

## What is Research?

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How to do Research: solve a problem, publish

Dissecting the Dimensions of Research:  
topic, novelty, technology, scope, mode, methods, ideology,  
politics, utility

Reassembling the Dimensions: quantitative vs qualitative research


## How to do Research

- Research is all about **addressing an issue** or **asking and answering a question** or **solving a problem**, so...
- **Identify** an issue, question, or problem.
  - Talk with **people who want or need your study**.
- **Find out** what's already known about it.
  - Talk with **experts** and/or **read their reviews** and the **original research** on the topic.
- **Plan, cost, and do** your study accordingly.
- **Write it up** and submit it for assessment.
  - Better still, do a good job on it and **submit it for publication**.
    - Undergrad projects are sometimes good enough to publish.
    - Your work will **benefit more people** if you publish it.
    - Rule No. 1 in academia is **publish or perish**.
- This slide show is about **different types** of research you can do.

## Dissecting the Dimensions of Research

- My understanding of the various kinds of research advanced when I identified various **dimensions** (components) of research.
    - A former colleague regarded such analysis as a **trivial pursuit**.
      - If you find a better way to understand research, let me know.
    - Meanwhile consider these dimensions:
      - **topic**: physical–biological–psychological–sociological
      - **novelty**: create new vs review published data or info
      - **technology**: develop new vs use existing methods
      - **scope**: study a single case vs a sample
      - **mode**: observe vs intervene
      - **methodology**: qualitative vs quantitative (info vs numbers)
      - **ideology**: objective vs subjective (positivist vs interpretivist)
      - **politics**: neutral vs partisan
      - **utility**: pure vs applied
      - **reassembling** the dimensions
- Click to link to each dimension.*  
*Click here for Conclusions.*

## Topic: what are you researching?

biophysical  psychosocial  
clinical behavioral psychological economic social

- Examples
  - Clinical: the effect of a herb on performance.
  - Psychological: factors affecting work-place satisfaction.
  - Behavioral: how can we reduce truancy at this school?
  - Economic: characterize the productivity of new immigrants.
  - Social: develop risk-management procedures at a gym.
- **Finding** a good question/problem to address can be hard.
  - It helps to have a **good supervisor, good colleagues**, and/or **knowledge or practical experience** of and **affinity** for a topic.
  - You must **read journal articles** to find out what's already known.
    - Authors also often point out topics for future research.

## Novelty: creating new or reviewing published info?

create  review

- Most research projects are so-called **original investigations**.
  - You obtain new data or information about a phenomenon.
  - You reach a conclusion and try to publish it.
- Some research projects are **reviews of the literature**.
  - You use other researchers' published data or info about a phenomenon.
    - A quantitative statistical review is called a **meta-analysis**.
  - You should "earn your spurs" doing original research before taking on a stand-alone review.
  - But a write-up of an original investigation always has to include a short review of literature.

## Technology: develop new or use existing method(s)?

develop new  use existing

- Sometimes a legitimate topic for study is methodological.
- For example, development or novel investigation of...
  - a measuring device
  - a psychometric instrument (questionnaire or inventory)
  - a protocol for a physical performance test
  - a diagnostic test
  - a method of analysis.
- You usually include or focus on a reliability and/or validity study of the measure provided by the method.
  - **Validity** = the relationship between observed and true values.
  - **Reliability** = reproducibility of observed values.

### Scope: case or sample?



- Are you **solving a single case** of something, or is it a sample that will allow you to **generalize to a population**?
- In a **case study**...
  - You are interested in **"what happened or will happen here"**.
  - Your finding applies only **locally**: to the case you studied.
  - The quest for an answer can be like that in a **court case**.
  - **Qualitative** methods are often required.
  - You reach an answer by applying **logic** (= common sense?) and **skepticism** to your knowledge and to the information you gather.
    - Be **wary** of **conventional wisdom** and your own **prejudices**.
  - It may be possible to estimate **probabilities of benefit or truth** of various answers.

### In a study of a **sample**...

- You are interested in **"what happens in general"**.
- Rarely, "what" is simply descriptive: the frequency, mean value or other **simple statistic** of something in the sample.
- Most often, the "what" is the value of an **effect statistic**: the relationship between the thing of interest (a **dependent variable**, such as health, performance...) and something else (a **predictor variable**, such as training, gender, diet...) in the sample.
  - Examples of effect statistics: difference or change in a mean value; ratio of frequencies (relative risk); correlation coefficient.
- You **control** for other possible predictor variables either by holding them constant or measuring and including them in the analysis.
  - Example: the effect of physical activity on health, controlling for the effect of age on health.
  - In **controlled trials** (interventions), a **control group** accounts for any effect of time that would have happened anyway.

### More about studying a sample...

- You study a sample, because it is **impractical** and **wasteful** (and therefore **unethical**) to study a population.
- "What happens in general" refers to the **average person or situation** in a population represented by your sample.
- "Population" is a **defined group**, not the entire human race or all possible situations.
- You make **inferences** about that population; that is, you **generalize** from the sample to a population.
  - You can make inferences to other populations only if you can argue that those populations are similar to your sample with respect to the effect you have studied.

