

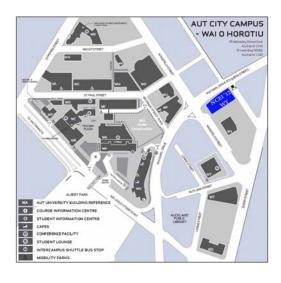
## 1. Place in curriculum

- BITM Part A: Core Papers
- Level 7 paper 15 points
- 150 learning hours
- Pre-requisites for course:
  - Undergraduate writing for academic purposes
  - Introduction to tourism



# 2. Organisation

- Timing:
  - 12 lecture hours: Tuesday 1-2pm
  - 24 tutorial hours:
    - Weeks 1-8: Thursday 8-10amWeeks 9-12: Thursday 3-5pm
- Location:
  - Lectures: WF410
  - Tutorials:
    - Weeks 1-8: WF202Weeks 9-12: WB410

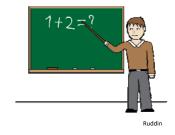


## Contact possibilities:

- Lecturer: Bart Neuts
- Office WH317, contact hours every Wednesday 1pm-3pm
- Email: <u>bneuts@aut.ac.nz</u>
- Phone: +64 921 9999 ext. 6692

## • Some notes on me and my research background:

- From economist
- To PhD researcher
- To public servant
- To teacher





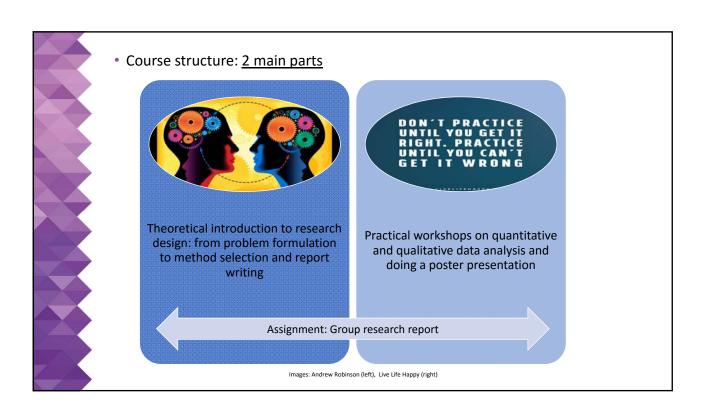
## What?

- Introducing the main elements to set up a scientific research project
- Evaluating different research techniques (qualitative and quantitative)
- Learning to set up surveys, understand sampling, and the structure of writing a research report
- Finding the balance between rigor (academic) and relevance (consultancy)

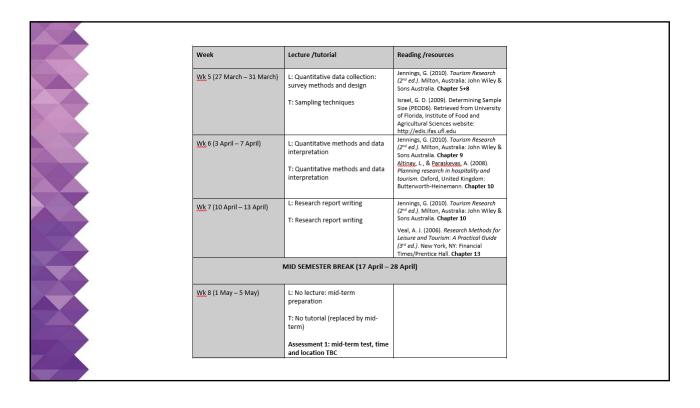
## Why?

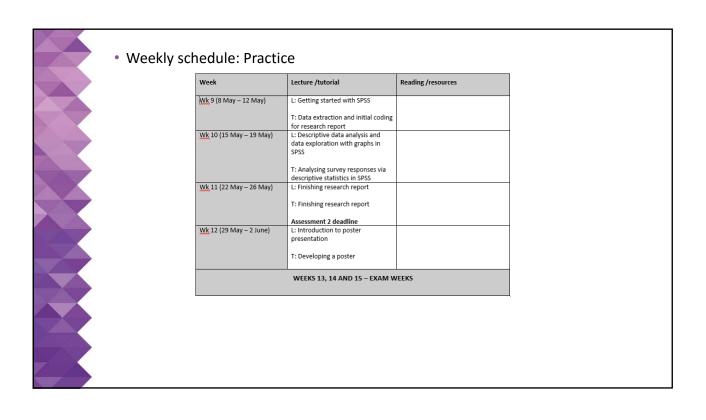
- · Because the process of scientific research is the foundation of academic knowledge
- Even when we are not researchers ourselves, we are still consumers of research → important to be able to think critically about research results
- To prepare you for the co-op project and other research-related activities

# 



Week	Lecture /tutorial	Reading /resources
Wk 1 (27 Feb – 3 March)	L: Introduction and administration. Assessment outline	Jennings, G. (2010). Tourism Research (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons Australia. <b>Chapter 1+2</b>
	T: Introduction to research	Singleton, R. A. Jr., & Straits, B. C. (2005). Approaches to Social Research (4th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. Chapter 1+2
Wk 2 (6 March – 10 March)	L: Methodology and research design	Jennings, G. (2010). Tourism Research (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons Australia. Chapter 4+5
	T: Methodology and research design	Singleton, R. A. Jr., & Straits, B. C. (2005). Approaches to Social Research (4th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. Chapter 3
<u>Wk</u> 3 (13 March – 17 March)	L: Literature review	Jennings, G. (2010). Tourism Research (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). Milton, Australia: John Wiley &
	T: Conceptualisation and operationalisation	Sons Australia. Chapter 3 Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2000). Research methods for Business Students (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). London, United Kingdom: Financial Times/Prentice Hall. Chapter 3
		Singleton, R. A. Jr., & Straits, B. C. (2005).  Approaches to Social Research (4th ed.).  New York, NY: Oxford University Press.  Chapter 4
Wk 4 (20 March – 24 March)	L: Qualitative methods	Jennings, G. (2010). Tourism Research (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons Australia. Chapter 6
	T: Qualitative methods: a case on using interviews and focus groups	Sons Australia. Chapter 6  Cresswell, J. W. (2003). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches (2 <sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Chapter 10







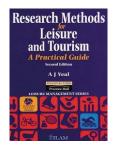
- Critically evaluate the application of various research methods to tourism
- · Critically evaluate different research methods
- Apply and assess various forms of research analysis
- Integrate research applications into a comprehensive written and verbal report

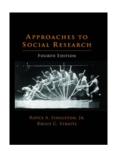
## 5. Books

- No required textbook. Reading material per class will be provided via Blackboard.
- See Paper Study Guide for list of supplementary reading that could help you in preparing the assignments





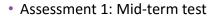






• Three assessments:

	•				
#	Assessment type	Due date	Weighting	Learning outcomes	
1	Individual assessment: mid-term test	Week 8	40%	1, 2	
3	Group research report	Week 11	40%	1, 2, 3, 4	
2	Individual assessment: poster presentation	Week 13-15 (exam weeks)	20%	4	



• Due date and time: Week 8, exact date and time TBC

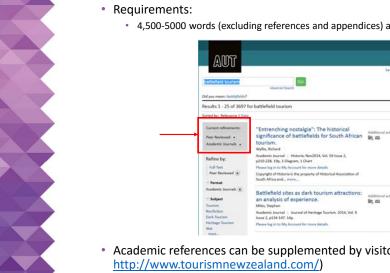
• Content: The test will cover the topics discussed from weeks 1 to 6

• Structure of the test:

	Question style	Marks per question/section	Marks total
Part A	Ten multiple choice questions (true/false), covering theory	1 mark	10 marks
Part B	Ten matching questions: matching concepts with statements	1 mark	10 marks
Part C	Five short answer questions	3 marks	15 marks
	•	•	35 marks



- Assessment 2: Group research report
  - Due date and time: Friday 26 May, 6pm
  - · Submission: Only soft copy via Turnitin (no print needed)
  - · General purpose:
    - In groups of 2 to 3 you will design, set up, conduct and complete a research study
    - You are free to choose your own topic, provided it has a tourism focus and is applicable to your sample (i.e. your fellow students)
    - The project is meant to have you follow all distinguishable steps of research design and application, including some primary data analysis
  - · Typical structure of work:
    - 1. Abstract (brief summary of report)
    - 2. Introduction to the topic (i.e. background, problem statement, research question)
    - 3. Literature review (i.e. themes and issues to be discussed)
    - 4. Methodology (i.e. philosophy/paradigm, approach, methods, survey design)
    - 5. Findings and analysis (i.e. results of analyses, relationship to theory)
    - 6. Conclusions and recommendations
    - 7. Reference list
    - 8. Appendix (i.e. questionnaire sample)



- - 4,500-5000 words (excluding references and appendices) and a minimum of 15 academic references

- · Academic references can be supplemented by visitor statistics (e.g.
- Use correct APA 6<sup>th</sup> referencing: <a href="http://aut.ac.nz.libguides.com/APA6th">http://aut.ac.nz.libguides.com/APA6th</a>
- Write a conclusion that is more than a simple summary: http://writingcenter.fas.harvard.edu/pages/ending-essay-conclusions



- Assessment 3: Individual poster presentation
  - Due date and time: during exam weeks, exact date and time TBC
  - The aim of the poster presentation is for you to present the setup and results of your research report in a visual poster format
  - Typical structure of poster:
    - 1. Introduction (i.e. brief summary of problem statement and main research questions)
    - 2. Literature review (i.e. themes and issues to be discussed)
    - 3. Methodology (i.e. methods of analysis used)
    - 4. Findings and analysis (i.e. results of analyses, relationship to theory)
    - 5. Conclusions
    - 6. Reference list



- Final assessment overview:
  - 1. Assessment 1:
    - Mid-term test (40%)
    - Due date week 8
  - 2. Assessment 2:
    - Group research report (40%)
    - Due date 26 May (week 11)
  - 3. Assessment 3:
    - Individual poster presentation (20%)
    - Due date during exam weeks





• In 2011, a scientific study proving that meat eaters are more selfish than vegetarians was widely reported in the Dutch popular media...





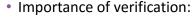
Elina Mar

- Enables you to explain the concept of research and the difference between scientific and non-scientific research
- Discusses the importance of openness in the scientific process
- Looks into multiple paradigms and their ultimate effect on scientific output
- Distinguishes between the various types of research
- Makes you understand the specific role of research in tourism



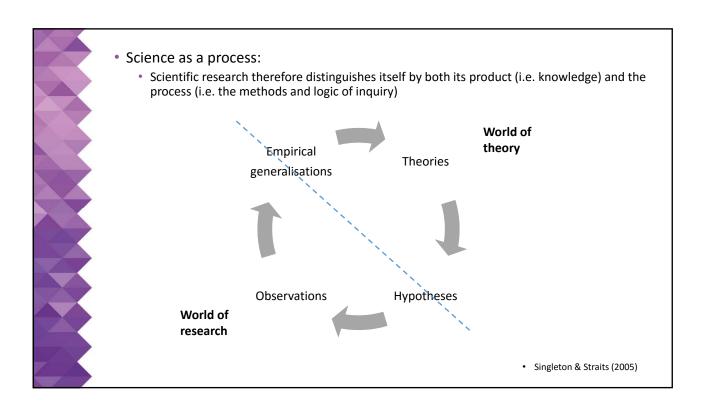
- An organised, systematic, critical, scientific inquiry, study or investigation into a specific problem, issue, setting or phenomenon undertaken with the objective of generating knowledge about the same
- So scientific research should be:
  - Systematic
  - Empirical (i.e. based on observations, and gathering, recording, analysing data)
  - Critical (i.e. open for review, experimentation)
  - With the intend to generate knowledge
  - · In function of solving a specific problem

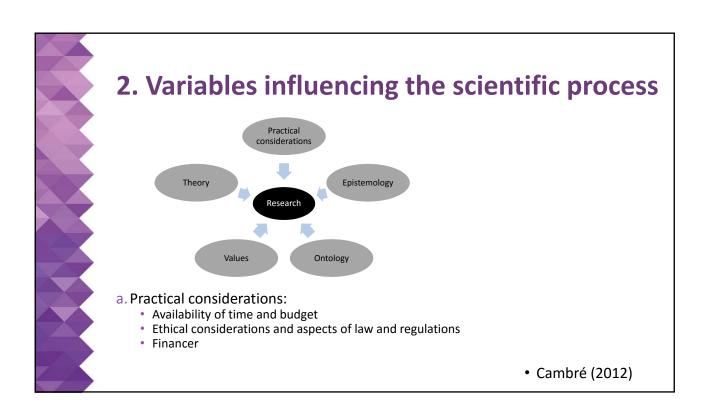
• Jennings (2010), Zikmund (1997)



- Whether a question can be approached scientifically depends on whether it can be subjected to verifiable observations (e.g. How many people believe in the theory of intelligent design?
   VS Is there a higher deity?)
- For verification to be possible, explanations and findings need to be communicated clearly → reporting needs to be precise and reliable
- The tentative nature of science:
  - · Scientists never achieve complete understanding
  - Every answer leads to new questions, every new fact, law, theory presents new problems
  - Scientific knowledge is based on empirical observations and these are always open to change through reinterpretation or possible contradictory new evidence

Singleton & Straits (2005)





#### b. Theories:

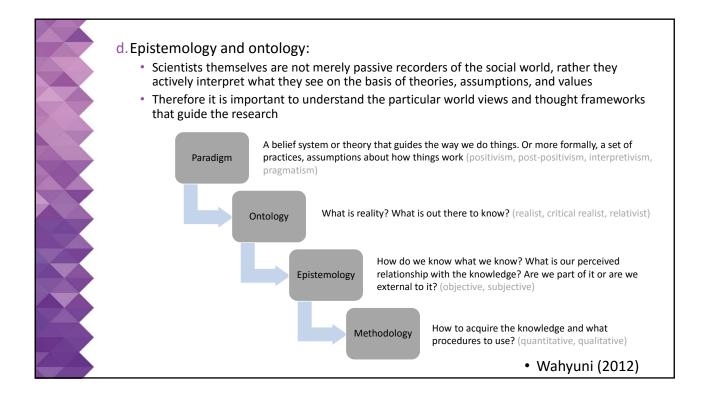
- Theories are always important to guide research question in two ways: (1) to generate new theories, or (2) to test existing theories
- However, specifically in social sciences, theories might not be well developed and more likely to take the form of low-level principles
- Theories guiding the research might get a pervasive influence. Scientists develop a
  commitment to their work and might overlook or reject evidence that is contrary to their
  own ideas or theories. This is also true for disciplines as a whole, where major theories are
  only displaced after prolonged contradictory evidence

## c. Values

- Can reflect the beliefs or feelings of a researcher
- Can process bias at any or all points in the social research process, e.g.
  - · Choice of research area and methods
  - Formulation of research question, research design, and data collection techniques
  - Implementation of data collection
  - · Analysis and interpretation of data
  - Conclusions
- Can produce affinity or sympathy, especially in field study settings

