

**1: Best Sociology Colleges in Pennsylvania**

*This article discusses how quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined in a single evaluation study to better understand the phenomenon in question.*

Atlantic, [ edit ] Following shakedown off Bermuda and escort training at Casco Bay, Maine , the destroyer escort reported to Norfolk for anti-submarine duty in the Atlantic off the Cape Verde Islands. Throughout May, this task group followed up submarine reports, chasing down sonar contacts that usually proved to be fish or debris. On 6 May, Buckley rammed and sank an enemy submarine, verifying that the waters of the South Atlantic did hide enemy submarines. On 29 May, while closing a reported submarine, Block Island suffered a torpedo hit. Barr pursued the U-boat , later identified as U , until around when a torpedo struck Barr as well. The explosion wrecked the ship aft of the No. Throughout the night, Barr stayed dead in the water while Robert I. Elmore; and the Dutch tug, Antic took over and finally towed Barr into port six days later. Barr stayed in drydock at Casablanca until 2 July while the wreckage of her damaged stern was burned off, spaces cleared of oil and debris, and stern plates welded on for the trip home. After a brief stop in Bermuda to avoid a major tropical storm, the ships arrived at the Boston Navy Yard on 25 July. The destroyer escort spent the next three months in drydock being refurbished and converted to a high speed transport. From late January to early February, the fast transport loaded supplies, made repairs, and took part in demolition and reconnaissance training on reefs east of Ulithi. The transports rehearsed D-Day movements at Tinian on the 12th and 13th. Then, the advance group headed for Iwo Jima on the 14th. Barr arrived off the southern end of the island on 16 February; and, that afternoon, her embarked UDT 13 successfully completed its first mission. The team placed a navigational light on the hazardous Higashi Rocks despite coming under enemy fire. Barr, however, solved the problem, silencing that gunfire with some of her own. The next morning, following intense shelling by fire support ships and aircraft, the fast transports approached the eastern beaches for reconnaissance by the UDTs. During the afternoon, they made a reconnaissance of the western beaches in the same manner. Her boats, manned by UDT frogmen, assisted in guiding marines to the landing beaches. Then, until 3 March, the high speed transport took screening station at night and anchored during the day while UDTs worked with the beachmasters to remove underwater obstacles. For the next week, the fast transport prepared for the invasion of Okinawa. The warships arrived off Okinawa on 25 March and approached Kerama Retto to reconnoiter the southwestern tip of Tokashiki. The Japanese maintained an almost constant aerial onslaught in the early days of the invasion. Barr did not close Okinawa on D-Day, 1 April, but remained in the transport area as a part of the anti-submarine screen. The fast transport remained off the Hagushi anchorage providing anti-air and anti-submarine defense until 27 May, when she headed for Saipan as a convoy escort. Leaving the convoy at Saipan, Barr continued on to the Philippines, visiting Leyte and Manila before joining the screen of an Okinawa-bound convoy at Lingayen Gulf. The fast transport resumed screening duties at Okinawa after her return late in June. During several trips, the fast transport received on board 1, former POWs. After the evacuation was completed, Barr made one mail run to Iwo Jima between 24 and 28 September and then remained in port at Tokyo until 12 October, when she was ordered to Nagasaki for duty with the U. She served there as a base of operations and as a barracks ship until 1 December when she began the voyage to the United States. Decommissioned and in reserve[ edit ] The transport arrived at San Diego on 19 December and, after voyage repairs, continued on to the east coast where she was placed out of commission, in reserve, at Green Cove Springs, Florida , on 12 July Barr remained in the Atlantic Reserve Fleet until the early s. Her name was struck from the Navy List on 1 June , and she was sunk as a target off Vieques Island on 26 March

**2: Ethnobotany Research & Applications ( | shynne alduheza - www.enganchecubano.com**

*Strategies of research in the field are examined, with particular reference to quantitative documentation. To avoid fruitless controversy it is necessary to distinguish among frequency data, incidents (and histories), and institutionalized norms and statuses; and to recognize that the "participant.*

