 0 (100) = 500

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Most IQ tests have the X bar of 100 and SD of 10, so a Z score of zero means the IQ of 100: X = X bar + Z $(S) \rightarrow X = 100 + 0 (10) = 100$





What does it mean if one gets 550 on TOEFL?

Because 1 SD is 100 so his score is half an SD above the Mean (p. 388).



Research Methods II SECTION FIVE INFERENTIAL STATISTICS







•Researchers are interested in describing the characteristics of the population from which the sample is taken.



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The goal of research is to describe, predict and explain phenomena.

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There are two approaches to statistics:
1. Descriptive
2. Inferential

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•Descriptive statistics refers to analysing, describing and interpreting the data obtained from a sample.



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•Inferential statistics refers to techniques used to generalize the findings from a sample to the population.



Any characteristic determined through <u>descriptive</u> statistics is called a <u>statistic</u>.
Any characteristic determined through <u>inferential</u> statistics is called a <u>parameter</u>.



The mean and SD of a sample are statistics while those of a population are parameters. We make inferences from sample statistics to population parameters.



Descriptive statistics

Sample

Statistic





Inferential statistics

population

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Parameter





•Since we do not have access to the whole population, we make estimations about population parameters.



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Inferential statistics deals with the world of probability (errors are inevitable in making inferences).





CHAPTER 14 PROBABILITY AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING



 The researcher is interested in finding the results of hypothesis testing in new situations.



 Inferential statistics is used to make generalizations about the population.







 The researchers make a probabilistic statement that the hypothesis is supported.





•In order to make probabilistic statements, we should be familiar with the concept of probability and its applications in data analysis.



We make probabilistic staements in everyday life:

A. about the weather conditionB. about our daily activitiesC. about the test results, ...



There are two kinds of prediction:1. based on feeling and hunch2. based on information. The more information, the stronger the prediction.

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•Predictions are made on the basis of available information but every prediction ha a certain degree of probability to hold true.



•As the number of occurrence increases and approaches infinity, the out come will approximate normal distribution.



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For example, what is the possibility of giving a correct answer to a true false item?

It is %50 in two events (the desired and undesired events).



What is the number of possible events on a 20 four-choice-item test?

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It is 80, twenty of them are desired events.



•Probability of an event (p) = number of desired events / number of possible outcomes (for one true false item: p = 1 / 2 = .5)



What is the probability of getting a score correspondent to the mean?
It is very high because the mean is in the middle of the normal curve with the highest frequency.



The more distant a given score from the mean, the less the probability of that score belonging to the distribution.



• To determine the probability of a score quantitatively, the raw score should be converted into a Z score which should be interpreted on the basis of the probability distribution.



If a raw score is 24, the mean is 20 and SD is 4, what is the probability of having the score of 24?





Z = (24 - 20) / 4 = +1 and we know that Z = +1 means percentile rank of 84 and the area beyond the Z of 1 is 16% so the probability of having 24 is 16% (p. 314).



What is the probability of getting the raw score of 28?

Since the Z = +2, the percentile rank is 98 and the probability is only 2 percent (appendix 1, p. 388).



•With greater scores the Z score is higher and the probability of such scores would decrease (appendix 1, p. 388)



•The scores corresponding to the Z of +1 or -1 would have the same probability because the Z distribution is symmetric.



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What is the probability of a certain mean score belonging to a certain population?
The population mean is represented by μ (mew) and the SD is σ (sigma).



If $\mu = 500$; Xbar = 520 and Sx = 100, what is the probability of this particular group belonging to the population? (pages 316-319).





Hypothesis testing:
Whether a score belongs to a population or not or whether a group belongs to a population or not (320-324).



Testing directional and nondirectional hypothesis: Directional (either positive or negative). Nondirectional/null (no relationship)



•Making a directional hypothesis is more demanding since we should strong evidence to support a directional hypothesis but it is easier to test (p. 325).



	Probability	$\alpha =$	$\alpha =$	
	level	.05	.01	versity Ebook
Z>1.64/2.33	Directional	1.64	2.33	Payar Noor University Else Proving Carlo antiputed
Support	One-tailed	, p		
Support Z >1.96/2.58	One-tailed Nondirectional	1.96	2.58	

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CHAPTER 15 COMPARING THE MEANS







•Researchers are also interested in determining the significance of a difference between two sample means and making generalizations.



We used Z values for large samples, for small samples we need t values (when the sample becomes large enough >120 the t and Z values become identical).



Testing the difference between two means: Pages 338-343







Degrees of freedom: Pages: 344-346







Matched T-Test: If the scores on two variables are obtained from one group (pages 347-351)





Assumptions underlying T-Test: 1. the scores are measured on an interval scale (not nominal or ordinal).

2. every subject should be assigned only to one group in independent group t-test.



3. every subject's score must be independent of any other subject's score.

4. the scores should be approximately normally distributed.



•Note: the most important assumption is that the t-test is used to compare the means of <u>only</u> two groups.



When there are more than two groups, the acceptable number of comparisons is

K-1: when there are three groups only two comparisons are possible.



Chapter 16 Writing the Research Paper





The results of research should be reported to inform the other scholars and students of what you have done. This is done to expand the territory of knowledge.





5. Results
 6. Discussion
 7. References

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Preliminaries include: 1. The cover page (see the samples in the book) 2. The table of content page 3. The abstract page (a summary of the entire journal article

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 The abstract normally includes (1) a statement of the purpose (2) a description of the participants (subjects) (3) an explanation of what the subjects did during the research process, and (4) important results (all in one page or half a page).



The introduction section includes:
 1. Review of literature (a discussion of previous research studies in the same area)

2. Statement of the purpose (providing the rationale or the goal of the present study)



The method section includes:

- 1. The subjects (those who participated in the study and the research was done on them).
- 2. The design (the way the participants were grouped and tested, chapter 9- this section is also labeled **Data Analysis** or **Statistical Procedure**)



3. Materials (describing the materials or research instruments –tests, questionnaire, survey, ...- used in the study)

4. Procedures (describing how the study was conducted and what the subjects did)



 The Result Section includes presents the results in three possible ways (1) describing them within the text of the article (2) summarizing them in tables, and (3) constructing graphs for better and easier understanding.



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The discussion Section includes a technical report of how the statistical analysis turned out and a non technical description of the results with regard to the purpose of the study; sometimes the justification of the results is also provided; also suggestions for further studies are given here; this part is also labeled Conclusion.



 The reference Section includes books and articles used and referred to throughout the article. Using a reference without mention the source is illegal and called
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