

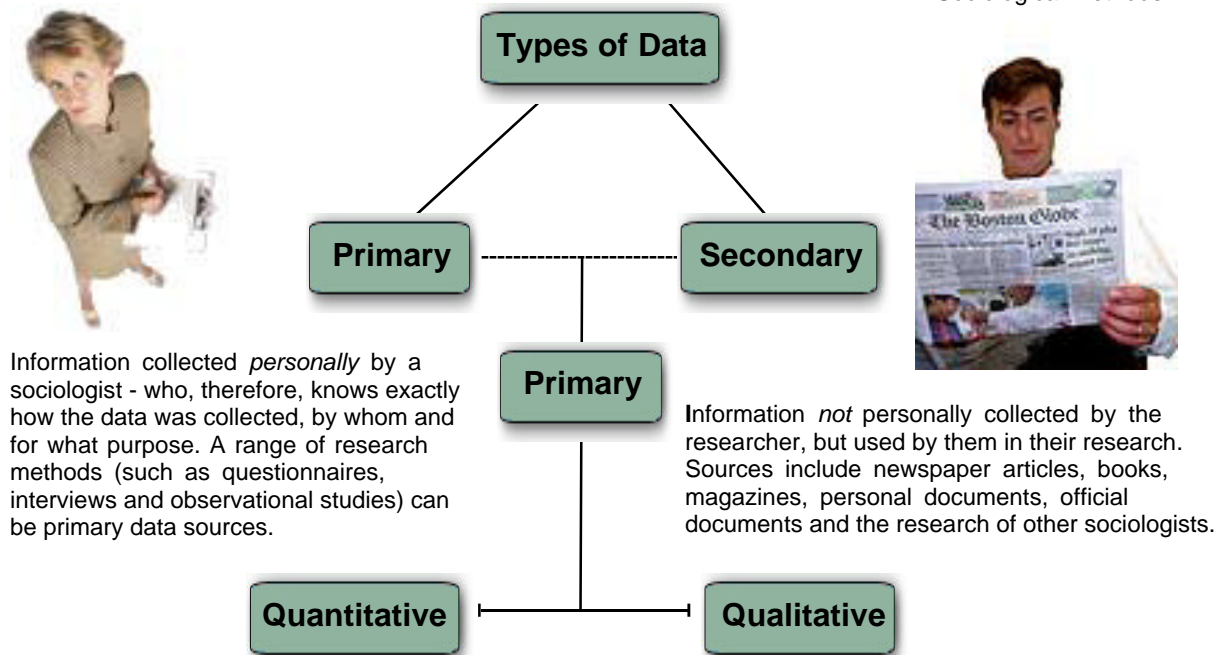
# **AS Sociology**

**Revision**

**Sociological  
Methods**

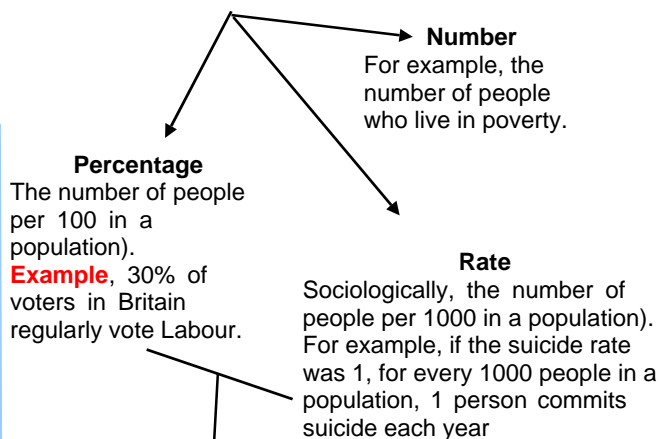
**The distinctions between primary and  
secondary data, and between  
quantitative and qualitative data;**

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Expressing data *statistically* or *numerically*.

**For example**, the number of people who commit crimes each year.



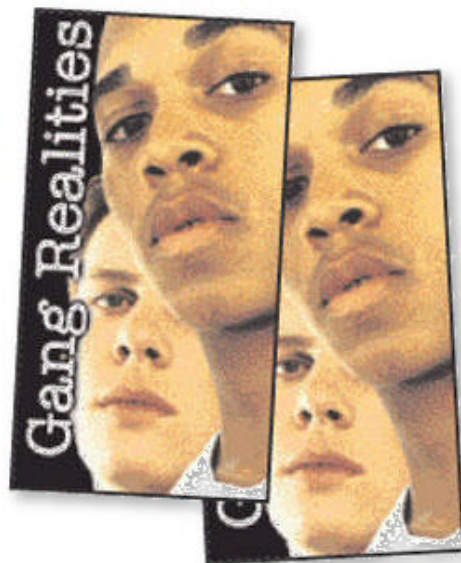
### Comparisons

**Example:** Levels of unemployment or crime between countries. *Percentage / rate* allows us to compare "like with like".

