RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

SHORT NOTES E-BOOK WITH EXAMPLES

SUITABLE FOR ASPIRANT OF UGC NET / PHD ENTRANCE/LIBRARY PROFESSION





Research Methodology

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Research methodology is essentially the **roadmap for conducting research**. It outlines the **practical "how"** of a research study, ensuring valid and reliable results that address your research questions or test your hypotheses.

Here's a breakdown to understand it better:

Think of it as building a house:

- Foundation: Your research question or problem you're trying to solve.
- **Blueprint:** Your **research design** choosing qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods, experimental or observational approaches.
- Materials: Your data collection methods surveys, interviews, experiments, observations, document analysis.
- Tools: Your data analysis methods statistics, thematic analysis, coding, etc.
- Quality checks: Validity and reliability measures to ensure your findings are accurate and unbiased.

Examples:

- Studying the effectiveness of a new drug:
 - **Research question:** Does this drug reduce symptoms in patients with XYZ condition?
 - **Research design:** Randomized controlled trial with two groups (one receiving the drug, one a placebo).
 - Data collection: Clinical data from patients, monitoring side effects.
 - Data analysis: Statistical tests comparing symptom improvement in both groups.
- Understanding public opinion on a new government policy:
 - Research question: What are people's attitudes towards the new policy?
 - **Research design:** Survey with representative sample of the population.
 - Data collection: Online or phone questionnaires.
 - **Data analysis:** Descriptive statistics, thematic analysis of open-ended responses.
- Analyzing historical documents to understand a past event:
 - \circ Research question: What were the motivations behind the XYZ historical event?
 - **Research design:** Qualitative historical analysis.
 - **Data collection:** Examining primary and secondary sources like letters, diaries, official records.
 - **Data analysis:** Close reading, identifying themes and patterns, interpreting documents in context.

Examples In sense of Library science

1. Evaluating the impact of a new library website design:

- **Research question:** Does the redesign of the library website improve user satisfaction and information access?
- Research design: Quasi-experimental with pre- and post-test surveys.
- Data collection: Online surveys before and after the website redesign, measuring user satisfaction and search success rates.
- Data analysis: Statistical tests comparing survey scores and user interaction data before and after the redesign.

2. Investigating the information-seeking behavior of undergraduate students:

- **Research question:** What sources and strategies do undergraduate students use to find information for their research assignments?
- Research design: Mixed methods with surveys and interviews.
- Data collection: Online surveys about information-seeking habits, followed by semistructured interviews with a smaller sample of students.
- Data analysis: Quantitative analysis of survey data, thematic analysis of interview transcripts to identify common themes and patterns in information-seeking behavior.

3. Analyzing the usage of electronic resources in a special library:

- **Research question:** What are the most popular electronic resources used by researchers in this special library, and how satisfied are they with them?
- **Research design:** Quantitative with transaction log analysis and user satisfaction surveys.
- Data collection: Analyzing database and journal platform usage logs, followed by online surveys about user satisfaction with specific resources.
- **Data analysis:** Descriptive statistics of resource usage patterns, statistical tests to identify correlations between different factors, open-ended survey responses to understand user preferences and challenges.

4. Examining the effectiveness of information literacy workshops for freshmen:

- **Research question:** Do information literacy workshops improve students' research skills and ability to find reliable sources?
- **Research design:** Experimental with control and treatment groups.
- Data collection: Pre- and post-workshop assessments of students' research skills and source evaluation abilities, followed by monitoring their library resource usage.
- Data analysis: Statistical tests comparing test scores and research project citations between workshop participants and the control group.

5. Impact of library outreach programs on community awareness:

- **Research question:** Do library outreach programs like pop-up book stalls at community events increase awareness of library services and resources?
- Research design: Mixed methods with pre- and post-outreach surveys and interviews.
- **Data collection:** Survey community members before and after the outreach program about library awareness and usage, conduct interviews with participants to understand their experiences and motivations.

• Data analysis: Statistical analysis of survey responses to measure changes in awareness levels, thematic analysis of interview data to identify key themes and insights.

6.Accessibility of library resources for users with disabilities:

- **Research question:** Do current library services and resources adequately meet the needs of users with disabilities?
- Research design: Qualitative case study with observations and interviews.
- **Data collection:** Observe how users with disabilities interact with library facilities and resources, conduct interviews to understand their experiences and identify any accessibility challenges.
- Data analysis: Thematic analysis of interview data to identify key accessibility issues and potential solutions, observation notes to provide supporting evidence.

7. Effectiveness of online library catalogs in information retrieval:

- **Research question:** Do users find it easy and efficient to find relevant information using the library's online catalog?
- **Research design:** Usability testing with think-aloud protocols and task completion measures.
- Data collection: Observe users as they complete specific tasks using the online catalog, ask them to think aloud about their thought process and challenges, measure time taken to complete tasks and success rates.
- Data analysis: Analyze user comments and observations to identify common issues and usability problems, analyze task completion data to evaluate overall efficiency.

8.Impact of e-books on print book circulation in libraries:

- **Research question:** Has the availability of e-books affected the borrowing rates of print books in libraries?
- Research design: Quantitative analysis with library circulation data.
- Data collection: Collect data on the circulation of both print and e-book versions of the same titles over a specific period.
- Data analysis: Statistical tests to compare circulation trends for print and e-books, identify correlations between format choice and specific genres or user demographics.

9.Information needs of local businesses and how libraries can support them:

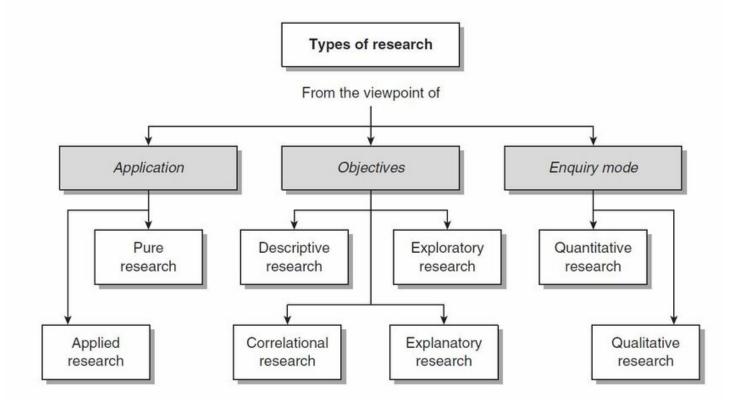
- **Research question:** What information needs do local businesses have, and how can the library's resources and services be tailored to better support them?
- Research design: Survey and focus group discussions with local business owners.
- Data collection: Conduct online or in-person surveys with local businesses about their information needs and challenges, hold focus group discussions to gain deeper insights and ideas for collaboration.
- Data analysis: Analyze survey responses to identify common information needs and gaps, analyze focus group discussions to identify themes and potential support services the library could offer.

