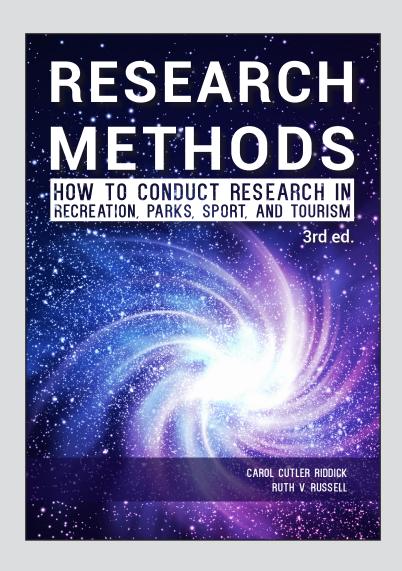
TEST BANK





- 1. Research has been defined as
 - a. A process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting information
 - b. A way to advance human knowledge
 - c. Going to the library and looking up references
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 2. Scientific inquiry must be
 - a. Logical
 - b. Objective
 - c. Systematic
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 3. Possible goals that guide a study are
 - a. Explanatory
 - b. Descriptive
 - c. Predictive
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Stakeholders in research include
 - a. Individuals or groups who have an interest in a program or activity being scrutinized in a study
 - b. Policy makers and decisions makers in an organization being studied
 - c. Program participants of a program or activity being studied
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 5. When you collect your own data for a research study, your source is considered
 - a. Primary*
 - b. Secondary
 - c. Valid
 - d. All of the above
 - e. B and C only
- 6. When designing or reading a research study, you should ask yourself if the study
 - a. Adopts procedures that will enable you to make supportable conclusions
 - b. Is currently a hot topic in the media
 - c. Has been implemented in a systematic fashion so accurate information is recorded
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only*

- 7. To carry out a research study, there are four stages in the process. These are
 - a. Getting started
 - b. Developing a plan
 - c. Implementing the study plan
 - d. Reporting
 - e. All of the above*
- 8. In getting started in a research project, the first step involves
 - a. Reviewing the literature*
 - b. Selecting a sample
 - c. Seeking study approval
 - d. Conducting a pilot study
 - e. All of the above

- 1. There are two fundamental questions about research: What is the focus of the inquiry, and what is its goal? Describe what is meant by research focus and research goal, and defend why being clear on these concerns makes for better research.
- 2. Distinguish between applied and basic research, and explain in what ways they can inform each other.
- 3. In the most typical situations of your own career, what motivations will most likely be at work in your own interest in research: organization, academic, or personal? Explain.
- 4. Accordingly (from your answer to #3), to which group(s) of stakeholders for research will you most likely need to be attentive? Why?
- 5. What is meant by the *adaptive strategy for planning a study* with stakeholders presented in the chapter? In which phase(s) do you need to brush up your own skills and interests? How can you do this?
- 6. Distinguish and give an example each of primary and secondary data sources.
- 7. As discussed in the chapter, name at least two of the characteristics of quality research. Then name at least two of the characteristics of a good researcher. What is the interrelationship between a good researcher and quality research?
- 8. List and describe the four stages of the research process.

- 1. Reductionism in research is
 - a. Explaining complex phenomena in terms of a single, narrow concept
 - b. A disciplinary lens, such as sociology or psychology, for viewing phenomena
 - c. The "goodness" of the findings of a study
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 2. When beginning to read the research literature about your possible topic,
 - a. Start with journals that are generally in your area of interest
 - b. Read the abstract of the article first
 - c. After reading the abstract, skip to the Discussion and Conclusion sections of the article
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 3. Determining the interests and preferences of clients and/or service providers is called
 - a. Gold reference
 - b. Replication study
 - c. Needs assessment*
 - d. End results evaluation
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Staff effectiveness can be evaluated by
 - a. Needs assessment
 - b. Standards compliance
 - c. Performance appraisal*
 - d. None of the above
 - e. A and C only
- 5. A cost effectiveness study
 - a. Is the same as a cost benefit analysis study
 - b. Is sometimes referred to as an economic impact study
 - c. Is used to compare program costs with program outcomes*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only

- 6. In developing a topic idea for a research project, the most important consideration(s) for the quality of the study is
 - a. The protection of human subjects
 - b. Whether the topic is plausible and feasible
 - c. That the topic is interesting
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 7. When selecting a research topic, consider its ultimate value to
 - a. Your discipline's knowledge base
 - b. Your profession's practice
 - c. Solving societal problems
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. B and C only

1. In this chapter, the entire research process was described as in the shape of an hourglass. Describe this analogy by labeling the illustration according to the research steps.



- 2. What are sources for research topic ideas? Describe and give an example of each of the sources discussed in the chapter: real-life problems, personal reflection, mentors, and reading.
- 3. Describe, by way of distinguishing, the *paradox behind science* and the *scientific revolution*. Explain how these concepts are useful to determining a research study topic.
- 4. Describe, by way of distinguishing, a replication study and an extension study. Explain how these are useful to determining a research study topic.
- 5. What is a *gold reference*, and how is it useful to determining a research study topic?
- 6. In choosing a topic for an applied research study, consider the *hierarchy for program analysis*. What is this hierarchy, and how is it useful for determining a study topic? Discuss at least two of the levels in the hierarchy.
- 7. In choosing a topic for a basic research study, consider its link to theory. What is theory, and how is it useful for determining a study topic?
- 8. How do you know if the topic you are considering for a research project is a good one? Discuss at least three of the considerations for topic *goodness* presented in the chapter.