Capture the *quality* of people's behaviour. Qualitative data says something about the way people *experience* the social world and can be used to understand the *meanings* people give to behaviour.

**Boyle** (1977) studied the behaviour of a juvenile gang from the viewpoint of its members.

**Goffman** (1968) tried to understand the experiences of patients in an American mental institution.

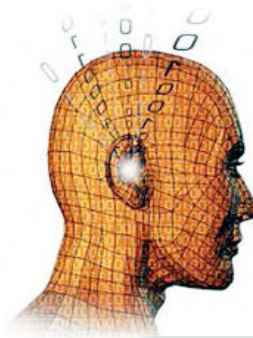




We can *check* the data we get from our research by *repeating* that research to see if we get the same results. Data is *reliable* if similar results are gained by different researchers asking the same questions to similar people.  
**Example:** A researcher may try to *cross-check* the reliability of a response within a questionnaire by asking the same question in a different way - If they get two different answers, it's likely the data is *unreliable*.

Relates to the "nuts-and-bolts" of actually doing research in terms of the *consistency* of the data we collect.

**Reliability**



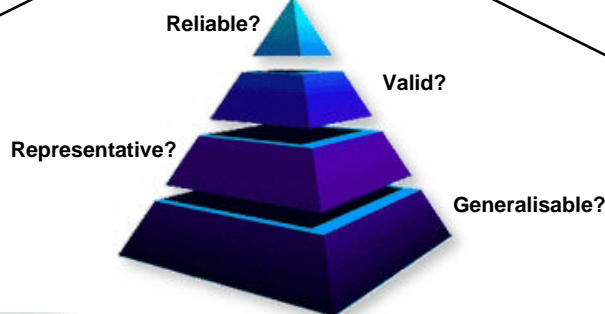
**Example:** Official crime statistics have limited validity - they only record reported crimes.

Refers to whether data gives a true measurement or accurate description of "reality". Does data actually measure or describe what it claims to measure or describe?

**Validity**

**Methodology**

Focus on various ways we can identify and collect **reliable** and **valid** knowledge about the social world.



**Representativeness**

With all types of data an important question is the extent to which the data accurately *represents* what it claims to represent.

**Data**

Representativeness in this context refers to the idea that any information we collect is sufficiently comprehensive to accurately represent something.  
**Example:** Official unemployment statistics are *unrepresentative* of all unemployed (they only measure those "available for and actively seeking work" - anything we say about "unemployment" in our society needs to be qualified by the idea that some types of "lack of paid work" are not represented in the statistics.

**Group**

Representativeness here refers to the use of research samples; if we're researching a small group (of nurses, for example) and, on the basis of this research, want to be able to say something about *all* nurses, the characteristics of the first group must exactly match those of the larger group; in other words, we can use one, small, group to *represent* a much larger group.

**Generalisability**

Information we collect about a small group can be applied to larger groups who share the same general characteristics of the smaller group.

**Example:** if the small (sample) group is representative of the larger group anything we discover about the one can be generalised to the other.



**Example:** If another sociologist attempted to repeat the "pub research", would similar results be achieved? If not, then the research is unreliable...

**Examples:** Will the same question, asked of the same person in similar circumstances, produce the same answer? Is it possible for different people (or the same person at different times) to observe exactly the same things?

Is everyone in the group being researched asked the same questions in the same way? If not, how easy would it be to check data reliability by repeating this research?

**Replication**

**Standardisation**

Data reliability has a number of aspects:

Do opportunities exist for the researcher (consciously or unconsciously) to distort the data collection process?

**Bias**

**Consistency**

**Reliability**



If data is *unreliable* conclusions we draw from it are going to be of limited use. For example, if I attempt to draw conclusions about the state of education in Britain on the basis of an interview with someone in a bar, such data will be unreliable as a guide to what is really happening in the educational system.

