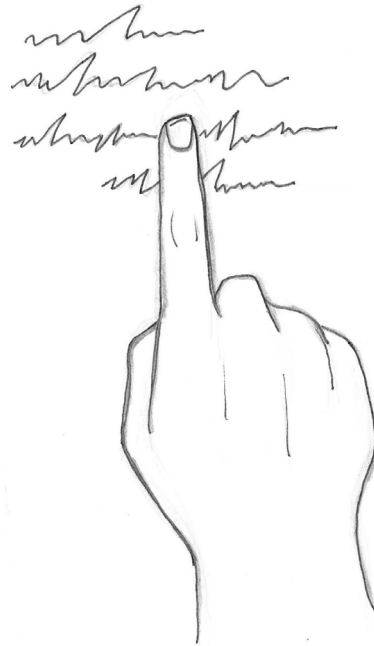


Appendix – Questions and Answers



Keep on going and the chances are you will stumble on something, perhaps when you are least expecting it. I have never heard of anyone stumbling on something sitting down.

Charles F. Kettering

Chapter 2

1. What are the two main points that you should keep in mind before deciding what your research topic should be?

- i) The area should interest you.
- ii) Ensure that you have access to the subjects.

It is necessary to narrow down one's area of study. Ex: researching young people's behaviour during weekends.

- Which type of behaviour?
- Which locality?
- Which part of the locality?
- During which weekends?

2. The research question is formulated using two approaches: the deductive method and the inductive method. Briefly describe these two methods.

- i) The deductive method or Top-Bottom approach
 - Uses theoretical interpretations and logically interpretive prepositions to start.
 - Starts with 'Why?' certain behaviours occur to 'Whether?' they will occur.
 - Ex: the Mediterranean climate has a dry summer therefore it will not rain in July.
- ii) The Inductive method or Bottom-Up approach
 - Uses the observation of reality without any theory.
 - Constructs a number of indexes on which theory will be built later.
 - Moves from the 'whether' to the 'why'.
 - Ex: as it has never rained in July in Malta, next July it won't.

3. List the nine main steps of research design.

Step 1: study the existing theories and works on the topic
Step 2: define your study
Step 3: literature review
Step 4: formulate your hypothesis
Step 5: research design
Step 6: data collection
Step 7: data analysis
Step 8: drafting a report
Step 9: presenting results

4. What is the empirical research (social scientific research) method?

A method applied to understand social reality using LOGIC and OBSERVATION (Hagan, 1997).

5. Good research is based on objectivity. Very briefly explain this.

Researchers must avoid being, even inherently/emotionally biased.

6. Briefly describe one major difference that exists between the social sciences and the natural sciences.

As human behaviour is based on free and individual choices, Social Science conclusions can never be 100% accurate. Conversely, in the Natural sciences, conclusions are based on hard facts.

In empirical studies, conclusions are based on interpretation. Whilst a subjective analysis of the data may be made, objectivity ensures that the rules of research methodology are adhered to resulting in the establishment of facts. This is a major difference between Social and Natural Sciences and can cause

some researchers to view the process as a stumbling block for the Social Sciences, though strict rules have ensured that the method is based on scientific fact.

7. Why is it very important for the researcher to collect and choose the right data?

Ideally the researcher should provide the readers with all the available data so they can reach their own conclusions/own interpretations. However, since subjectivity must come into play, some form of evaluation is necessary. Thus, the researcher must define which data is correct and necessary. To enable in-depth study of the data chosen (to get a wider view), the Researcher must focus on certain data and ignore other. Therefore, it is important to collect and choose the right data.

8. List the five main rules that researchers must take into account when conducting a research.

Researchers must take the following rules into account when conducting a research:

- i) reliability
- ii) validity
- iii) credibility
- iv) causality
- v) representation

9. What do you understand by “sampling”?

Samples are sets of targets (groups, data, persons, entities) that represent the population from which they are drawn.

10. List the five main types of sampling.

- i) Simple random sampling: one in which each person has the same chance of being chosen. Data can come from different sources.
- ii) Purposive or systematic sampling: when you need to target a group.
- iii) Cluster random or stratified sample: when you have to choose a number of people from the same place to minimise costs.
- iv) Disproportionate stratified sample: when you need to make sure that even minority groups are represented in a sample.
- v) Snowball sampling: when access to the sample proves difficult. You ask your contact to put you in touch with a subject and this subject, in turn, puts you in touch with another.

11. What do you understand by “sampling error”?

There will always be a sampling error (since not everyone was included!). The larger the sample, the smaller the sampling error. A sampling error of 5% is acceptable.

12. What do you understand by “causality”?

When a change in ‘A’ brings about a change in ‘B’.

13. When does a perfect positive relationship between variables occur?

When a change in ‘A’ brings about a clear and direct change in ‘B’ [A ↑ B ↑].

14. When does a perfect negative relationship between variables occur?

When a change in ‘A’ brings about a clear and direct change in ‘B’ but the change may not be in the same direction [A ↑ B ↓].

15. What conditions enable the researcher to claim that there is a correlation between variables?

When a change in ‘A’ brings about a change in ‘B’ but the relation is not necessarily even.

16. List the four main problems associated with using formal official data.

- i) Possible problems to access data.
- ii) Researcher has to work with what is available.
- iii) May not be (data) what the researcher actually needs (not collected for his/her purpose!).
- iv) May not be comparable with the researcher's other data (collected by her/him)

17. Very briefly describe the two main categories of research: qualitative and quantitative.

- i) Qualitative approach: observations, interviews, documentary analysis. In-depth interviews with a small number (especially with difficult-to-access populations). Qualitative research reports observations.
- ii) Quantitative research: bases research on a large sample. Yields statistical data which is usually analysed through a statistical package tool (SPSS). Quantitative research assigns numbers.

18. Triangulation is of paramount importance for archival research to be valid. List the four main types of triangulation.

- i) Data triangulation
- ii) Investigator triangulation
- iii) Theory triangulation
- iv) Methodology triangulation

19. Very briefly explain what you understand by "adduction" (with reference to archival research).

Adduction is 'finding the best explanation of a set of data' (Josephson and Josephson, 1994:157).

20. List the three main types of official documents (with reference to archival research).

- i) routine: central in administration (ex: admissions)
- ii) regular: for everyday purpose
- iii) special: for a specific reason

21. Eley (1980) warns about a critical point in archival research. What is it and why does it happen?

Often, it generates facts about interpretation. Why? Sheer volume of material makes it difficult to integrate data with theory.

22. Scott (1990) claims that the status and standing of the archive material has four sequential dimensions. List them.

- i) Authenticity (verification that the documents are original!).
- ii) Credibility (includes an assessment of potential and actual sources of error and distortion).
- iii) Representativeness (document is typical of another document from the same context).
- iv) Attribution of meaning (ensuring that the documentation reflects existing and relevant information about the subject).

23. List the two main problems associated with archival research.

- Access and restrictions in viewing data.
- Not all data is available. Maltese law makes official and personal data only available for researchers after a certain number of years (ex: prison data has a 30-year moratorium; official ledgers and personal data have an 80-year moratorium).

