

In general, sampling techniques can be divided into two types:

- 1) Probability or random sampling
- 2) Non- probability or non-random sampling

What is the difference between probability and non -probability sampling?

Suppose you are conducting an original study for your dissertation research. In that case, you will need to choose a method of sampling to obtain your participants. Selecting an appropriate sampling method is important for both quantitative and qualitative studies. There are two general types of sampling methods: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. The first type of sampling is probability sampling, which will always involve some sort of “random” or “probabilistic” process to select participants. The various forms of random sampling (including simple random sampling and stratified random sampling) are probability sampling techniques. In the most basic form of probability sampling (i.e., a simple random sample), every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected for the study. The participants chosen for the task would be determined through some kind of “random” process, such as assigning a number to every member of the population, picking the numbers out of a hat, or using a table of randomly generated numbers.

Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, does not involve “random” processes for selecting participants. In non -probability sampling, the population members will not have an equal chance of being selected. In many cases, there will be members of the population who have no chance of being selected. For example, if your population of interest is college professors but you only invite professors from your school to participate, this would be a non - probability sample because professors from other colleges have no chance to participate.

SAMPLING METHODS		
<u>Probability Sampling</u>		<u>Non-Probability Sampling</u>
1. Simple Random Sampling		1. Convenience Sampling
2. Systematic Sampling		2. Quota Sampling
3. Stratified Sampling		3. Judgement Sampling
4. Cluster Sampling		4. Snowball Sampling

i. Probability Sampling

Probability sampling means that every item in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. One way to undertake random sampling would be to construct a sampling frame first and then use a random number generation computer program to pick a sample from the sampling frame (Zikmund, 2002). Probability or random sampling has the greatest freedom from bias. Still, it may represent the most costly sample in terms of time and energy for a given level of sampling error (Brown, 1947).

PRACTICAL RESEARCH 1
PRESENTING THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
Q4 – WEEK 4

Name of the learner: _____
Section: _____ Date: _____

Background Information for Learners

So, you have become familiar with the data collection procedures and the analysis procedures in completing your research paper. This week, you are set to learn how to present your written research methodology.

Presenting the Research Methodology

The research methodology is found on chapter 3 of the research paper. This chapter reflects the procedures and processes that the researcher followed in completing this study. In writing chapter 3, typically, it follows this sequence:

- Chapter III – Methods of Study and Sources of Data
 - The Research Design
 - The Population of the Study
 - Sampling Design
 - Methods of Gathering Data
 - Instrumentation

The Research Design

According to Sicat (2009), the research design “provides the glue that holds the research project together”. Furthermore, it is used to structure the research, enabling the display as to how major parts of the research project work together to address the central research questions. In this section of the paper, explain what research design (case study, ethnography, phenomenology, or grounded theory) was followed and justify why such research design was made use of. In doing so, it is best that the source of the definition of the research design be cited to establish credibility of your work.

The Population of the Study

Population refers to the group of people where the samples are taken from. The samples then serve as the representatives of that group to partake in the study as informants (qualitative study) or respondents/participants (quantitative).

This portion may sometimes be referred to as: Informants of the Study or Respondents of the Study depending on the nature of the study. This section discusses the identified informants who will answer questions in the data gathering procedure. In addition, this part should explain as to why the identified informants are the needed population for the study. Another factor to take into consideration is the number of informants or the sample size which depends on the research design or the data collection method.

Rules of Thumb Based on Data Collection Method

Research Approach	Rule of Thumb
Case Study	Select one case or person
Phenomenology	Assess 10 people. If you reach saturation prior to assessing ten people, you may use fewer.
Grounded theory/ethnography/action research	Assess 20 – 30 people, which typically is enough to reach saturation

Source: Nastasi, “Qualitative Research: Sampling & Size Considerations”

Exercises

A. Read the following questions, and provide your answer before the number. Write your answer on a separate sheet of paper.

- 1. This is found on chapter 3 and provides the glue that holds the research project together.
- 2. This refers to the group of people where the samples are taken from.
- 3. This refers to the samples that partake in a qualitative study.
- 4. This discusses the chosen sampling design which explains how the population of the study where selected
- 5. This gives the accurate, complete reliable data through face-to-face interaction with the informants enabling the researcher to tell whether the informant is telling the truth.
- 6. In it, the informants answer the questions by writing or marking the answer sheet.
- 7. It uses information that is on file like laws, ordinances, decrees or lists from various offices.
- 8. This is the process that is to be undertaken using a tool that the researcher prepared.
- 9. Following the rules of thumb based on research design, this is the number of informants needed for a phenomenological study.
- 10. Following the rules of thumb based on data gathering method, this is the number of informants needed for an in-depth interview.