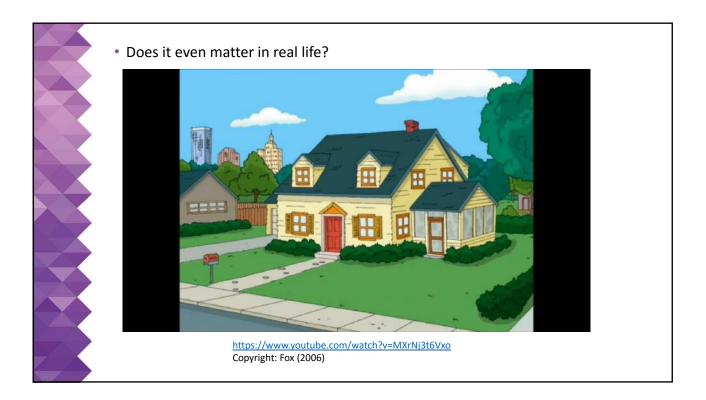
inconspicuous to

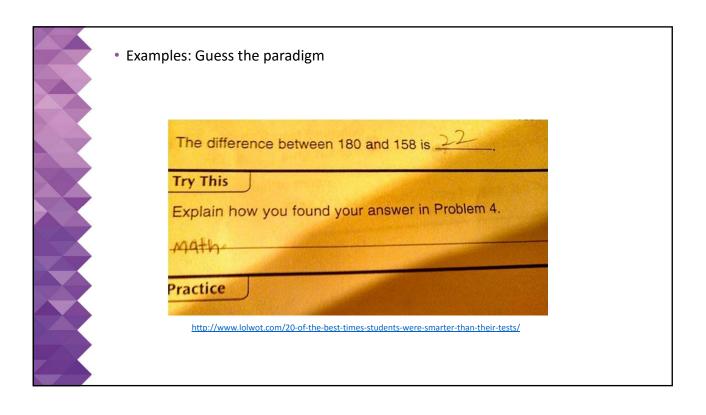
 Cambré (2012), Singleton & Straits (2005)

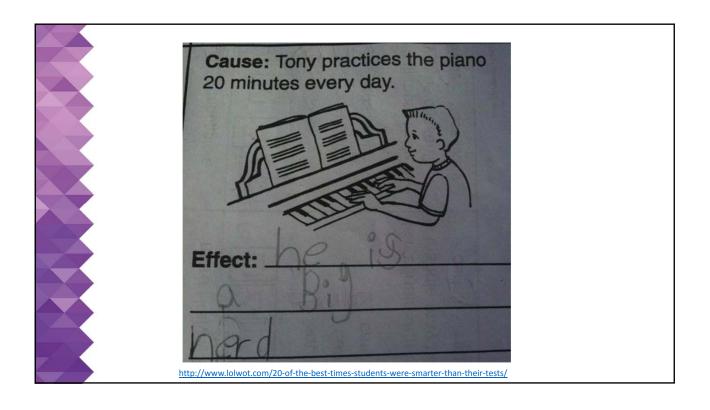


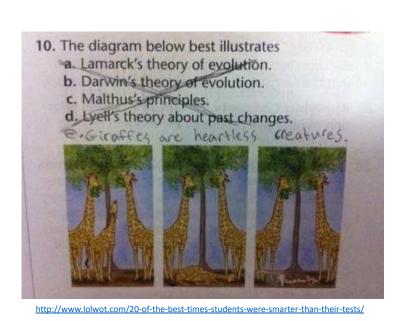
		Positivism	Post-positivism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
\$	Ontology	Naïve realism; Reality is external, objective and independent of social actors	Critical realism; Reality is objective and exists independently of human beliefs and knowledge but is interpreted through social conditioning	Constructivism; Reality is socially constructed, subjective, may change and is multiple	Reality is external, multiple. The view on reality is chose so to best achieve an answe to the research question
Š	Epistemology	Objective; Only observable phenomena provide credible data. Focus on causality and generalisations	Primary objective; Phenomena can provide credible data. Focus on explaining within a context	Subjective; Focus on details of situation. The reality behind these details, subjective meanings and motivating actions	Objective and subjective; Either of both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge depending on research question
	Axiology	Value-free and etic	Value-laden and etic	Value-bond and emic	Value-bond and etic-emic
3	Methodology	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative and qualitative (mixed or multi-method design)

• Wahyuni (2012)









There are 300 students in Year 10. Mary and Mark want to find out Year 10's favourite colour.

Mary asks 30 people.

Mark asks 150 people.

Mark says 'My conclusions are more likely to be reliable than Mary's'.

Why does Mark think he is right?

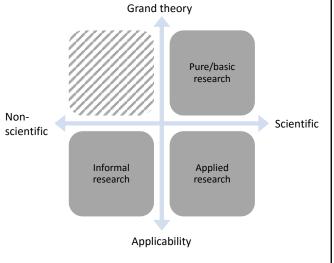
Because Mark is a man

http://www.lolwot.com/20-of-the-best-times-students-were-smarter-than-their-tests/

## 3. Types of research: the goal



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cky279qTibo Copyright: Guillaume Duval (2006)



## a. Informal research:

- Informal 'research' does not fall under the scope of this paper
- Refers to any type of observations done by anyone involved in the service industry and does not adhere to the typical structure of a scientific enquiry
- E.g. a waitress noticing guests are consistently returning a particular item of food. This can be observed, noted down, and maybe enquired about
- E.g. a tourist business communicating with guests via Tripadvisor in order to check whether guest expectations were met and to deal with complaints

## b. Pure/basic research:

- Is intended to expand the boundaries of knowledge itself, conducted to verify the acceptability of a given theory
- It doesn't directly involve the solution to a particular, pragmatic problem → solutions cannot be immediately implemented
- Basic researchers emphasise high scientific standards rigorousness

Jennings (2010), Zikmund (1997)



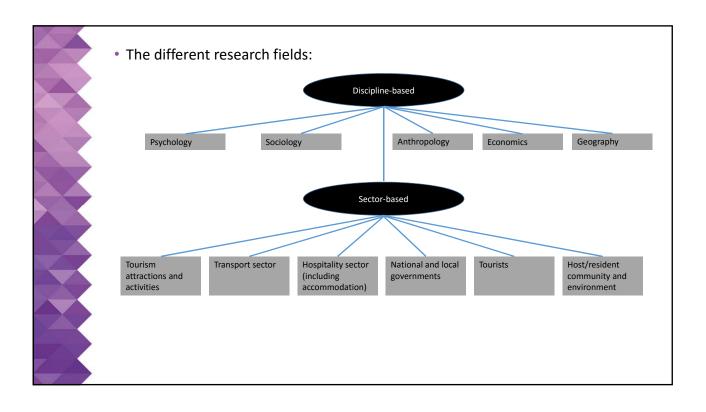
## c. Applied research:

- Is undertaken to answer questions about specific problems or make decisions about a particular course of action or policy decision
- Most tourism research is located in the applied field. It involves elements of application of the findings into practice (e.g. planning, development, problem solving, issue identification, improvement of services, comparison of pricing policies)
- · Applied research findings ought to have high relevance, useable results
- Research acts as advisor or consultant to the organisation

Jennings (2010), Zikmund (1997)



- Why research is important for the tourism industry:
  - Tourism demand and supply are complex and interlinked. Research helps to understand how the three A's (access, amenities, attractions) impact the product
  - Tourism growth has been substantial and has brought about a complementary need for growth in tourism information. Research generates temporal views of past, present and future
  - Tourism growth brings about diverse impacts. Research provides information on these social, environmental, and economic impacts
  - Offers insights into motivations, needs, expectations and levels of satisfaction which can be used in business domains such as marketing and promotion
  - Provides information for planning and policy making by private and public sectors, on different levels by gathering information on a variety of aspects
  - · Highlights educational needs for commercial operators and service providers







## c. Hospitality sector:

- Quality evaluation and client needs in regard to services, amenities, and facilities
- Evaluation of menu changes and menu contents
- Health and safety issues
- Education and training requirements
- Effectiveness of loyalty programmes
- Development and monitoring of market profile and evaluation of marketing strategies
- · Competitiveness analysis and competitor products

### d. National and local governments:

- · Establish visitation data sets to monitor visitation patterns for planning and management purposes
- Gather data on visitor numbers and activities in order to manage natural and built environment
- · Know about expenditure patterns to regulate or stimulate investment
- · Determine the effectiveness of overseas advertising and promotional campaigns

#### e. Tourists:

- Developing typologies in association with market segmentation (e.g. generating areas, socioeconomic backgrounds) and psychometric profiles (e.g. values, attitudes, expectations)
- Understanding motivations to assist in providing quality experiences, appropriate facilities, services, maintenance of tourism spaces, and marketing campaigns

Jennings (2010)



## f. Host/resident community and environment:

- Community participation in tourism planning and development
- · Research to establish social, cultural, and environmental impacts and community attitudes to development
- Environmental audits
- \* Identification of issues and subsequent development of legislative requirements and policy developments
- Determination of carrying capacities
- Identification and monitoring of attitudes to user-pays pricing strategies

Jennings (2010)



<u>Reading:</u> Fielding, D., & Knowles, S. (2014). Can you spare change for charity? Experimental
evidence on verbal cues and loose change effects in a Dictator Game. doi:10.1007/s10683-0149424-x

### Questions:

- Can you identify the elements of the scientific process? From theory, to hypothesis, to observation, to generalization?
- How do the authors make sure their research is verifiable?
- What kind of paradigm would you say is behind this type of research?

## **Conclusion**

- Scientific research distinguishes itself on two important aspects: the goal (acquiring knowledge) and the process (systematic, empirical, critical, verifiable)
- Because of the importance of the process, we need to understand the elements that can influence the scientific process (i.e. practical considerations, theory, values, ontology, epistemology) and openly communicate these throughout the research report
- While we are concerned with the scientific site of research, in a way we are also involved in informal kinds or research throughout our life
- Research within tourism can be distinguished based on the main discipline used and on the specific sector under investigation, with different sectors having specific research needs

## References

Cambré, B. (2012). *Business Research Methods* [PowerPoint slides]. Business Research Methods. Retrieved from Antwerp Management School.

Fielding, D., & Knowles, S. (2014). Can you spare change for charity? Experimental evidence on verbal cues and loose change effects in a Dictator Game. doi:10.1007/s10683-014-9424-x

Jennings, G. (2010). *Tourism research (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons.

Singleton, R. A. Jr., & Straits, B. C. (2005). *Approaches to Social Research (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Wahyuni, D. (2012). The Research Design Maze: Understanding Paradigms, Cases, Methods and Methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research*, 10(1), 69-80. Retrieved from http://papers.ssrn.com

Zikmund, W. G. (1997). Business research methods (5th ed.). Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.

## Multimedia

Fox (2006). Family Guy, Season 4, Episode 21 – I Take Thee, Quagmire. Retrieved March 2, 2017, from <a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MXrNj3t6Vxo">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MXrNj3t6Vxo</a>

Guillaume Duval (2006). *Mannen presteren beter ... wanneer er iemand kijkt. Studio 1 commercial.* Retrieved February 16, 2016, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cky279qTibo

HBO (2016). *Scientific Studies: Last Week Tonight with John Oliver.* Retrieved November 22, 2016, from <a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0Rnq1NpHdmw">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0Rnq1NpHdmw</a>

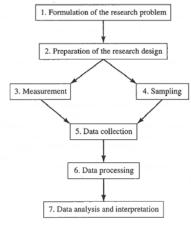




## Today's session...

- Describes the different stages in the research process
- Pays attention to the research objectives and the importance of defining a research question
- Discusses the different research designs that can be used in tourism research
- Explains the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods
- Aims to let you understand the use of a mixed method approach

# 1. Stages of social research

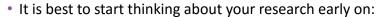


Singleton & Straits (2005, p.70)

## A research plan:

- An important condition for success of research
- · Prevents unintended research
- Makes it possible for others to evaluate your research
- Makes the research process less dependent on a single person
- Gives clarity on sponsers, budgets, expectations and definitions
- Makes you think of possible ethical issues
- Links product (i.e. what will be analysed) with process (i.e. technical design)

• Cambré (2012)



- Begin to think about topics that might interest you and that might provide you with a researchable area
- It might feel like an unproductive process at first, with false starts or directional changes but will prevent difficulties at a much later stage
- Questions to ask yourself:

What?	Why?	
<ul> <li>What puzzles/intrigues me?</li> <li>What do I want to know more about / understand better?</li> <li>What are my key research questions?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Why will this be of enough interest to others?</li> <li>Can the research be justified as a contribution to knowledge?</li> </ul>	
How – conceptually?	How – practically?	
What models, concepts, and theories can I draw on to answer my research questions?     How can these be brought together in a conceptual framework to guide my investigation?	What investigative styles and techniques can I use to apply the conceptual framework?     How can I gain access to information sources?	

• Cambré (2012)



- This consists of three related, hierarchical procedures:
  - The problem statement
  - The research question
  - Hypotheses/Investigative questions

## a. The problem statement:

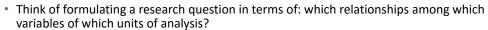
- · General starting point where a general societal issue is being observed
- A high-level statement of intent whereby a certain deficiency is identified (a management question, an academic problem, a sustainability issue) that triggers a need for information

Cooper & Emory (1995)



- Focuses the scope on what it is you want to research. The research question is a factoriented, information-gathering question. It is the single question that best states the objective of the research study
- Sources can come from personal interest, social problems, new developments in society, etc. and will help decide literature search, research design, data collection, etc.
- A research question should be:
  - Researchable (no yes-no questions!)
  - Based on current theory and state of knowledge (i.e. logical)
  - · Potentially valuable and creating new knowledge
  - Not too small, not too broad
  - Formulated as a question
  - Goal-oriented
- Some types of research questions:
  - Frequency: "How much...?", "How many times...?"
  - Differences: "What are the differences between male and female...?"
  - Relationship: "To what extent is x affected by y?"

Cambré (2012), Cooper & Emery (1995)



- Units of analysis = what or who is to be described or analysed
- Variables = characteristics of units that vary over cases, over time, or over both cases and time
- Relationships = anticipations of causal effects between variables (requires association, direction of influence, nonspuriousness)

## c. Hypotheses/Investigative questions:

- To further guide the research process, the central research question is broken down into a number of sub-questions or investigative questions. Together these ought to satisfactorily respond to the general research question
- Specifically in quantitative research, these often take the form of hypotheses. Hypotheses are a specific type of questions that speculate the possible relationships between variables, deducted from theory, and that have to be tested

 Cambré (2012), Cooper & Emery (1995), Singleton & Straits (2005)

• Example: Watanabe, S., Sakamoto, J., & Wakita, M. (1995). Pigeons' discrimination of paintings by Monet and Picasso. *Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, 63*(2), 165-174. doi: 10.1901/jeab.1995.63-165



the-athenaeum.o



See-ming Le

- Problem statement?
- · Research question?
- Hypotheses?



- Research design provides a framework for decisions about data collection methods, sampling techniques, field work procedures and data analysis efforts.
   The design is therefore critically different from research methods. The latter are simply the tools a researcher uses for collecting empirical materials/data and for interpreting or analysing the information collected
- The preliminary research outline and strategy will first of all depend on the original research purpose (as intrinsic to the research question)
  - 1. Exploratory → Unstructured research design
  - 2. Descriptive → Structured research design
  - 3. Explanatory (causal) → Structured research design

• Cambré (2012)

- There are 5 major designs:
  - 1. Experimental design:
    - · Looks at effect relationship between dependent and independent variable in time
    - Control variables are very important in experimental designs
  - 2. <u>Cross-sectional/correlational design:</u>
    - Data collection happens with multiple units (observations), at one time, to collect quantitative data, on at least two variables, in order to check for patterns
    - Via surveys, structured observations, content analysis, official statistics, diary research, etc.