**Methodology**

**Validity**

Data validity encourages us to think about the accuracy – or otherwise – of different data types (primary, secondary, qualitative and quantitative). While some forms of data (such as official statistics) may be reliable, their validity may be questionable.

**Depth**

They may lack the depth and detail required to accurately represent the views of a particular individual or group.

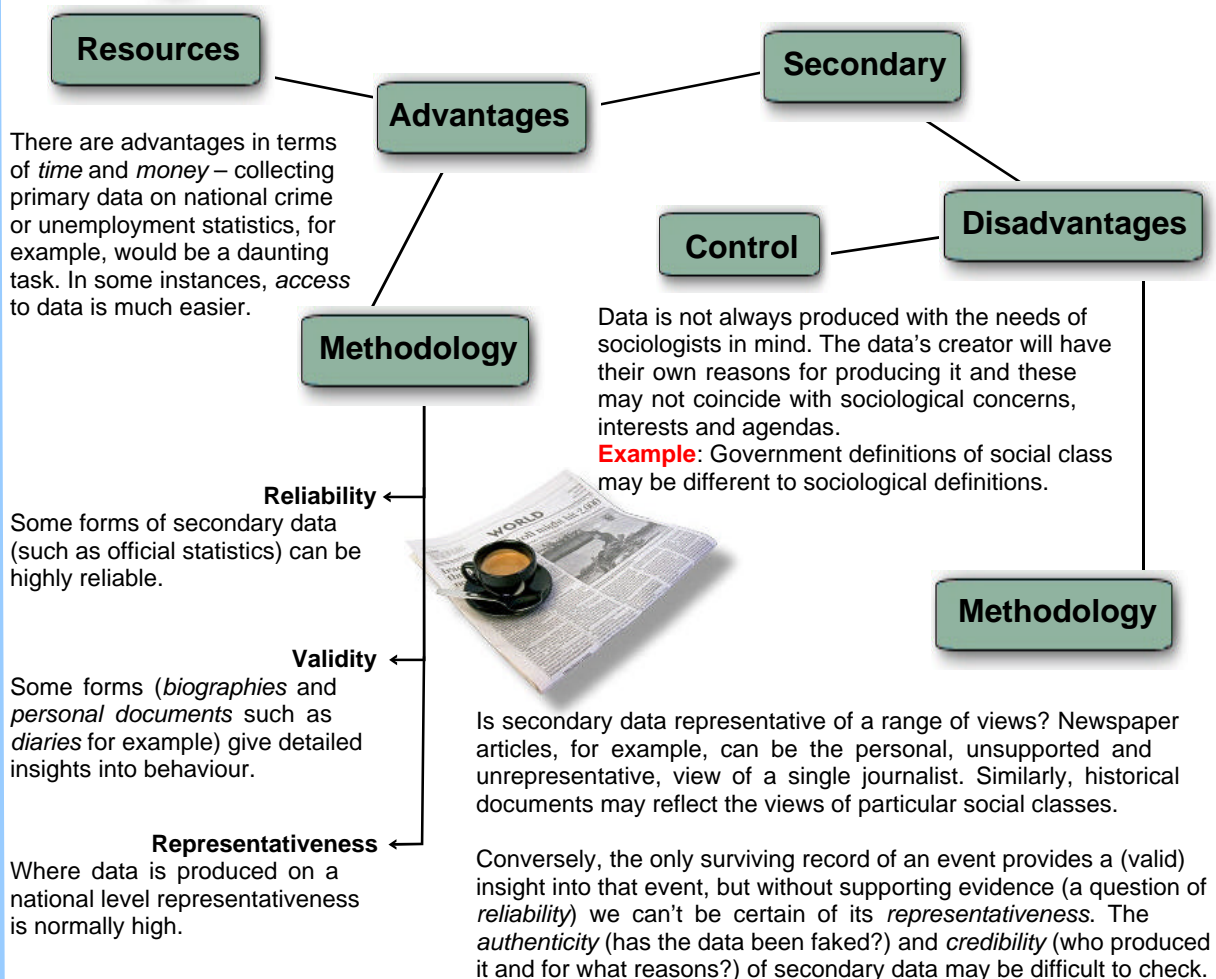
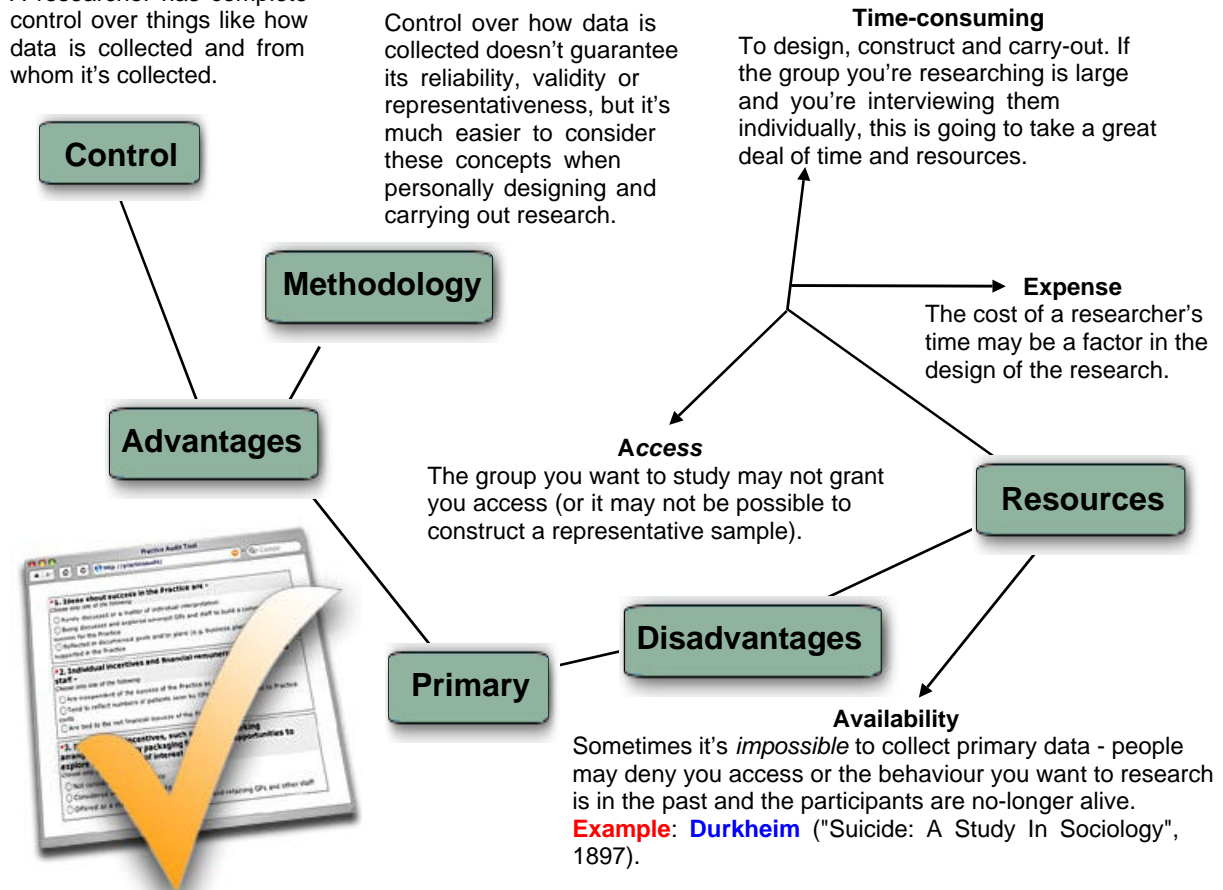
**Representativeness**