### There are **several ways to generalize** from sample to population...

- Old: develop a null hypothesis about a relationship, then **test the hypothesis** (that is, try to falsify it) using **statistical significance** based on something called the **P value**.
- New: identify a relationship, **measure its magnitude**, state the **uncertainty** in the true value using **confidence limits**, then make a conclusion about its **clinical or practical importance** in the population.
- **Sample size** is a big issue.
  - The smaller the sample, the more the uncertainty.
  - A stronger relationship needs less certainty.
  - So a stronger relationship needs a smaller sample.
  - Unfortunately most relationships are weak or trivial, so **you usually need large samples**.



### Mode of Enquiry: **observational or interventionist?**



- In an **observational** study...
  - The aim is to gather data or information about **the world as it is**.
  - So you hope the act of studying doesn't substantially **modify** the thing you are interested in.
- In an **interventionist** study...
  - You **do something to the world** and see what happens.
  - You gather data or information almost always **before and after** the intervention, then look for **changes**.

### The following comments refer to observational and interventionist studies with **samples**.

- The estimate of the magnitude of a relationship is less likely to be **biased** (that is, not the same as in a population) if...
  - the sample is **selected randomly** from the population, and...
  - you have a **high compliance** (low proportion of dropouts).
- An **observational** study of a sample...
  - usually establishes only an **association** between variables rather than a causal relationship;
  - needs **hundreds** or even **thousands of subjects** for accurate estimation of trivial or small effects.

- **Types of observational study** with a sample, weak to strong:
  - **Case series**, e.g. 20 gold medallists.
  - **Cross-sectional** (correlational), e.g. a sample of 1000 athletes.
  - **Case-control** (retrospective), e.g. 200 Olympians and 800 non-Olympians.
  - **Cohort** (prospective or longitudinal), e.g. measure characteristics of 1000 athletes then determine incidence of Olympic medals after 10 years.
- In an **intervention** with a sample...
  - You can establish **causality**: X really does affect Y.
  - You may need **only scores of subjects** for accurate generalization about trivial or small effects.
  - The outcome is the effect of a treatment on the **average subject**.
  - Researchers usually neglect the important question of **individual responses** to the treatment.

- **Types of intervention** with a sample, weak to strong:
  - **No control group** (time series), e.g. measure performance in 10 athletes before and after a training intervention.
  - **Crossover**, e.g. give 5 athletes a drug and another 5 athletes a placebo, measure performance: wait a while to wash out the treatments, then cross over the treatments and measure again.
    - Ethically good, because all subjects get all treatments.
    - But can't use if the effect of the treatment takes too long to wash out.
    - Each subject can receive more than two treatments.
  - **Controlled trial**, e.g. measure performance of 20 athletes before and after a drug and another 20 before and after a placebo.
    - You need up to 4x as many subjects as in a crossover.

- In interventions, **bias** is less likely if...
  - Subjects are **randomly assigned** to treatments.
  - Assignment is **balanced** in respect of any characteristics that might affect the outcome.
    - In other words, you want treatment groups to be **similar**.
  - Subjects and researchers are **blind** to the identity of the active and control (placebo) treatments.
    - **Single blind** = subjects don't know which is which.
    - **Double blind** = the researchers administering the treatments and doing the measurements and analysis don't know either.

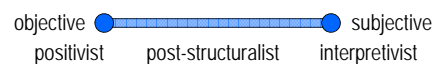
### Methods: quantitative or qualitative?



- With **quantitative** methods...
  - You gather **data** with an **instrument**, such as a stopwatch, a blood test, a video analysis package, or a structured questionnaire.
  - You derive **measures or variables** from the data, then investigate **relationships** among the variables.
    - Some people think you have to do it by **testing hypotheses**.
  - **Error of measurement** is an important issue.
    - Almost all measures have **noise** or other errors.
    - Errors affect the **relationship** between measures.
    - You attend to errors via **validity** and **reliability**.
    - A **pilot study** to investigate error can be valuable.

- With **qualitative** methods...
  - You gather **information** or **themes** from texts, conversations or loosely structured interviews, then **tell a coherent story**.
    - **Software** such as NVivo can help.
  - The **open-ended** nature of these methods allows for more **flexibility** and **serendipity** in identifying factors and practical strategies than the formal structured quantitative approach.
    - The direction of the research may change mid-stream.
  - Formal procedures enhance **trustworthiness** of the information.
    - **Triangulation**—aim for congruence of info from various sources.
    - **Member checking** or **respondent validation**—the subjects check the researcher's analysis.
    - **Peer debriefing**—colleagues or experts check the analysis.
  - **Hybrid** or **mixed method**: analyze a **sample of cases** **qualitatively**, then code information into values of variables to make **inferences about a population quantitatively**.

### Ideology: objective or subjective?



- Others refer to this dimension as **paradigmatic** or **philosophical**.
  - A paradigm sometimes has religious status for its adherents: thou shalt not question it!
- **Positivist** or objective
  - We make and share observations, identify problems and solve them **without disagreement about the nature of meaning or reality**.
  - This so-called **dominant paradigm** is responsible for our **current understanding** of life, the Universe, and almost everything.