24. Briefly explain what case studies are and state their main problem.

- An in-depth study of a particular site, individual or occurrence to find some common interpretation or principle (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).
- An event or an individual is studied over a period of time.
- Main problem: No set rules but the researcher take notes (usually keeping a format in mind). The main problem revolves around generalisation where one assumes that the case study represents the whole population.

25. Survey research can be divided into two main categories: interviews and questionnaires. Briefly describe these two categories.

- i) Interviews: questions asked orally (in person or by phone). Qualitative tool.
- ii) Questionnaires: a set of questions respondents are expected to answer in writing. Quantitative tool.

26. List three main advantages of interviewing research participants.

- Useful to get the story behind a person's experience.
- Allows the researcher to dig out hidden or in-depth information about the subject.
- Questions are usually open-ended and elicit most information.

27. List the four main advantages of using questionnaires and the two main disadvantages of using questionnaires.

Advantages:

- i) Can be filled in the respondent's free time.
- ii) They can reach more people.
- iii) They can be filled in privacy.
- iv) The respondents remain anonymous.

Disadvantages:

- i) Low response rate (30%).
- ii) The respondents can't ask for clarifications.

28. Why should questionnaires be piloted (tested)?

Questionnaires should be piloted to make sure that the intended meaning and the way people understand the questions are the same.

29. List the three main types of data and very briefly describe each one, even if by simply providing an example.

- i) Nominal: fits distinct categories (ex: male or female); only measures of central tendencies (the mean/median/mode) such as frequencies can be used.
- ii) Ordinal: ordered in categories (ex: Likert scale).
- iii) Interval: grouping (ex: ages 0-5/6-10/11-15 yrs...).

30. What are "focus groups"?

"Focus groups are group discussions organised to explore a specific set of issues" (Ketzinger, 1994:1).

31. List the four main problems associated with conducting focus groups and list the four main advantages reaped by conducting focus groups.

Main problems

- i) Generalisation of findings.
- ii) People tend to be reluctant to discuss certain issues in groups.
- iii) The non-response rate. Those who didn't participate could've completely changed the outcomes.

Main advantages

- i) helps the researcher identify the participants priorities and language.
- ii) promotes discussion between participants.
- iii) helps identify group norms and the working of the group.
- iv) helps people listen and reflect on each other's ideas.

32. Briefly describe ethnography/participant observation.

- Qualitative
- The researcher spends time analysing and observing a group.
- Tool developed by anthropologists.
- Used to describe a cultural group.
- Can be conducted either overtly or covertly. The latter yields truer and richer data but has huge ethical issues.

33. List the main advantages of conducting ethnography/participant observation.

- Enabling the researcher to understand a reality, foreign to his/her culture.
- Subjects may be observed in their natural setting and it enables researchers to conduct a "study of social process" instead of being restricted to a mere "snapshot or series of snapshots" (Mc Neill, 1994:83).

34. List the main disadvantages of conducting ethnography/participant observation. Mc Neill, 1994:83)

- It is difficult for the researcher to remain detached from the situation (especially in covert research).
- Cannot be empirically tested and it is very difficult for the researcher to remain detached and unbiased.
- The presence of a researcher might alter the group's behaviour.
- This research cannot be generalised.

Chapter 3

(1) What 3 major developments changed the process of conducting research? Were research problems solved, or were they merely replaced by new problems? Mention some of these modern research-related problems.

The 3 major upheavals that changed the process of conducting research: (a) the introduction of computers in the 1980s; (b) the introduction of the Internet and the World Wide Web in the 1990s; and (c) the availability of raw, real-time data in the 2000s. Research problems just mutated. Now, we have too much data giving rise to 2 main problems: (a) gaining access to last-version information and (b) lack of know-how when it comes to interpreting data. In fact, data may: (a) not be readable; (b) not be comparable; (c) not be of a reliable format; (d) not be current; and (e) not follow standard research regulations. Therefore, data faces similar problems to those faced by the biblical Babel: (a) too much data; (b) easily-abused choices of statistical measures; and (c) over-reliance on online data and technologies.

(2) What are triangulation studies?

Triangulation studies are researches in which qualitative and quantitative research tools merge.

(3) What is DIKA and what do the letters stand for?

DIKA is a mnemonic. It stands for the research process: Data-Information- Knowledge –Action.

(4) What is the W6H in relation to conducting research? How are the W6H elements helpful?

The W6H represents the questions researchers need to ask/address before embarking on a research, namely: (a) Who? (target group); (b) What? (research question); (c) When? (Indicator); (d) How? (method); (e) Why (linkages); (f)Where? (location analysis); Why not? (controversial/cross thematic). The W6H elements help one to understand which research method should be employed prior to establishing a research process.

(5) What is research and why do we need it?

Researchers shed light on a problem under study (the topic of the research), through empirical research which is scientifically sound.

(6) What are the main questions that need to be asked to a potential researcher?

The questions that need to be asked to a potential researcher are: (a) Does the researcher have the drive to actuate such a study? (b) Is s/he aware of the time it will take up? (c) Is the data available? (accessible?) (d) Is the target group willing? (e) Does the researcher need a particular software? Is it accessible/available? (f) Does the researcher need to go back for clarification after the survey? (g) Is the language to be used, too technical? (h) Do the results reflect the original aims of the study? (i) Does the referencing conform to the establish protocols?

(7) Mention the 3 main forms of research and briefly explain each one.

The 3 main forms of research are: (1) the basic form; (2) the applied form and (3) the multipurpose research. (1) The basic/pure form drives towards an understanding of concepts. It is more theoretical and it does not aim at the immediate provision of tangible results. The aim of such research is the acquisition of new information and the development of the scholarly disciplines. It provides a descriptive approach to research. The results that emanate from the basic form of research are more conceptual in nature. Such a research may not reach the stage where the concepts start taking on a factual form and ending up analyzed through statistical measures. (2) The applied form of research has a more immediate/real-world time frame. It is an inquiry of a scientific nature designed for and conducted with an operational and practical application as its goal. This type of research answers questions dealing with the real world. (3) Multipurpose research finds itself somewhere in between the basic form and the applied form. It is both conceptual and factual (incorporated in one study). This type of research aims at launching scientific enquiries into issues or problems that could be descriptive and evaluative. It is both theoretical and empirical. The main function of multipurpose research is the exploration of operational and applicable results.

(8) List the 4 main types of research.

The 4 main types of research are: (1) descriptive (what something is); (2) explanatory (why something occurs); (3) predictive (to establish future actions) and; (4) intervening knowledge (allows pre-crisis interventions).

(9) The choice of type of research depends on 2 factors. Name them.

The choice of type of research depends on: (1) the availability of information and (2) pre-established knowledge.

- (10) When conducting a research, the most important issue to keep in mind is context. What do you understand by “context”?

Any study has to be carried out in a specific time and space. A good research entails a full understanding of the: social, physical, cultural, economic and structural constructs within which the study is occurring. This is the context.

- (11) Before starting off on a research project: one needs to be clear on what is going to be studied; one needs to decide whether to adopt a quantitative or a qualitative approach and to ascertain whether the research problem has been identified. This requires a logical approach and the authors recommend the 3x3 structure. What is this 3x3 structure?