10.Factors influencing library website traffic and user engagement:

- **Research question:** What factors are associated with higher website traffic and user engagement on library websites?
- Research design: Quantitative analysis with website traffic data and user surveys.
- **Data collection:** Analyze website traffic metrics like page views, time spent on site, and bounce rates, conduct surveys with website visitors to understand their motivations and experiences.
- **Data analysis:** Statistical tests to identify correlations between website features, content types, and user engagement metrics, analyze survey responses to gain qualitative insights into user preferences and behavior.

TYPES OF RESEARCH

- 1. Applied Research
- 2. Basic Research
- 3. Correlational Research
- 4. Descriptive Research
- 5. Ethnographic Research
- 6. Experimental Research
- 7. Exploratory Research
- 8. Grounded Theory
- 9. Historical Research
- 10. Phenomenological Research
- 11. Qualitative Research
- 12. Quantitative Research



Types of Research: Goals and Examples in Library & Information Science

Here's an updated version with goals and 3 examples for each type of research:

1. Applied Research:

- Goal: Solve practical problems and improve real-world outcomes.
- Examples:
 - Develop a mobile app to help visually impaired patrons access library resources.
 - Design a new library layout to optimize user flow and improve browsing experience.
 - Evaluate the effectiveness of a research skills workshop for undergraduate students.

2. Basic Research:

- **Goal:** Expand fundamental knowledge and understanding about information use and behavior.
- Examples:
 - Investigate the long-term impact of library programs on reading habits and literacy development.
 - Analyze user search patterns in digital libraries to identify common challenges and improve information retrieval mechanisms.
 - Study the cognitive aspects of information overload and its impact on decisionmaking during research tasks.

3. Correlational Research:

- Goal: Identify relationships between variables without claiming causation.
- Examples:
 - Examine the correlation between library resource availability and student academic performance in specific subject areas.
 - Investigate the relationship between user demographics and preferences for print versus digital information resources.
 - Analyze the correlation between different library marketing strategies and patron visitation rates.

4. Descriptive Research:

- Goal: Describe characteristics of a population or phenomenon in detail.
- Examples:
 - Conduct a survey of public library users to understand their preferred information sources and research methods.
 - Analyze the content of online library user reviews to identify common themes and areas for improvement.
 - Describe the current state of knowledge organization practices in academic libraries in a specific geographic region.

5. Ethnographic Research:

• Goal: Understand the culture and experiences of a specific group of information users.

- Examples:
 - Observe how faculty researchers in a particular academic discipline interact with information resources and collaborate on research projects.
 - Study the information-seeking behavior of rural communities with limited access to traditional library services.
 - Explore the information practices of marginalized groups and identify barriers to accessing and using library resources.

6. Experimental Research:

- **Goal:** Establish cause-and-effect relationships through controlled manipulations of variables.
- Examples:
 - Test the effectiveness of gamification elements in online library tutorials to improve user engagement and learning outcomes.
 - Compare the accuracy of different search engine algorithms for retrieving relevant information for specific research topics.
 - Evaluate the impact of different library service models on user satisfaction and library usage statistics.

7. Exploratory Research:

- Goal: Gain preliminary insights into a new topic or refine research questions.
- Examples:
 - Conduct focus groups with librarians and educators to explore emerging trends in information literacy needs.
 - Analyze social media discussions about a new library technology to understand user perceptions and potential adoption barriers.
 - Review past research on information access in disaster zones to identify gaps and potential research directions.

8. Grounded Theory:

- Goal: Develop new theories about social phenomena based on qualitative data analysis.
- Examples:
 - Analyze interviews with library patrons facing homelessness to understand their information needs and barriers to access.
 - Study the communication patterns within online research communities to develop a theory of collaborative knowledge sharing.
 - Analyze archives of librarian correspondence to understand the historical evolution of professional ethics in the field.

9. Historical Research:

- **Goal:** Investigate past events and trends in information use and library practices to inform the present.
- Examples:

- Analyze the history of book censorship in a specific country to understand its impact on intellectual freedom and information access.
- Study the evolution of library classification systems over time to identify underlying social and technological influences.
- Investigate the historical development of the public library system in a specific region to understand its role in promoting literacy and social mobility.

10. Phenomenological Research:

- **Goal:** Understand how individuals experience a specific phenomenon related to information use or libraries.
- Examples:
 - Conduct in-depth interviews with students experiencing research anxiety to understand their cognitive processes and emotional responses.
 - Analyze diaries kept by librarians during a major library renovation project to explore their personal experiences and perspectives on change.
 - Interview children visiting a library for the first time to understand their feelings and perceptions of the library environment.

11. Qualitative Research:

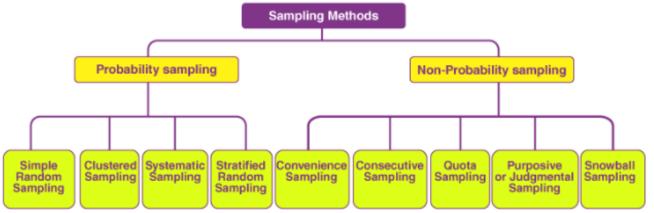
- **Goal:** Collect and analyze non-numerical data to understand meanings, experiences, and social contexts related to information use or libraries.
- Examples:
 - Analyze open-ended survey responses from library patrons to understand their motivations for using library services.
 - Observe children interacting with digital storytelling platforms in a library to understand their learning processes and engagement levels.
 - Analyze archived letters and documents related to the founding of a historical library to understand its social and cultural context.

12. Quantitative Research:

- **Goal:** Collect and analyze numerical data to test hypotheses, measure relationships, and generalize findings to larger populations.
- Examples:
 - Analyze library circulation statistics to identify trends in book borrowing and user preferences across different library branches.
 - Conduct a large-scale survey of academic researchers to measure the impact of open access policies on scholarly communication.
 - Analyze clickstream data from library websites to understand user navigation patterns and identify areas for website improvement.