Social norms are rules for conduct. The norms are the standards by reference to which behavior is judged and approved or disapproved. A norm in this sense is not a statistical average of actual behavior but rather a cultural shared definition of desirable behavior. To the extent that a particular social norm actually is effective, one will be able, of course, to observe a marked actual regularity of social acts in recurrent situations of a particular kind. Thus there will be more or less standardized ways in which people are seen to behave when conducting trade, engaging in religious worship, or playing games. A sheer uniformity in behavior, however, does not necessarily mean that a norm is involved. The uniformity may simply represent such separate individual reactions to a common stimulus as fleeing from fire. Nevertheless, the great majority of important social interactions are guided in part by norms. The history of the concept of norm goes back as far as men have recorded their ideas of proper conduct. Closely related concepts, however, have long been current in the discourse of the social sciences: Customs are more than mere aggregates of individual habits; a custom is always tacitly supported by social approval. Negative social sanctions, ranging from ridicule to extreme punishment, may be applied when there is deviation from custom. Of course, sanctions may not occur when the deviation is as slight as failure to take a siesta in the tropics; but they will certainly occur when it is as great as marrying a forbidden clan-sister. Thus, the actual enduring regularities in social behavior, accepted by and approved by most members of a group or society, may be called customs. The standards used for judging conformity are the norms for the customary behavior. The concept of folkways was developed by the American sociologist William Graham Sumner and by his followers. Sumner considered folkways to be group habits or customs which originated in the repetition of adjustive acts by individuals responding to a similar social or individual need. The folkways, thus, are concrete patterns of behavior; they have usually been interpreted as the outcome of largely unreflective trial-and-error adjustments. Customs that are regarded by general agreement as highly important and obligatory, as evidenced by strong sentiments against deviation and by severe punishments for violation, are usually called mores. When certain folkways become well-established and are supported by the belief that they are proper, right, and indispensable, they become mores. They are ordinarily thought to be supported by diffuse common agreement. Examples of mores include incest taboos and rules against in-group murder, rape, cannibalism, and other practices generally regarded as especially heinous. Some definitions of mores include as a defining criterion the presence of some overt philosophical justification of these customs as indispensable to social welfare. Social pressures arising from group acceptance of norms have definite consequences for behavior. When, for example, at a given time an individual is confronted with incompatible norms held by different individuals or groups that are important to him, his behavior is likely to show signs of psychological conflict or tension. Unanimity of support for norms within a group or society powerfully checks tendencies of individuals toward deviance Asch , chapter Norms are learned by individuals in social intercourse with others—that is, in the process of socialization. By definition, then, norms are shared by two or more individuals Sherif Some norms are particular to quite small groups, such as a husband-wife pair or a clique of friends, while other norms may be held by a large collectivity that is one of several existing in one nation for example, Muslims and Christians in Lebanon. Still other norms may be shared by most adult members of a nation or of an entire civilization for example, those pertaining to monogamous marriage. Norms are always to some extent both generalized and generalizable. They may refer to all human beings at all times and in all places, or they may refer only to a specific category of person in a specific type of situation. Ultimately this propriety or Tightness traces back to some standard of value that is taken without further justification as valid by the individual or group in question. Norms thus are more than an idiosyncratic expression of the wants or desires of a particular person. Even quite specific norms imply a basis for assent by someone other than the norm sender himself Rommetveit , pp. At the same time,