The 3x3 structure referred here is the following: A researcher should start by establishing an aim (i.e. a topic and a direction). Then, create 3 objectives based on this aim (i.e. [1] a description of what one wishes to understand/the topic through the literature review; [2] What the researcher wants to achieve and [3] how the researcher aims to achieve those results). Subsequently, the researcher would identify 3 research questions for each of the objectives mentioned above.

- (12) What quality should a sequence of Aims-Objectives and Research Questions have and why is it important?

One has to create a sequence of Aims-Objectives-and-Research-Questions that ensure a flow between each section. This would ensure an understanding of the link between the literature review and the research itself.

- (13) Why is the literature review important?

The literature review is the glue which provides cohesion to the research, yet allows it to flow. It anchors the theory into a space and time with the context under study.

- (14) What are the main research hurdles researchers are prone to encounter?

The main potential research hurdles are: (a) data access issues; (b) access to persons/interviewees issues and; (c) non-completion of data-gathering process.

- (15) How would creating a “mind map” assist the researcher?

This helps by enabling the researcher to build an idea of: (a) what exists; (b) what should exist; (c) how best to come up with a method to identify the links/research questions.

- (16) What percentage of the total research time does data collection take up?

Data collection takes up more than 80% of all the time available for the research.

- (17) What do you understand by “data analysis”?

Data analysis takes into account the post-data collection process. It looks into the diverse ways that one can employ to make sense of the data in conjunction with the findings extracted from the literature review. Data analysis deals with the interpretation of the data within the context under study. It deals with the identification of the lacunae in data availability and how this will affect the analysis. Data analysis requires the running of statistical tests to seek relationships between variables. It leads to the translation of these statistics into readable and understandable text. In summary, data analysis focuses on the employment of statistical and other research tools which aid the researcher to reach more informed and reliable results.

- (18) What does reporting of results entail?

This is the final stage. The reporting of results brings together the divers finding from the analysis in line with the findings from the literature review and the context under study.

(19) How did technological advances in research tools affect research?

Instead of remaining only reserved for a few specialists in certain topics, techno-tools have now been made accessible (for example: on-line maps through Googlemaps. Research has become more accessible to more people. However, now more than ever, there is a need for formal training in the use of technological research tools to ensure reliability and professionalism.

(20) Explain the difference between the use and abuse of statistics.

A famous axiom states that there are “lies, damn lies and statistics”. Statistics are used correctly when it is used by people to think ahead and be proactive. Statistics are abused when researchers are animated by ulterior motives and have their own agendas. If these so-called-researchers lie repeatedly (backed by state-of-the-tools and data-backing), not only are their claims given credence by the public but they, themselves may even start to believe the lies! In fact, another famous saying claims that “a bad research is worse than no research at all”.

(21) Before embarking on a research, the researcher should ask her/himself 4 questions. List these questions.

Before starting a research, researchers should ask themselves: (a) Does the research problem involve questions of value rather than fact? (b) Is the solution to the research question already determined, effectively annulling the findings? (c) Is it impossible to conduct the research effectively and efficiently? (d) Are the research issues vague and ill-defined?

(22) List the 10 major data problems.

The 10 main data problems are: (1) Data can be very expensive; (2) Access can be restricted (for example by the administration or by the law); (3) Data can be jealously hoarded (a commonly-used excuse is: so that the data would not be misinterpreted); (4) Some countries even lack addresses!; (5) Some countries have unreliable zip/post codes; (6) Researchers requesting data from 3rd party agencies should be aware that that data was gathered for the purpose of that agency and not for the researcher – possibly rendering the data partially or wholly irrelevant; (7) Datasets need to be accurate, up-to-date, complete and tagged; (8) One needs to decide earlier on at which level the datasets are required (this is referred to as the NUTS levels); (9) Versioning is very important that is why researchers need to be really sure that the data they are using is the most recent version; (10) Researchers must ensure that a lineage exists (this is a step-by-step record of the process employed to reach the end result).

(23) What are the 3 most important aspects that make data vital for one’s study?

The 3 most important aspects that make data vital for one’s study are: (a) relevance; (b) timelines and (c) accuracy.

(24) Define “information”, in relation to research.

“Information” should not be mistaken for data. Information bridges the gap between coded data and the link that some data has to the reality it appears on. Information refers to the meaning given to data by the way in which it is interpreted (British Computer Society, 1989). Thus, data becomes information when it is given a meaning that ensconces it into a construct.

(25) Define “meaning”, in relation to research.

“Meaning” is the second life that the data takes when placed in a context. It is “meaning” that leads to the drafting of policies.

(26) What do researchers mean when they say that the data cycle is suffering from DRIPS?

It means that the data cycle is suffering from Data-Rich-Information-Poor Syndrome. This happens when data ends up as an end in itself rather than a means to an end. It is when data-gathering becomes an obsession and when, as a consequence, research concentrates on description rather than analysis.

(27) Describe geographic information as opposed to spatial information.

Geographic information is information which can be related to specific locations (points) on earth. Conversely, spatial information is information which, unlike merely having an earth tag (a point), has a space-relationship tag (E.g.: on a hill/mountain next to a village where mountaineers initiate their ascent). There is another dimension to it.

(28) Define “knowledge”, in relation to research.

“Knowledge” is the jump from “information”. It is not an easy step because “knowledge” represents and fits within the social reality under study. Knowledge serves as the tool that extracts the meanings given to the data trawlers and changes that to policy.

(29) Define “action”, in relation to research.

“Action” is the implementation of policy. It could involve: training, employment, capacity-building, legislation, setting up bodies that manage the outcomes of legislation and enforcement.

(30) What do researchers mean when they claim that action requires a continuous feedback loop?

When researchers claim that action requires a continuous feedback loop they mean that action needs regular/periodic monitoring surveys.

Chapter 4

(1) Briefly describe the datacycle approach and state why it is important.

A clear design of the research method.

The choice of tools.

Drafting a matrix to help to identify the needed Questions.

Data gathering.

Analysis process (with inherent querying and recording methodologies).

Where issues are deemed problematic to the process are identified, this LOOP is flexible enough to allow the researcher to go back and re-initiate either the whole process or part/s.

(2) How can a researcher achieve a clear view of what is required from her/his study?

Through the drafting of a

- a. CLEAR AIM.
- b. A set of objectives.
- c. A set of respective questions.

(3) What are the main methodology issues to be considered?

- a. Is the researcher in a position to initiate studies using a particular methodology (qualitative/quantitative)?
- b. Has the literature review brought up very specific data requirements? If yes, is it available? If not, surrogate?
- c. Will the researcher need to carry out archival research, interviews, and surveys or use readily accessible distributed data?
 - Archival: material physical/hard copy? Deteriorated? Accessible? In same country? If not, costs?
 - Surveys: methods understood? On-line emails? Physical mail shots? Return envelopes? Prize? Permits?

(4) What are the main operational issues to be considered?

- a. Have costs been factored in?
- b. Have the contacts been made? Time to fit them in schedule? Use IT? System works? Backup power to record the sessions?
- c. Will the sessions be recorded? Permission? Ethical Issues? Time to transcribe?
- d. How to store files? Always keep multiple copies/back-ups of the digital files and at least one copy of the analogue (hard copy) material. Keep digital copies in CD/DVD format. If possible keep one in a secure online location. Ensure the formats are readable in more than one document format in case of software malfunction.