Types of Sampling Techniques/ Sample Design





Source: BYju's

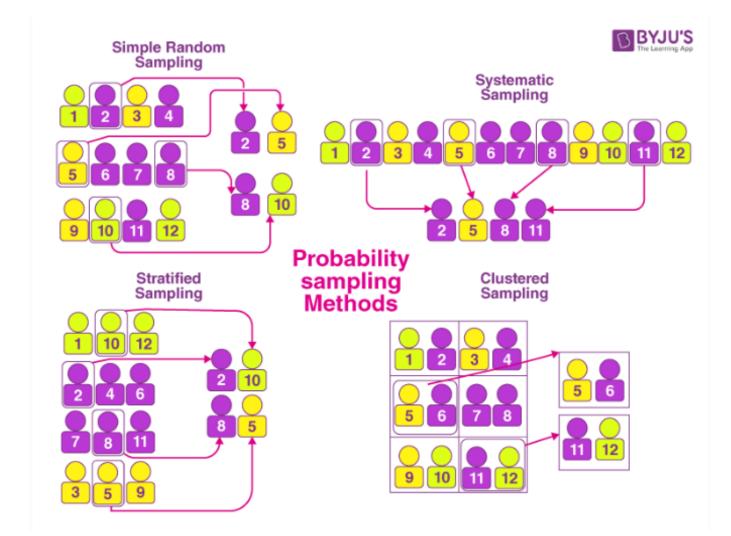
What is Sample Design?

Imagine you want to understand the ice cream preferences of everyone in your city. But surveying everyone is impossible! So, you choose a smaller group - a **sample** - that hopefully represents the larger population. **Sample design** is the technique you use to select this group.

Types of Sample Design:

1. Probability Sampling: Everyone in the population has a known chance of being chosen, like a fair lottery.

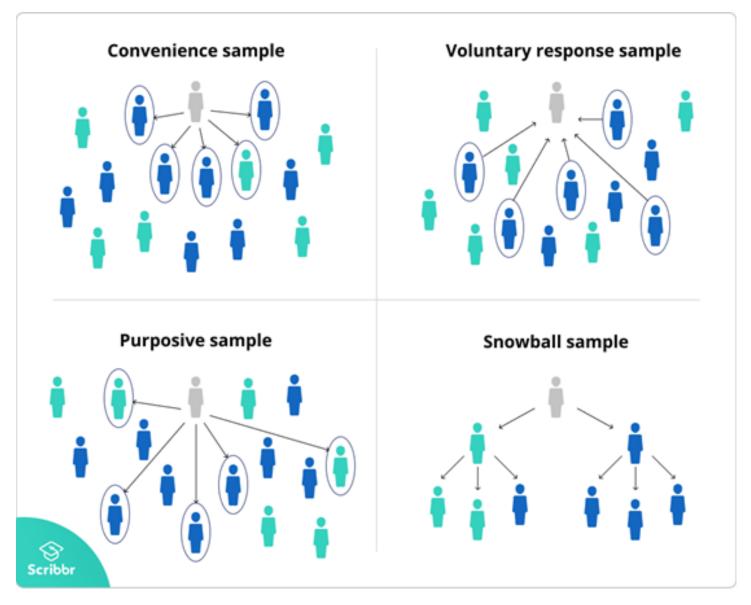
- **Simple Random Sampling:** Like picking names from a hat, each person has an equal chance. (Example: Drawing numbered slips from a bowl to select survey participants).
- **Systematic Sampling:** Picking every nth individual from a list. (Example: Interviewing every 10th customer entering a store).
- **Stratified Sampling:** Dividing the population into subgroups (e.g., age groups) and then randomly selecting from each. (Example: Surveying equal numbers of teenagers and adults from a city directory).
- **Cluster Sampling:** Selecting smaller groups (clusters) to represent the whole population. (Example: Studying libraries in randomly chosen school districts to understand library usage across the state).



Source: Byju

2. Non-Probability Sampling: Not everyone has a chance to be chosen, like picking your favorite flavors instead of drawing randomly.

- **Convenience Sampling:** Using readily available individuals or data. (Example: Asking classmates about their favorite movies).
- Voluntary Response Sampling: People choose to participate, like online surveys. (Example: An online poll about preferred vacation destinations).
- **Purposive Sampling:** Selecting individuals based on specific criteria. (Example: Interviewing doctors for a study on medical treatments).
- **Snowball Sampling:** Asking participants to recommend others who meet your criteria. (Example: Finding artists through recommendations from other artists).



Choosing the Right Design:

- **Probability sampling** is generally preferred for accurate and generalizable results, but it can be more time-consuming or expensive.
- Non-probability sampling is faster and cheaper, but may introduce bias and limit generalizability.

Remember: The best design depends on your research question, budget, and access to the population.

Examples in sense of Library Science

Design in Library & Information Science: Examples Deep Dive

Here's an expanded version with more examples for each type:

1. Probability Sampling:

• Simple Random Sampling:

- Selecting a random sample of library cardholders to survey about their preferred online resources.
- Drawing numbered slips from a list of registered library users to choose participants for a focus group on information literacy skills.
- Systematic Sampling:
 - Interviewing every 5th student entering the library on a specific day to understand their research habits.
 - Analyzing every 10th reference question asked at the reference desk over a week to identify common user needs.

• Stratified Sampling:

- Dividing library users by age group and then randomly selecting a proportional number from each group for a study on digital literacy skills.
- Stratifying library branches by geographic location and randomly selecting one branch from each region to evaluate new library software.

• Cluster Sampling:

- Randomly selecting a few branch libraries from a library system to study their resource utilization patterns.
- Choosing a random sample of schools within a district to investigate the effectiveness of their library programs.

2. Non-Probability Sampling:

- Convenience Sampling:
 - Interviewing librarians readily available during a staff meeting for a study on user service preferences.
 - Conducting an online survey on preferred library resources, where anyone can participate (potentially attracting more active users).
- Voluntary Response Sampling:
 - Asking library patrons to complete a feedback form on a new self-checkout system (may lead to biased responses towards those with strong opinions).
 - Conducting an online forum discussion on e-book preferences, relying on self-selected participants.
- Purposive Sampling:
 - Interviewing experts in digital library design for a research project on user interface usability.
 - Selecting librarians specializing in children's literature research for a study on early literacy programs.
- Snowball Sampling:
 - Asking librarians to recommend other librarians who offer information literacy workshops for a study on best practices.
 - Identifying researchers through references in academic articles on a specific topic for a survey on information-seeking behavior.

More Examples

Simple Random Sampling (SRS):

- Example 1: Randomly selecting library cardholders from a list for a satisfaction survey.
- *Example 2:* Using a random number generator to pick books from the catalog for a collection assessment.
- *Example 3*: Choosing random time slots to observe user behavior within the library.
- *Example 4*: Randomly selecting library staff members for training evaluation.
- *Example 5:* Conducting a random digit dialing survey of community members to understand their awareness of library services.