They may not apply to everyone in a particular group. In the UK, for example, we need to be aware "unemployment statistics" only represent those who are registered for unemployment benefit with the government - not everyone who doesn't have a job.





A researcher has complete control over things like how data is collected and from whom it's collected.



Quantitative (statistical) data makes this relatively easy to compare differences between two or more things, (such as middle-class and working-class family size). Alternatively, *cross-cultural* comparisons (crime rates in different countries, for example) are made possible through the use of quantitative data.

Quantitative data gives us an easy, manageable, way of identifying, tracking and examining trends and changes over time.

**Example:** Statistics on educational achievement over the past 25 years highlight changes in relative levels of achievement between (and within) the sexes.

The ability to express relationships statistically can be useful if you don't need to explore the reasons for people's behaviour (for example, if you only need to know the number of murders committed each year).



### Disadvantages

### Meaning

Quantitative data isn't designed to tell sociologists about how people interpret and understand social behaviour; that is, in terms of the various meanings they give to both their own behaviour and that of others.

**Example:** While it might be possible to quantify "the fear of crime" (counting the percentage of people who fear being a victim, for example), this type of data tells us nothing about *why* people may fear victimisation.

### Comparison

### Change

### Quantified

### Advantages

### Quantitative Data

### Validity

### Reliability

"Before" and "after" studies are a further type of comparison we can make using quantitative data.

**Example:** Examining the effect legal changes have had on patterns of divorce in our society by noting the number of divorces *before* and *after* a change in the law.

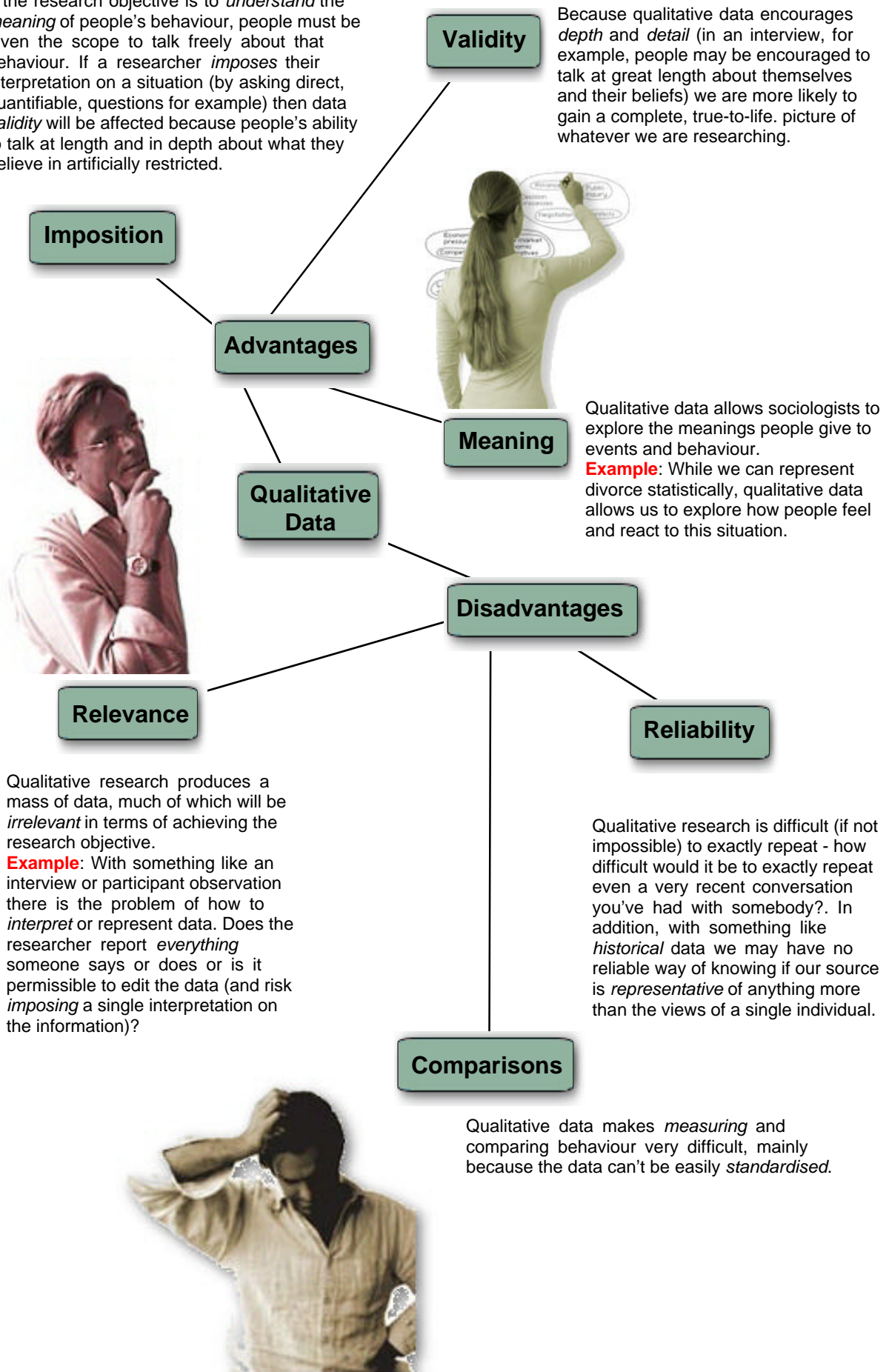
Quantitative data tends to be more reliable than qualitative data because it's easier to replicate (repeat) the collection of such data. Standardised questions (questions that don't change) can be asked to different groups (or the same group at different times).