(5) What are the main technical issues to be considered?

If the files are highly sensitive, how will they be stored?

- a. Where will the files be kept? Secure place? Which site can't be compromised?
- b. How will anonymity be protected? System to convert names to codes.
- c. Has the process been recorded in detail to allow for replication?
- d. If using imagery, is this available?

(6) How/when can a research prove impossible to conduct?

- i. Is a Plan B available if the topic proves to be impossible?
- ii. Data is unavailable.
- iii. Contacts are uncooperative.
- iv. Topic is too sensitive/feedback limited.
- v. Topic is superseded by new legislation.
- vi. Topic is overtaken by events.
- vii. Literature review leads to a deviation from the aim of study.
- viii. Researchers may have to change their research topic therefore draft an alternative topic early in the proposal drafting stage, not necessarily a full topic alternative but one that changes part of the topic or the methodology.

(7) What are the steps needed to structure the (research) mining and trawling process?

The steps needed to structure the mining and trawling process:

Step 1: How will the data be gathered?

- Manually? - In-situ?
- Automatically? - Remotely?

Step 2: What forms will be used?

- Pre-prepared forms
- Open-ended – no formal forms

Step 3: Which tools will be used?

- Analogue – paper/clipboard/maps for in-situ study
- Digital- using PDAs/laptop/scanner

Step 4: Will the forms have all the variables inserted?

- Yes and includes all sub-categories.
- Partial- allows for the inclusion of new variables and new types of archival input.

(8) What is a matrix?

A collection of cells that serve as an aid to structure data according to set columns and records in what can best be described as a spreadsheet.

	Column	Column	Column	Column
Record				

(9) List the 3 types of measurement scales. Using the model questionnaire provided in this chapter, (without looking/copying), complete the following table:

The 3 types of measurement scales as used by the matrix (these define the mathematical levels of precision with which the values of a variable are expressed):

- Nominal scale (N)
- Ordinal Scale (O)
- Interval Scale (I)

Question Number	Measurement Scale	Very briefly explain your choice of Measurement Scale
1	N	Imagine Name
2	I	Imagine Cinema Intervals
3	N	Imagine Name
4	N	Imagine Name
5	N	Imagine Name
6	O	Imagine Ordered
7	N	Imagine Name
8	N	Imagine Name
9	O	Imagine Ordered
10	O	Imagine Ordered

(10) Without looking/copying from this chapter, try to complete the following table:

Types of Variables to be Compared	Statistical Tests to be Used
Nominal Vs Nominal Variables	Chi squared
Nominal Vs Ordinal	Chi Squared
Ordinal Vs Ordinal	Correlation Spearman's test
Descriptive Statistics	Frequencies

(11) What is a pilot study? Why is it necessary?

- A testing phase.
- A launch pad.
- A necessary evil.
- The magic ingredient required to carry out the initial step is Human Targeting.
- Quantitative: 5/10 friends/colleagues.
- Qualitative: 1/2 friends/colleagues.
- A pilot study is necessary to check timing and clarity flow.

(12) What are the questions asked post-mortem, after a pilot study?

- a. What could've been carried out better?
- b. What did not make sense?
- c. What needs to be weeded out?
- d. What needs to be included?
- e. Are the numbers targeted realistic?
- f. Was the time projected realistic? Was it enough?
- g. Should I restructure the process?
- h. How will it affect the data collection period identified?

Make sure you address all the problems and start your research.

(13) List the main types of data-gathering methods.

The method of research should be chosen very carefully and once chosen should be adhered to.

Types of data gathering methods:

- a. Uncontrolled/naturalistic Observation.
- b. Participant observation.
 - Complete participant – ethics? Total immersion.
 - Participant as observer – participants know.
 - Observer as participant – not total immersion.
 - Complete observer- group aware/detached.
- c. Surveys
 - Location or remote data gathering.
 - Gather data from the field or desk-based.
- d. Interviews
 - Mostly pre-prepared questions yet the trained interviewer can elicit additional relevant info.
 - Slow but reliable.
 - May take hours!
 - Laborious to transcribe.
 - Questions understood according to interviewee's life-world. Riddle!

Advantages: body language (non- verbals); tone of voice (verbals); feelings.

Disadvantages: psychological help may be needed by both the interviewer and interviewee (open wounds).

- e. Questionnaires:
 - reach a large number.
 - mainly used for quantitative research.
 - highly impersonal.
 - absolute non-interaction.

How to carry it out:

- distribution
- post it
- on-line
- farm to an agency
- employ people to visit target groups and help them fill in questionnaire

Issues/Disadvantages of Questionnaires

- participants may not bother to reply.
- questionnaire may be deemed too long.
- participants may leave out data.
- participants may be suspicious of the questionnaire scope.
- participants may lie.
- participants opt to answer questions they feel comfortable.
- interpretation issues- Noise Level.
- bias can contaminate questionnaire.
- low response rate (35% with prize!).
- follow-up; problematic and can raise suspicion.
- ensure sampling based on latest available data.
- entries have to be reflected into an input sheet that has all the variables fleshed out.

(14) When a researcher reaches the analysis phase, which are the main issues to be considered?

- a. Has a decision been taken on what tools to be used?
- b. Has the matrix been completed?
- c. If using a qualitative approach, what are the relevant keywords? (Literature Review)
- d. Do you need catalogue cards to remember the key words?
- e. Have you chosen the statistical measures (quantitative)?
- f. Can your qualitative results also be analysed through quantitative approach?
- g. Does this fall within your mind map model?

(15) What is a lineage and why is it important?

Recording STEPS throughout the research process is called keeping a LINEAGE.

A simple but very important rule: Record every step you take! Why? So when a discrepancy crops up, one can back-track and find out when/where the problem started.

- It records the steps in every query.
- Allows one to follow the steps.
- Records what files were generated.
- How files were stored.
- Problems encountered and other relevant steps.

(16) When it comes to research analysis there are some rules one must adhere to. List the main ones.

- a. Choose the right variables to compare.
- b. Choose simple relationships.
- c. Divide complex relationships/problems into smaller simple ones.
- d. Rule of normalisation; Codd's Rules – if using databases one should know Codd's rules.
- e. Compare different sections together ex: demography with transport – ensure that all variables being cross-analysed cover all the themes discussed in the mind map and in the matrix.
- f. Design graphs which describe the actual data under discussion (don't get bogged down in numbers); outputs/graphs/tables should be presented in a SIMPLE and CLEAR MANNER; Less text; Use more graphics and visual tools.

(17) Briefly describe the ideal research report.

Results must reflect the Literature Review, the Methodology and the Analysis Process.

- The report should mirror the findings.
- Be concise.
- Include a series of recommendations.
- Produce an executive summary (serves as a 'film trailer').

(18) “Aims, Objectives and Research Questions”: List the 3 main steps, adopting the 3x rule.

- (A) Create an AIM which should be expressed as a statement that shows the topic of the study and the direction you wish your research to take.
- (B) The first of the 3x: create 3 objectives based on the aim.
- (C) For each of the objectives identify 3 research questions.