norms actually can guide conduct only if they prescribe or proscribe identifiable courses of action; therefore norms are more specific and socially imperative than values or ideals. Norms may arise in relation to any aspect of human activity and experience that comes to be regarded as of any importance or consequence. There are norms for perceiving, feeling, thinking, judging, evaluating, and acting. Thus, there are cognitive and logical norms for carrying on scientific investigations, aesthetic norms for judging music or sculpture, and norms of grammar and style for writing in a particular language. A religious believer relates himself to supernatural or transcendent entities in accordance with certain norms. Convention, etiquette, fads, and fashions are all regulated by norms. Finally, there are the norms of moral conduct which guide direct social interaction. Norms are exceedingly diverse not only in their objects but also in respect to their important properties in different societies and in different historical periods. Some norms are widely known, accepted, and followed, whereas others are characterized by low consensus and only partial conformity. Some norms are learned early in life, through identification with parents or other primary agents of socialization; others are acquired in later life through secondary social relations. Norms not thus internalized can be enforced only through external rewards and penalties. Great variations exist in consistency of enforcement, source of authority, degree of allowable variation in conformity, extent of deviance, and type of enforcing agency

**Morris** Norms and social needs. What is it that makes a norm normative? How does a norm acquire the obligatory quality which distinguishes it from a simple habit or preference? How does it occur that a man accepts the legitimacy of a criterion for conduct that results in his disadvantage in the immediate situation of action? Sorokin , chapter 4, on law norms. The answer seems to be that norms arise to meet recurrent problems. They tend to be initiated or proposed by someone who finds an immediate agreement to be in some way advantageous. Of course, the types of advantages so obtained exhibit great qualitative diversity. There are several intrinsically different kinds of norms that vary according to the locus of human activity and experience to which they are applied. Technical norms have to do with effective means for the attainment of specific goals Pepper They define effective action in dealing with physical and biological as well as social elements in immediate situations. When the satisfaction of individual desire for pleasure and affection is the goal we may call such norms hedonic. When the individual must choose between different personal purposes and satisfactions, his choices may be guided by personality-integrative norms. Hedonic or technical norms and the norms of personality integration, however, are insufficient for guiding social interaction, which involves the interests and claims of many persons and groups. Hence, distinctively social rules emerge, specifying rights, duties, disabilities, and privileges. The most definite, strongly held, and socially obligatory norms regulating conduct may be called institutional norms. However, there is no sharp line between institutional and noninstitutional norms. The degree of institutionalization can be represented statistically as a profile exhibiting more or less of each one of the characteristics just reviewed. To the extent that there is consensus concerning the norms regulating conduct, a pragmatic basis is available for integration among the persons and other units making up social systems

**Parsons** Choice among various norms regulating interaction may in turn be decided with reference to generalized norms that transcend the particular context and shade over by degrees into cultural values. It is generally thought that a cultural system generates complex pressures toward consistency among its beliefs, values, and norms. A central empirical problem in the sociological study of norms is to ascertain whether norms combine into systems, and, if so, what conditions and reasons govern these combinations. Thus, there are six main foci of normative regulation of human conduct: The greater the agreement upon a norm among the members of a social system, the greater in general will be the pressures for conformity to that norm. Some norms acquire great force by sheer unanimity; for example, in a society in which nearly everyone speaks only Chinese, one must speak Chinese to be understood. If compliance with norms is induced primarily by punishment, much surveillance is required; conformity induced by rewards, by intrinsic satisfactions, or by consensus does not need to involve detailed monitoring and supervision. When persons or collectivities are highly interdependent within a closed social boundary, the implicit threat of withdrawal of reciprocity is an effective sanction against nonconformity. In ordinary interpersonal relationships, conformity to every detail of every specific norm is not rigidly required; rather, sanctions tend to focus upon the total role relationship