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OSsPfbup0ac Copyright: Cool psychologist (2009)

• Cambré (2012)



## 3. Longitudinal design:

- Either panel or cohort research. Observations are made over multiple time periods
- Longitudinal design is time consuming and comes at high costs

#### 4. Case design:

- Detailed and in-depth analysis of one case (= to highlight complexity and specificity)
- Things that can be a case: e.g. community, family, organisation, person, event
- A case design has the problem of generalisation: a case is not a sample and the aim should therefore not be generalisability

## 5. Comparative design:

- Two or more cases with more or less identical technique
- Understand social phenomena through comparison (multiple-case research)
- Cross-cultural, cross-national
- · Comparability between cases leads to theoretical reflection, not generalisation
- It is a hybrid that is both an extension of cross-sectional research and of case research

• Cambré (2012)



- Within the design choice, specific methods of data collection and analysis can be implemented within different designs, even though some designs automatically lead to a specific choice
- We can distinguish 3 main methodologies, each consisting of numerous methods:
  - 1. Quantitative
  - 2. Qualitative
  - 3. A mixed methodology

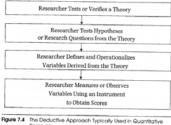
(With some researchers further identifying indigenous and cross-cultural methodologies)

Jennings (2010)



## 1. Quantitative methodology:

- Mostly associated with a (post-)positivist paradigm
- A deductive approach that establishes knowledge by testing hypotheses. The world is seen as consisting of causal relationships. The researcher therefore identifies and tests relationships between variables
- An objective relationship between the researcher and the participants (i.e. objective epistemology). The researcher is essentially viewed as the outsider by study participants
- The research design is structured, systematic and replicable
- Data are presented numerically and analysis is based on statistics
- The report provides findings from the sample that are ideally generalised to the wider study population



Creswell (2003, p.125)

Jennings (2010)



### Qualitative methodology:

- Mostly associated with the interpretive paradigm
- An inductive approach that establishes the nature of truth by being grounded in the real world. The world is seen as consisting of multiple realities and knowledge is subjective
- The researcher is essentially viewed as an insider by study participants
- The research design is unstructured in order to respond to the field setting, and emerges in the course of field work. The sample method is non-random
- Empirical materials are presented as text, rather than numerical representations
- Interpretation is focused on eliciting key themes



Creswell (2003, p.132)

Reversal of the research stages is exemplary in what is known as grounded theory:

- Idea that exploratory (unlike descriptive and explanatory) studies cannot be framed in a hierarchical way of research.
- Grounded theory reverses the research design by starting with observations and constructing a theory through the analysis of data
- Unlike positivist research, grounded theory research starts with a general question or just the collection of observations and involves:
  - Establishing codes = identifying anchors that represent key points
  - Develop concepts = group codes of similar contents into higher-order
  - Establish categories = broad groups of similar concepts that generate a
    - Come to a theory = collection of categories that detail subject of research

Jennings (2010)



## 3. Mixed methodology:

- Refers to the mixing of both quantitative and qualitative methods in varying ways and degrees
- Central to the use of mixed (or multiple) methods is the idea of methodological triangulation: by using multiple methods that do not share the same inherent weaknesses, we enhance our chance of solving the problem. Therefore, in social science, two or more dissimilar measuring instruments or approaches are used. If the methods independently produce similar findings, our confidence in the result increases
- Possible combinations:

Implementation	Priority	Integration	Theoretical Perspective
No Sequence Concurrent	Equal	At Data Collection	
Sequential—Qualitative	Qualitative	At Data Analysis	Explicit
		At Data Interpretation	
Sequential—Quantitative first	Quantitative	With Some Combination	Implicit

Creswell (2003, p.211)

 Jennings (2010), Singleton & Straits (2005)

## **Conclusion**

- Because scientific research is characterised by its process, thorough attention needs to be paid to the design stages
- The first and most important aspect of any research is a clearly identified research question, originating from a broader problem statement and dissected into different hypotheses or investigative questions
- The grand design of the research involves thinking about all subsequent steps that need to be taken in order to arrive to an answer to the research question and can include experimental, cross-sectional, longitudinal. case, and comparative design
- These broad designs then further define which specific methodology (quantitative, qualitative, mixed) will be used, linking the research question and paradigms with the final lower-level methods of data collection and interpretation

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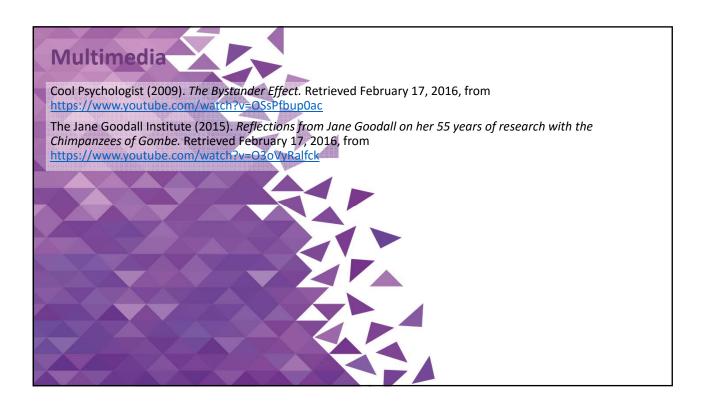
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# Today's session...

- Gives some exercises on developing a research question
- Tries to identify research design and main methods from a tourism paper
- Starts with forming groups and lets you think about problem statement and main research question

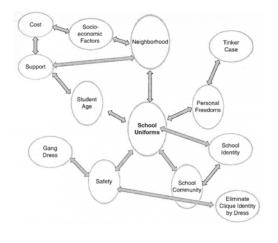


• <u>Question:</u> Based on the movie below, identify a general problem statement and researchable question



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gXLu2-Faask Copyright: In The House NZ (2015)

 Question: Based on the next movie, try to identify a research question by using a concept map and table (examples shown below). Specifically state which are your units of analysis, the variables to research and the suspected relationship



	Major Ideas/T	hings/Concepts	
Safety	Freedoms	Community	Demographics
	Connected Ideas	/Things/Concepts	
Gangs	Personal freedom	School/Local	Student age
Cliques/Bullying	Self-expression	School identity	Urban?
ID students	Tinker Case	Support school	Transient?
-Intruders stick out	Group vs. individual	All or some schools	Can parents afford it?
-In/out of school students identifiable		Can community afford to provide uniforms?	

• Gregory (2013, p.4-5)



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yHXa62Ird-E Copyright: BBC News (2015)

# 2. Exercise: identifying research design

• <u>Reading:</u> Neuts, B., & Nijkamp, P. (2012). Tourist crowding perception and acceptability in cities: An Applied Modelling Study on Bruges. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(4), 2133-2153. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2012.07.016

## Questions:

- Can you identify the problem statement, research question, and hypotheses?
- Is this an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory study? How can you tell?
- Which of the research designs can you identify in this study? And are the methods used of quantitative, qualitative, or mixed nature?



- Form groups per 2 to 3 students
- Use the time to set up a plan of action and brainstorm about a potential research topic



Carabo

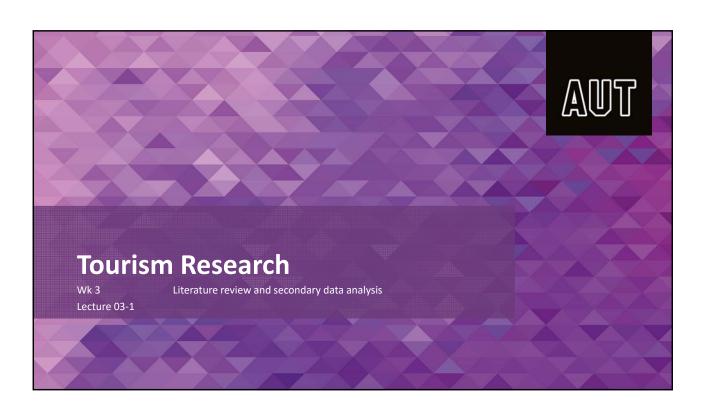
### **Conclusion**

- Interesting research questions can be formed through newspaper reading, watching the news, etc. Each social issue can lead to a multitude of potential research questions
- A concept map helps you to look at the bigger picture. After drawing the bigger
  picture, you need to decide which variables to keep, which ones to drop and how
  to develop a scope for your research question
- While the lecture identified 5 main categories of research design, actual design is often a hybrid of types

• Gregory (2013, p.4-5)







# Today's session...

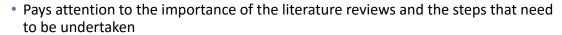
• Discusses killer icebergs and poor penguins



The Sydney Morning Herald reported that more than 150,000 Adélie penguins have died in a colony in Antarctica after the grounding of a giant iceberg.

The penguins used to thrive at Cape Denison, where a large area of water used to be kept open near the shore. However, when an iceberg grounded in the bay at the end of 2010, floating sea ice was trapped near the coast leading the penguins to have to make a round trip of more than 120km to feed in the sea. As a result, since 2011 the population has plummeted from 160,000 to just 10,000.

Fairfax Media © <a href="http://www.smh.com.au/environment/climate-change/giant-iceberg-could-wipe-out-adlie-penguin-colony-at-cape-denison-antarctica-20160212-gmslgx.html">http://www.smh.com.au/environment/climate-change/giant-iceberg-could-wipe-out-adlie-penguin-colony-at-cape-denison-antarctica-20160212-gmslgx.html</a>



- Shows that while a literature review is a secondary data analysis, secondary data can have further importance in answering original research questions
- Discusses some of the sources of secondary data and its advantages and disadvantages compared to primary data

# 1. At the beginning of it all: the literature review



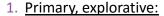
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Lord Polonius: What do you read my Lord? Hamlet: Words, words, words. Lord Polonius: What is the matter, my lord? Hamlet: Between who? Lord Polonius: I mean, the matter that you read, my lord.

From: Hamlet (William Shakespeare)

- The lit review has a special place in the research process. Possibly with the exception of a grounded theory research, a literature review comes before any choice on research design or method
- There are 2 broad forms of lit review, each with their specific goals:
  - 1. Primary, explorative
  - 2. Critical, in-depth

Saunders et al. (2000)

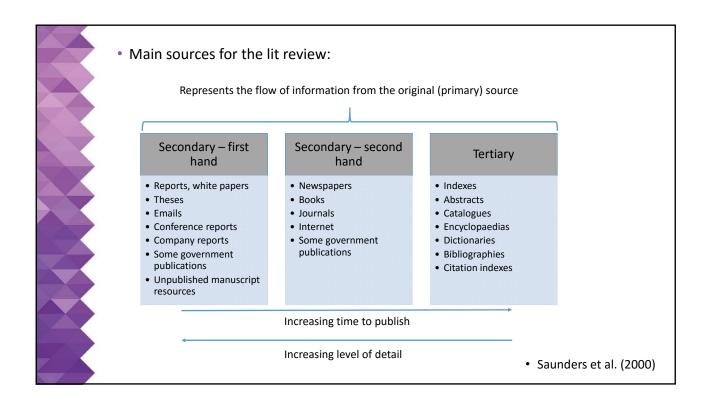


- Is at the first stage of the research project
- The explorative lit review is meant to:
  - Identify current problems. Providing background for the problem you want to study
  - Put the problem in a historical perspective and get to know the current state of knowledge
  - Understand how others handled similar problems in the past
  - · Help to state a research question

#### 2. Critical, in-depth:

- Conducted after the research question and important hypotheses have been stated
- Goal is to attempt to provisionally answer the research question on the basis of others' research
- · Only scientific literature should be used
- Summarises and integrates current knowledge of the topic (agreements, disagreements, different schools of thought, new questions arising, unanswered questions)
- A temporary conclusion can take the form of a conceptual model and could further refine the research questions

• Saunders et al. (2000)



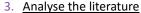


- The lit review is an iterative process and should be repeated multiple times throughout the research
- The main steps are: prepare → conduct → analyse → report
  - 1. Preparing the search:
    - Decide on certain parameters: which kind of literature? From which period? How many references?
    - Choosing key terms to search literature (e.g. names of relevant authors, organisations, keywords). This can be influenced via brainstorming, primary literature search, checking dictionaries and encyclopaedias, etc.

#### 2. Conduct the search:

- · Systematic via identified key terms
- Snowballing = looking up literature that has been cited in previously read books and articles
- Scanning and browsing in books
- · Continue searching information until material overlaps and key themes and perspectives are identified

• Saunders et al. (2000)



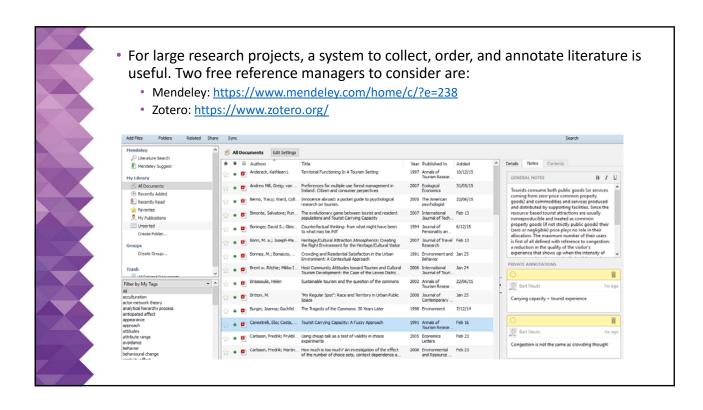
- First: read the abstract (does it look relevant?)
- · Then: skim the text. Focus most on introduction, discussion and conclusion sections
- Make a summary in your own words (paraphrasing not quoting)
- Write down key words and concepts from that study so you can link it with other literature
- · Write down own comments, reflection on the results

#### 4. Report

- Not a collage of summaries. Instead it is a first attempt to answer the research questions in order to show the current state of knowledge and what your own research will add to this
- Write the literature report per topic/theme, not per author/source! This way, divergent viewpoints and schools
  of thought are centralised, combined and critically evaluated. This identifies how previous works will support
  and enhance your study and is also intended to find grey areas of knowledge and gaps which indicate the
  significance of your research question
- · Some ways to describe others' work:

According to A (2004) and B (1998), customer satisfaction means ... In his study on ... G (2002) confirmed these findings in the field of accommodation services. However, E's (2003) work examined the concept from a different angle and suggested that ...

Saunders et al. (2000)



### 3. Conclusion on lit review

Format	Not an unstructured collage but a structured text that displays ideas by themes and adds comments
Relevancy	Identifies theories and previous research that influenced the research topic
Significance	Shows a gap in previous research that needs to be filled and identifies the methodology that might be adopted for the research
Authority	Surveys scholarly articles, books and sources, relevant to a particular issue or set of theories
Credential and knowledge	Provides a description, summary, and critical evaluation of each work
Support	Assists the analysis and interpretation of your data



 The two main forms of data a researcher can access are primary and secondary data

#### **Primary data**

(or empirical material) are those that are collected firsthand by the researcher to use specifically in the research project (e.g. responses to surveys, interview texts, observations)



#### Secondary data

Are those that have been produced by others, not connected to the research project, for their primary use (e.g. governmental documents and statistics, diaries and letters, journal articles). The lit review always uses secondary data!