(19) What is a hypothesis?

- A hypothesis aims to explain a phenomenon using scientific means to test it.
- Scientific studies call for the testing of 2 hypotheses called the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis.

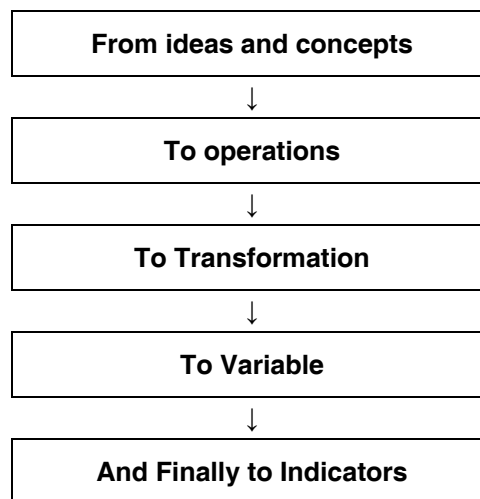
(20) What is the difference between the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis?

The null hypothesis always states that there is NO relationship between the variables under study. Presumed to be true unless proven otherwise.

The alternative hypothesis states that there is a relationship between the two.

Chapter 5

1. Very briefly mention the steps between the conception of a research idea and the formulation of an indicators' list.



2. What do you understand by the research rule of Pierre Gallois?

Garbage In – Garbage Out. “But the tomfoolery (rubbish) coming out of a very expensive and complicated computer will have attained a sort respectability and no one will dare criticise it”.

3. What is “conceptualisation” in research?

Conceptualisation is nailing down the elusive variable – moulding an idea into something that can be measured.

Fuzzy concepts: uncertain boundaries ex: social segregation, educational needs, poverty...

4. What is a research “entity” and what does “entitiation” in research describe?

Entity: an item that can be described and measured in statistical analysis.

Entitiation: this step describes the way we recognise, understand and define the entities about which we wish to collect data.

5. What do you understand by “quantification” in relation to research?

Can the values that represent the entities be measured / quantified? Yes!

6. After coming up with a research idea/concept, transforming it into an entity and giving it a measurement structure, the researcher still has to do something else. What is it?

Concept is transformed into an Entity built through a measurement structure which ensures that the measurement is valid and can replicate the item under study!

7. Why does the researcher need to set up a list of indicators and a lineage process?

To ensure that a particular data set is valid, and can be repeatedly gathered, analysed and processes, a list of indicators needs to be set up and a lineage process undertaken.

8. Why are indicator lists important?

Indicator lists help the researcher to follow the analytical process on a step-by-step basis which will allow for comparative output analysis.

9. Define a surrogate variable.

Surrogate: the substitution of one variable by another corresponding or similar variable.

10. Why is the process of “composition” (in research) important?

This process allows researchers to develop concepts, visualise variables, create the lineages between the variables and also to identify the statistical measurements required for each linkage and how they link within themes and across themes.

11. List the four main types of measurement scales.

- i) Nominal scale
- ii) Ordinal scale
- iii) Interval scale
- iv) Ratio scale

Chapter 6

1. Research is suffering from DRIPS. What is this condition and what should be done to avoid a DRIPS situation?

DRIPS: Data-Rich-Information-Poor-Syndrome. To avoid a DRIPS situation, data needs to be turned into information. Information needs context.

2. Briefly explain what metadata is.

The process of how one ensures that data has a context within which it was created and that it serves as a veritable ID card/passport for that particular dataset. It is Data about data. Provides a description of what a dataset is composed of.

3. List the three main data categories.

- i) Raw
- ii) Numerics
- iii) Imagery

4. Why should a researcher always create a metadata for every datum?

Always create a metadata for every datum created as it helps one to source back the relevant information and ascertain whether it is relevant from studies being carried out a considerable time

post-creation. Together with lineage, this tool helps one to ensure that the base data on which to run research is reliable, sourced and whether one can use its attributes in real or surrogate forms.

5. List the five main issues associated with the acquisition of pre-existing data.

- i) The user has no control over the original format.
- ii) The user has no control over the content.
- iii) The user has no control over the attributes structure.
- iv) The user has no control over the actual data requested.
- v) The user has no control over the volume of data acquired.

6. What are research errors? When they are mostly generated? How can they be categorised?

- The difference between the captured data and the real data that exists.
- Nearly always generated during data capture, either through faulty processing, faulty technologies and sensors as well as data input mistakes.
- Can be categorised by: Source, the Medium, the Technology and by the Effects generated.

7. To avoid errors, researchers must consider certain factors.

What are they?

- i) accuracy
- ii) precision
- iii) scale and resolution
- iv) bias
- v) completeness
- vi) temporal consistency
- vii) logical consistency
- viii) semantic accuracy
- ix) repeatability

8. List the three main classifications of data sourcing.

- i) Primary – data gathered first hand (ex: thesis).
- ii) Secondary: based on findings of others (academic journals).
- iii) Tertiary: not directly linked to the author or editor; data sources created by experts ex: book listing all the papers published on Taxonomy (Classification).

9. Primary data can be gathered in two main modes. Which are they?

- Archival capture
- Real-time capture

10. What do you understand by “archival data”?

Original records that are gathered by the researcher or another researcher. This data is in its original state and has not been interpreted by others. Uniqueness issue is very important. The data must be original.

11. List the three main capture modes.

- i) Manual
- ii) Semi-manual
- iii) Automatic: in-situ/remote

Chapter 7

1. List five simple types of visual research tools.

- i) Tables
- ii) Charts
- iii) Maps (1 dimension)
- iv) 3D maps
- v) Photographs

2. Graphing is a way to summarise data. List the graphing formats most commonly used.

- Bar charts
- Pie charts
- Line charts
- Histograms

3. Briefly define the following: (a) Bar Charts; (b) Pie Charts; (c) Histograms; (d) Line Charts; (e) Area Charts; (f) Composite Charts; (g) a Population Pyramid.

a) Bar charts: composed of bars separated by spaces. Ideal for displaying the distribution of variables measured at the nominal level and other discrete categorical variables.

b) Pie charts: circles (pie) display their data in the form of slices.

c) Histogram: very similar to bar charts but depict a distinct difference that is with no gaps! Adjacent bars used to display the distribution of quantitative variables. These variables vary along a continuum.

d) Line charts: composed of lines along an axis. This chart allows multiple variables to be depicted in the same chart.

e) Area charts: used for data that requires depiction of individual variables in relation to a total.

f) Composite charts: combination of styles that help one to better understand a situation.

g) A population pyramid: a bar chart that has been inverted to form horizontal bars. Always depicts males on the left and females on the right.

4. Why is mapping important?

Mapping is very important because while tables and charts provide the exact rate of changes the visual aspect depicting data on a map is more direct.

5. Briefly explain what you understand by GIS.

A geographical information system is a group of procedures that provide data input, storage and retrieval, mapping and spatial and attribute data to support the decision-making of the organisation (Grimshaw, 1994). Later definitions include the People Factor that is now seen as the most important factor.

6. What do the letters "S.W.O.T." stand for and why would one carry out a S.W.O.T analysis on GIS?

Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities Threats. S.W.O.T is carried out to help understand the issues that emerge when investigating an entity, a process and/or a system.