**Goode** , p. When consensus is low, personal mobility high, and

individuals carry on many of their activities in nonoverlapping social networks, both the demand for conformity and the actual degree of conformity tend to be low. Conformity in inner belief or in affective intensity and depth of commitment is more difficult to observe than overt behavior. On the other hand, any expression of disbelief in a norm or normative system and any overt evidence of lack of emotional commitment is likely to be especially threatening to those who are committed to enforcing the norm. The sinner can always repent; the heretic challenges the very existence of the norm cf. It is possible for him to have this subjective freedom even though a detached observer with a more extended knowledge of the circumstances might regard him as closely constrained by institutionalized norms and sanctions. This kind of freedom is not, in short, descriptive of any clearly identifiable feature of social structure. Different social structures vary widely in the extent to which they enforce a monolithic system of norms. Pluralistic societies contain a variety of relatively autonomous norm-creating and normenforcing groups, associations, and governmental units. Maximum structural freedom exists when the individual has many alternative choices between groups with varying norms and varying types and degrees of demanded conformity. Much research will be required to establish a clear understanding of the conditions and processes associated with the emergence and acceptance of norms. Some sources of norms are known. Many rules for behavior seem to arise as a direct consequence of recurring problems that are found to be socially costly. Persons in weak positions, fearing exploitation by the stronger, often favor predictable norms and sanctions. Persons in positions of authority and power often desire reliable conformity that is not dependent upon continual surveillance and coercion; they may therefore favor establishment of norms even if their own caprices are thereby curbed. A demand for norms is likely to arise from persons who find their interactions confusing or vaguely defined; for this reason, unstructured situations often create a pressure for the development of new norms. Enduring social conflicts, when not of too great an intensity, also generate new norms, developed out of negotiation, compromise, mediation, and related social processes. Every assertion of a demand or the communication of an expectation from one person to another contains some, however slight, normative element, even if the norm is not stated. To communicate an expectation to another person about his own behavior is to implicitly claim the right to influence his conduct. Acquiescence in the expectation by the receiver establishes a shared commitment. Such shared expectations form the initial basis for development of a behavior standard for later recurrent situations of the same kind. But we need to know more about the consequences of partial consensus and the relation of consensus to social cohesion. Under what circumstances do old norms cease to be effective because of gradual alienation, loss of support and concern? In addition, we need rigorous study of the sources of rebellion, deviance, and creative reformulation of norms. Such research will add to knowledge of those conditions under which self-realization is possible in an increasingly complex and interdependent world.

**3: Osallistuva havainnointi | Sosiologia**

*Top business executives are important people in big companies are both visible and inaccessible. This situation poses unique challenges for the sociologist interested in learning about what executives think and do. To go beyond caricature or public relations imagery, researchers must devise.*