Jennings (2010)

- While secondary data is the building stone of the lit review, secondary data can be used for broader purposes and serve as tools to answer your own unique research questions
- Some major secondary data for tourism research include:
  - Public documents (statistical documents and government reports; NZ Tourism Strategy 2015)
  - Archival documents (public records and historical data)
  - Personal documents (diaries, personal letters, emails, and autobiographies)
  - Administrative documents (generated in the business environment and associated with public, private and non-profit organisations, e.g. annual reports, meeting notes, and in-house documentations)
  - Formal study and reports (may have conditions or restrictions for use, e.g. commercial-in-confidence reports)
  - Online, publicly shared resources (blogs, Instagram, TripAdvisor reviews, etc.)

Jennings (2010)



- Secondary data analysis involves:
  - · Identifying and locating relevant documents and materials
  - · Gathering and analysing/interpreting those documents (finding methodological fit between the secondary sources and your researcher project)
- Example: Stocker, T. L., Dutcher, L. W., Hargrove, S. M., & Cook, E. A. (1972). Social Analysis of Graffiti. The Journal of American Folklore, 85(338), 356-366. Retrieved from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/539324.



- → Graffiti in toilets as an unobtrusive measure to reveal patterns of customs and attitudes of society
- → Data collected from more liberal to more conservative schools and for male and female toilets
- → Graffiti coded according to various categories: e.g. homosexual, heterosexual, nonsexual, racist, etc.

Jennings (2010)

Advantages versus disadvantages of using secondary data:

The second second	
1	

#### **Advantages**

- Retrospective = enables researchers to go back in time to re-examine tourism phenomena and establish patterns and trends
- Quick and easy accessibility and at low cost
- Data collected are spontaneous
- Non-reactive (study participants are unaware that data are being used)
- Produced in the language of the participants rather than the researcher

#### Disadvantages

- Not always accessible (i.e. privacy issues)
- Incompleteness
- Sometimes questionable reliability
- Possible methodological problems, bias, applicability to current research
- Questionable representativeness and problematic comparisons

• Jennings (2010)



- Because of the limitations of using secondary data to answer research questions, most research still is based on collecting primary data via a quantitative and/or qualitative method (which will be discussed in more detail in the next classes)
- Advantages versus disadvantages of using primary data:

Advantages	Disadvantages		
<ul> <li>Collected for the specific purposes of the project</li> <li>If relevant guidelines and protocols are followed correctly, the data will have relevancy</li> <li>Enables the researcher to target the specific study population</li> </ul>		Reactive nature (participants are aware they are being studied and may change behaviours, opinions, attitudes, or values)  Obtrusive nature (people have to spend time and energy to respond)	
<ul> <li>Lack of inherited methodological errors and bias</li> </ul>	•	Time-consuming and resource-intensive	

• Jennings (2010)



- The key concept in scientific research is standing on the shoulders of giants
- Therefore, primary to defining the research question and throughout the research process a thorough literature review and analysis needs to be conducted in order to identify the state of current knowledge and the existing knowledge gaps where contributions can be made
- These gaps in existing knowledge will primarily be filled through the primary quantitative and/or qualitative method, although depending on the research question there are opportunities to use secondary data sources to answer original questions

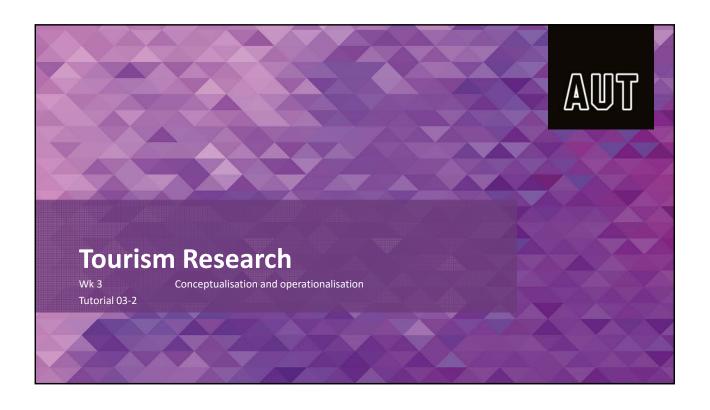
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# Today's session...

- Builds on the previous classes on devising a research question and analysing literature and looks at the important aspects of conceptualisation and operationalisation in the scientific process
- Briefly introduces these concepts, and gives an exercise in order to identify the steps from concept to measurement item in a journal article
- Leaves you time to further discuss the group research project, with specific attention to identifying concepts, dimensions, and think about measuring these concepts



- Scientific norms require description of methods and procedures so studies can be replicated. It is essential to have clear references to the terms in the hypothesis
- E.g.: How many acts of violence do you count in this movie (Shell, 2014)?



https://vimeo.com/8965484 Copyright: Warner Bros (1952)

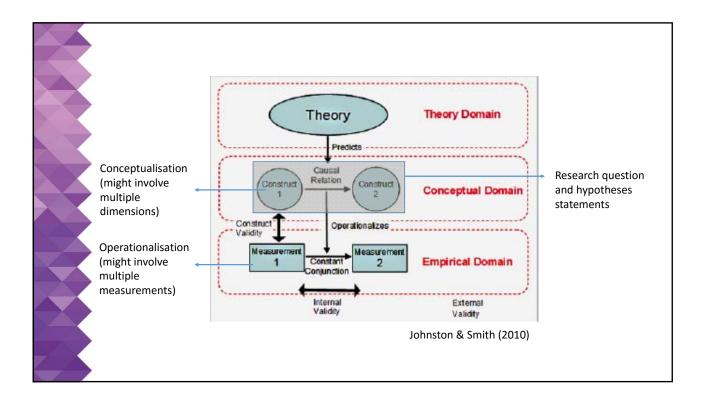
#### From Conceptualisation:

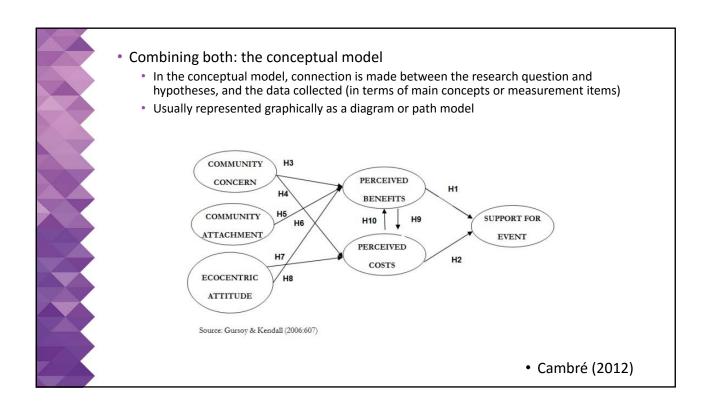
- Is the process of defining and clarifying concepts
- Building on existing literature to develop a shared body of knowledge
- Conceptualisation often means that concepts need to be broken down in multiple dimensions (e.g. IQ consist of verbal comprehension, perceptual reasoning, working memory, and processing speed)
- In social sciences, many concepts cannot be directly observed. Through operationalisation we
  decide on an observation method to move from concept to variable

#### To Operationalisation:

- As a first guidance, a researcher should attempt to find a tried-and-trusted measurement tool
- Operationalisation takes the form of defining one or more indicators (= a single observable measure, e.g. a single item in a survey)
- Because of imperfect correspondence between indicators and concepts, researchers often
  rely on multiple indicators (measurement items) per concept. These are then aggregated into
  composite measures (=concepts)

• Singleton & Straits (2005)







Quality indicators in social research:











Reliability = are measures consistent?

- <u>Replication</u> = is study repeatable?
- <u>Validity</u> = do we measure what we want to measure?
  - Face validity = do measures appear, by the face of it, to reflect concepts?
  - Content validity = do measures adequately represent all facets/dimensions of a concept?
  - External validity = can results be generalised beyond the research setting?

• Cambré (2012), Field (2009)



Reading: Alcázar, C. H., Piñero, M. S., & Ruiz de Maya, S. (2014). The effect of user-generated content on tourist behavior: the mediating role of destination image. Tourism & Management Studies, 10, 158-164. Retrieved from http://www.tmstudies.net

#### **Questions:**

- · Can you identify the concepts and the conceptual model? Do the authors recognize different dimensions in the concepts?
- Describe the operationalization of the concepts, i.e. how were they measured?
- · Identify aspects of reliability and validity in this study? E.g. how did the authors ensure content validity?



 Use the time to think about the concepts in your research question and ways in which you can operationalize these concepts (i.e. what are the different dimensions, how could you measure them?)



Carabo

### **Conclusion**

- The steps to conceptualise the theory and research problem into workable definitions and operationalise them for measurement are critical in the research process
- Only after we know what to measure, we can think of methods how to measure it
- Conceptualisation and operationalisation is also necessary in order to connect your own work with the work of others (by using shared definitions and measurement items) and to develop reliable and valid instruments

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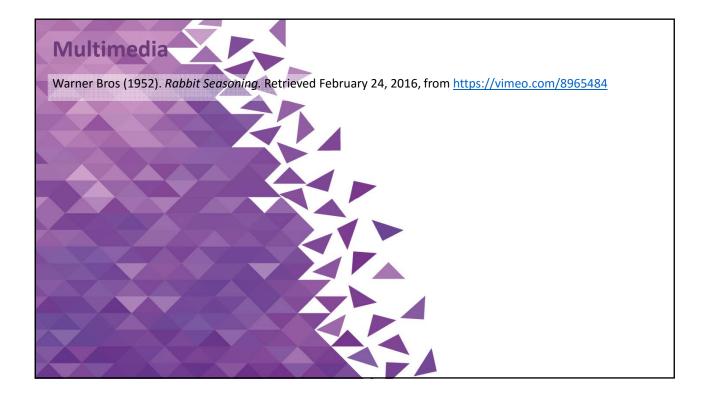
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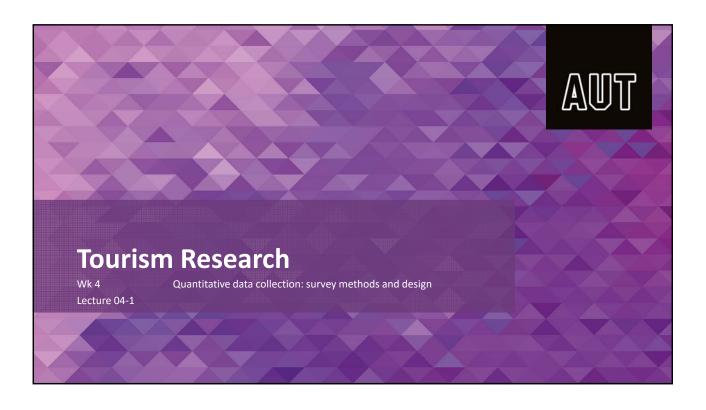
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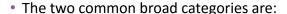


# Today's session...

- Introduces the survey method as one of the main tools to collect primary data in quantitative analysis
- Identifies the main ways in which a questionnaire can be administered
- · Looks into aspects of good questionnaire design and wording
- Identifies question types, scaling, and coding issues



- It is the main method for collecting primary quantitative data
- The process is (more than in qualitative methods) strictly guided by the research question and hypotheses
- Info is gathered from a sample, using a questionnaire (research instrument)
- Research based on surveys is often used to generalise from the sample to a larger population
- The success of a survey is determined by the response rate (i.e. the % of the sample that positively responded to the survey) → non-response analysis is needed and should be random, non-systematic!



- <u>Descriptive surveys:</u> designed to identify characteristics of a specific population either at a
  given moment in time or over a period of time. Their aim is to be descriptive. Generally
  answers the question "who/what?" (e.g. visitor surveys on demographics)
- <u>Analytical surveys:</u> seek explanations for observed variables in given phenomena. Their aim is to be explanatory/predictive. Answers the question "why?" (e.g. different levels of visitor satisfaction)
- Main ways of administering a survey questionnaire are:

	Administering the questionnaire	Completing the questionnaire			
		Self-completed whereby respondents complete the answers			
Telephone Structured interviews using closed questions via telephone call-up		Interviewer-completed whereby the interviewer asks the questions, provides the response sets and records the answers given			
E-questionnaires without direct interaction between researcher and respondent. Similar to mail-back surveys		Self-completed whereby respondents complete the answers			
On-site surveys  Questionnaires are administered in person on site (e.g. on the street, at a museum entrance, etc.)		Can be both self-completed and interviewer-completed			

• Jennings (2010)



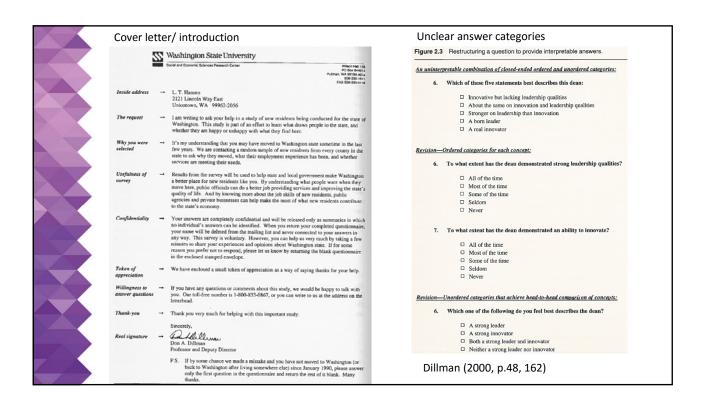
- The questionnaire is the form (the tool) that is used for recording the written responses from the respondents in a fixed and controllable way
- It is a useful research tool when:
  - A large sample needs to be studied
  - · Limited funds are available
  - There needs to be a large measure of comparability, reliability, and validity
- Steps in setting up the questionnaire include:
  - Choose objectives and develop a conceptual model based on literature review
  - Operationalise the concepts into measurement items (where possible based on previous research)
  - Pilot test the questionnaire to determine clarity of questions, ease of responding, length
  - Make modifications based on pilot test

Jennings (2010)

#### 1. Design guidelines:

- Introductory statement:
  - Makes clear the identity of persons contacting the respondents
  - Identifies what the research is about, why it is important and what kind of information is to be collected
  - Indicates how people have been selected (e.g. at random) and making clear that participation is voluntary
  - Guarantee confidentiality and reassure that data will be anonymised and aggregated (i.e. no individual identification)
  - Provide contact details to give respondents the opportunity to ask questions
- Language of questions:
  - Give clear instructions on how to respond to each question (e.g. ticks, how many answers allowed, etc.)
  - Directions to respondents must be clear, unambiguous, and complete
  - Define all terms in your questionnaire that might be misunderstood
  - Avoid insulting assumptions (e.g. "How do you explain the poor quality of your programme?") and leading questions
  - · Avoid questions that are actually asking multiple things at once
  - Avoid negatives and double negatives (e.g. "The term Holocaust usually refers to the killing of millions of Jews in Nazi death camps during Word War II. Does it seem possible or does it seem impossible to you that the Nazi extermination of the Jews never happened?")