7. Briefly describe what each of the following maps depicts: (a) Choropleth Map; (b) Graduated Map; (c) Dot Density Map; (d) Point Map: Actual Location of Offences Map; (e) K-Means Clustering Map; (f) Polygon-Based Cluster Analysis; (g) Small-Area Choropleth Map; (h) 3D Map: Population Density; (i) Correlation Map: Small Area Densities Vs National Densities: EAs;

(j) Nearest Neighbour Hierarchical Analysis Map; (k) Offence NNA: Spatial-Type by spread – Most effected; and (l) 3D Extrapolation of Activity Spread: NNA: Non-Serious Crime.

- a) Choropleth map: depicts data based on ranges.
- b) Graduated map: depicts data as a series of graduated pie charts.
- c) Dot density map: depicts data based on randomly-located dots representing number of cases.
- d) Point Map: depicts data based on points representing the actual location of the activity.
- e) K-Means clustering Map: depicts data based on statistical clustering of related data points.
- f) Polygon-Base Cluster Analysis: depicts cluster data ranged across polygons (areas).
- g) Small-Area Choropleth Map: same as Polygon-Base Cluster Analysis but depicts very small polygons (areas) for niche analysis.
- h) Population Density (3D Map): extrapolates the polygon data of other maps such as Small-Area Choropleth Map into 3D format.
- i) Correlation Map: Small area Densities vs. National Densities: EAs – depicts correlations between two variables in polygon format.
- j) Nearest Neighbour Hierarchical Analysis Map: Offence Hotspots: Spatial-Retail Crime – depicts data showing hotspots in the form of ellipsoids.
- k) Offence NNA: Spatial-Type by spread- Most affected – depicts areas having similar characteristics and indicating very high levels of activity.
- l) 3D extrapolation of activity spread: NNA: Non-serious crime – depicts data developed through the process outlined in a 3D format for ease of visual reference to the hotspots.

Chapter 8

1. Briefly explain what mind mapping is.

A tool to clarify one's mind and helps visually draft the process from concept to tangible measuring.

2. What is a “model” (with reference to research and mind mapping)?

A model is... “either a theory, law, a hypothesis or a structured idea. It can be a role, a relation or an equation. It can be a synthesis of data. Most important, from the geographical viewpoint, it can also include reasoning about the real world by means of translations in space (to give spatial models) or in time (to give historical models)”. A model allows the researcher to study the real world through a series of observational activities.

3. List the six main steps when it comes to creating a mind map.

Step 1: a rough drawing of what the elements of this mind map constitute.

Step 2: create the theme.

Step 3: identifying the sub-topics.

Step 4: identify the sub-sub-topics for each of the elements identified in step 3.

Step 5: view the result in its entirety and start thinking about the links between the elements.

Step 6: create the potential links between the different elements.

4. List the main players in a mind map.

- i) main topic
- ii) the sub topics
- iii) the links between the topics
- iv) the dependencies (direction of dependency)
- v) the data sets representing the topics
- vi) the data sources
- vii) the measurement scales

5. Different research-stake-holders have different level of needs. Mind maps are designed keeping in mind the requirements (levels of need) of people in different roles with their different perspectives. List these roles/perspectives.

- Global vision perspective-visionary
- Strategic planner
- Operational designer
- Administrator
- Tactical planner

6. A conceptual model has to keep in mind three important dimensions within which that model operates. List these dimensions.

- i) the spatial dimension
- ii) the thematic dimension
- iii) the temporal dimension

7. Building a model – moving from a conceptual model to a working model – requires a process based on Peuquet’s (1990) three stages. List these three stages.

Stage 1: identify those entities one is interested in and decide how to represent them.

Stage 2: choose a data model that computers are able to display analyse and store your entity representation.

Stage 3: draft a “nuts and bolts” stage where one instructs the computer how to recreate the entities identified earlier.

8. Briefly explain what you understand by “content analysis”.

Content analysis usually refers to the analysis of written material ex: a political speech where words are analysed (within historical/political context) in an attempt to envisage the meaning of the writer. Content analysis is about the intended content and the received content; the difference between the two is the crux of content analysis.

9. What does CRISOLA stands for? What is CRISOLA’s main area of study?

CRIME SOcial LANDuse. The main area of study is the interaction between the crime characteristics, the social characteristics and the physical characteristics (land use).

Chapter 9

1. List the three main different categories of statistical tools.

- Manual
- Semi-automated
- Automated

2. What are “spreadsheets”?

Spreadsheets are the electronic version of the graph paper. Composed of multiple cells structured in what are described as rows (records) and columns (attributes). Spreadsheet cells allow for the inclusion of numbers, formulas and alphanumeric text. Spreadsheets allow various basic statistical tools to be run and some modules also exist to expand on the tools and turn a spreadsheet into an advanced statistical tool.

3. What do “Macros” do?

Macros are pre-programmed processes that allow researchers to input their data in specified cells in a spreadsheet and run the resultant measure accordingly thus drastically reducing the need for repeated work.

4. What do the letters “SPSS” stand for and what is this?

SPSS stands for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. It is a commercial statistical analytical processing tool.

5. What do the letters “SAS” stand for and what is this?

SAS stands for Statistical Analysis System. It is a commercial suite of statistical tools that was formed, based on the integration of a number of software tools.

6. What is “Stata”? What does it do?

Stata is a commercial general-purpose statistical tool, originally using a command-line interface but recent versions have been enhanced with GUI (graphic user interface) which makes it easier to use. Stata allows for such tests as: summary statistics, regressions, ANOVA, cluster analysis, survival models, cluster analysis etc. Stata can't load very large files.

7. What is “MiniTab”? What does it do?

MiniTab is a commercial tool that together with Quality Trainer (another tool/same company) provides a range of statistical functions. It is wide ranging and user friendly.

8. How would you briefly describe “R-Commander”?

R-Commander is an opensource tool deemed to be the most comprehensive, free statistical software available.

9. What is “PSP”?

It is a free opensource tool. It replicated SPSS functionality and serves as a useful tool for statistical analysis.

10. What is “Gretl”?

Gretl is a free software asset that provides various statistical tools for econometrical analysis.

11. What do the letters “CAQDAS”, “QDAS” and “QDA” stand for? What does this software do?

CAQDAS: Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software.

QDAS: Qualitative Data Analysis Software.

QDA: Qualitative Data Analysis.

This software helps to organise, categorise, and annotate textual and visual data. It aims at building theory while visualising the relationships between data and/or theoretical constructs.

12. What do the letters “KWIC” stand for? What does this tool do?

KWIC stands for Key Words in Context. This tool offers ways to search in the text for singular words, phrases, or a collection of words on a particular theme.

13. What does “The Word Cruncher” do?

Word Cruncher counts the number of times a word appeared in the whole collected data or a particular document.

14. What is the “ArcGIS Geostatistical Analyst” and what does it do?

This is a commercial tool that serves as an extension to ArcGIS Desktop. This Geostatistical tool focuses on spatial data exploration and surface generation.

15. What does the “MapInfo Vertical Mapper” do?

MapInfo Vertical Mapper provides tools that produce trend analysis, gridding algorithms, prediction modelling, gravity modelling, risk modelling and large dataset correlations.