- 1. The point of carrying out a review of literature is to
 - a. Find a suitable topic for your study
 - b. Identify a conceptual approach for your study
 - c. Locate rationale for the significance of your study
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 2. In carrying out a literature search, begin with
 - a. Visiting your public library
 - b. Conducting a computerized database search*
 - c. Identifying primary sources
 - d. None of the above
 - e. A and C only
- 3. In using your university or college library's database search resources,
 - a. Contact the reference librarian for help
 - b. Think of keywords that summarize your topic
 - c. Begin by looking up primary sources
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 4. Through a Boolean operator in a computerized database search,
 - a. Keywords can be connected together*
 - b. Reference librarians can be located to help you
 - c. The statistics used in a study are explained
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 5. A secondary source of research literature
 - a. Is used to identify primary sources of research study reports
 - b. Is an index or abstract with a list of research study reports
 - c. Is a publication with introductory background information about a topic*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only
- 6. A general reference source of research literature
 - a. Is used to identify primary sources of research study reports
 - b. Is an index or abstract with a list of research study reports
 - c. Is a publication with introductory background information about a topic
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*

- 7. A primary source of research literature
 - a. Is the ultimate goal of literature searches
 - b. Is the first step in carrying out a literature search
 - c. Is used to present original research
 - d. None of the above
 - e. A and C only*
- 8. In gauging the quality of a refereed journal article, you could consult
 - a. Its impact factor
 - b. The article influence score
 - c. A general reference
 - d. None of the above
 - e. A and B only*

- 1. What is a literature review? In what ways (at least three) does it assist a research project?
- 2. Why is it best to use a university or college library instead of a public library or Internet search when conducting a literature review?
- 3. What are the four basic phases for conducting a computerized database literature search?
- 4. Distinguish secondary, general reference, and primary sources of literature. Give an example of each.
- 5. What is a meta-analysis? Illustrate this type of inquiry by using a topic of interest to you.
- 6. As examples of general references, what is the difference between indices, abstracts, and bibliographies?
- 7. Describe the process for publishing research reports in refereed journals.
- 8. For the write-up of a literature search, what is an integrative literature review, and how is it different from a theoretical literature review?

1. A theory

- a. Is an explanation of why and how things happen
- b. Is a model for understanding a phenomenon
- c. Builds a relationship among concepts
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only

2. A theory is

- a. Parsimonious when it provides a concise and simple explanation
- b. Grand when it tries to explain wide ranging situations or behaviors
- c. Formal when it is a set of personal suppositions of how things work
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only

3. A concept is

- a. A label chosen by the researcher to describe a concrete phenomenon
- b. A label chosen by the researcher to describe an abstract phenomenon
- c. Defined by variables
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only

4. In the quantitative theoretical approach,

- a. The research goal is to explain or predict
- b. Measurement relies on closed-ended structured inquiry
- c. Is based on deductive reasoning
- d. All of the above*
- e. None of the above

5. In the qualitative theoretical approach,

- a. The research goal is to describe or interpret
- b. Measurement relies on unstructured or semistructured inquiry
- c. Is based on inductive reasoning
- d. All of the above*
- e. None of the above

6. The qualitative theoretical approach

- a. May be used to test theory
- b. May be used to build theory*
- c. Is not based on any theoretical foundation
- d. A and B only
- e. B and C only

- 7. Theory testing in the quantitative approach can be based on examining
 - a. A formal theory
 - b. A conceptual map
 - c. Ex post facto theory testing
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above
- 8. In a mixed-methods theoretical approach,
 - a. The disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative approaches are magnified
 - b. Triangulation allows for quantitative and qualitative approaches to be used together in the same study*
 - c. Either a quantitative or a qualitative approach is chosen according to which best addresses the research question
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only

- 1. What is theory? What is the difference between informal and formal theory?
- 2. As researchers, why do we have an obligation to account for our guiding theoretical orientations? That is, how is theory important to the research studies we carry out?
- 3. In building *formal theory*, we work with *concepts* and *variables*. Define these three labels, and give an example of each.
- 4. List at least four ways discussed in the chapter where theory can directly influence a research project.
- 5. Name and define the three theoretical approaches presented in the chapter that shape the way a research study is carried out.
- 6. Describe how the quantitative approach relies on deductive reasoning to test theory, in contrast to how the qualitative approach relies on inductive reasoning to build theory.
- 7. What is the mixed-methods theoretical approach, and how is the idea of triangulation at work with this approach? That is, why is mixed methods a useful approach to research?
- 8. Cite a research study in your area of interest with a quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-methods theoretical approach.