Cambré (2012)





#### General layout:

- Design the questionnaire so that it can easily be filled out and tabulated
- Make sure that your questionnaire looks attractive (i.e. items are neatly arranged and the copies are clean and readable). Do not cramp the presentation (e.g. reducing margins and space between questions)
- · Group together items which relate to specific sections
- Keep questions and answers together (e.g. never split a question so that it appears on two separate pages)
- · Possibly use filter questions when certain questions can be irrelevant to particular respondents

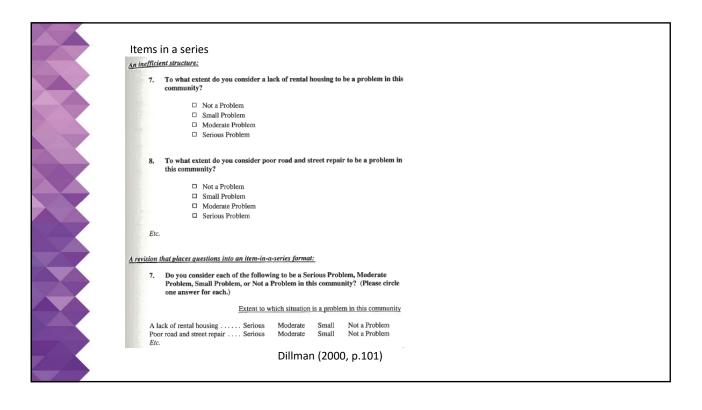
#### · Question order:

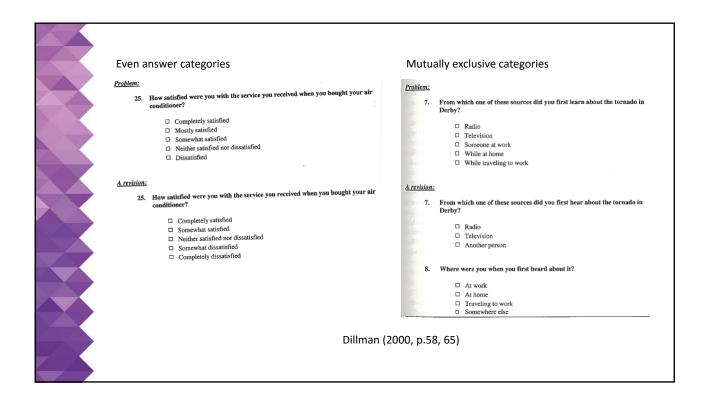
- Early questions should be directly related to the topic of the research
- Potentially embarrassing questions should be left till later. Keep demographic questions (classification of respondents by age, life-stage, socio-economic group, gender) for the end if considered necessary
- General questions should precede specific ones

#### Answers:

- · Answer categories should be even
- Potential answer categories cannot overlap and have to be mutually exclusive
- · Items in a series with identical answer categories should be grouped together by using tabular format

• Cambré (2012)







#### 2. <u>Deciding on questions and types:</u>

- Using existing questions from other research allows to use questions that have been tried
  and tested (i.e. makes use of reliability and validity testing that has already taken place). It
  also allows you to draw comparisons or give some ideas about how best to approach your
  own questions
- Questions can be closed-ended single answers, closed-ended multiple response, open-ended

	Closed-ended single answers	Closed-ended multiple response	Open-ended			
Advantages	Easy to analyse, quick to answer     Large comparability over     studies and between     respondents	Easy to analyse, quick to answer     Large comparability over     studies and between     respondents     More information is provided     than in closed-ended single     answers	Respondents can answer in their own terms and allow for unexpected answers     The questions are not leading, i.e. do not suggest certain kinds of answers     Useful for exploring new areas			
Limitations	Restricts the respondents to a series of pre-determined answers     Responses must be exhaustive     Potential design issues: must make sure that responses are mutually exclusive	Restricts the respondents to a series of pre-determined answers     Responses must be exhaustive     Potential design issues: must make sure that responses are mutually exclusive	More time-consuming to administer and analyse (coding necessary)     Require greater effort from respondents			

• Cambré (2012)



• Type of response set possibilities in closed-ended questions:

Type of scale	Characteristics Coding					
Binary	Only two answers possible: e.g. Yes/no, Agree/disagree	Coded as dummy variable (0 or 1)				
Checklists	Presents a number of categories from which respondents can select one, a limited, or an unlimited number of categories: e.g. various types of information sources used     Categories have no inherent ranking to them	Recoded as collection of dummy variables (0 or 1) for data analysis				
Ranking	Ask respondents to rank an entire list or select and rank a limited number from a list: e.g. the three most important information sources used	Recoded as collection of ordinal variables (e.g. 1 to 3) for data analysis				
Likert	Used for measurement of attitudes and opinions Likert scale indicates degree of agreement or disagreement. Provides indication of strength: e.g. Strongly agree / agree / undecided / disagree / strongly disagree Uses multiple measurement items per concept in order to develop a scale	Coded as ordinal variable (e.g. 1 to 5)				
Semantic differential	Scales used to determine independent and comparative measures of concepts     The scale is made up of two opposites e.g. active <> passive (commonly using 7 points in between the polar opposites)	Coded as ordinal variable (e.g. 1 to 7, -3 to +3)				

• Jennings (2010)



#### • Levels of measurement:

- Nominal: related to the use of words or nouns and used to categorise people. No inherent ranking between
  individuals. Numbers can be assigned as codes but have no inherent meaning. No mathematical relationships
  possible
- Ordinal: Scale with inherent ranking (e.g. from worst to best) but not necessarily equal distance between ranks.
   From the assigned numbers we can distinguish which aspects are most or least preferred but we cannot say anything about the interval between the numbers
- Interval: Scale with inherent ranking and equal distance between the intervals. Because the measures are now
  considered quantitative, we can perform mathematical equations such as addition and subtraction (although
  multiplying and dividing are not possible)
- Ratio: Scale with inherent ranking, equal distance between ranks and a non-arbitrary zero point, making it
  possible to multiply and divide as well

Information provided	Nominal	Ordinal	Interval	Ratio
Classification	YES	YES	YES	YES
Rank order	NO	YES	YES	YES
Equal intervals	NO	NO	YES	YES
Non-arbitrary zero	NO	NO	NO	YES

 Jennings (2010), Singleton & Straits (2005)

Problem:	
12	. About how many books have you read for leisure during the
	Number of books
A revision	ı:
12	2. About how many books have you read for leisure during the
	□ None
	□ 1-2
	□ 3-5
	□ 6-10
	□ 11 or more

38.	What was this person's total income from all sour	rces in 1999?
	Total income for 1999	
revision:	ı	
38.	Which of the following broad categories best descincome from all sources in 1999?	ribes this person's total
	□ \$10,000 or less	
	□ \$10,001 to \$20,000	
	□ \$20,001 to \$35,000	
	□ \$35,001 to \$50,000	
	□ \$50,001 to \$100,000	
	□ \$100,001 or more	



- An excessive use of open questions or yes/no questions
- · Failure to give clear instructions on self-completion questionnaires
- Letting respondents choose more than one answer when question is not meant to be multiple response
- Formulating closed answers that are not mutually exclusive (or omitting categories)
- Failure to ensure the answers correspond to the question
- Cross-national issues in translation, equivalence of measurements and concepts

• Cambré (2012)

### 3. Setting up online questionnaires

- The advent of the internet has made setting up an online questionnaire increasingly simple. Advantages of online surveys include a very fast response rate and a decrease in the potential for manual coding errors. Furthermore, online survey packages offer easy options for primary data analysis
- A main disadvantage of online surveys is that the sample that can be approached through this method is often not a representative slice of the population
- Some popular tools for developing online surveys are:
  - Limesurvey: https://www.limesurvey.org/
  - Google Forms: https://www.google.co.nz/forms/about/
  - SurveyMonkey: <a href="http://www.surveymonkey.com">http://www.surveymonkey.com</a>
  - Qualtrics: http://www.qualtrics.com/

Jennings (2010)

### **Conclusion**

- A questionnaire is a structured way of collecting data in a comparable and controlled format
- Since quantitative analysis aims towards generalisability, a questionnaire needs to be designed properly in order to ensure that each respondent understands and answers the questions in similar fashion
- While open-ended data can add to the richness of the responses, the majority of questions should be of closed nature

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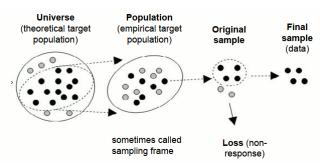


# Today's session...

- Makes you aware of the principles of sampling
- Explains the procedures for obtaining accurate samples and identifies the use of appropriate sampling designs for different research purposes
- Gives some ideas on how to determine sample size and factors to take into consideration when determining sample size

### 1. Some definitions

The theoretical population means the entire group of people that the researcher wishes to investigate. Closely related is the empirical population or sampling frame, which is the population from which the sample is drawn



A sample is a subset of the population. By studying the sample, the researcher draws conclusions for the population

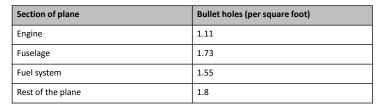
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Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population so that by studying the sample we can make generalisations about the population

• Jennings (2010)

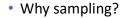
#### Example: Abraham Wald and the missing bullet holes





- Problem: Armour makes planes more resistant against bullets but also makes the plane heavier, and less manoeuvrable and fuel-efficient
- Question: How can plane be armoured most efficiently?
- Prior observations: Planes coming back from engagement were covered in bullet holes. But damage wasn't uniformly distributed across the aircraft. There were more bullet holes in the fuselage, not so many in the engines (see table)

• Ellenberg (2015)



- It is practically impossible to collect data from thousands of elements due to time, costs, and human resources
- Studying a sample rather than the entire population might actually lead to more reliable results due to fewer errors in data collection (easier to control)
- There are two important elements in sampling:
  - 1. Sampling design = the choices made in selecting a sample. Through appropriate design, it ensures that sample subjects are not chosen from the extremes but are representative of the true characteristics of the population
  - 2. Sample size = actual number of subjects chosen as a sample. If the sample size is appropriate, the sample mean will be within close range of the true population

• Jennings (2010)



- While there is always a slight probability that the sample values might fall outside the population characteristics, a well chosen sample is highly likely representative for the population
- · We can identify two types of generalisation of results:

#### Statistical generalization Replication Use probability theory to estimate the likelihood that the This method is used in experimental research patterns observed in the sample will hold in the population Most experiments are not based on statistically representative samples. Therefore, researchers cannot use Probability theory enables researchers to find out how likely the patterns in a sample are to reflect those in a wider statistical generalisation population, with a specific degree of confidence Instead, generalisation of findings is tested through repeated measurement (replication of experiments) in Statistical generalisation requires randomly selected representative samples, which is central in most survey different circumstances and with different participants research If findings are replicated regardless of context, methods, and participant characteristics, the researcher can be confident that the results apply widely

Jennings (2010)

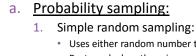


### 2. Sample designs

• Two general sampling frames:

	Probability	Non-probability			
General characteristics	Every item in population (or sampling frame) has an equal chance of being included     Ensures a random sample, free of bias     Allows the precision of the results to be quantified and associated level of confidence to be stated	Not all elements have an equal chance of being selected  Not random, based on a researcher's subjective judgement or convenience  Often used in exploratory studies or when sample frame is not valid			
Main types	Simple random Systematic Stratified random Multi-stage cluster	Convenience (haphazard or availability)     Quota     Snowballing     Purposively (judgemental)			

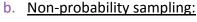
• Jennings (2010)



- Uses either random number tables or an online random number generator, a sample is selected from a list
  - Best used when there is an easily accessible and accurate sampling frame
- 2. Systematic sampling:
  - From a sampling frame, an initial starting point is selected by a random process. Then, every n<sup>th</sup> number on the list is selected (e.g. every 10<sup>th</sup> person walking into the museum)
- 3. Stratified random sampling:
  - People in the sampling frame are divided into strata (i.e. categories), such as women and men, large cities and small cities, etc. 

    strata should be based on a variable that is considered meaningful in the relationship with the independent variable
  - Within each stratum, a simple random or systematic sample is selected
- 4. Multi-stage cluster sampling:
  - Sampling is carried out in stages, using smaller and smaller sampling units. Initially it involves dividing the
    population into clusters (or groups)
  - From all these formed clusters, one or more are randomly chosen and either everyone in the cluster is sampled
    or elements are randomly selected from this cluster

• Jennings (2010)



- 1. Convenience sampling:
  - Select haphazardly those cases that are easiest to access
  - Likelihood of bias is high, the researcher will mainly make contact with people who are available
  - Visitor surveys belong to this category in the sense that only those visitors who are available to the interviewer
    at a given moment in time and space are likely to be included

#### 2. Quota sampling:

- The researcher calculates a set number of participants for inclusion in the sample based on some predetermined variables (e.g. gender, age, nationality)
- Once the number of sample units has been calculated for each variable being considered, the selection process is by convenience

#### 3. Snowball sampling:

- Used with difficult to reach participants because the researcher may not be informed about the formal or informal connections
- Once the researcher identifies one member of the population, other members are identified by this member until all the participants have been contacted

#### 4. Purposively sampling:

- · Researcher uses judgement to select cases that will best enable him/her to answer the research questions
- Often used when working with small samples as in case studies and cases are selected that are particularly
  informative

• Jennings (2010)

# 3. Sample size

• <u>Question:</u> Does sample size need to be proportional to population size (i.e. larger samples for larger populations)?

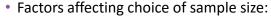


Evan Amos

There are some 124 billion M&M's made each year. Say we want to know the percentage of green M&M's from this population. If we would take a sample of 0.01% proportional to the population, we would still need to sample 12.4 million M&M's!

Could we instead get a reasonable estimate from sampling 1 bag, 2 bags, 3 bags, ...? Let's try it out.