### Post-structuralist

- The researcher views people as subjects of **discourses** (interrelated systems of unstable social meanings).
- Although the subjectivity of research is emphasized, the researchers attempt to achieve objectivity. Do they succeed?
- Many people find post-structuralist papers hard to understand.
  - Alan Sokal, a physicist, wrote a nonsensical paper—*Transgressing the Boundaries: Toward a Transformative Hermeneutics of Quantum Gravity*—and got it accepted by the journal *Social Text*.
- Interpretivist**
  - Part of the truth of a situation can be found in the researcher's **interpretation of the self-understandings of participants**.
  - Truth is discovered partly by **thought** as well as by observation.
  - Grounded theory** of social science is interpretivist: truth **emerges** from your observations; you do not test a hypothesis.

### Politics: neutral or partisan?

neutral  partisan

- Most researchers aim to be politically **neutral** or **impartial** by presenting all sides of an argument.
- Sometimes the researcher is overtly **partisan** or **adversarial**.
  - In social science such research is known as **critical** or **radical**.
    - The researcher attempts to raise understanding about **oppression** and to facilitate **collective action** against it.
    - Some commentators regard critical research as a specific paradigm in social science, but...
  - In my experience even biomedical researchers sometimes adopt an overtly partisan or **adversarial stance** on an issue.
    - Or there are often **hidden agendas** and **biased reporting**.
    - Maybe that's OK, because their stance **stimulates debate**.

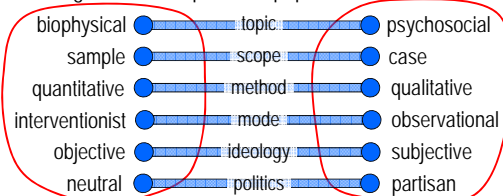
### Utility: pure or applied?

pure  applied

- In **pure, basic, theoretical** or **academic** projects, the aim is to understand the **cause** or **mechanism** of a phenomenon.
- Applied** or **practical** projects impact directly on **health, wealth, or culture** (art, recreation...), or on development of a **method**.
- Even so, try to **include mechanisms** in an applied project.
  - It will help you publish in a **high-impact journal**, because their editors and reviewers can be snooty about pure research.
  - Understanding something may give you **ideas** for more projects.
  - A mechanism variable in an unblinded intervention can help exclude the possibility of a **placebo** effect.
- Pure is sometimes **lab-based**, lacking naturalness.
- Applied is sometimes **field-based**, lacking control.

### Reassembling the Dimensions

- A given research project is a point in multidimensional space.
- Some regions of this space are popular:



These often go together as **quantitative research**.

These often go together as **qualitative research**.

- This pigeonholing doesn't apply to the novelty, technology and utility dimensions.

- Some regions are **less popular**, but **worth visiting**. For example:
  - Action research** is a subjective intervention with a case or sample.
    - Dealing with the **problems of everyday life** is an informal kind of action research.
  - Some researchers **identify the extreme subjects** in a quantitative survey, then interview them subjectively/qualitatively as **cases**.
  - Others do a **qualitative pilot study** of a few cases to identify a problem and the appropriate measures for a **larger quantitative study** of a sample.
- A project based in an **unusual region** may give **new insights**...
  - But you may **struggle to publish** in journals devoted to more popular regions.
- Researchers who mix **qualitative methods** (such as intensive interviews) with **studying a sample** (for generalizing to a population) can run into a **sample-size problem**, as follows...

- Qualitative methods applied to a sample often result in a **small sample size** because...
  - subjects are **hard to get**, or...
  - the interviews are **too time consuming**, or...
  - the researchers **dislike** the idea of **large samples**.
- But a study with a small sample can adequately characterize **only strong associations** (large effects) in a population.
- So these small-scale qualitative studies are **not definitive for a small or trivial effect**.
- Furthermore, open-ended inquiry is equivalent to assaying many variables, so there is a **high risk of finding a spurious association**.
- If the sample is **small**, the spurious association will be **strong**.
- Therefore small-scale qualitative studies are **not definitive even for a moderate or large effect**.
- Bottom line: when using **qualitative methods** to **generalize** to a population, you need a **large sample** to characterize small effects.

### In Conclusion...

- A given research project can be characterized by **topic**, **novelty**, **technology**, **scope**, **mode**, **methods**, **ideology**, **politics** and **utility**.
- This **dimensional** view may help you sort out a good approach to a specific project, but...
  - I may have **missed** or **mangled** some dimensions.
  - There may be better ways to understand research.
- Your work needs to be **credible** to some people and preferably also **published** if it's to have any impact.

This presentation is updated from a paper at:

**SPORTSCIENCE** [sportsci.org](http://sportsci.org)

**A Peer-Reviewed Site for Sport Research**

Hopkins WG (2002). Dimensions of research. *Sportscience* 6, [sportsci.org/2002](http://sportsci.org/2002)