B. Applying what you have learned from the lesson, write the research methodology of your proposed research paper following the format discussed in this learning activity sheet. Below is the scoring rubric for your reference. Use a separate sheet for your answers.

Chapter 3
METHODS OF STUDY AND SOURCES OF DATA

- Research Design
- Population of the Study
- Sampling design
- Methods of Gathering Data
- Instrumentation

Rubric for scoring Exercise B

Criteria	10	8	6	4	2	Score
Appropriateness of the chosen methodology to the nature of the study.	The methodology displays absolute appropriateness to the nature of the study.	The methodology displays major appropriateness to the nature of the study	The methodology displays moderate appropriateness to the nature of the study.	The methodology displays little appropriateness to the nature of the study.	The methodology displays little appropriateness to the nature of the study	
Coherence of ideas presented in the whole chapter.	The ideas are coherent and free from errors.	The ideas are coherent and with very minimal errors.	The ideas are coherent and with minimal errors.	The ideas are moderately coherent and with plenty of errors.	The ideas lack coherence and full of errors.	
Mastery of the lesson	The outline displays mastery of the	The outline displays mastery of the	The outline displays mastery of the	The outline displays little mastery of the	The outline displays very little-to-no	

PRACTICAL RESEARCH 1

IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH IN DAILY LIFE

Q4 - WEEK 6

Name of the learner _____
Section: _____ Date: _____

Background Information:

INFERS AND EXPLAIN THE PATTERNS AND THEMES FROM DATA

Thematic analysis is a method of analyzing qualitative data. It is usually applied to a set of texts, such as interview transcripts. The researcher closely examines the data to identify common themes – topics, ideas and patterns of meaning that come up repeatedly. In addition to word- and scrutiny-based techniques, researchers have used linguistic features such as metaphors, topical transitions, and keyword connectors to help identify themes. Schema analysts suggest searching through text for metaphors, similes, and analogies (D'Andrade 1995, Quinn and Strauss 1997).

MEANING OF INFER

1. Infer is to derive by reasoning; conclude or judge from premises or evidence (of facts, circumstances, statements, etc.) to indicate or involve as a conclusion; lead to; guess; speculate; surmise. to hint; imply; suggest. [www. Dictionary.com](http://www.Dictionary.com)
2. Infer is to imply is to hint at something. To infer is to make an educated guess. The speaker does the implying, and the listener does the inferring. Continue reading... when you infer, you listen closely to someone and guess at things they mean but haven't actually said. www.vocavulary.com
3. Infer is to deduce or conclude (information) from evidence and reasoning rather than from explicit statements. ... 'This prejudice is inferred, and no evidence is required to enable a judge to consider it. www.lexico.com

PATTERNS AND THEMES

1. Patterns are repeated forms or designs especially that is used to decorate something that happens in a regular and repeated way. "Patterns" Merriam Webster.com. Merriam-Webster, n.d.
2. Patterns are matching lies at the heart of any attempt to conduct thematic analyses and forms the basis of generalizations across different concepts or population subgroups.
3. Theme is generated when similar issues and ideas express by within qualitative data are brought together by the researcher into a single category or cluster. This theme may be labeled by a word or expression taken directly from the data or by one created by the researcher because it seems to best characterize the essence of what is being said.
4. Themes are features of participants' accounts characterising particular perceptions and/or experiences that the researcher sees as relevant to the research question.

5. What was Mom planning on doing today? _____

What in the text supports your description?

"Tommy!" Mom called out as she walked in the front door. "Tommy," she continued shouting, "I sure could use some help with these groceries. There was still no reply. Mom walked into the kitchen to put the grocery bags down on the counter when she noticed shattered glass from the picture window all over the living room floor and a baseball not far from there. "I'm going to kill you, Tommy!" Mom yelled to herself as she realized that Tommy's shoes were gone.

6. What happened to the window? _____

How do you know this?

7. Why did Tommy leave? _____

What in the text supports your description?

Today was a special day in Ms. Smith's class. Some of the children were walking around the room, some of them were standing in small groups, and some of them were at their desks, putting finishing touches on cardboard mailboxes. After coloring a cool flame on the side of his racecar mailbox, Johnny hopped off his chair, strutted over to Veronica's desk, and dropped a small white envelope into her princess castle mailbox. Veronica blushed and played with her hair. While this was happening, Bartleby was frantically trying to put a small white envelope into everyone's mailbox. After giving one to Ms. Smith, Bartleby pulled out a medium-sized red envelope from his pocket. He blushed and tried to put it in Veronica's mailbox, but it wouldn't quite fit. Bartleby struggled with it for a few seconds and then ran off with the envelope. Veronica rolled her eyes and popped her gum.