Open in a separate window Maintenance of patient records TMP3 had no patient records. TMP2 and 4 had recording systems consisting of books and cards which were examined by the researcher. They included information such as name, age, contacts, signs and symptoms, duration of diseases, diagnosis, drug dispensed and costs. Herbalist 1 recorded patient details in exercise books which were then returned to them. They are easy to access. Treatment approaches for management of type 2 diabetes mellitus Four treatment approaches were identified; plants, animals, minerals and lifestyle advice. All the four herbalists recommend their herbal formulations as the treatments of choice for T2DM. The number of herbs used by the four herbalists range from 1 to 14 individual herbs in their formulations. TMP1 also recommended animal products as part of the treatment. He favored specific animals body parts prepared in intricate ways to accompany his herbal medicines. These were also considered trade secrets. Herbalist 2 recommended the use of minerals such as magnesium chloride as adjunctive treatment. No single herb can be singled out. This combination is a trade secret. This is a trade secret. Herbalist four noted that: I treat the root cause and not the symptoms. Not all patients are treated with hypoglycemic herbs. Some patients have poor general health. The first treatment approach is to manage the poor general health by administering detoxifying herbal agents. Enemas and cathartics may be given. Some patients respond well by administering deworming agents. For patients who do not respond, a mono-component agent is used first. Most of his herbs were observed to have these characteristics. Herbalist 2 stated that bitter tasting herbs with anti-malarial like qualities were most likely candidates for treating T2DM. Instructions given by a second TMP were: Boil the one teaspoon in a cup of water for minutes. Take half a cup twice daily. TMP1 recommended a phase out plan of the allopathic medications as his drug kicked in. Six months was sufficient for a complete cure regardless of the patient. After this, the patient gets completely cured in six months. After six months, eat what you want but gauge yourself in the first one month. However, no weighing of patients was observed for dosage calculations. Stopping his drug before time caused the disease to return. Oil concoctions make the drug stronger so less of the drug is given. When the patient improved, the drug was discontinued. All had doses for all patients which were arbitrary. Herbalist 3 and 4 mentioned that treatment durations and outcomes depended on the patient as all patients were different. Formulation of the herbal remedies The TMPs had introduced certain excipients to improve on anti-diabetic products. These were grains, flavors and preservatives. This was done through trial and error. For instance, one herbalist had tried sodium benzoate as a preservative in diabetic treatments, disliked it and changed to natural preservatives; Tamarindus indica and Eriobotrya japonica. Honey and fenugreek were also used to improve taste of the herbal preparations. Adverse effects and the use of conventional medications The TMPs reported that their drugs had minimal side effects compared to allopathic treatments. TMP 3 reported that sweating was the main side effect of his formulation. No matter how high the blood sugar rises, the patient cannot drop. TMP 2 stated that he used Hydenora abysinian in small quantities to reduce side effects. Increasing the dose of his medication was also effective for hyperglycemia. TMP 3 said that there was no remedy for managing the excessive sweating. Change of drug and referring the patient for conventional medicines was done by all TMPs if adverse effects continued. None of the herbalists were opposed to use of conventional medication with their herbs. If the patient is on insulin, the dose is halved until the patient completely abandons it. I however advise that the patient keeps the insulin and syringe nearby just in case. Herbs were considered safe by all TMPs as they were natural. One herbalist said that he had been using his formulation for a long time with no side effects. It is a secret. Management of diabetic complications and claims of cure All herbalists stated that their formulations reduced diabetic complications. However, three were more concerned with reduction of blood sugar levels as an objective marker. Only TMP1 was concerned with the healing of diabetic complications. A patient on my drug cannot not collapse due to high blood sugar.

If a patient has an ulcer, it heals automatically. A close relative with sugar diseases who had swollen legs caused by hypertension got completely cured from my formulation. All diabetic complications improve. Only herbalist 1 monitored improvement in diabetic complications. They were hesitant to talk of treatment failure but noted that patients who worsened were referred to conventional hospitals. Herbalist 1, 2 and 3 stated that treatment failure was caused by poor compliance and stress. One herbalist noted that stress contributes to treatment failure. She however did not drop. On counseling her, I advised that she must resolve the family issue. On sorting out the issue, her blood sugar dropped. No sugar, starch, chapati and a controlled lifestyle with exercise. If taking meat, eat plants with an equal amount of protein for example finger millet, unpeeled potatoes and soya. Do physical exercises to increase sugar use by the body and to avoid liver and pancreatic problems. All recommended that their patients should reduce sugar and salt intake. Traditional Kenyan diets and exercise was also recommended. It was noted that any patient not returning for treatment was considered cured. No efforts were made to trace patients. Cost of anti-diabetic herbal drugs The average cost for the herbal anti-diabetic formulations was Ksh. Compared to conventional treatment, a monthly dose of mg twice daily of metformin cost Ksh. TMP1 stated that depending on how you presented yourself, he would fix the cost so that all patients even the poor could benefit from his treatment. Payment on the spot was encouraged by all TMPs. Traditional medicine practitioners concerns about their practice The TMPs interviewed in this study were keen to find out if their drugs were really effective. It was however noted that they wanted to maintain secrecy about their formulas. They were interested in registering their products but all had a low opinion about research institutions in Kenya whom they accused of stealing their formulations. All were concerned about the bad reputation that qualified herbalists had gotten from quacks. There is a similar project in Tanzania. I am confident that my drugs work but quacks have ruined the name of herbalist. All were literate and used diverse treatments to manage T2DM. These modalities included; plant medicines, animal products, minerals, lifestyle advice and some modern conventional methods. Two TMPs stated family as a source of their knowledge. This is with agreement with other studies where family based apprenticeship was found to be the main source of knowledge of most TMPs [ 1 ]. Like noted by Ogbera and co-workers , herbalists in this study were secretive about anti-diabetic management and formulations. They cited protection of family legacy and fear of loss of business as reasons for this [ 16 ]. Two TMPs practiced as full time herbalists. This implies that one can derive a livelihood from this trade. However, contrary to popular belief, this study found out that the cost of herbal remedies offered by TMPs were prohibitively expensive. This is in contradiction with the widely held belief that herbal drugs are affordable [ 2 , 4 , 17 ]. In contrast, Western allopathic medications are often considered more costly [ 3 , 18 ]. The average cost for anti-diabetic Kenyan formulations in this study was Ksh.