4. DETERMINE SCOPE

- 1. Examples of units of analysis include
 - a. Individuals
 - b. Groups
 - c. Artifacts
 - d. Time periods
 - e. All of the above*
- 2. The outcome or phenomenon we are trying to understand in a study is the
 - a. Independent variable
 - b. Dependent variable*
 - c. Unit of analysis
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 3. The *treatment* or program that affects the phenomenon we are trying to understand in a study is the
 - a. Independent variable*
 - b. Dependent variable
 - c. Intervening variable
 - d. B and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Which of the following is a correctly worded purpose statement?
 - a. Students who use drugs do so for social reasons and to have fun.
 - b. How does a college student spend his or her free time?
 - c. Given the limited research on this topic, interviewers explored if involvement in sport programs influenced the self-perceptions of youth.* *
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 5. A hypothesis is a
 - a. Conjecture about the relationship between two or more variables
 - b. Tentative statement about empirical reality
 - c. Statement that is used in quantitative and qualitative research
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above

- 6. This hypothesis states there is no relationship among two or more variables:
 - a. Null hypothesis*
 - b. Nondirectional hypothesis
 - c. Alternative hypothesis
 - d. A and B
 - e. None of the above
- 7. In a hypothesis, a positive relationship means the directionality of the two variables is
 - a. Opposite
 - b. The same*
 - c. Not related
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 8. In a qualitative research study, the research question is usually written
 - a. As a normative question
 - b. As a grand tour question*
 - c. With the independent variables first, followed by the dependent variables
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only

- 1. What does the term *unit of analysis* mean? Name at least five common units of analysis, as discussed in the chapter.
- 2. How is ecological fallacy committed? Give an example.
- 3. What are the three types of variables discussed in the chapter? Cite an example that illustrates the use of these three variable types.
- 4. What is the purpose of a *purpose statement*? Why is it important to identify a written purpose statement when planning a research project?
- 5. What advice would you give a beginning researcher on how to write a purpose statement for a quantitative study? For a qualitative study?
- 6. What is a research question? What are the two dimensions for what makes a good research question that were discussed in the chapter?
- 7. Define the term *hypothesis*, and name the three ways a hypothesis can be written. Give one example of each.
- 8. How are the purpose statement, research question, and hypothesis different, and are all needed for a research study?

- 1. To say we believe that research should be transformative means
 - a. Studies ultimately bring about change for the better*
 - b. Studies have statistically significant results
 - c. Theories are proved or disproved
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 2. Making the case for the significance of a study means it
 - a. Improves professional practice or service delivery
 - b. Addresses a social problem
 - c. Contributes to scientific knowledge
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 3. Societal problems are often defined for research significance by using a
 - a. Prevalence statistic
 - b. Incidence statistic
 - c. At-risk statistic
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Action research is also known as
 - a. Participatory action research
 - b. Community-based study
 - c. Cooperative inquiry
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 5. A significance statement
 - a. Is an explanation of the data collection methods used in a study
 - b. Establishes a context for why the study is important*
 - c. Is optional for a research proposal
 - d. All of the above
 - e. B and C only

- 1. What is transformative research? Why should it be a goal for leisure research?
- 2. Describe at least three ways in which a research study can be significant. Give an example of each.
- 3. In making the case for social importance, research that is significant relies on one of these number-based concepts: prevalence, incidence, and at-risk. Define and contrast each of these concepts.
- 4. How can you use secondary literature sources to make the case for the significance of a study?
- 5. What is a *significance statement*? Why is it important to have one for a research project?

1. Example(s) of populations are

- a. Sport management undergraduate majors attending colleges in North America during the 2015 school year
- b. Youth hostels located in London
- c. Children with documented developmental disabilities who participate in Saturday recreation programs sponsored by the city of Houston during the past year
- d. Music practice rooms operated at U.S. armed forces bases worldwide
- e. All of the above*

2. A sample for a research study

- a. Consists of the entire set of entities for a situation
- b. Is a subset of a population
- c. Can be determined randomly and nonrandomly
- d. All of the above
- e. B and C only*

3. Probability sampling

- a. Is when every entity of a population has the same chance of being selected for the sample
- b. Is when entities of a population are selected purposively or conveniently
- c. Is representative
- d. All of the above
- e. A and C only*

4. Nonprobability sampling

- a. Is when every entity of a population has the same chance of being selected for the sample
- b. Is when entities of a population are selected purposively or conveniently*
- c. Is representative
- d. All of the above
- e. A and C only

5. The simple random sampling technique

- a. Is used to find the most unbiased sample possible
- b. Requires knowing all members of the population
- c. Is an example of probability sampling
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only

- 6. The purposive sampling technique is also known as
 - a. Key informant sampling
 - b. Judgmental sampling
 - c. Systematic sampling
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above

7. Response rate

- a. Is the percentage of people who agree to participate in a study
- b. Gauges the magnitude of respondents and nonrespondents
- c. Should be reported in the final study report
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only
- 8. The experience sampling method
 - a. Can be used to samples the time use of individuals
 - b. Can be used to determine a confidence interval for a sample
 - c. Is an example of purposive sampling
 - d. A and C only*
 - e. None of the above

- 1. In preparing for a research study, you must determine whether you are studying a population or a sample. What is the difference between these two concepts, and why is it important to make this distinction?
- 2. The two major approaches to selecting a sample are probability and nonprobability. What are the differences in these two approaches?
- 3. Give an example of each of the following probability sampling techniques: simple random, systematic random, stratified random, and cluster.
- 4. In probability sampling, how is sample size determined? How is this decision related to the idea of *diminishing returns*?
- 5. Give an example of each of the following nonprobability sampling techniques: purposive, volunteer, quota, and snowball.
- 6. In probability sampling, what is *confidence interval*, and what is its importance?
- 7. What is meant by mixed-methods sampling? Cite an example.
- 8. Define response rate, and indicate what is considered an acceptable response rate.