8. Why is today a special day? _____

Why is today a special day?

9. Which boy does Veronica like? _____

What in the text supports your idea?

10. Why did Bartleby run? _____

What in the text supports your idea?

Answer Key

Activity 1

1. True
2. True
3. True
4. False
5. False

2. **Summarizing your thoughts and conveying the larger significance of your study.** The conclusion is an opportunity to succinctly answer the “So What?” question by placing the study within the context of past research about the topic you’ve investigated.
3. **Identifying how a gap in the literature has been addressed.** The conclusion can be where you describe how a previously identified gap in the literature [described in your literature review section] has been filled by your research.
4. **Demonstrating the importance of your ideas.** Don’t be shy. The conclusion offers you the opportunity to elaborate on the impact and significance of your findings.
5. **Introducing possible new or expanded ways of thinking about the research problem.** This does not refer to introducing new information [which should be avoided], but to other new insight and creative approaches for framing or contextualizing the research problem based on the results of your study.

Source: [http:// libguides.use.edu/writingguideconclusion](http://libguides.use.edu/writingguideconclusion)

Strategies in Writing Conclusions

Here are some strategies for writing conclusions.

- Echoing your introduction, or simply reiterate or link ideas expressed in the other sections of the research.
- Challenging the reader by directing or showing how readers can apply the study in their own lives.
- Looking to the future by emphasizing the importance of your paper or redirecting the readers thought process in looking at things more globally.
- Posing questions where the readers can gain a new perspective on the topic or you may also bring your main ideas together to create a new meaning.

The process of drawing conclusions begins early as you code your data. As you review and code your data, begin to form ideas about the important phenomena they indicate as well generate propositions about them and the relationships among them. Once the data are coded you will look over propositions to write your conclusions.

In drawing and verifying conclusions from qualitative data among the most useful in the analysis are:

- **Noting patterns and themes.** These are recurring themes which put together many separate pieces of data. The data may group according to them. It may however happen that evidence may be applicable to one or more themes.
- **Making contrast and comparisons.** Comparison is a classic way to test a conclusion. The responses gathered from parents, students, teachers, and other groups can be compared and contrasted so that the differences can be noted. When conflicting information comes up, then you can refer to the sources of the different data.
- **Clustering.** This process refers to the grouping of data, then conceptualizing information that has similar patterns or characteristics. It is called “categorizing” because steps must be taken to ensure that other information are considered or included.
- **Counting.** Qualitative research, as discussed is basically descriptive and goes beyond how much of something to describe the subject or topic under investigation. However, the number of times something occurs or is reported tells something about how important or how significant an item is.

Finally, no new information should be added to the conclusions. Avoid after thoughts or new additional ideas. If you have new information, put it in the discussion or other appropriate section of the paper. Although no actual information is introduced, the conclusion is where you write your most important contributions to the paper is where you describe the value of your research. Your conclusion/s show how well you understand the materials you have worked on. One writing tip is to avoid using phrases like “in conclusion “, “in summary “, and “ in closing”. These expressions can be useful and even welcome in oral

3. Authors names are indented (last name first). Give the last name and initials for all the authors of a particular work for up to and including seven authors. If the work has more than seven authors, lists first six authors and the use ellipses after the six author's name. After the ellipses, list the last author's name of work.

2-19 Authors Citation Example

Kazzazian, H., Dowling, C. E., Boehm, C. D., Warren, T. C., Economou, E. P., Katz, J., & Antonarakiss, S. E. (1990). *Gene defects in B-Thalassemias and their prenatal diseases*. New York Academy of Sciences.

Note: List authors the way they appear in the publication. Separate them by using commas.

When APA revised their manual in 2019 for their [7th edition](#), they changed how you compose reference page citations with multiple authors. Now, you include up to nineteen authors in your citations. When a source has multiple authors, follow this format for your [APA citation](#) entry for up to and including a total of nineteen authors:

Format for 2-19 Authors

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., Author, C. C., Author, D. D., Author, E. E., Author, F. F., Author, G. G., Author, H. H., Author, I. I., Author, J. J., Author, K. K., Author, L. L., Author, M M., Author, N. N., Author, O. O., Author, P. P., Author, Q. Q., Author, R. R., & Author, S. S.

4. References list entries should be alphabetized by the last name of the first author of each work.

Reference List

Your reference list should be ordered alphabetically by author and then chronologically by year of publication. The APA 6th style requires the references to be indented as illustrated below in the examples.

For instances of multiple articles with the same authors and years of publication, please check the APA publication manual or Academic Writer. If you have the DOI for the journal article, you should include it in the reference, otherwise, it is not necessary.

Government publication

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2018). *Physical activity across the life stages*. Canberra, Australia: Author.

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