Stratified Random Sampling:

- *Example 1:* Dividing library users into categories based on membership types and selecting samples from each category for a survey.
- *Example 2:* Stratifying library materials by subject and randomly selecting books from each category for a usage study.
- *Example 3:* Stratifying library staff by roles and selecting representatives from each stratum for interviews on workflow.
- *Example 4:* Dividing library patrons by age groups and selecting samples from each group to study preferences in reading materials.
- *Example 5:* Stratifying library visitors by frequency of use and selecting samples from each stratum to understand patterns in library utilization.

Systematic Sampling:

- *Example 1:* Choosing every 15th library visitor for a brief interview about their experience.
- *Example 2*: Systematically selecting books from the shelves for an inventory check.
- *Example 3:* Observing library computer usage by selecting every third user.
- *Example 4:* Systematically interviewing staff members at regular intervals for a work satisfaction survey.
- *Example 5:* Selecting every fifth item from a catalog search result for a resource relevance study.

Cluster Sampling:

- *Example 1*: Randomly selecting specific sections or departments within the library and studying user behavior within those clusters.
- *Example 2*: Cluster sampling of library branches to assess regional variations in resource usage.
- *Example 3*: Selecting random library programs and studying participant demographics and feedback.
- *Example 4*: Randomly selecting bookshelves or aisles for a shelving accuracy assessment.
- *Example 5:* Cluster sampling of library staff teams for a workplace culture study.

Convenience Sampling:

- *Example 1:* Surveying library users present during a particular event or workshop.
- *Example 2*: Interviewing individuals in the library foyer during peak hours.

- *Example 3*: Observing users at the library entrance during a specific time of day.
- *Example 4:* Collecting feedback from participants of a voluntary library focus group.
- *Example 5:* Conducting a quick online survey for library users who subscribe to the library newsletter.

Snowball sampling

it is also known as chain-referral sampling, is a non-probability sampling technique where existing study participants recruit future participants from among their acquaintances or social network. This method is particularly useful when the target population is hard to reach or is not well-defined, and it relies on the interconnectedness of individuals within a community or network. Here are five examples of how snowball sampling might be applied in the context of Library Science:

Rare Book Collectors Study:

• *Description:* To explore the preferences and habits of rare book collectors using library resources, researchers begin by identifying a few known collectors through library records or local book clubs. These collectors are then asked to refer other collectors within their network for interviews and observations.

Specialized Subject Researchers:

• *Description:* Researchers interested in understanding the information-seeking behavior of individuals with highly specialized research interests initiate the study by identifying a few experts through library databases or academic affiliations. These experts are then asked to refer colleagues and peers who share similar research interests.

Digital Resource User Network:

• *Description:* For a study on the utilization of digital resources, researchers identify initial participants who are frequent users of the library's online databases or e-books. These users are then asked to refer other patrons who actively engage with digital resources for further interviews or surveys.

Library Program Participants:

• *Description:* To study the impact of library programs on community engagement, researchers start by recruiting participants from an ongoing program, such as a book club or a community workshop. These participants are then encouraged to refer friends, family, or acquaintances who may also participate in library programs.

Local Authors and Publishers:

• *Description:* Researchers interested in the experiences of local authors and publishers within the library ecosystem begin by reaching out to known individuals in the community. These authors are then asked to refer other authors, publishers, or writing

groups who have interacted with the library for book launches, readings, or collaborative projects.

In snowball sampling, the process of recruitment continues to grow, creating a "snowball effect" as each participant refers others. While this method can provide access to hard-toreach populations and valuable insights from within specific communities, it's important to note that the sample may not be representative of the broader population, and there's a risk of bias introduced through the referral process.

Researchers employing snowball sampling should consider the limitations associated with non-probability sampling and carefully interpret the findings in the context of the specific social network or community under investigation.

Seven Steps in Sample Design for Library Science Research/ Other Research Also

Designing a good sample is crucial for any research project, but especially in library science where understanding user behavior and preferences is key. Here are seven essential steps to follow for effective sample design in this field:

1. Define your research question and population:

- Clearly articulate your research question. What are you trying to learn about library users or services?
- Identify the target population. Who are you interested in studying? All library users, students, faculty, researchers, or a specific age group?

Example: Research question: "How do undergraduate students utilize online research databases in their academic work?" Population: Undergraduate students at a specific university.

2. Choose a sampling frame:

• Identify a list or source from which you can draw your sample. This could be a library user database, student directory, or list of research faculty.

Example: The university's student directory or online registration system.

3. Determine the sample size:

• Decide how many individuals you need to include in your sample. Consider factors like the population size, desired precision, and budget constraints.

Example: A sample size of 200 undergraduate students might be sufficient for this study, depending on the desired level of statistical accuracy.

4. Select a sampling method:

• Choose a method for selecting individuals from your sampling frame. Probability sampling methods (e.g., random sampling, stratified sampling) ensure representativeness, while non-probability methods (e.g., convenience sampling, snowball sampling) can be faster but may introduce bias.

Example: A stratified random sampling method could be used to ensure equal representation of different academic disciplines among the selected students.

5. Collect data:

• Gather information from your sample participants. This could involve surveys, interviews, observations, or analyzing library usage data.

Example: Conducting online surveys with the selected students to gather data on their research database usage habits, preferred search strategies, and encountered challenges.

6. Analyze the data:

• Interpret the collected data to answer your research question. Use appropriate statistical methods to analyze quantitative data and qualitative coding techniques for analyzing textual data.