- 1. Which study design(s) is appropriate for carrying out research according to a quantitative theoretical approach?
 - a. Phenomenology
 - b. Narrative analysis
 - c. Preexperimental*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only
- 2. Which study design(s) is appropriate for carrying out research according to a qualitative theoretical approach?
 - a. Phenomenology
 - b. Narrative analysis
 - c. Preexperimental
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 3. The distinguishing quality(ies) of the classic experimental design is
 - a. Random selection of participants
 - b. Random assignment of participants to an experimental or control group
 - c. Pretest and posttest of the program
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Quasi-experimental designs
 - a. Are considered less practical than classic experimental designs
 - b. Do not require random selection of participants*
 - c. Are used in an ethnographic study
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 5. Preexperimental designs
 - a. Have more rigor than quasi-experimental designs
 - b. Are used with either random selection or random assignment to an experimental or control group
 - c. Have considerable internal validity
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above*

- 6. Which of the following are threats to internal validity?
 - a. Maturation
 - b. History
 - c. Selection bias
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 7. Which of the following are threats to external validity?
 - a. Maturation
 - b. Selection bias
 - c. Hawthorne effect
 - d. All of the above
 - e. B and C only*
- 8. A case study design
 - a. Is an extensive, descriptive study of a specific unit of analysis
 - b. Can be used with quantitative and qualitative data collection means
 - c. Is the same design as an ethnographic study
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above
- 9. The grounded theory design
 - a. Is an approach designed to construct theory from the words and actions of those individuals under study *
 - b. Is used to study dominant cultural narratives
 - c. Is the same design as phenomenology
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 10. Trustworthiness in qualitative research designs is based on
 - a. Truthfulness
 - b. Applicability
 - c. Consistency
 - d. Internal validity
 - e. A, B, and C only*

- 1. In a research study, what does it mean to determine a *design* for a study? Is your choice of design dependent on whether you are using a quantitative or qualitative approach? How or how not?
- 2. Name and describe a quantitative study design, and indicate how it may be used to answer leisure research questions by discussing how a study would be carried out using this design.
- 3. In a classic experimental design, what is the distinction between random selection and random assignment? What does *pretest vs. posttest* mean?
- 4. Name and describe a qualitative study design, and indicate how it may be used to answer leisure research questions by discussing how a study would be carried out using this design.
- 5. In the survey design, what is the distinction between a cross-sectional survey and a longitudinal survey? Cite an example of each.
- 6. How do the criteria of internal validity and external validity influence the choice of a quantitative design?
- 7. List and describe the three strategies discussed in the chapter for increasing trustworthiness in qualitative designs. How are these strategies similar and dissimilar to internal and external validity?
- 8. What is a mixed-method design, and what is the difference between a concurrent and a sequential mixed-methods design?

- 1. According to the logic of measurement, the nominal definition is
 - a. External validity for the instrumentation
 - b. Variables selected to reflect the working definition of a concept*
 - c. The instrument for measuring variables
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 2. According to the logic of measurement, the operational definition is
 - a. External validity for the instrument
 - b. Variables selected to reflect the working definition of a concept
 - c. The instrument for measuring variables*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 3. Reactive measures
 - a. Include physical traces and documents
 - b. Include questionnaires and interviews
 - c. Are measurement instruments for creating and measuring responses
 - d. A and C only
 - e. B and C only*
- 4. A multiple variable measurement instrument
 - a. Is used with multiple items to measure a variable
 - b. Is used with multiple variables to measure a concept*
 - c. Is an example of nonreactive measures
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only
- 5. Instrument validity is
 - a. The consistency of an instrument's measurement
 - b. The Reactive measures
 - c. The accuracy of an instruments measurement*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only
- 6. Face validity and content validity are approaches used to assess
 - a. Construct validity
 - b. Whether the instrument measures the variable it is designed to measure
 - c. Criterion validity
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. B and C only

- 7. Concurrent validity is used to
 - a. Predict a future behavior or event
 - b. Compare a new instrument with a previously validated instrument
 - c. Determine whether two or more groups of people score differently on a concept in expected ways*
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 8. A measuring instrument can be unreliable if
 - a. Questions are ambiguous and unclear
 - b. Administration procedures are inconsistent
 - c. Respondents are tired or anxious
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 9. Approaches to determining an instrument's reliability include
 - a. Interrater reliability
 - b. Test-retest reliability
 - c. Cronbach's coefficient alpha
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*

- 1. As discussed in the chapter, the logic of measurement behind leisure research has four parts. What is the *logic* of measurement and its four parts?
- 2. Complete the table below with examples of variable, measurement instrument, and units of measurement:

Concept	Variable	Measurement instrument	Units of measurement
Having fun			

- 3. What is the distinction between reactive and nonreactive measures? Give an example of each.
- 4. What is the distinction between a multiple variable measure and a multiple-item measure? Give an example of each.
- 5. As measurement instruments, what is the difference between a scale and an index? Cite an example of each.
- 6. What does it mean when you claim that a measurement instrument is valid? What does it mean to say that a measurement instrument is reliable? How are both important to measuring in leisure research?
- 7. What does it mean when researchers reporting research results say that normative data exist for the measurement instrument?
- 8. Describe at least two resources for locating a good measurement instrument for a research study.