16. What is “CrimeStat”? What does it do?

CrimeStat is a free spatial statistics programme for the analysis of crime incident locations. It allows the analysis of standard deviation maps, attribute analysis, journey to crime, hotspot analysis and a series of spatial statistical measures.

17. List the four main CrimeStat categories.

- i) spatial distribution
- ii) distance statistics
- iii) hotspot analysis routines
- iv) interpolation statistics

18. What do the letters “STAC” stand for? What is this and what does it do?

STAC stands for Space and Temporal Analysis of Crime Software. It is a free tool that helps statistical analysts in their statistical analysis achieving this through cluster mapping, employing standard deviational ellipse creation.

19. There are two types of online tools. Which are they?

- i) Those that cater for the analysis of data.
- ii) Those that help the researcher to create an online survey for worldwide respondent input.

Chapter 10

1. List the four main general organizational management entities and very briefly describe them.

- i) Information Technology (IT)
 - The process employed in developing software and managing behavioural hardware issues.
 - IT runs an organisation’s systems and network.
 - IT develops, installs and maintains computer applications and systems (software and hardware).
- ii) Information Systems (IS)
 - The conveyor/transporters of information.
 - Manages the information and the entire data cycle.
 - IT has become an integral function for organisational functioning in conjunction with the management of IS.
- iii) Information Communication Technology (ICT)
 - The same as IT but includes the integration of different networks such as telephony and computing into one system.
 - The strategies companies establish to set out their plans for IT investment and maintenance.
- iv) Information Resources (IR)
 - Assets an organisation holds in terms of data and information including human capital and skills.
 - IR takes into account the effects and impacts that the information exerts within the organisation and in society.

2. What is a database and why is it ideal for researchers?

A database is:

- A device that facilitates our search for information within a dataset and across datasets.
- A collection of interrelated data stored together with controlled redundancy to serve one or more applications: the data are stored so that they are independent of programmes which use the data; a common controlled approach is used in adding new data and in modifying and retrieving existing data within the database (Martin, 1983).

The database approach is the process one should employ to manage data through mastering the power of computers. Databases can hold both data and metadata.

Databases are ideal for researchers since the actual data is independent from the application using it. The data can be shared; it controls for error, integrates security issues and ensures that the data rules are maintained.

3. What are the problems faced today by researchers?

- i) data redundancy (many copies)
- ii) unknown versions being recorded
- iii) issues of data standards
- iv) issues of data consistency
- v) issues of data security

4. What are Database Management Systems (DBMS)?

General purpose computer programmes aimed at making a database work. A database holds only ONE structure and presents the user with a query system that can be based on any one of the drawers' resident index. The trick is in the linkages and in the electronic indexing.

5. Mention one major way in which a database differs from a spreadsheet.

The spreadsheet cannot link to any number of external datasets; a database can.

6. List the main functions of a database.

- i) Create, maintain and delete data structures inclusive of data definitions and file structures.
- ii) Data importation.
- iii) Edit data structures (ex: adding and deleting records).
- iv) Allow searching for and extracting information from data.
- v) Establish security protocols in terms of data security and maintenance and access management.
- vi) Would include a programming language.

7. What is the main issue in database creation?

The establishment of a sturdy Design Process that reflects the organisation's requirements and implements them within a digital structure.

8. Briefly describe how one could establish a sturdy design process.

- i) List organisation's requirements (the relationship between the different entities and attributes drafted into a conceptual data model).
- ii) Move from the conceptual design into a physical structure.
- iii) Test it.
- iv) Implement it.

9. Mention three different types of DBMS.

- i) Relational Database Management Systems (RDBMS).

- ii) Object-Orient Database Management Systems (OODBMS).
- iii) Object-Relational Database Management Systems (ORDBMS).

10. What is an EAR Diagram?

An EAR symbolises an Entity Attribute Relationship Diagram. This is very similar to a mind map but includes the relationships and entities as structured within a digital system.

11. List the main steps one needs to take when using an EAR Diagram.

- i) Draw the different elements.
- ii) Identify the relationship between the elements.
- iii) Identify those attributes that are common in different elements.
- iv) Rename the elements into words that are readable to a database system.
- v) Queries can then be run once the database has been populated by the raw data.

12. Mention one major advantage of using databases as well as the two major issues that it gives rise to.

Advantage: the same database can have its components distributed over a number of computers. In turn, these components could be distributed anywhere in the globe.

Issues: Access & Security.

13. Why is it not a good idea to integrate many datasets together?

- i) A dataset can become obsolete if not updated regularly.
- ii) Organisations may not be able to deliver the complete datasets.

14. How can you avoid integrating many datasets together?

What could constitute an acceptable solution?

Link the databases through a distributed database approach where the datasets are linked through one or more attributes.

15. List the steps one needs to take to set up the dataset linkages.

- i) Structure the links into the main theme, the database topic, the variable one is going to use and the source.
- ii) Acquire access through a series of protocols and agreements between organisations.
- iii) Set up the new database and ensure that the linkages work.
- iv) Create a query tool based on the mind map created as part of the process.
- v) Run the relevant queries.

16. What is SQL?

SQL is Structured Query Language. SQL is pronounced as 'Sequel'. SQL allows researchers to carry out most queries based on the W6H as it filters the attributes for data that falls within the respective structures as outlined in the commands it was given.

17. What is Microsoft Office Access?

- Forms part of a suite of applications targeted for office use.
- Based on a particular data storage system employing the Access Jet Database Engine.
- Can import or access data in other database and applications.

18. What is PostGreSQL?

- Developed on the ORDBMS model.
- A multi platform solution.
- The system is supported by many third party GUI tools.

Chapter 11

1. Why is statistical testing important?

Statistical testing helps researchers to control and validate the analysis carried out in their studies. These tests ensure that errors are not committed during the course of an analytical process. Also, one should be able to identify the quantity of errors generated.

2. Briefly explain what descriptive statistics are used for, providing examples.

Descriptive statistics are used to describe a data set quantitatively through summarisation rather than through the usage of probability analysis ex: mean, median and mode; standard deviation and variance.

3. Briefly explain what inferential statistics are used for, providing examples.

Inferential statistics employ probability tests; comparative tests that allow one to infer on a population ex: the Z-score; the T-test, the ANOVA and the Chi squared.

4. What do you understand by independent variables?

Independent variables serve as predictor variables, cause changes in other variables when a value is changed and are manipulated and the resultant changes on the other variables (dependents are established).

5. Why are dependent variables also known as criterion variables?

Dependent variables are also known as criterion variables in that they are tested for changes that occur when a value in the Independent variable has changed. Therefore dependent variables are dependent on the independent variables.

6. List the three measures of central tendency.

- i) mean or average value – interval/ratio data
- ii) median or middle value – ordinal level data
- iii) mode or most frequent value – nominal data

7. There are two types of Mode. Name them.

- i) the Unimodal: has one peak
- ii) the Bimodal: has two peaks

8. How would you define “the range” in statistics?

The range is defined as the difference between the two extremes in the data range: the minimum (smallest number in the data set) and the maximum (largest number in the data set).