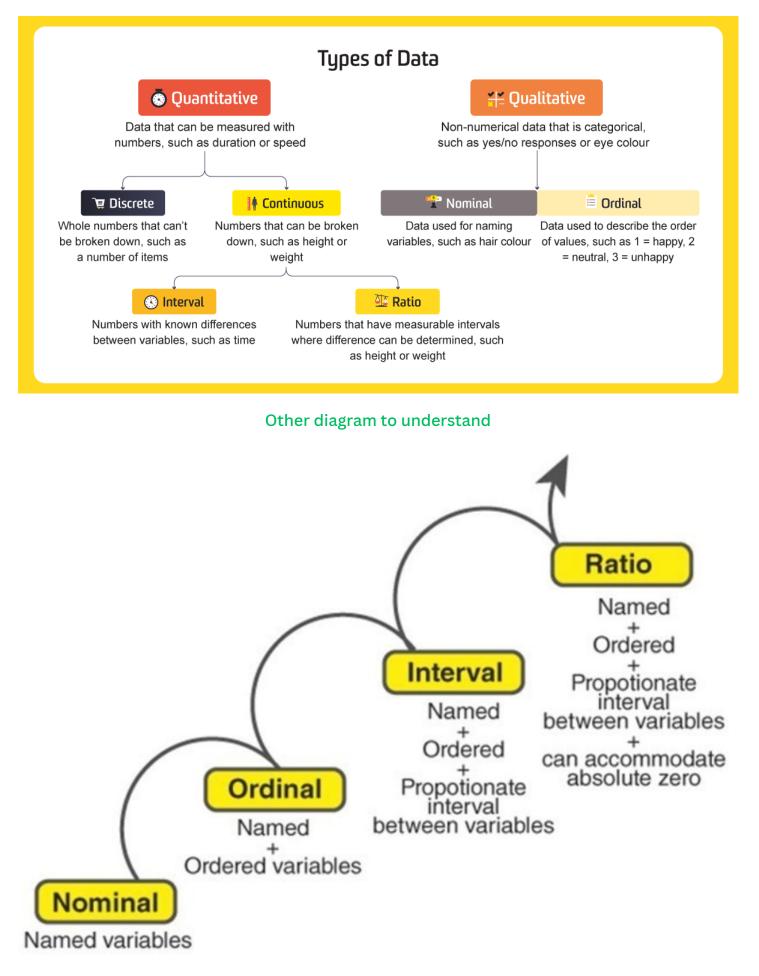
Example: Analyzing survey responses to identify patterns in database usage, common search terms, and the frequency of specific challenges faced by students.

7. Draw conclusions and generalize findings:

• Based on your analysis, draw conclusions about the research question and generalize your findings to the wider population. Consider limitations of your sample and sampling method.

Example: Conclude that undergraduate students in this study primarily use specific research databases for their academic work and face difficulties with complex search queries. These findings could be used to improve library instruction and database accessibility for students.

TYPES OF DATA



1. Nominal Data:

Nominal data involves categories or labels without any inherent order. Examples in library science research include:

- **Library types:** Public, academic, school, or special libraries.
- **Resource formats:** Books, journals, DVDs, or digital resources.
- **Library locations:** Main branch, satellite branches, or mobile libraries.
- **Job titles:** Librarian, library assistant, cataloger, or archivist.
- **Library services:** Reference, circulation, interlibrary loan, or outreach.
- User categories: Students, faculty, staff, or community members.
- **Library policies:** Late fees, borrowing limits, or code of conduct.
- **Collection genres:** Fiction, non-fiction, mystery, or science fiction.
- Library classifications: Dewey Decimal, Library of Congress, or local classification systems.
- □ Information sources: Primary, secondary, tertiary, or gray literature.

2. Ordinal Data:

Ordinal data has categories with a meaningful order, but the intervals between them are not uniform. Examples in library science research include:

- User satisfaction levels: Very satisfied, satisfied, neutral, dissatisfied, very dissatisfied.
- **Service priority rankings:** High, medium, low.
- **Library user experience ratings:** Excellent, good, fair, poor.
- **Book popularity rankings:** Bestseller, popular, average, less popular.
- **Library resource usage frequency:** Always, often, occasionally, rarely, never.
- Staff performance ratings: Outstanding, above average, average, below average, poor.
- **Library program effectiveness:** Highly effective, effective, somewhat effective, not effective.
- **Interlibrary loan urgency:** Urgent, semi-urgent, routine.
- **Library collection relevance:** Very relevant, relevant, somewhat relevant, not relevant.
- **Information literacy proficiency levels:** Advanced, intermediate, basic.

3. Interval Scaled Data:

Interval scaled data has equal intervals between values, but there is no true zero point. Examples in library science research include:

- Temperature in the library: Measured in Celsius or Fahrenheit.
- Time spent on library computers: Measured in minutes or hours.
- Database search times: Measured in seconds or minutes.
- Duration of library workshops: Measured in minutes.
- Library program duration: Measured in hours.
- Years of experience of library staff: Measured in years.
- Library opening hours: Measured in specific time intervals.
- Frequency of library events: Measured in times per month or year.
- Number of items checked out per visit: Measured in items.

• Number of computers available in the library: Measured in units.

4. Ratio Scaled Data:

Ratio scaled data has equal intervals between values, and it includes a true zero point, allowing for meaningful ratios. Examples in library science research include:

- **Number of books in the library collection:** Measured in absolute quantities.
- **Library budget:** Measured in dollars or currency units.
- **Number of library visitors:** Measured in absolute counts.
- ☐ Age of library materials: Measured in years.
- **Number of library staff:** Measured in absolute counts.
- **Pages in a book:** Measured in absolute quantities.
- **Database usage metrics:** Measured in absolute counts or percentages.
- **Library program attendance:** Measured in absolute counts.
- **Collection circulation rates:** Measured in absolute counts.
- **Library space in square footage:** Measured in absolute units.

More examples will help you to understand type of data which are given below:

1. Nominal Data: This type of data is used for labeling variables without any quantitative value. It's the simplest form of data and is also known as categorical data. Here are some examples related to Library Science:

- Book genres (e.g., Fiction, Non-fiction, Biography, etc.)
- Library sections (e.g., Children's, Adult, Reference, etc.)
- Types of resources (e.g., Books, Magazines, DVDs, etc.)
- D Publication formats (e.g., Hardcover, Paperback, eBook, etc.)
- Author nationalities (e.g., American, British, French, etc.)
- Languages of books (e.g., English, Spanish, French, etc.)
- Types of users (e.g., Students, Faculty, Staff, etc.)
- Types of libraries (e.g., Public, Academic, Special, etc.)
- Cataloging systems (e.g., Dewey Decimal, Library of Congress, etc.)
- Status of books (e.g., Available, Checked out, On hold, etc.)
- Types of periodicals (e.g., Daily, Weekly, Monthly, etc.)
- ☐ Types of databases (e.g., Academic, News, Multimedia, etc.)
- Types of services (e.g., Reference, Circulation, Interlibrary loan, etc.)
- Types of events (e.g., Storytime, Book club, Lecture, etc.)
- □ Types of equipment (e.g., Computers, Printers, Scanners, etc.)