**4: Observation | [www.enganchecubano.com](http://www.enganchecubano.com)**

*Norms. I THE CONCEPT OF NORMS* Robin M. Williams, Jr.. *II THE STUDY OF NORMS* Jack P. Gibbs. *I THE CONCEPT OF NORMS. A norm is a rule, standard, or pattern for action (from the Latin norma, a carpenter's square or rule).*

Adapted from the medical tradition, the case study has become one of the major modes of social science analysis. The case studied in social science is typically not an individual but an organization or community. Case studies have been done of such widely varying phenomena as industrial towns E. Hughes , urban neighborhoods Gans , factories Dalton , mental hospitals Goffman , and the interconnections of slums, politics, and rackets Whyte Hughes and Williamson The social scientist making a case study of a community or organization typically makes use of the method of participant observation in one of its many variations, often in connection with other, more structured methods such as interviewing. Observation gives access to a wide range of data, including kinds of data whose existence the investigator may not have anticipated at the time he began his study, and thus is a method well suited to the purposes of the case study. Aims of the case study The case study usually has a double purpose. On the one hand, it attempts to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of the group under study: At the same time, the case study also attempts to develop more general theoretical statements about regularities in social structure and process. In contrast to the laboratory experiment, which is designed to test one or a few closely related propositions as rigorously and precisely as possible, the case study must be prepared to deal with a great variety of descriptive and theoretical problems. So stated, the aims of the case study can scarcely be realized; it is Utopian to suppose that one can see, describe, and find the theoretical relevance of everything. Thus a community study E. Hughes may come to focus on the problems of industrialization and cultural contact, or a study of an urban neighborhood may focus on the relation between ethnicity and social class Gans The comprehensive goal of the case study, however, even though it is not reached, has important and useful consequences. It prepares the investigator to deal with unexpected findings and, indeed, requires him to reorient his study in the light of such developments. It forces him to consider, however crudely, the multiple interrelations of the particular phenomena he observes. And it saves him from making assumptions that may turn out to be incorrect about matters that are relevant, though tangential, to his main concerns. This is because a case study will nearly always provide some facts to guide those assumptions, while studies with more limited data-gathering procedures are forced to assume what the observer making a case study can check on. The aims of the case study and the kinds of problems it ordinarily poses for study suggest particular techniques of data gathering and analysis. After describing these, we will consider the uses, scientific and otherwise, which may be made of observational case studies. Techniques of observation In gathering data, the participant-observer engages in a number of different activities. One can distinguish several possible modes of proceeding, depending on the degree to which one is a participant as well as an observer Gold At one extreme, the observer may not participate at all, as when he hides behind a one-way screen in an experimental room; at the other, he may be a fullfledged participant, living in the community under study or holding a full-time job in the organization he studies and subject to the same life chances as any other member of the group. The particular techniques he uses are shaped by the demands of playing these different roles; a hidden observer cannot openly interview other participants, while a known observer may find that certain group secrets are systematically kept from him. The observer places himself in the life of the community so that he can see, over a period of time, what people ordinarily do as they go about their daily round of activity. He records his observations as soon as possible after making them. He notes the kinds of people who interact with one another, the content and consequences of the interaction, and how it is talked about and evaluated by the participants and others after the event. He tries to record this material as completely as possible by means of detailed accounts of actions, maps of the location of people as they act Whyte , and, of course, verbatim transcriptions of conversation. The problem of bias The observer has the problem of trying to avoid seeing only those things which accord with his explicit or implicit hypotheses Zelditch This kind of bias can occur in several ways. The observer, interacting with those he studies on a