• Marchant-Shapiro (2013)



- Purpose of the study:
  - Descriptive survey often allowing for smaller samples than analytical surveys
- Population size
- Level of precision wanted (i.e. sampling error):
  - The range in which the true value of the population is estimated to be
  - Expressed in percentage points (usually 5%)
- · Level of confidence (or risk):
  - Based on Central Limit Theorem that states that when a population is repeatedly sampled, the average value of
    the sample attribute will be equal to the true population value and the values obtained by these samples will
    be distributed normally around the true value
  - If a 95% confidence level is selected, this means that 95 out of 100 samples will have the true population value within two standard deviations
- · Variability of attributes being measured:
  - The more heterogeneous a population, the larger the sample needs to be to obtain a given level of precision
  - A proportion of 0.5 (i.e. 50%) indicates maximum variability in a population and is often used in determining a more conservative sample size

• Israel (2009)

#### Strategies for determining sample size:

- A census for small populations:
  - Uses the entire population as a sample
  - Eliminates sampling error and provided data on all the individuals of the population
  - In small populations (e.g. 200 or less), virtually the entire population would have to be sampled anyway in order to achieve desirable levels of precision
- Using a sample size of similar studies or published tables:
  - · Might lead to repeating errors of previous studies though
  - Published tables provide sample sizes for given sets of criteria, working under the assumption of normally distributed attributes

	Size of Population	Sample Size (n) for Precision (e) of:								
٦		±3%	±5%	±7%	±10%	3,000	811	353	191	97
A	500	a	222	145	83	4,000	870	364	194	98
Í	600	a	240	152	86	5,000	909	370	196	98
Á	700	a	255	158	88	6,000	938	375	197	98
	800	a	267	163	89	7,000	959	378	198	99
	900	a	277	166	90	8,000	976	381	199	99
•	1,000	a	286	169	91	9,000	989	383	200	99
	2,000	714	333	185	95	10,000	1,000	385	200	99

• Israel (2009)



- Using formulas to calculate a sample size:
  - Usually leads to values similar to those that are tabulated, but own calculations might be needed for different combinations of levels of precision, confidence and variability
  - While different formulas can be found, one of the most used ones is:

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

Assuming a 95% confidence level, a variance (P) = .5, with  $\rm n_s$  = sample size, N = population size, e = level of precision

Which can be corrected for small populations:

$$n_0 = \frac{n_s}{1 + \frac{(n_s - 1)}{N}}$$

With  $\rm n_s$  = previously defined sample size,  $\rm n_0$  = population-corrected sample size, N = population size

• Israel (2009)



- Other sample size considerations:
  - The above formulas and tabulations all assume simple random sampling. In the case of stratified or cluster sampling, the variances in each subpopulation have to be taken into account
  - Another consideration to choose sample size relates to the cases needed for reliable data analysis. While frequencies and means can be calculated for small sample sizes, multiple regression, ANOVA, structural equation modelling, etc. require good sample sizes (200-500 at a minimum)
  - In addition, adjusting the sample size may be needed to accommodate comparative analysis
    of smaller subgroups. At least 100 elements would be needed for major subgroups while
    even smaller subgroups need to be presented by at least 20 to 50 cases
  - Finally, the estimated level of non-response (usually at least 30%) needs to be added to the
    calculated sample size in order to come to an estimate of the total sample that needs to be
    approached

• Israel (2009)



• Use the time to start thinking about the questions to ask in your questionnaire in order to be able to collect data to answer your research question



Carab

### **Conclusion**

- The potential of probability sampling in tourism is restricted by lack of appropriate sampling frames → visitors to attractions, hotels, etc. are not known beforehand and their personal details are seldom recorded afterwards. Thus nonprobability sampling is prevalent in tourism research
- Since the characteristics of any sample are likely to differ from those of the population, sampling errors will exist
- To minimise sampling errors, choosing an appropriate sample size is necessary. While formulas and tabulated versions do exist, sample sizes are also largely determined by data requirements and the need for comparative analysis which requires minimal observations for subgroups under consideration (e.g. different tourist nationalities)

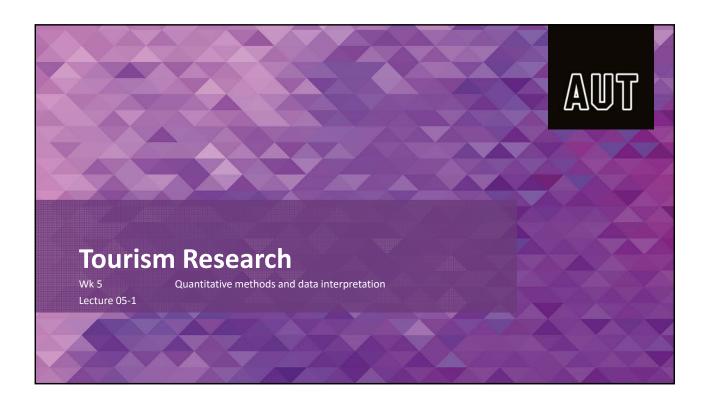
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# Today's session...

- Introduces some major tools in quantitative analysis and will therefore be a bit more... quantitative
- Looks into the primary aspect of coding, which precedes all analysis in quantitative research. Making sure there are no coding errors is the first step to a successful data analysis
- Discusses a few methods related to descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, respectively
- Gives a general indication on how to make statements on generalisation and representativeness

Standardised mortality ratios for total and cause specific mortality in 3521 Swedish women with cosmetic breast implants

Cause of death	Observed No of deaths	Expected No of deaths*	Standardised mortality ratio (95% CI)
All causes	85	58.7	1.5 (1.2 to 1.8)
Suicide	15	5.2	2.9 (1.6 to 4.8)
Unintentional injury	10	5.6	1.8 (0.9 to 3.3)
Cardiovascular disease	11	11.2	1.0 (0.5 to 1.8)
Malignancies:	36	25.9	1.4 (1.0 to 1.9)
Lung	8	2.7	3.0 (1.3 to 5.9)
Cervix uteri	3	1.2	2.5 (0.5 to 7.4)
Breast	4	6.7	0.6 (0.2 to 1.6)
Other causes	13	10.8	1.2 (0.6 to 2.1)



FDA

\*Based on age specific and calendar year specific death rates in total female Swedish population.

Koot et al. (2003, p.527)

Of the 3521 Swedish women with breast implants in the research, the statistically expected number of suicides ought to be 5.2. However, the observed total of suicides in the sample was three times as high, at 15. So there is a positive correlation between having breast implants and suicide rates

## 1. Primary data: quantitative methods

- The quantitative research strategy emphasises numbers and statistical analysis, with the main preoccupations being:
  - Causality
  - Generalisation
  - Replication
- On the simplest level, what we are interested in in quantitative analyses is variations in variables and between people
- As was discussed in previous class, the main method to collect quantitative data is the questionnaire. However, depending on the research topic, the use and analysis of secondary data sources is also widespread (e.g. in economics)



- Depending on the method of the questionnaire delivery, data can be directly extracted (including coding) from an online survey tool or the coding needs to be performed manually (or via scan) from the returned questionnaires
- Each of the categorised groups to be analysed requires a numeric value before they can be entered, counted and analysed and the way of coding depend on the type of variable:
  - · Binary:

What is your sex? □ female □ male Is this your first visit to Bruges?

Usually, give value 0 to one category and 1 for the other category. Specifically in cases such as the second example, where 'yes' means people have visited the city before. Coding 'yes' as 1 is then most logical

Jennings (2010)

Nominal, single response:

Which is your country of origin? □ Belgium
□ Holland SpainGreat-Britain □ France □ Germany United States □ Other: . □ Japan

Coding guite similar to binary guestions. Each mutually exclusive category receives a unique numerical code. E.g. Belgium = 1, Holland = 2, France = 3, Germany = 4, etc.

Nominal, multiple response:

Which of the following attractions have you already visited or are you planning on visiting? (multiple answers possible)

- □ Groeninge Museum
- St John's Hospital Minnewaterpark
   Beguinage
   English Convent
- □ City Hall □ Other: ..
- possible)
  Gruthuse Museum
  Basilica of the Holy Blood
  Boat trip on the Reien
  Coach tour through the inner city
  Jerusalem church
  Welcome Church of Our Lady
- □ Lace Museum
- □ Guido Gezelle Museum □ Guido Gezelle Museum ......(specify)

When respondents can select multiple answer categories from a list, the coding becomes slightly more complicated. Each item on the list will be presented as a separate column in the data input file. Respondents are then coded 1 if they ticked the box of an answer category, and 0 if they haven't ticked the box. So this question will lead to 17 columns in the data input file



#### Ranking:

What are yo	ur favorite sports? Please rank your preferences below.	
3	Football	
5	Racahall	

4 Basketball

continue Continue with the next survey item.

go back Return to previously answered items

Ranking questions will get coded in ordinal fashion. Each answer category (e.g. 'football', 'baseball', 'basketball', 'golf', 'WWF wrestling' will be presented as a separate column in the data input file. The codes attributed then range from 1 to 5 (or 1 to 3 for a top three type of answer), depending on the rank given by the respondents

#### • Ordinal, Likert scale:

2.1 How important is each of these factors in your decision to come to Bruges? (one answer per row)

	very important	important	not important	totally unimportant	no opinion
The history					
The cultural heritage					
The museums					
The cultural performances					
The tranquillity of the inner					
city					
The romance					
The many restaurants					
The bars					
The shopping facilities					
The business					
The meeting facilities					
Visiting friends or relatives					

Coding depending on categories of Likert scale. For 5 levels, e.g. 'very important', 'important', 'important, nor unimportant', 'not important', 'totally unimportant', give a range from 5 to 1. Special consideration needs to be made if a 'no opinion' option is included. While sometimes 'no opinion' will be coded as the median value of a Likert scale (e.g. 3), this is not completely accurate. Alternatively, a missing value code can be given to respondents choosing the 'no opinion' answer, even though this leads to a loss of data

### • Semantic differential: Best expresses your impression of how that feature applies to instructor and his/her teaching style and knowledge Good Strong Weak Aimless Motivated Fast Slow \_\_\_ Easy Difficult Coding of semantic differential scale uses numerical values (1 to 7) or (-3 to +3), depending on the box that was ticked on the scale. Each variable row will be included as a separate column in the data input file. The above question will thus result in 5 column variables, each with a code ranging from 1 to 7 $\,$ Ratio: How many dollars does it cost? $\label{thm:condition} \mbox{Variables measured on a ratio level (e.g. age, income, ticket price) do not need to be coded. At }$ a later stage it can still be decided to combine the values in a limited number of categories



Open-ended:

By what means of transportation did you come to Bruges?

□ car □ motorcy
□ bus □ bicycle
□ train □ Other: .

Other: ...... (specify)

Open-ended questions (either completely open-ended or as open-ended possibilities in a closed question) need to be treated just like categorical data. The entire range of open-ended answers is investigated, and the researcher looks to recurring themes and categories to simplify the data. E.g. the above example might have led to the following answers:

Friend's car x5

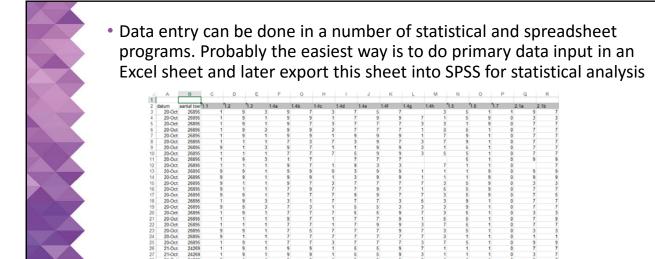
Taxi x3

Rental car x2 Tour bus x20

Mum's car x1

From this, we might decide to count all respondents who answered 'Friend's car', 'Taxi', 'Rental car' or 'Mum's car" under the closed category 'car', while the respondents who answered 'Tour bus' could be added to the 'bus' category.

 Special consideration should go to coding missing responses. Rather than leaving them blank, good practice is to give all missing responses a special code such as 666 or 999 (value should be unique!)



### 3. Main data analysis methods

- In the data analysis section, we want to answer the question "what was observed, recorded, or experienced as a result of the research work?" In order to analyse this, graphs and tables are the first tools
- Two general types of quantitative analysis:
  - <u>Descriptive statistics:</u> summarise, describe and organise data that is definitely known (i.e. data directly observed). Descriptive statistics do not allow us to make conclusions beyond the data or test hypotheses
  - <u>Inferential statistics</u>: do more than just describing. Inferential statistics compare groups, test a hypothesis or make predictions, making inferences about relationships that extend beyond the data. For example, we try to infer what a population thinks based on a sample, or we want to make judgements on the probability that an observed group difference is trustworthy and didn't happen by chance

• Insights from Trump-rally: descriptive or inferential?



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jWFMnnKRC0k Copyright: Comedy Central UK (2017)



- Measures of central tendency
  - Explorative statistics that show the mode, mean, median, standard deviation, etc. for each univariate variable, provided the measurement level is at least ordinal
  - Mode = the category that is chosen most frequently

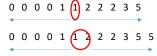
E.g. Transportation type used

Туре	Car	Bus	Train	Other
n (	25	16	20	5

The mode of the transportation question is 'car' because most observations fall in this category

Median = the middle score of a distribution. The point where exactly half the cases are below it and half the cases are above it. Can be observed by organising the data in rank order (from small to large) and looking for the middle point

E.g. Times visited previously



The median is 1 because exactly 5 observations precede it and 5 observations come after it

In case of an even number of observations, the median will be calculated as the average of the two points closest to the middle, so here (1+2)/2 = 1.5

Jennings (2010)

• Mean = the average value of the distribution

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{n}$$

E.g. Times visited previously 0 0 0 0 1 1 2 2 2 3 5

The mean is 16/11 = 1.45

Standard deviation = identifies the difference between all scores and the mean

$$sd = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{n}}$$

E.g. Number of people in travel company

1 1 2 2 4

- 1. Calculating the mean: 10/5 = 2
- 2. Subtracting the mean from each score and squaring the difference:

$$(1-2)^2 = 1$$
  
 $(1-2)^2 = 1$ 

 $(2-2)^2=0$ 3. Sum these scores: 1 + 1 + 0 + 0 + 4 = 6

 $(2-2)^2=0$ 4. Divide this sum by number of observations: 6/5 = 1.2

5. Take the square root of this number:  $\sqrt{1.2} = 1.095$ 

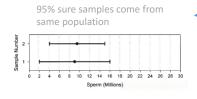
• Jennings (2010)

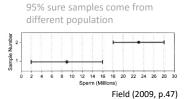


- As was said in the beginning, essentially we are interested in variations when we do quantitative research. The
  standard deviation is therefore an important measure, because it tells us how much variation there is in the
  sample. Or in other words: it shows us the error we make when we use the sample mean to represent an
  individual observation
- The standard deviation tells us how well the sample mean represents the sample observations. We are also
  interested to know how well a specific sample represents the population. This is called the standard error. For
  samples > 30, dividing the sample sd by VN is a good approximation of the standard error. The standard error
  can then be used to calculate confidence intervals:

Lower boundary of 95% confidence interval	$= \bar{X} - (1.96 \times SE)$
Upper boundary of 95% confidence interval	$= \bar{X} + (1.96 \times SE)$

This confidence interval shows the boundaries in which the population mean falls with 95% certainty. By
comparing confidence intervals of different means, we can start to get some idea about whether or not the
means came from the same population





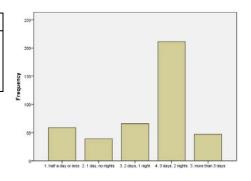
• Field (2009)

### 2. Frequency tables:

A table that shows the frequency of observations in each category of a univariate variable. It lists the categories
and counts the number (and or percentage) of observations (i.e. responses) in each

#### E.g. Length of stay in Bruges

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1. half a day or less	59	14.0	14.0	14.0
	2. 1 day, no nights	39	9.2	9.2	23.2
	3. 2 days, 1 night	66	15.6	15.6	38.9
	4. 3 days. 2 nights	211	50.0	50.0	88.9
	5. more than 3 days	47	11.1	11.1	100.0
	Total	422	100.0	100.0	



- An interesting way to interpret the frequency table is by thinking of it as a probability: i.e. how likely is a
  category expected to occur. For instance, if our sample of tourists in Bruges is representative, we can infer that
  there is a 14% chance that a tourist will not stay longer than half a day
  - Field (2009), Jennings (2010)