- 1. Data collection triangulation in the same study
 - a. Applies to the use of only quantitative data collection tools
 - b. Applies to the use of only qualitative data collection tools
 - c. Includes quantitative and qualitative data collection tools*
 - d. Is not recommended in leisure studies
 - e. None of the above
- 2. Structured questionnaires
 - a. Contain a set of preestablished questions
 - b. Follow strict administration and scoring rules
 - c. Can be done as a face-to-face interview
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only

3	The following is an example of which type of closed-ended question?
٠.	
	After exercise here at the fitness center I feel better about my body (check one answer only):
	Strongly Agree
	Agree
	Neither Agree or Disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly Disagree

- a. Semantic differential
- b. Adjective checklist
- c. Dichotomous
- d. Likert scale*
- e. None of the above
- 4. For mail and Internet questionnaires, a tailored design strategy
 - a. Has been found to improve response rate
 - b. Is a method for analyzing quantitative data
 - c. Involves a series of reminders to respondents about filling out the questionnaire
 - d. A and C only*
 - e. None of the above
- 5. Factors that affect the response rate to a questionnaire include
 - a. Its length
 - b. Provision of a postage-paid envelope
 - c. Respondents' interest in the topic
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only

- 6. To conduct observations, your choices are
 - a. Continuous observations
 - b. Intermittent observations
 - c. Random observations
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 7. Test and scale data collection tools can be used to measure
 - a. Achievement
 - b. Aptitude
 - c. Attitude
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 8. In an unstructured in-depth interview data collection approach,
 - a. Skill and practice in active listening is important
 - b. Begin with a grand tour question
 - c. Verbal probes may be needed
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 9. A focus group
 - a. Uses structured and closed-ended questions
 - b. Is a freewheeling conversation among group members
 - c. Is a planned group interview carried out as a formal meeting*
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 10. In participant observation, the marginal participant role is when the observer
 - a. Is present at the scene of the action but does not participate
 - b. Adopts the role of a peripheral yet accepted participant*
 - c. Becomes a full member of the group being studied
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 11. Projective methods of collecting data
 - a. Are useful when direct questioning and observing are inappropriate
 - b. Are not used to measure people's attitudes and beliefs effectively
 - c. Employ the use of photographs, word associations, cartoons, and drawings
 - d. A and C only*
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Define data collection triangulation, and discuss at least three reasons for using it in a leisure research project.
- 2. Name and describe at least two quantitative data collection tools and at least two qualitative data collection tools available in leisure research.
- 3. Describe at least two of the ways a structured questionnaire administered over the Internet is different from a structured questionnaire administered in person to respondents.
- 4. In a structured questionnaire, what is the difference between a closed-ended question and an open-ended question? Provide an illustrative example of each.
- 5. Write survey questions that illustrate each of the following types of questions: dichotomous, Likert scale, semantic differential, and forced ranking.
- 6. In carrying out unstructured interviews, under what circumstances would you use descriptive information, discovery, and problem-solving forms? That is, in what ways are they distinguished in the data that these interview types collect?
- 7. What is the participant observation data collection tool? Explain the *participant observation continuum* presented in the chapter.
- 8. What is a record/document review? Accordingly, draw a distinction between latent and manifest content.

- 1. In research studies, the concept of nonmaleficence indicates study participants should
 - a. Not be placed at risk for physical harm
 - b. Not be placed at risk for psychological harm
 - c. Have the right to privacy
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 2. Loss of confidentiality occurs when the researcher
 - a. Can identify a response as belonging to a specific person*
 - b. Publicly communicates data about study participants
 - c. Does not uphold beneficence
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 3. The purpose of an informed consent is to
 - a. Ensure that potential study participants have enough information about the study to freely decide to participate
 - b. Explain how the information provided by study participants will be kept confidential
 - c. Describe the foreseeable risks of participation in a study
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Deception and plagiarism in research can be tolerated when
 - a. Study participants will not be harmed in any way
 - b. The results of the study make an important contribution to the literature in the field
 - c. Study participants are promised anonymity and confidentiality
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above*
- 5. According to the ethical principle of honesty
 - a. Ghost authorship on research reports is appropriate
 - b. Gift authorship on research reports is appropriate
 - c. Authorship credit on reports goes to those who have contributed significantly to the study*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above

- 6. The training and experience of researchers is highly desirable, but
 - a. Such qualifications do not affect research ethics
 - b. Researchers must still know their limitations*
 - c. Such nonmaleficence can be ignored under certain situations
 - d. A and B only
 - e. A and C only

- 1. What do we mean by *ethics*, and how do they apply to research? What is a professional code of ethics? Give an example.
- 2. Define nonmaleficence. Identify and describe four categories of maleficence risks that should be minimized when conducting a research study.
- 3. What is the ethical principle of beneficence? Identify and describe the three types of beneficence that can be used in a research study.
- 4. Ethical principles in research include beneficence, respect, honesty, justice, and competence. For the following situations, identify which of these ethical principles is being violated:
 - A camp director wants to determine how exercise affects the behavior of children attending his camp. The study is done without the parents' or children's knowledge.
 - As part of an experiment, children attending a camp are offered the opportunity to participate in novel yet physically demanding evening activities (e.g., hip-hop dance, Zumba classes). Only campers who are at the "high" end of normal weight are selected for these special night programs.
 - During a focus group, feedback is given about the quality of hiking trails in a national park. The researcher feels some sentiments shared are biased and consequently omits them from her reporting.
 - A college student is hired one summer to drop in, unannounced, at city pools and evaluate the performance of lifeguards as well as the cleanliness of operations.
 - A faculty member asks students to answer 300 questions dealing with any recreation activities they may have ever tried. No advantages for why students should complete the survey are made known to them.
- 5. What is the difference between maintaining confidentiality and assuring anonymity in a research study?
- 6. What is informed consent, and how does it help in treating research subjects respectfully?
- 7. In terms of the ethical principle of competence, describe how you would rate yourself.