long-term basis, comes to know them as fellow human beings as well as research subjects; thus, he can hardly help acquiring feelings of friendship, loyalty, and obligation, which may make him wish to protect some members of the group by not seeing those events which would render them liable to criticism. Some persons or factions may see his research as dangerous and try to keep him from seeing certain aspects of group activity Dalton Finally, he may feel that certain events are so distasteful or personally dangerous for example, the activities of homosexual networks or violent gang conflict that he is unwilling or afraid to remain close enough to the participants to see what actually happens. Bias can be avoided by carefully rendering a complete account of all events observed; by seeking to cover all varieties of events by some kind of primitive sampling device making observations at different times of the day or year, deliberately seeking out members of different groups in the community or organization, and so forth ; and by formulating tentative hypotheses as the field work proceeds and then deliberately searching for negative cases Lindesmith These topics are more fully treated in the next section of this article. Such incidents enable him most quickly to discover the expectations that guide interaction; when expectations are violated, trouble follows. By seeing what kinds of actions produce conflict, the observer can infer the existence of implicit expectations, which then become part of his analytic model of the group under study. He is also alert to nuances of language, such as special meanings given to ordinary words, for these signal the existence of situations, events, and persons the members of the group think distinctive enough to merit being singled out linguistically and thus give a clue to the characteristic problems and responses of the group. The observer does not confine himself to observation alone. He may also interview members of the group, either alone or in groups. In the first case, he can inquire into the social background and earlier experiences of a participant as well as into his private opinions about current affairs. The difference between private opinion and public communication may provide important clues to group norms Gorden The observer will also find it useful to collect documents and statistics minutes of meetings, annual reports, budgets, newspaper clippings generated by the community or organization. These can furnish useful historical background, necessary documentation of the conditions of action for a group as in a codified set of rules , or a convenient record of events for analysis as, for instance, when a college newspaper reports the marriages of students, specifying their position in the campus social structure. In every case, the observer must inquire carefully into how the documents he works with are created: The observer may also create his own statistics for the solution of particular problems. Techniques of analysis It is a truism to say that procedures of analysis and proof take their form from the problem one is trying to solve. It is more important to indicate the variety of problems typically encountered in analysis of observational material and the means by which they may be solved. Observational materials, since they are usually gathered over a long period of time, can be analyzed sequentially. That is, analysis need not await completion of data gathering but can go on concurrently with it; results of early analyses may be used to direct further data-gathering operations. Different problems arise at different stages of the research. Choice of problem In the beginning the researcher may not be sure what problem is most deserving of study in the community or organization he is working in; he devotes his first analytic efforts to uncovering worthwhile problems and hypotheses that will prove most useful in attacking them Geer Researchers frequently discover that the problem they set out to study is not as important as, or cannot be studied except in the context of, some other problem they had not anticipated studying. Thus, Vidich and Bensman found that the problem of the relationships between the rural communities and the various agencies and institutions of American mass society that affect rural life could be understood only if one also investigated how the community and its members were able to function in spite of the fact that their immediate social environment demonstrably negated their basic beliefs. In selecting problems, hypotheses, and concepts, the investigator works from concrete findings made early in the research. Typically, he discovers that a given event has occurred, perhaps only once, and asks what the significance of such an event might be. It may be an incident of conflict or the kind of linguistic nuance already referred to. Whatever it is, the investigator must first ascertain that the event actually is what it seems to be and then trace out its possible theoretical implications. The first problem requires him to consider whether people may have been consciously or unconsciously deceiving him; this can be checked by an assessment of whether the event that arouses his curiosity is one that was concocted for his benefit or whether it would have occurred in the