#### 3. Crosstabs:

- Quite similar to frequency tables but a bivariate data analysis. Frequency information is presented on two
  variables simultaneously, giving an early indication of associations
- In general, the independent variable is presented in the columns and the dependent variable in the rows

E.g. Length of stay in Bruges per nationality category

				Nationality		
			European	American	Asian	Total
Length of stay	1. half a day or less	Count	49	10	0	59
		% within Nationality	14.2%	25.0%	0.0%	14.0%
	2. 1 day, no nights	Count	28	11	0	39
		% within Nationality	8.1%	27.5%	0.0%	9.2%
	3. 2 days, 1 night	Count		8	3	66
		% within Nationality	15.9%	20.0%	8.1%	15.6%
	4. 3 days. 2 nights	Count	190	10	$\sim$	211
		% within Nationality	55.1%	25.0%	29.7%	50.0%
	5. more than 3 days	Count	23	1	23	47
		% within Nationality	6.7%	2.5%	62.2%	11.1%
Total		Count	345	40	37	422
		% within Nationality	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Without using any inferential statistics, from observations we can already deduct that Americans seem to have the shortest length of stay (1 day maximum), while Europeans are comparatively more represented in the middle categories (2-3 days) and the Asian tourists show a tendency to stay longest (+3 days). Via inferential statics we can then further investigate whether these observations are statistically significant

Jennings (2010)



### b. <u>Inferential statistics:</u>

- 1. Association and correlation
  - Measures of association and correlation reduce the information from a crosstab into a single interpretable number and give an indication of a statistically valid relationship
  - It is important to note that these measures give an indication of association, strength and direction, but not of causality. We cannot infer with certainty from an association that one variable causes the other one
  - There are different measurements of association and correlation, depending on whether the variables are measured on nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio

Measures of association	Level of measurement of the data	High strength of association level when:	Independence when:	Formula
Lambda (λ)	Nominal	1.0	0 - 0	$\lambda = \frac{\sum f_1 - F_d}{N - F_d}$
Gamma (γ)	Ordinal	+1.0, -1.0	0	$\gamma = \frac{n_s - n_d}{n_e + n_d}$
Tau (t)	Ordinal	+1.0, -1.0	0	$\tau_{\alpha} = \frac{n_s - n_d}{N(N - 1)/2}$
Rho (p)	Interval, ratio	+1.0, -1.0	0	$\rho = 1 - \frac{6\Sigma d^2}{N(N^3 - 1)}$
Chi-square (χ²)	Nominal, ordinal	Infinity	0	$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$

Jennings (2010, p.293)



#### E.g. Length of stay in Bruges per nationality category

Nationality is a nominal variable. The different categories do not have an inherent ranking

Length of stay is an ordinal variable. The different categories can be ranked from less to more, but the distance between categories is not

				Nationality	)	
			European	American	Asian	Total
Length of stay	1. half a day or less	Count	49	10	0	59
)		% within Nationality	14.2%	25.0%	0.0%	14.0%
	2. 1 day, no nights	Count	28	11	0	39
		% within Nationality	8.1%	27.5%	0.0%	9.2%
	3. 2 days, 1 night	Count	55	8	3	66
		% within Nationality	15.9%	20.0%	8.1%	15.6%
	4. 3 days. 2 nights	Count	190	10	11	211
		% within Nationality	55.1%	25.0%	29.7%	50.0%
	5. more than 3 days	Count	23	1	23	47
		% within Nationality	6.7%	2.5%	62.2%	11.1%
Total		Count	345	40	37	422
		% within Nationality	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Association statistic to use for the combination of a nominal and an ordinal variable is the chi-square statistic:

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	134.008 <sup>a</sup>	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	95.898	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.031	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	422		

Association is statistically significant (i.e. the chance that this association would be found purely by chance is below 0.000)



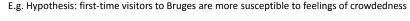
### 2. Independent-means T-tests

- Test for statistical differences between means of two groups of different respondents
- Useful for answering hypotheses of the like "are foreign tourists more likely to cause traffic accidents in New Zealand as compared to locals?" i.e. comparing the effect of one specific variable on another, dependent variable
- Since the test compares means, the dependent variable should be measured at least on interval level
- For the most likely condition in tourism research (independent-means with non-equal sample size), the formula
  of the t-test is:

$$t = \frac{\overline{X_1} - \overline{X_2}}{\sqrt{\frac{{S_p}^2}{n_1} + \frac{{S_p}^2}{n_2}}} \qquad \text{With $s_p$ being the pooled variance estimate, calculated as } \\ s_p^2 = \left[ (n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2) \right] / (n_1 + n_2 - 2)$$

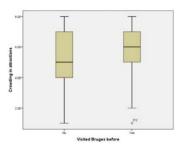
The resulting score can then be compared to tabulated t-values that would be expected by chance alone

• Field (2008)



Below you will find a scale that has to indicate the extent of crowding in the attractions (museums, squares, boats), ranging from not at all crowded (1) to extremely crowded (9). Could you indicate a number that matches your feeling? (circle one number)
not at all crowded Not very crowded crowded very crowd

Feeling of crowding measured using Vaske's 9-point crowding scale. While ordinal in nature, for practice often used as having interval characteristics



Preliminary analysis of means already seems to suggest our hypothesis is wrong. The mean for repeat visitors is higher, and there is less spread around the mean

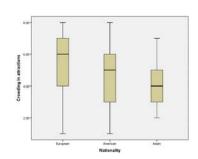
The t-test is significant (p-value <.05) which means that we reject the null hypothesis of no significant difference. We can conclude that there is indeed a difference between crowding perception in these groups. As we can see from the figure, repeat visitors have a higher average perception of crowding than first time visitors

					_					
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means								
							Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Differ	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Difference	Lower	Upper
Crowding in attractions	Equal variances assumed	13.507	.000	-3.959	420	.000	65451	.16534	97950	32952
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.114	382.896	.000	65451	.15909	96730	34172

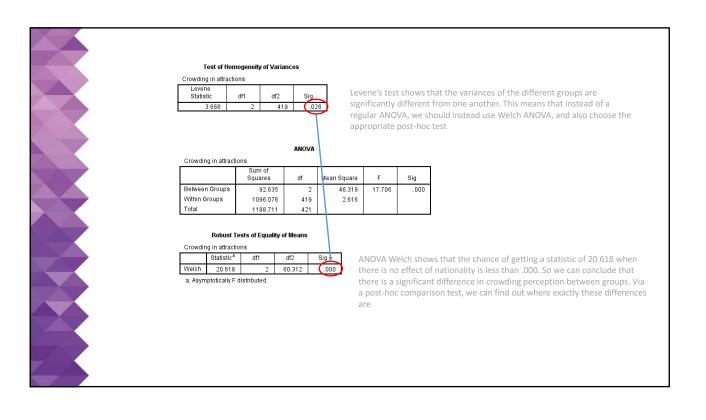
#### Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

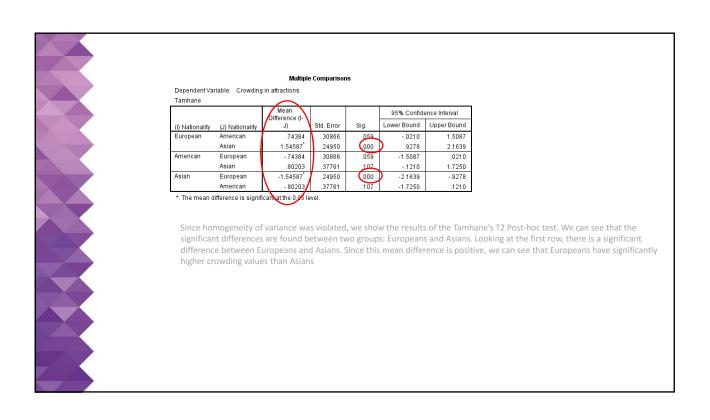
- Conceptually very similar to the t-test. The main difference is that the t-test can only be performed to compare two groups (e.g. male versus female). If we want to be able to compare more than two groups (e.g. nationalities), then we conduct an ANOVA
- Useful for answering hypotheses of the like "which nationalities are more likely to cause traffic accidents in New Zealand?" i.e. comparing the effect of one specific variable with multiple categories on another, dependent variable
- Since this test compares means as well, the dependent variable should be measured at least on interval level
- An ANOVA-test only shows whether there is a significant difference between group means. It will not show between which groups these differences are significant. To identify that, we need to conduct a post-hoc comparison test

#### E.g. Hypothesis: different nationality groups differ in their perception of crowdedness



From the first look on the mean and the tendency around the mean, it indeed seems to suggest that the Asian-group shows comparatively lower crowding values than the American-group. The European-group has the highest mean value for crowding.







- We said that one of the aims of quantitative analysis is to generalise the findings from the sample to the entire population
- In order to make statements of representativeness, we need to test the observed probabilities of the sample distribution against the hypothesised probabilities that would occur in case the sample was representative of the population

E.g. are the age groups in our sample representative for the distribution of age in the population?

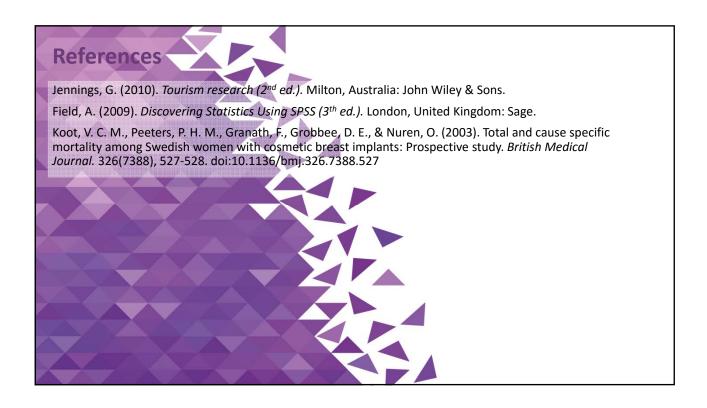
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	16-19y	2	.2	.2
	20-34y	109	8.5	10.4
	35-49y	309	24.1	29.4
	50-64y	432	33.8	41.1
	>64y	198	15.5	18.9
	Total	1050	82.0	100.0
Missing	System	230	18.0	
Total		1280	100.0	

We compare the frequencies found in our sample with the known population frequencies: 16-19y = 5.8%, 20-34y = 32.3%, 35-49y = 28.2%, 50-64y = 20.6%, >64y = 19.1%. Via a chi-square test we can confirm that the observed probabilities are statistically different from the hypothesised (i.e. real) ones, giving an issue for generalisation

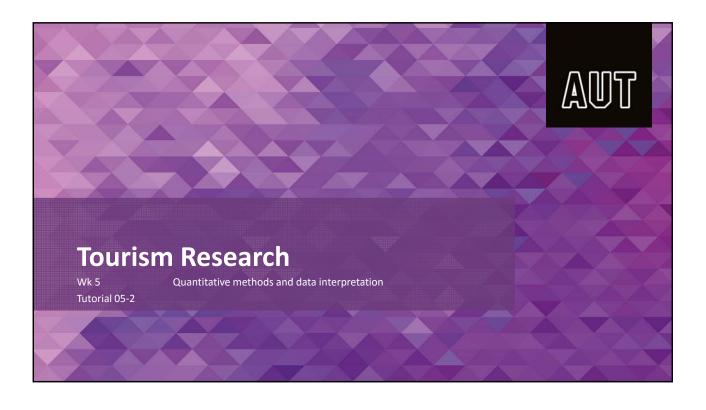
	Observed N	Expecte	d N	Residual
16-19y	2	5	7.5	-55.5
20-34y	109	32	0.0	-211.0
35-49y	309	27	9.3	29.7
50-64y	432	20	4.1	227.9
>64y	198	18	9.2	8.8
Total	1050			
	Chi-	-Square	450.794ª	
	df		4	
	Asy	mp. Sig.		.000

### **Conclusion**

- Where qualitative analysis are interested in content and context, quantitative analyses look for meaningful (i.e. statistically significant) relationships
- Since coding means that data are represented by numbers, we need to carefully
  distinguish between the measurement levels (statistical tests do not look beyond
  the numbers and cannot see whether the numbers have a meaningful rank)
- The most used quantitative methods can be divided into descriptive and inferential methods. We only introduced a small number of the wide array of possible statistical tests here
- Ultimately, we also have to test whether our sample adheres to the concept of representativeness of the population if we want to make generalisations

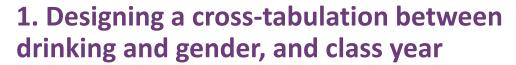






# Today's session...

- Gives you an exercise in cross-tabulation, their construction and the interpretation of these
- Thinks you've had your fair share of quantitative aspects to research and gives you time to work on your research project



- You receive a datasheet with data from a class survey. The variables that were collected are student gender (SEX), class year (CLASS), and drinking behaviour (DRINK)
- Using this data, develop a cross tabulation, with and without (CLASS) as control variable. Is there a difference in analysis when using the control variable?

Control variable: CLASS

	Male	Female	Total
Drink			
Not drink			
Total			

• Hunter (2013)

### 2. Preparation of group assignment

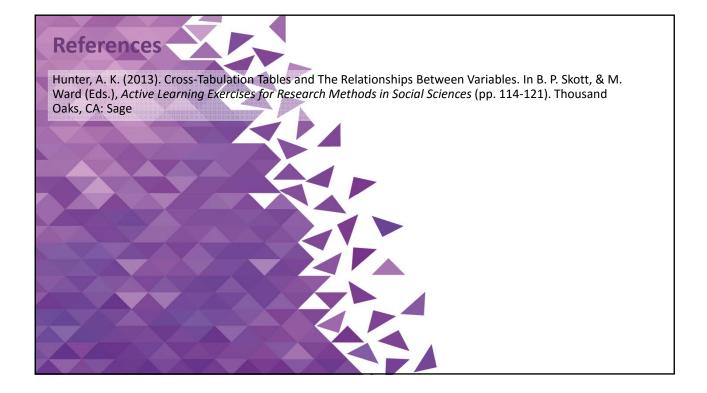
• Use the time to further develop your questionnaire and already think about how you will code the different answers and how you could go on to analyse these



Carabo

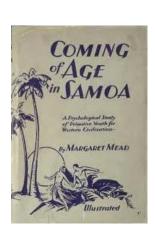
### **Conclusion**

 When constructing a questionnaire for quantitative analysis, we need to look both backwards and forwards: backwards to make sure that the research question is sufficiently covered via the operationalisation of the constructs and forwards to make sure the categories chosen and levels of measurement will be appropriate for the data analysis we have in mind





## Today's session...



- Margaret Mead's fieldwork in Samoa was completed over a period of 6-9 months during 1925/26. She wrote of a society where love was available for the asking and crime was dealt with by exchanging a few mats. This book launched Margaret Mead's, career, which led to her becoming one of the most renowned figures in American anthropology
- Samoa painted as a place of nearly stress free living, where the children pass through adolescence without the many pressures put upon teenagers in an industrial, twentieth-century America. In Mead's Samoa, families are large, taboos and restrictions are few, and disagreements are settled by the giving of mats
- Mead refers to premarital sex as the "pastime par excellence" for Samoan youth. She writes that Samoa is a virtual paradise of free love, as the young people from (approximately) 14 years of age until they are married have nothing on their minds except sex

http://faculty.usfsp.edu/jsokolov/314mead1.htm

• Mead (1943)