9. Briefly describe standard deviation, explaining its function in statistics.

- A widely-used measure to calculate the deviation (dispersion) of the data around the mean.
- Helps researchers to understand the structure of their data in terms of how the individual observations deviate from or vary around the mean of that variable.
- The larger the spread of the data, the larger the standard deviation.

10. What is the variance (in statistics)?

The variance is defined as the sum of the squared deviations from the mean, divided by $n-1$. It is the square of the standard deviation.

11. What does the Z-score do?

The Z-score defines the distance the sample value is from the mean, always in terms of standard deviation.

12. Mention five statistical tests and very briefly describe each of them.

- i) F-test: compares the ratio of the two variances which, if equal should result in a value of 1.
- ii) T-tests: employed for testing standard deviations when the population is normally distributed.
- iii) Regression analysis (described as the Line of Best Fit): used to establish the existence of a linear relationship.
- iv) ANOVA (the analysis of variance): determines the existence of differences in datasets that contain two or more sample means. A two-way ANOVA is tested for when two independent variables are chosen.
- v) Chi-Squared (χ^2): a critical test that investigated, looking for the frequencies of category (nominal) presence in a sample and analysis whether they represent the predicted frequencies in the total population.

Chapter 12

1. How frequently is the Census of Population and Housing of the Maltese Islands carried out?

The Census of Population and Housing of the Maltese Islands is carried out every 10 years although in some special circumstances it is held earlier.

2. Who conducts this laborious survey (the Census of Population and Housing of the Maltese Islands)?

This survey is carried out by the National Statistics Office.

3. List the six main steps done by the Malta National Statistics Office before the actual census starts.

- i) Drafting a list of enumerators.
- ii) Identification and mapping of routes to be followed and which household to interview (over 160,000).
- iii) Interviewing enumerators.
- iv) Monitoring their progress.
- v) Inputting and double-checking the questionnaire replies.
- vi) Chasing persons not found at home, etc.

4. Who are the people (mention just their roles/official nomenclature) that comprise the Malta Census Management Team?

- i) Census officer
- ii) Chief Coordinator
- iii) Census Officers
- iv) District managers
- v) Supervisors
- vi) Enumerators

5. List the four main steps a researcher would take when using the Census for research.

Step 1: getting to grips with the terminology.

NUTS: a common classification of territorial units for statistics. Ensuring the classification of territorial units into comparable levels.

LAUS: Local Area Units. Cater for the smaller administration units ex: local councils.

Step 2: Sourcing the Data.

Step 3: Analysing the Data.

Step 4: Visualising the Results.

6. Briefly describe the main problems, an archival researcher might encounter.
 - i) Access: the researcher needs the authorities' permission; sensitive information might be in archives; protecting the privacy of those mentioned.
 - ii) State of records: organised? Legible? Deteriorated?
 - iii) Validation of authenticity: Real? Genuine?
 - iv) Different categorisations over the years.

Chapter 13

1. John is compiling a study on the British period in Malta. Which are the best archives for him to visit?

Santo Spirito Hospital, Rabat, Malta.

2. Melinda is researching particular events that occurred in Malta and Gozo between 1530 and 1899. Which are the best archives for her to visit?

Banca Giuratale, Mdina, Malta.
Gozo archives, Victoria, Gozo.

3. Francesca is researching particular events that occurred in Malta between 1107 and 1800. Which are the best archives for her to visit?

Bibjoteka, Valletta, Malta.

4. What would one find at the Department of Information (Malta)?

- Important documents.
- Media releases from 1957.
- Government gazette from 1813.
- Archive of films from 1959.
- Photo archive from 1970.

5. List at least five other public archives in Malta.

- Archives of the Notaries from 15th Century to date.
- Public Registry Archives from 1863 to date.
- Archives of the Courts from 1900 to date.
- Archives of the Lands Dept.
- The Records and Archives of the Department of Works from 1800.
- The Parliament Records from 1849.
- The UOM archives from the 11th century.
- The PBS Ltd Archives from 1970s.
- The Central Bank Archives from 1964.
- The Medical Records from 1978.
- The National Museum of Arts from 1798.
- The centre of documentation for Teachers from 1851.
- The Archives of Administration of Burials.
- The EneMalta Archive from 1853.
- The Maltacom Archive from 1943.

6. List the five church archives (in Malta) mentioned in the text.

- The archive of the Cathedral from 11th century.
- The Archbishop Curia from the 16th century.
- The Bishop's Curia (Gozo) from 1554.
- The Gozo Cathedral from 1623.

- Various archives of different religious orders: Dominican Archive from 15th century; Archives of Sisters of Charity from 1868.
 - Others: The Archive in the Wignacourt Museum.
7. List the three private archives (in Malta) mentioned in the text.
- Dr Albert Ganado's – from 1296.
 - The Times start in 1930.
 - The Lanfranco family start in 1540.
8. Give at least two examples of English archives that could be of interest to a researcher compiling a study on Malta and Gozo.
- The National Archives (near Kew Gardens) in London, England (The British Period).
 - The Family Records Centre.
 - The Historical Manuscripts Comm.
 - The British Library.
9. Give at the two examples (mentioned in the text) of Italian archives that could be of interest to a researcher compiling a study on Malta and Gozo.
- Magistral Library
 - Archives of the Order of Malta
10. Give at least one example of American archives that could be of interest to a researcher compiling a study on Malta and Gozo.

National Archives and Records Administration.

11. Give at least four examples of important libraries in Malta that could be of interest to a researcher compiling a study on Malta and Gozo.
- NSO
 - MEPA
 - UN International Institute on Ageing
 - The National Archives
 - UOM
12. Briefly describe how a researcher's request for data should be.

Researchers are advised to be specific in their request for data (to agencies). Agencies have databases which hold a lot of data parameters (most would be irrelevant to the researcher). So, the researcher's request should not be generic and unrealistic! The request should be planned and specific.

Chapter 14

1. What does ethics (or moral philosophy) provide us with?

Ethics provides us with recommended guidelines of what is right and what is wrong. These guidelines secure the nature of human well-being.

2. Why are ethical considerations important for researchers?

These are important because they go along creating new knowledge, researchers cannot leave a trail that leads to the subjects of their own study! Researchers cannot base their actions on the principle that the end justifies the means.

3. Mention two cases of research studies that attest breach of ethics.

Case 1: The Stanley Milgram Experiment.

Case 2: The Stanford Prison Experiment.

4. List the four main criteria for ethical research.

- i) informed consent
- ii) confidentiality and anonymity
- iii) objectivity
- iv) deception

5. What is plagiarism?

Plagiarism refers to the unauthorised use or close imitation of the language and thoughts of another author and the representation of them as one's own original work (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/plagiarism>)

6. In Criminology, referencing should be compiled on the guidelines provided by a particular association. Which association is this?

Referencing should be compiled on the guidelines provided by the American Psychology Association (2002) – A.P.A.

7. With regards to referencing, state what needs to be done if the same author has different publications?

The sources of evidence need to be arranged according to the year of publication with the earliest one first.

8. With regards to referencing: what does one need to do if the same author has two or more publications in the same year?

One needs to use the lower case letters just after the year of publication so as to distinguish between the two different sources.