2. Ordinal Data: This type of data involves placing things in order. The order of the data matters but not the difference between values. Here are some examples related to Library Science:

- User satisfaction ratings (e.g., Very dissatisfied, Dissatisfied, Neutral, Satisfied, Very satisfied)
- Book condition ratings (e.g., Poor, Fair, Good, Excellent)

- Priority levels for tasks (e.g., Low, Medium, High)
- Classifications of user information literacy (e.g., Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced)
- Rankings of most borrowed books
- Levels of noise in different library areas (e.g., Quiet, Moderate, Loud)
- Frequency of library visits (e.g., Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always)
- Ratings of helpfulness of library staff (e.g., Not helpful, Somewhat helpful, Very helpful)
- Levels of difficulty in finding resources (e.g., Very easy, Easy, Neutral, Difficult, Very difficult)
- Ratings of library website usability (e.g., Very poor, Poor, Average, Good, Excellent)
- Levels of importance of different library services (e.g., Not important, Somewhat important, Very important)
- □ Rankings of most popular library events
- Levels of crowdedness in the library (e.g., Not crowded, Somewhat crowded, Very crowded)
- Ratings of cleanliness of library facilities (e.g., Very dirty, Dirty, Neutral, Clean, Very clean)
- Levels of comfort of library seating (e.g., Very uncomfortable, Uncomfortable, Neutral, Comfortable, Very comfortable)

3. Interval Scaled Data: This type of data is numerical and the difference between two values is meaningful. However, there is no true zero point. Here are some examples related to Library Science:

- Dates of book publication (e.g., 2000, 2005, 2010, etc.)
- Time taken to check out a book (e.g., 2 minutes, 5 minutes, 10 minutes, etc.)
- Time taken to return a book (e.g., 1 day, 2 days, 3 days, etc.)
- □ Time taken to answer a reference question (e.g., 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 15 minutes, etc.)
- ☐ Time slots for library events (e.g., 10:00 AM, 2:00 PM, 6:00 PM, etc.)
- □ Library opening and closing times (e.g., 9:00 AM, 5:00 PM, etc.)
- Dates of user registrations (e.g., 01/01/2020, 01/02/2020, etc.)
- Dates of library events (e.g., 01/01/2020, 01/02/2020, etc.)
- Time taken to process a new book (e.g., 1 hour, 2 hours, 3 hours, etc.)
- Time taken to complete a library tour (e.g., 15 minutes, 30 minutes, 45 minutes, etc.)
- Dates of interlibrary loan requests (e.g., 01/01/2020, 01/02/2020, etc.)
- Time taken to receive an interlibrary loan (e.g., 1 day, 2 days, 3 days, etc.)
- Dates of equipment maintenance (e.g., 01/01/2020, 01/02/2020, etc.)
- Time slots for equipment reservations (e.g., 10:00 AM, 2:00 PM, 6:00 PM, etc.)
- Time taken to complete a user survey (e.g., 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 15 minutes, etc.)

4. Ratio Scaled Data: This type of data is similar to interval data, but it has a clear definition of zero. When the variable equals zero, there is none of that variable. Here are some examples related to Library Science:

- □ Number of books checked out by a user (e.g., 0, 1, 2, etc.)
- □ Number of pages in a book (e.g., 100, 200, 300, etc.)
- Number of seats in a library (e.g., 50, 100, 150, etc.)
- Number of computers in a library (e.g., 10, 20, 30, etc.)

- Number of events held in a library per year (e.g., 5, 10, 15, etc.)
- Number of staff in a library (e.g., 5, 10, 15, etc.)
- Number of library branches in a system (e.g., 1, 2, 3, etc.)
- Number of items in a library's collection (e.g., 1000, 2000, 3000, etc.)
- □ Number of user visits to the library per month (e.g., 500, 1000, 1500, etc.)
- Number of reference questions answered per day (e.g., 10, 20, 30, etc.)
- □ Number of interlibrary loans processed per month (e.g., 50, 100, 150, etc.)
- Number of new user registrations per year (e.g., 100, 200, 300, etc.)
- Number of hours a library is open per week (e.g., 40, 50, 60, etc.)
- Number of books in a specific genre (e.g., 100, 200, 300, etc.)
- Number of databases subscribed to by a library (e.g., 10, 20, 30, etc.)

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing is a statistical method used to determine if there is evidence to support a claim or hypothesis about a population. It involves:

- 1. Formulating two competing hypotheses:
 - Null hypothesis (H₀): The assumed statement, often stating no relationship or difference.
 - $\circ~$ Alternative hypothesis (H1): The statement you want to test, often proposing a relationship or difference.
- 2. Collecting data: Using a sample from the population to gather evidence.
- 3. Analyzing the data: Calculating a statistical test statistic and comparing it to a predetermined threshold (p-value).
- 4. Drawing conclusions:
 - $\circ~$ Reject H_0: If the test statistic falls in the rejection region (low p-value), there is strong evidence to support H_1.
 - Fail to reject H₀: Lack of evidence to support H₁, but doesn't necessarily prove it's true.

Examples of Hypothesis Testing:

Example 1: Plant Growth Experiment:

- H_0 : Fertilizer A has no effect on plant height compared to no fertilizer.
- H1: Fertilizer A increases plant height compared to no fertilizer.
- You randomly assign fertilizer A to some plants and no fertilizer to others. You measure plant height after a set time.
- If the average height of fertilized plants is significantly taller (low p-value), you reject H₀ and conclude Fertilizer A increases plant height.

Example 2: Student Test Scores:

- H₀: There is no difference in average test scores between students who study in groups and those who study alone.
- H1: Students who study in groups have higher average test scores than those who study alone.
- You collect test scores from two groups of students.
- If the group score difference is statistically significant (low p-value), you reject H₀ and conclude group studying leads to higher scores.

Examples of Hypothesis Testing related to Library Science

Example 1: Library Resource Usage

- H₀: There is no significant difference in the average usage of electronic resources between undergraduate and postgraduate students in the library.
- H₁: Postgraduate students show higher average usage of electronic resources compared to undergraduate students.
- *Hypothetical Situation:* After analyzing the usage data, the p-value is found to be very low (below the chosen significance level, e.g., 0.05). Therefore, you reject the null hypothesis and conclude that postgraduate students indeed have a significantly higher average usage of electronic resources compared to undergraduate students.

Example 2: Library Space Utilization

- H₀: There is no significant difference in the average time spent by students in quiet study areas and collaborative workspaces in the library.
- H1: Students spend more time on average in collaborative workspaces compared to quiet study areas.
- *Hypothetical Situation:* Upon observation and data collection, the p-value is found to be very low. Consequently, you reject the null hypothesis, indicating that students do spend significantly more time, on average, in collaborative workspaces compared to quiet study areas.