- 1. A research proposal
 - a. Is a preliminary plan for what you intend to study
 - b. Is used by approving entities to determine the adequacy of planned research
 - c. Is used to assure study participants that they will not be harmed
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 2. Typical approval entities for research proposals include
 - a. Friends and relatives
 - b. Study site officials/administrators
 - c. A thesis/dissertation committee
 - d. B and C only*
 - e. None of the above
- 3. An institutional review board (IRB) is
 - a. A required approval entity when your organization receives federal funds
 - b. Responsible for determining that the researcher will be treating study participants ethically
 - c. Not necessary when you are studying adults
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. When you submit a research proposal to an IRB, the two kinds of reviews are expedited and nonexpedited. An expedited review
 - a. Occurs when vulnerable study participants, such as young children, are used in the study
 - b. Is necessary when data collection techniques are controversial
 - c. Is appropriate when the proposed study presents only minimal risk to study participants*
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 5. Getting the most out of your efforts to write a research proposal requires attention to these tips:
 - a. Follow a writing routine or ritual for getting started
 - b. Plan on making many revisions
 - c. Always have three updated backups of your text file
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only

- 6. Which topic(s) is included in a research proposal?
 - a. Literature Review
 - b. Results
 - c. References
 - d. A and C only*
 - e. None of the above

ESSAY

- 1. Explain why virtually all research projects require some kind of permission before they may be conducted. Why do you think this is positive for the quality of the professional literature?
- 2. Name and describe at least two of the approval entities presented in the chapter.
- 3. What is a research proposal? What is its purpose?
- 4. Name and define at least three of the language and writing styles presented in the chapter for preparing research proposals.
- 5. Describe at least two of the "blunders" in research proposal writing that you personally need to overcome.
- 6. Describe how the three major categories that appear in a line-item budget of a proposal are calculated: personnel, other direct costs, and indirect costs.

1. The purpose of a pilot test is to

- a. Check the adequacy of data collection instruments
- b. Determine whether the procedures in the study are workable
- c. Appraise the proposed data analysis techniques
- d. All of the above*
- e. A and B only

2. A pilot test

- a. Is used to guarantee the success of the main, larger scale study
- b. Is used to assess the feasibility of a full-scale study
- c. Is used to identify the politics that may affect the main, larger scale study
- d. All of the above
- e. B and C only*

3. When conducting a pilot test, you should

- a. Choose sample members who match the main study population
- b. Use a convenience sample
- c. Use a larger sample size
- d. All of the above
- e. A and B only*

4. Data collected in a pilot test

- a. May be combined with the data collected from the main study
- b. Should not be discussed in the final main study report
- c. Does not require approval beforehand from an ethical review board
- d. All of the above
- e. None of the above*

5. Pilot testing an interview

- a. Helps to determine that the questions can and will be answered*
- b. Provides more data for the main study
- c. Requires mailing the questionnaire with a cover letter
- d. All of the above
- e. A and B only

6. Pilot testing a questionnaire

- a. Can increase response rates in the larger, main study
- b. Reduces the possibility of missing data in the larger, main study
- c. Helps obtain more valid responses on the final version of the questionnaire
- d. All of the above*
- e. None of the above

- 7. For studies in which a structured or participant observation data collection method is used, a pilot test
 - a. Is not feasible or necessary
 - b. Can be an important way to check the ethical care possible in the study situation*
 - c. Cannot be carried out using the observation protocol planned for the main study
 - d. B and C only
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Define pilot testing, and describe at least three purposes of pilot testing as discussed in the chapter.
- 2. In a pilot test, one data collection method is used to shore up another data collection method to be used in the main study. Describe an example of how this may work.
- 3. List and describe at least three of the best practices presented in the chapter for conducting pilot tests.
- 4. Where are the results of pilot tests reported in a final study report?
- 5. Name at least two tips each for piloting an interview, questionnaire, and observation.

- 1. Taking stock of materials, supplies, and equipment needed to collect data includes
 - a. Making sure data collection forms are prepared, proofed, and reproduced
 - b. Reserving necessary equipment needed to collect data
 - c. Orienting people assisting with data collection
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above
- 2. Proofreading data collection materials, such as questionnaires, requires
 - a. Plenty of lead time
 - b. Printed versions
 - c. Reference materials
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 3. To prepare field staff for data collection, training may be necessary for expressive skills. This includes
 - a. The difference between open and closed body postures*
 - b. Probing, or asking for clarification
 - c. Data verification
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 4. When a team of researchers works on a study, the principal investigator (PI)
 - a. Is the primary data collector
 - b. Converts raw data into electronic format
 - c. Provides clerical support
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above*
- 5. In coordinating the efforts of a research team, you may use a person-loading chart to
 - a. Present, in illustration format, the calendar time projected for each task
 - b. Itemize the individual or position assigned to each task and how much time is estimated to complete the task*
 - c. Detail the budget for the study
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above

- 6. A Gantt chart is used to
 - a. Itemize the individual or position assigned to each task
 - b. Illustrate the calendar time needed to complete each research-related task*
 - c. Estimate how many hours are needed to complete an itemized task
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Before starting with data collection, what other preparations do you need to make?
- 2. List some materials, supplies, and/or equipment that may be needed for collecting data.
- 3. Identify at least two techniques discussed in the chapter for avoiding proofreading mistakes.
- 4. Explain why it may be useful to hire indigenous field staff to collect data.
- 5. Distinguish between expressive and receptive skills development for preparing interviewers for a study.
- 6. Define data verification, and outline two ways it can be accomplished.
- 7. List and describe at least three of the typical key players on a research team.
- 8. What is the difference between a person-loading chart and a Gantt chart? How are these tools useful in preparing for data collection?