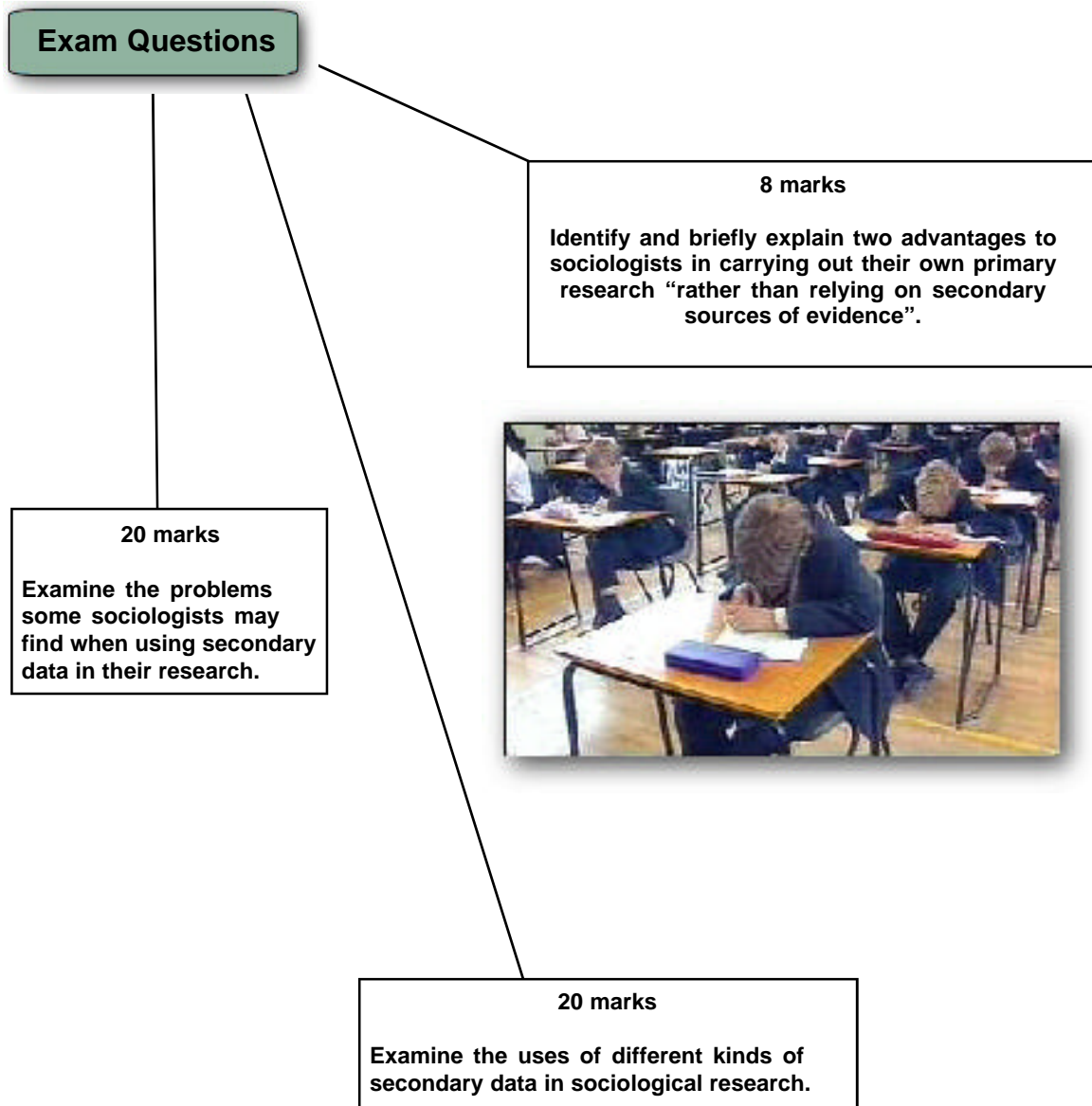


Quantitative data can't be easily used to explore issues in any great depth (knowing the number of thefts in our society doesn't tell us anything about why people commit this crime).



If the research objective is to *understand* the *meaning* of people's behaviour, people must be given the scope to talk freely about that behaviour. If a researcher *imposes* their interpretation on a situation (by asking direct, quantifiable, questions for example) then data *validity* will be affected because people's ability to talk at length and in depth about what they believe in artificially restricted.





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