Example 3: Impact of Library Workshops

- Ho: Attending library workshops has no effect on students' information literacy skills.
- H1: Students who attend library workshops exhibit higher information literacy skills compared to those who do not attend.
- *Hypothetical Situation:* After assessing information literacy skills, the p-value is found to be below the chosen significance level. Consequently, you reject the null hypothesis, suggesting that attending library workshops does have a significant positive impact on students' information literacy skills.

Example 4: User Satisfaction with Library Services

- H₀: There is no difference in user satisfaction scores between students who primarily use physical library resources and those who rely on online resources.
- H₁: Users who primarily utilize online resources are more satisfied with library services compared to those who mainly use physical resources.
- *Hypothetical Situation:* Survey results are analyzed, and the p-value is found to be very low. Therefore, you reject the null hypothesis and conclude that users who primarily use online resources express significantly higher satisfaction with library services compared to those who mainly use physical resources.

Example 5: Impact of Library Outreach Programs

- H₀: Library outreach programs do not significantly increase community engagement with library services.
- H₁: Community engagement with library services is higher among individuals who have participated in library outreach programs.
- *Hypothetical Situation:* After measuring community engagement levels, the p-value is found to be very low. As a result, you reject the null hypothesis, indicating that library outreach programs have a significant positive impact on increasing community engagement with library services.

Note : Hypothetical situation means just suppose that

Next thing is that what is P value and how it is related to the Hypothesis testing for this i have defined them below:

The key concepts related to p-values:

Null Hypothesis (H₀): This is a statement of no effect or no difference. It is the default assumption that there is no relationship or no change in a particular parameter. Researchers typically aim to test if there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1 or H_2): This is the statement that contradicts the null hypothesis. It suggests the presence of a relationship, effect, or difference that is being investigated.

Significance Level (α): This is the predetermined threshold below which you reject the null hypothesis. Commonly used significance levels are 0.05, 0.01, or 0.10. If the p-value is less than or equal to the significance level, you reject the null hypothesis.

p-value: The *p-value* is a probability between 0 and 1 that quantifies the likelihood of observing the data (or more extreme) under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true.

A low p-value indicates that the observed results are unlikely to have occurred by random chance alone.

- If p-value $\leq \alpha$: Reject the null hypothesis.
- If p-value > α : Fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Interpretation:

- A small p-value (typically \leq 0.05) suggests that there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.
- A large p-value suggests that the observed data is likely under the null hypothesis, and there is insufficient evidence to reject it.

Caution:

- A p-value does not provide the probability that either hypothesis is true. It only indicates the likelihood of the observed data under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true.
- The significance level (α) is chosen by the researcher and represents the balance between Type I (false positive) and Type II (false negative) errors.

Examples to understand this phenomena

the concept of p-values with examples for better understanding:

Example 1: Drug Efficacy Study

- Null Hypothesis (H₀): The new drug has no effect on reducing blood pressure.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The new drug significantly reduces blood pressure.
- Significance Level (α): 0.05
- Scenario: After conducting a clinical trial, the researchers analyze the data and calculate a p-value of 0.03. Since 0.03 ≤ 0.05 (significance level), they reject the null hypothesis. The conclusion is that there is enough evidence to suggest that the new drug has a significant effect on reducing blood pressure.

Example 2: Educational Intervention

- Null Hypothesis (H₀): The educational intervention has no impact on student test scores.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The educational intervention significantly improves student test scores.
- Significance Level (α): 0.01
- Scenario: After implementing an educational intervention, the researchers collect and analyze test scores. The calculated p-value is 0.008. Since 0.008 ≤ 0.01, they reject the

null hypothesis. This suggests that there is strong evidence that the educational intervention has a significant positive impact on student test scores.

Example 3: Marketing Campaign

- Null Hypothesis (H₀): The new marketing campaign has no effect on product sales.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H₁): The new marketing campaign significantly increases product sales.
- Significance Level (α): 0.05
- Scenario: Post-launch of the marketing campaign, sales data is collected and analyzed. The resulting p-value is 0.15. Since 0.15 > 0.05, the researchers fail to reject the null hypothesis. This implies that, based on the data, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that the new marketing campaign significantly increases product sales.

Example 4: Website Redesign

- Null Hypothesis (H₀): The website redesign has no effect on user engagement.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H₁): The website redesign significantly improves user engagement.
- Significance Level (α): 0.05
- Scenario: After the website redesign, user engagement metrics are examined. The calculated p-value is 0.07. Since 0.07 > 0.05, the researchers fail to reject the null hypothesis. This indicates that, based on the data, there is not enough evidence to support the claim that the website redesign significantly improves user engagement.

Example 5: Gender Pay Gap

- Null Hypothesis (H₀): There is no significant difference in average salaries between male and female employees.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): Female employees earn significantly less on average than male employees.
- Significance Level (α): 0.01
- Scenario: Salary data is collected and analyzed, resulting in a p-value of 0.003. Since 0.003 ≤ 0.01, the researchers reject the null hypothesis. This suggests that there is strong evidence to conclude that there is a significant gender pay gap based on the collected data.

DECISION RULE

The relationship between the significance level (α) and the p-value can be expressed in the decision rule:

- If p-value $\leq \alpha$: Reject the null hypothesis.
- If p-value > α : Fail to reject the null hypothesis.

In formulaic terms:

Decision Rule:
$$\begin{cases} \text{Reject } H_0 & \text{if } p \leq \alpha \\ \text{Fail to reject } H_0 & \text{if } p > \alpha \end{cases}$$

TYPES OF ERROR IN HYPOTHESIS TESTIN

In hypothesis testing, there are two types of errors:

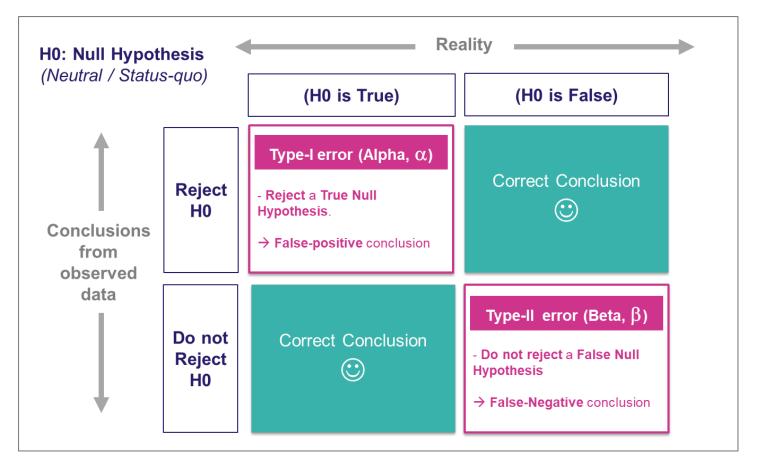
Type I Error (False Positive):

- Definition: Occurs when the null hypothesis (OHO) is incorrectly rejected when it is actually true.
- Symbolically: H0 is true, but we reject H0.
- Consequence: Concluding that there is an effect or difference when there is none.