- 1. Information collected in a research study comes in the form of
 - a. Numbers*
 - b. Words
 - c. Statistics
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only
- 2. To select the appropriate statistical tool to analyze quantitative data, you must first know the
 - a. Level of numerical measurement*
 - b. Halo effect
 - c. Computer language used
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 3. An example of a ratio level of measurement is
 - a. Pool water temperature
 - b. Men outspend women 2:1 in terms of sports equipment purchases
 - c. Team standings at the end of a tournament
 - d. Number of sick days called in by lifeguards during the past calendar year*
 - e. None of the above
- 4. Frequency distributions are used to
 - a. Describe how data are dispersed in a sample
 - b. List the variables and the number of responses to each
 - c. Show the location of any individual response relative to all the others in a data set
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and B only
- 5. For quantitative data,
 - a. Univariate statistics are focused on one variable at a time*
 - b. Bivariate statistics are focused on one variable at a time
 - c. Textual data are interpreted
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 6. Relative comparisons can be described by determining
 - a. Chi-square values
 - b. Rates and percentages*
 - c. Frequency distributions
 - d. All of the above
 - e. B and C only

- 7. Descriptive data with measures of central tendency
 - a. Include standard deviations and ranges
 - b. Are determined by calculating percentages
 - c. Are used to present the frequency distribution's center using a single value*
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 8. The most precise measure of variability is the
 - a. Mean
 - b. Standard deviation*
 - c. Range
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 9. A correlation coefficient
 - a. Is used to determine statistical significance
 - b. Is used to analyze differences between two variables
 - c. Is a numerical index of the relationship between two variables*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above
- 10. A correlation coefficient that is positive means
 - a. As one variable increases in value, the second variable also increases
 - b. As one variable decreases in value, the second variable also decreases
 - c. The strength of the relationship is very high
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*

- 1. The information collected in a study can be in numerical form and/or nonnumerical form. Define each of these data forms, and give at least two examples of each.
- 2. Name and define the four levels of numerical data.
- 3. What is a frequency distribution, and how can it be used to describe numerical information?
- 4. What are the distinctions in how comparisons are made with rates, ratios, proportions, and percentages?
- 5. Define measures of central tendency. Contrast these measures with measures of variability. Give an example of each.
- 6. Explain the difference between univariate and bivariate statistics.
- 7. What does a correlation coefficient describe? Give an example.
- 8. What is the difference between descriptive and inferential statistics?

- 1. Qualitative data analysis requires
 - a. An inductive thinking process*
 - b. A deductive thinking process
 - c. Statistics
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 2. Differences between qualitative and quantitative data analysis are that qualitative data analysis
 - a. Begins during the collection of data
 - b. Is circular
 - c. Is iterative
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 3. The first step in the qualitative data analysis process is
 - a. Preparing expanded accounts*
 - b. Coding text
 - c. Creating a data display
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above
- 4. In managing qualitative data, you may use memoing, which is
 - a. Storing information on index cards
 - b. Writing notes with tentative explanations on the expanded accounts*
 - c. Cutting up field notes and placing them in themed file folders
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above
- 5. During coding in qualitative data analysis,
 - a. Expanded accounts are categorized into patterns
 - b. The actual language of the research participant is used for labels
 - c. A code book is used to list all the codes created
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 6. The data display type that is helpful to understanding the connections among bits of information is called
 - a. Network
 - b. Matrix*
 - c. Code
 - d. All of the above
 - e. None of the above

- 7. Strategies for making conclusions from qualitative data include
 - a. Clustering
 - b. Counting
 - c. Making metaphors
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 8. Computer assistance in analyzing qualitative data
 - a. Is not available
 - b. Cannot be used to build grounded theory
 - c. Does not replace researcher insights about what the findings mean*
 - d. B and C only
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Define qualitative data analysis, and give an example to illustrate your definition.
- 2. One of the big distinctions between the analysis of quantitative data and the analysis of qualitative data is the thinking process underlying them. Name and describe the thinking process for each, and explain how this makes them different.
- 3. Describe the cyclical nature of qualitative data analysis.
- 4. In qualitative data analysis, what is the difference between raw data and mega-data? Give an example of mega-data.
- 5. When you are managing qualitative data, what is the distinction between expanded and condensed accounts? Give an example of each.
- 6. In managing qualitative data with data displays, name and distinguish the two types of displays discussed in the chapter. Draw a sketch of each display type.
- 7. Describe at least three of the strategies for drawing conclusions in qualitative analysis that were presented in the chapter.
- 8. How are conclusions verified from qualitative analysis? Describe a way to check for data quality as well as a way to test explanations.