- Makes you understand the main methods of qualitative research
- Introduces you to different types of interviews
- Makes you aware of other non-obtrusive data sources and strengths and weaknesses of each method
- Talks a bit about sampling and coding

### 1. Primary data: qualitative methods

- Is a research strategy that emphasises words rather than quantifications in the collection and analysis of data
- Characteristics of qualitative data collection
  - Reporting via textual analysis, citations instead of tabular format and statistics
  - Aims for contextualisation, holism (space, time), offering broad and panoramic views instead of micro-analyses
  - Detailed description of a particular aspect of an individual, a case history or a group's experiences. Explores how individuals or group members give meaning to and express their understanding of themselves, their experiences and their day-to-day setting
  - Aims to describe in detail social events and explore why they happen instead of how often

Creswell (2003)

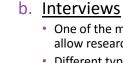


- Main sources of primary qualitative data collection:
  - Observation and/or Participation
  - In-depth interviewing
  - Focus groups
  - · Document analysis
  - Audiovisual materials

### a. Participant observation (ethnography)

- Researcher attempts to participate fully in the lives and activities of the research subjects and thus becomes a member of the subjects' group, organisation or community
- · Can also be limited to researcher as observer
- · Steps involved in participant observation:
  - Considering research purpose and deciding type of participant observation
  - Seeking ethical clearance and if needed, negotiate access to study setting
  - Engage in exploratory observation of the site and usage patterns and flows
  - Design research methodology, conduct pilot study, and enter the field
  - Interpret and report empirical materials

Creswell (2003), Jennings (2010), Marshall & Rossman (1999)



- · One of the most important data gathering techniques for qualitative researchers. Interviews allow researchers to gather rich data from people in various roles and situations
- Different types of interviews can be identified, depending on the structure of the conversations:

	Structured	Semi-structured	Unstructured
Method	Quantitative	Qualitative	Qualitative
Examples	Standardised surveys, interviewer-completed questionnaires	In-depth interviews	In-depth interviews
Format	Fixed schedule, short responses	Topic/theme lists, generally open-ended questions	Oral/life histories, conversational
Duration	Short: 10 to 30 min	Medium to long: 1h or more	Medium to long: 2h or more, several sessions

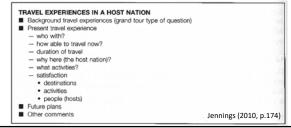
• Jennings (2010)



Factors in choice of interview type:

Semi-structured	Unstructured
<ul> <li>Beginning the investigation with a fairly clear focus</li> <li>If more than one person is to carry out the fieldwork → ensures comparability of interviewing styles</li> <li>When conducting multiple case study research → to ensure cross-case comparability</li> </ul>	Beginning with a general notion of wanting to research a topic     When using an interview guide will not allow genuine access to world views of certain groups

- Designing the topic list:
  - · List with topics and sub-topics to help you answer your research question (but try not to make it too specific)
  - Sequence of topics logical for respondent, but be prepared to alter the order of questions if needed
  - Use language that is comprehensible and relevant to the people you are interviewing
  - Ensure to record some descriptive information of the respondent (name, age, gender, company position, etc.)
     in order to contextualise people's answers



Cambré (2012)



#### Types of questions to ask:

- 1. Introducing questions: "Please tell me about when your interest in X first began?"; "Have you ever ...?"; "Why did you go to ...?"
- 2. Follow-up questions: getting the interviewee to elaborate his/her answer, such as "Could you say some more about that?"; "What do you mean by that?"; "Can you give me an example?" → looking more for facts and answers typically brief
- 3. Probing questions: following up what has been said through direct questioning → requires more thought, goes deeper, is more opinion-oriented
- 4. Specifying questions: "What did you do then?"; "How did X react to what you said?"
- 5. Direct questions: perhaps best left until towards the end of the interview in order not to influence the direction of the interview too much, such as "Do you find it easy to keep smiling when serving customers?"; "Are you happy with the amount of on-the-job training you have received?"
- 6. Indirect questions: "What do most people round here think of the ways that management treats its staff?"
- 7. Structuring questions: "I would now like to move on to a different topic"
- 8. Interpreting questions: "Do you mean that your leadership role has had to change from one of encouraging others to a more direct one?"; "Is it fair to say that what you are suggesting is that you don't mind being friendly towards customers most of the time, but when they are unpleasant or demanding you find it more difficult?"

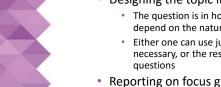
• Cambré (2012)



#### c. Focus groups

- · Group interview composed of a small number of participants, facilitated by a moderator, in which the topic is defined clearly and precisely
- Main interest is in the ways individuals discuss issues as members of a group, rather than as individuals. Focus group researchers are interested in how people respond to each other's views and built up a view out of interactions taking place within the group
- When to use a focus group:
  - · So that people known to have a certain experience can be interviewed about it in a relative focussed way
  - · Allows to develop an understanding about why people feel the way they do
  - · Participants are able to bring issues to the fore in relation to a topic they deem to be important and significant
  - · To offer the opportunity to study how individuals collective make sense of a phenomenon and how group norms can influence individual thinking
- Choice of participants:
  - Those who are interested in the topic
  - · Those who can represent specific occupations, organisational members, stakeholders, or other stratifying

Cambré (2012)



- Designing the topic list:
  - The question is in how far a focus group should be structured and guided. There is no one best way and this will depend on the nature of the research topic and the level of interest and/or knowledge among participants
  - Either one can use just one or two general questions to stimulate discussion, with the moderator intervening as necessary, or the researcher can inject more structure into the organisation of the sessions, using more
- Reporting on focus groups:
  - Data are most commonly presented as if they were one-to-one interview data
  - · Interaction between focus group participants may either be complementary or argumentative

• Cambré (2012)



### d. **Document analysis:**

- Thematic analysis:
  - Is a qualitative approach to text
  - Undertaking a search for themes in interview transcripts or field notes (resulting from participant observation or interviews).
     Frequency of certain words and phrases can indicate a theme
  - Compare and contrast emergent themes with the literature to deepen insight into the emergent theory
  - Description and quotation provide the foundation of a qualitative reporting

- · Content analysis:
  - · Is a more quantitative approach to text
  - Researcher first searched for structures and patterns in the text by developing a set of categories of words and phrases; these codes are then applied to units of text
  - Once the text has been coded, various statistical techniques can be used, so it is a quantitative means of analysing the content of qualitative data (e.g. how many counts per theme)
  - Is useful for looking at frequencies of words, changes in frequency over time, scope attributed to a topic, direction, intensity (i.e. strength of direction)

Jennings (2010)



- Idea that much of tourism is about images and therefore visual methods can allow researchers to access and create knowledge about phenomena which cannot be as readily accessed with the sole use of more traditional methods
- Three broad types of visual materials:
  - Collected from secondary sources and later studied by relying on analyses such as content or semiotic analysis (e.g. postcards, travel photography, videos posted on the internet, images of destinations in guidebooks)
  - Specifically created for the purpose of the project (e.g. researcher-created photography or film, drawing maps of visitor movements, GIS-tracking)
  - Used as data in further research as photo elicitation (e.g. surveys, interviews)

Table 9.1 Photographic scenes (in %)<sup>a</sup>

Site/actors <sup>b</sup>	Family members	Locals	Other tourists	No people	Total
Rural landscapes	9	-		17	26
Residence	13	-	2	2	17
Beach	11	-	-	3	14
Cultural sights	11	-	-	3	14
Amusement parks, zoos, pool areas	7	_	1	2	10
Urban landscapes	7	-	-	1	8
Means of transport	3		2	1	6
Restaurant or other small facility	4	-	-		4
Museums and galleries	-	-	-	1	1
Total	65	-	5	30	100
Notes			41. 741		

a Values in percentages with values less than 1% not mentioned b Only in foreground of the picture.

Haldrup & Larsen (2012, p.156)

• Rakić & Chambers (2012)



• Advantages and limitations per type:

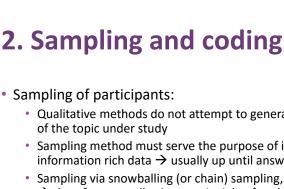
Advantages and infiltations per type.				
Data collection type	Advantages	Limitations		
Participant observation	Researcher has first-hand experience and can record information as it is revealed Provides info when other methods might be ineffective Unusual aspects, behaviour that might not want to be discussed, can be noticed from observation Useful in exploring topics that may be uncomfortable to discuss	May be seen as intrusive     Private information may be observed that researcher cannot report     Is not appropriate for opinions/attitudes     Time-consuming to build up trust     Does not work well with large groups     Focussed on present, past and future cannot be observed		
Interviews	Useful when direct observation impossible     Possibility to get rich data, historical information     Researchers control line of questioning,     possibility to ask for clarifications     Participants not constraint to a priori reasoning     Non-verbal behaviour can also be noted	Provides 'indirect' information (respondent bias) Does not provide information in natural field setting Researcher's presence can bias responses People are not equally articulate and perceptive		
Focus groups	Group interaction and decision processes can also be observed Less time-consuming than individual interviews More freedom for respondents to develop topics and line of discussion	Researcher has less control over proceedings     Data are difficult to organise and analyse     Recording may be time-consuming to analyse     Potential problems of group effects     Can potentially cause discomfort for individuals to share personal details or profound disagreements		

 Cambré (2012), Creswell (2003), Jennings (2010)



Data collection type	Advantages	Limitations	
Document analysis	Enables a researcher to obtain the language and words of participants     Can be accessed at a time convenient to the researcher (unobtrusive)     Enables past and present to be studied     Saves time and expenses	Information may not be easily accessible Materials may be incomplete and not completely cover the research question The documents may not be authentic or accurate and researcher is separated from author Iterative readings of texts can produce different interpretations	
(Audio)visual materials	Unobtrusive method of collecting data     Complementary to other forms of data collection     Provides an opportunity for participants to directly share their reality     Creative, captures attention visually	May be difficult to interpret or selectively framed     Subjectivity of interpretation     May not be accessible, ethical issues     The presence of an observer may be disruptive and affect responses	

• Creswell (2003), Jennings (2010)



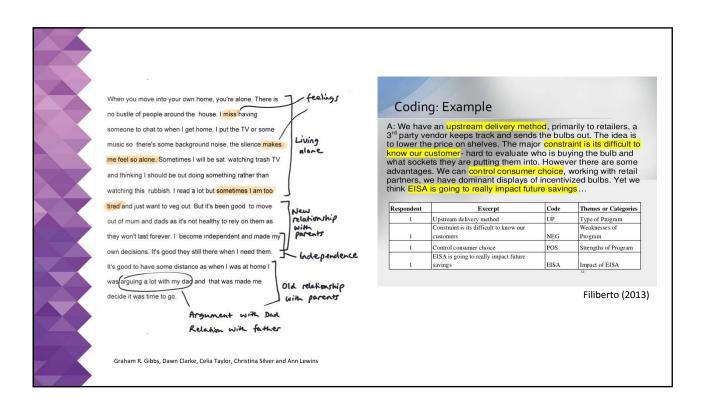
- - Qualitative methods do not attempt to generalise, instead try to gain in-depth understanding
  - Sampling method must serve the purpose of in-depth understanding. Selection for information rich data → usually up until answers/themes get repeated
  - Sampling via snowballing (or chain) sampling, purposive sampling or convenience sampling → therefore not adhering to principle of probability sampling and representativeness
- Coding qualitative data is meant to answer the questions:
  - What is the meaning of my data?
  - What are the main themes and contribution to knowledge?

Jennings (2010)



- A code can be a word that is used to describe/summarise a sentence, a paragraph, or even a full piece of text
- Open (preliminary) coding occurs during the first phase of interpretation. During data collection when the researcher reviews the data and searches for reoccurrences
- Steps involved in coding include:
  - · Reading all transcriptions carefully and writing down some ideas as they come to mind
  - Pick one document (the most interesting one). Think about the main underlying meaning of the content and write this in the margin. Do this for several documents
  - Make a list of the topics you found so far, cluster similar topics. Arrange these topics in columns, ranging from major topics, unique topics, and leftovers
  - Take this list and go back to the data. Abbreviate topics to codes and write these codes next to appropriate parts of the texts. See whether new categories or codes emerge
  - Find the most descriptive wording per topic and turn them into categories. Look for ways to reduce the total list of categories by grouping related topics. Draw lines to show interrelationships
  - Make a final decision on the abbreviation (i.e. code) for each category
  - Assemble all data material belonging to each category in one place and perform a preliminary analysis
  - If necessary, recode existing data

Creswell (2003), Jennings (2010)





- A researcher's own commentary on what happened during research project
- States the thinking, feelings, and behaviour at certain times:
  - Procedural memos: focus on research process (what you did and how)
  - Analytical memos: focus on subject matter (ideas about what data mean)



Raf Aer

• Jennings (2010)

### **Conclusion**

- Qualitative methods are characterised by a focus on words and texts, not attempting to quantify findings. The analysis is based on content, not on statistical relationships
- The main sources for qualitative data collection are: (participant) observation, indepth interviewing, focus groups, document analysis, and (audio)visual materials, each with specific strengths and limitations
- Since qualitative methods do not attempt to generalise data, sampling is more haphazard and based on a researcher's intuition or through participant referral

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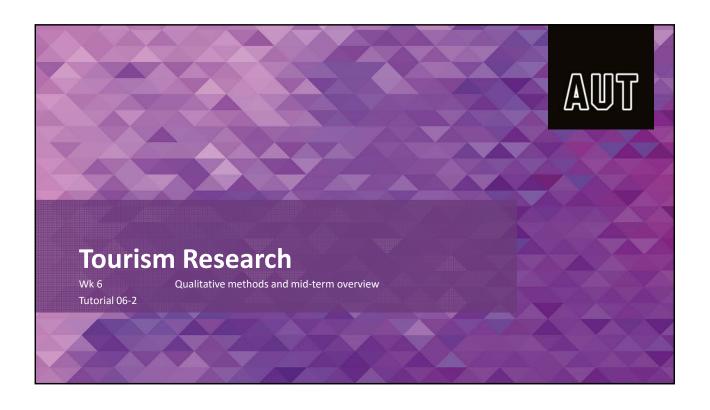
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# Today's session...

- Will discuss a mid-term example to help you prepare
- Gives an example of qualitative thematic analysis of travel reviews on TripAdvisor

### 1. Tourist satisfaction in the digital age

- You receive 2 bundles with a number of visitor reviews from TripAdvisor. One for a hotel (Alpers Lodge) and one for an activity (Fergs Kayaks)
- Can you identify elements of satisfaction/dissatisfaction for each of both? Can you identify distinctive themes?

	Alpers Lodge	Ferg Kayaks
Satisfaction		
Dissatisfaction		

 What can you learn from this in terms of dealing effectively with this kind of usergenerated content?

### 2. Preparation of group assignment

• Use the time to further develop your questionnaire and already think about how you will code the different answers and how you could go on to analyse these



## **Conclusion**

- Online sources such as TripAdvisor offer new ways to connect with travellers/respondents and get insights into attitudes and behaviours
- Via qualitative thematic analysis we can attempt to identify common themes in the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of customers in order to improve our product