Type II Error (False Negative):

- Definition: Occurs when the null hypothesis (H0) is incorrectly not rejected when it is actually false.
- Symbolically: H0 is false, but we fail to reject H0.
- Consequence: Failing to detect a real effect or difference when it exists.

In summary, Type I and Type II errors represent the potential mistakes that can occur when making decisions based on hypothesis testing. Researchers aim to minimize the risks of these errors by choosing appropriate significance levels, considering statistical power, and interpreting results in the context of the specific study.



Examples

examples to illustrate both Type I and Type II errors:

Example 1: Type I Error (False Positive)

Scenario: Quality Control in Manufacturing

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The manufacturing process produces products with no defects.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The manufacturing process produces products with defects.
- Type I Error:
 - Error: Rejecting the null hypothesis (HO) when it is actually true.
 - **Consequence:** The company thinks there is a problem with the manufacturing process, leading to unnecessary adjustments or changes.

Explanation:

Imagine a scenario where the quality control team mistakenly concludes that the manufacturing process is flawed (rejecting H0) when, in fact, the process is producing defect-free products. This could result in the company making unnecessary modifications to the manufacturing process, incurring additional costs without any actual benefit.

Example 2: Type II Error (False Negative)

Scenario: Medical Testing for a Disease

- Null Hypothesis (H0): An individual does not have a certain medical condition.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): An individual has the medical condition.
- Type II Error:
 - Error: Failing to reject the null hypothesis (HO) when it is actually false.
 - **Consequence:** The medical test incorrectly indicates that the individual is healthy when they actually have the medical condition.

more examples of Type I and Type II errors in the context of library science:

Example 3: Type I Error (False Positive)

Scenario: Library Program Effectiveness

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The current library outreach program has no impact on community engagement.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The current library outreach program significantly increases community engagement.
- Type I Error:
 - Error: Concluding that the current library outreach program significantly increases community engagement (rejecting *H*0) when, in reality, it has no impact.
 - **Consequence:** The library allocates additional resources to the outreach program without a genuine need.

Example 4: Type II Error (False Negative)

Scenario: Library Collection Diversity

- Null Hypothesis (OHO): The current library collection is adequately diverse.
- Alternative Hypothesis (17/1): The current library collection lacks diversity.
- Type II Error:
 - Error: Failing to conclude that the current library collection lacks diversity (not rejecting \widehat{OHO}) when, in reality, it is not diverse enough.
 - **Consequence:** The library misses the opportunity to enhance its collection to better serve a diverse community.

Example 5: Type I Error (False Positive)

Scenario: Library Technology Adoption

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The introduction of a new technology in the library has no impact on user satisfaction.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The introduction of a new technology significantly improves user satisfaction.
- Type I Error:
 - Error: Concluding that the new technology significantly improves user satisfaction (rejecting *H*0) when, in reality, it has no impact.
 - **Consequence:** The library invests in a technology that does not yield the expected improvement in user satisfaction.

Example 6: Type II Error (False Negative)

Scenario: Library Space Utilization

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The current allocation of library space is optimal for user needs.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The current allocation of library space is not optimal for user needs.
- Type II Error:
 - Error: Failing to conclude that the current allocation of library space is not optimal for user needs (not rejecting H0) when, in reality, changes are needed.
 - **Consequence:** Users continue to face challenges due to inadequate space allocation without improvements.

Example 7: Type I Error (False Positive)

Scenario: Library Program Attendance

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The current library program schedule has no impact on attendance.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The current library program schedule significantly increases attendance.
- Type I Error:
 - Error: Concluding that the current library program schedule significantly increases attendance (rejecting *H*0) when, in reality, it has no impact.
 - **Consequence:** The library invests more resources in a schedule that does not contribute to increased program attendance.

Steps of Writing Research Report in Library science (Draft as General way)

Let's consider an example research hypothesis related to library science. The research question could be:

Research Question:

Does the implementation of a library orientation program for new university students lead to an increase in library resource utilization?

Hypotheses:

1. Null Hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant difference in library resource utilization between new university students who undergo a library orientation program and those who do not.

 $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

(where μ_1 is the mean resource utilization of students with the orientation program, and μ_2 is the mean resource utilization of students without the program.)

2. Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): New university students who undergo a library orientation program will have a higher mean library resource utilization compared to those who do not.

 $H_1:\mu_1>\mu_2$

Research Report Format:

Title Page:

- Title: "Impact of Library Orientation on Resource Utilization in New University Students."
- Author: [Your Name]
- Institutional Affiliation: [Your Institution]
- Date: [Date of Submission]

Abstract:

• Briefly summarize the research question, methodology, key findings, and conclusions.

Introduction:

- Provide background on the importance of library orientation.
- State the research question.
- Justify the need for the study.

Literature Review:

- Review studies on library orientation and its impact on resource utilization.
- Identify gaps in the literature that your research aims to address.

Methodology:

- Describe the research design (e.g., experimental design, survey).
- Detail how participants will be selected and assigned (randomized, matched pairs, etc.).
- Explain the library orientation program and how resource utilization will be measured.

Results:

- Present the data collected, including descriptive statistics.
- Use tables or graphs to illustrate resource utilization in both groups.

Discussion:

- Interpret the results in the context of the research question.
- Discuss any observed differences in resource utilization between the two groups.
- Consider the implications of your findings for library practices.

Conclusion:

- Summarize the main findings.
- Emphasize the significance of the research question.

Recommendations:

• Provide practical recommendations for implementing or enhancing library orientation programs based on the study's findings.

References:

• List all sources cited in the report following a specific citation style.

Appendices:

• Include any supplementary materials, such as survey instruments or additional data.

Acknowledgments:

• If applicable, acknowledge individuals, institutions, or funding sources that contributed to the research.



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Saket Sharma

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

SHORT NOTES E-BOOK WITH EXAMPLES

SUITABLE FOR ASPIRANT OF UGC NET / PHD ENTRANCE/LIBRARY PROFESSION