1. The following visual aid is called a

Characteristic	N	%
Gender		
Male	80	43
Female	107	57
Age		
18-21	63	34
22-25	53	28
26-29	71	38
Year in college		
First-year	22	12
Sophomore	37	20
Junior	25	13
Senior	59	32
Graduate	44	23
Living Situation		
On-campus	109	59
Off-campus	78	41

- a. Histogram
- b. Word table
- c. Frequency distribution*
- d. Grouped word table
- e. None of the above
- 2. Guidelines for setting up the categories in a grouped frequency distribution include
 - a. Use between three and eight categories
 - b. Use mutually exclusive categories
 - c. Consider the appropriateness of compressing and/or condensing data
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 3. One way to set up a numerical table is to use percentages, valid percentages, and/or cumulative percentages. A cumulative percentage
 - a. Is the percentage after dropping missing or skipped answers
 - b. Is based on percentage of responses in a particular category relative to all other response categories
 - c. Is a running tally of valid percentages*
 - d. A and B only
 - e. None of the above

4. Pie graphs

- a. Are used to present data in a ratio or interval levels of measurement
- b. Should have nontouching columns to show the response categories
- c. Should have touching columns to show the response categories
- d. A and C only
- e. None of the above*

5. For a line graph,

- a. A continuous line is used to connect data points over time
- b. The horizontal axis represents the dependent variable
- c. No more than five "slices" are arranged in descending order to present the findings
- d. All of the above
- e. A and B only*

6. A chart

- a. Is used to present either a theoretical model or a conceptual model
- b. Is used to present multivariate statistical model results
- c. Comprises enclosed boxes, circles, and/or squares that are connected with lines or arrows
- d. All of the above*
- e. None of the above

- 1. When preparing a visual summary of your study results, first determine whether you will present them as ungrouped or grouped data. What is the difference between these two forms?
- 2. Name and describe at least two guidelines for setting up a grouped frequency distribution table.
- 3. Describe the contents of a word table.
- 4. Explain what is meant by *collapsing data*.
- 5. Name and describe at least two of the typical figures that can be created to summarize numerical data. Make a rough sketch of each to illustrate.
- 6. Define *missing data*, and explain how a valid percentage is calculated when responses are missing.

- 1. A final report written in the academic format is focused on
 - a. Applied research results to internal stakeholders of an organization
 - b. Applied research results to external stakeholders of an organization
 - c. Service provisions and/or management implications from the findings
 - d. A and C only
 - e. None of the above*
- 2. In a final research study report, an abstract
 - a. Is the most important part of the report
 - b. Is a synopsis of the entire study
 - c. Should be written to stand alone, that is, to be understandable without reading anything more
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. B and C only
- 3. The following subsections not included in the study proposal report are added when creating the final report:
 - a. Results
 - b. Discussion
 - c. Conclusions
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. A and C only
- 4. The template for reporting results for a quantitative study include
 - a. Restate the research question or hypothesis
 - b. Name the statistical test used
 - c. Cite the obtained test value
 - d. Identify the probability level associated with the obtained test value
 - e. All of the above*
- 5. Strategies for writing up qualitative results in a report include
 - a. Use a narrative style
 - b. Adopt an emic/etic perspective
 - c. Use thick descriptions
 - d. Use metaphors and analogies
 - e. All of the above*

- 6. In the Discussion section of the final report,
 - a. The answers to the research questions are summarized
 - b. Plausible explanations for inconsistent previous studies are outlined
 - c. Recommendations for professional practice and/or future research are stated
 - d. A and B only*
 - e. None of the above
- 7. The Recommendations section of the final report is focused on
 - a. Professional practice and policy
 - b. Future research
 - c. Acknowledgements
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only*
- 8. Dissemination of the final report refers to
 - a. Citing references
 - b. Preparing a study proposal
 - c. Informing others about the study results*
 - d. B and C only
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Why is the research process incomplete without the preparation and communication of a written report?
- 2. Name and contrast the two types of final research reports.
- 3. In terms of subsections in the report, how is the final report different from the proposal report?
- 4. Define and explain the purpose of an abstract in a final report.
- 5. How does the Discussion section in the final report differ from the Results section? That is, what is the purpose of each?
- 6. How does the Conclusion section in the final report differ from the Discussion section? That is, contrast the purpose of each?
- 7. Contrast what is contained in the two types of recommendations made in a final report: (1) Recommendations for Professional Practice and Policy and (2) Recommendations for Future Research.
- 8. Describe at least three ways discussed in the chapter that a written research report can be disseminated.

- 1. No matter the form of a public presentation, the worst mistake(s) you can make is
 - a. Not preparing and practicing
 - b. Not focusing on your audience
 - c. Not knowing when to stop
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 2. Public presentations at a professional meeting typically require
 - a. Submitting a typed copy of the research report or abstract beforehand
 - b. Peer review beforehand
 - c. Blind review beforehand
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above
- 3. In handling questions from the audience during a public research presentation,
 - a. Beat them to the punch and answer questions not asked
 - b. Argue your point to give the impression of competence
 - c. Admit when you do not know the answer*
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and B only
- 4. In preparing effective visual aids for a presentation,
 - a. Break down complex ideas into simpler parts
 - b. Always choose PowerPoint slides
 - c. Present tables from the written report as handouts
 - d. All of the above
 - e. A and C only*
- 5. Specific preparations to make for the ultimate success of a public research presentation include
 - a. Practice conquering stage fright
 - b. Plan exactly how the presentation will begin
 - c. Strategize for handling questions
 - d. All of the above*
 - e. None of the above

- 1. Name and describe the two types of audiences for a public presentation of your research.
- 2. A popular peer-reviewed presentation of research at a professional meeting is called the *poster*. Describe this format.
- 3. In planning a presentation of your research, what are at least three steps you should take to determine its focus?
- 4. Offer at least three points of advice in preparing and using PowerPoint slides, transparencies, and handouts in presentations.
- 5. What are at least two pointers to remember when responding to difficult questions posed during an oral research presentation?