same way even if he had not been there. Similarly, an event that occurs in an ordinary institutional context, subject to all the constraints of that context, can be given more weight than one that occurs without being observed by other members of the group. The observer then traces the possible theoretical implications of his finding by considering what class of events it might be representative of, utilizing such theory as is available about that class of events to deduce further propositions. For instance, if one hears a worker in a service profession categorize members of his clientele, he may apply the proposition that such a categorization will be based on the problems clients of various kinds pose for the worker in trying to realize his occupational goals. Teachers, for example, distinguish pupils according to how hard they are to teach and discipline; doctors distinguish patients according to how easily they can be cured, whether they pay on time, and so on. Working from this, the observer begins to look for the basic problems implied by the set of categories and the way the problems impinge on workers at different career stages. Obviously, a large number of theories may be applied to discrete observations in order to draw out their implications and use them to direct further observations.

Quasi- statistical method At a later stage, the observer, having decided, at least provisionally, what he will study in the situation at hand and what theoretical apparatus he will use, is concerned with whether his initial findings hold for the entire community or organization. His data will usually not, unless expressly gathered for the purpose, be sufficiently systematic to be amenable to statistical manipulation. Such data are often quite adequate for the points he wishes to make. In particular, quasi statistics may allow the investigator to dispose of certain troublesome null hypotheses. A simple frequency count of the number of times a given phenomenon appears may make untenable the null hypothesis that the phenomenon is infrequent. A comparison of the number of such instances with the number of negative cases—instances in which some alternative phenomenon that would not be predicted by his theory appears—may make possible a stronger conclusion, especially if the theory was developed early enough in the observational period to allow a systematic search for negative cases. The technical problem in creating quasi statistics lies in making sure that one has in fact inspected all the relevant cases. A number of workers have devised schemes for doing this. The common feature of these schemes is the reduction of the body of data by making an abstract of the field notes that have been accumulated, breaking them down into small units, and classifying each unit under all the analytic categories to which it might be relevant. When the investigator desires to analyze all the material on a given point, he sorts his units which may be reproduced on key-sort cards, for convenience, takes out those items which are irrelevant, and frames a conclusion that takes account of all the relevant evidence remaining. One of the greatest faults in most observational case studies has been their failure to make explicit the quasi-statistical basis of their conclusions. Even though the investigator uses faulty sampling and enumeration procedures, his evidence may nevertheless be sufficient to warrant the conclusions he draws if he explicitly states what the evidence is and shows how his conclusions are related to it. In particular, the conclusions may appear extremely plausible if they are supported by several kinds of evidence at once.

Construction of models As a result of the early stages of analysis, the researcher acquires a number of limited models of parts of the organization or community, propositions which describe one kind of interaction between one pair of statuses in one kind of situation. The final stage of a case study consists in a progressive refinement of these part-models accomplished by continual checking against evidence already available in the field notes or newly gathered in the field and their integration into a model of the entire organization or community. The model provides answers to the theoretical questions of the study and shows the contribution of each part of the analyzed structure to the explanation of the phenomenon in question. Models of the community or organization that result from case studies are not to be confused with mathematical models. Rather, they have the same relation to the group studied that the natural history of a process such as the race-relations cycle or the process of becoming a drug addict has to any specific set of events said to embody it. In a natural-history analysis of a process we strip away the historical uniqueness of a number of instances of the same phenomenon, leaving as our result the generic steps in the process—those steps that would always occur if the same result were to be found. Similarly, in a case study of a social structure we strip away what is historically unique and concentrate on the generic properties of the group, viewed as an example of a particular kind of structure. Relations between the essential characteristics of that kind of structure are stated

by verbal generalizations. For instance, one might study a prison or school with a view to discovering what the characteristic statuses and forms of interaction are in an institution in which one class of participants is present involuntarily. The result would be a model that might also be applied to other institutions having that characteristic, such as mental hospitals. The answer is of course that he wouldâ€”but only if he used the same theoretical framework and became interested in the same general problems, for neither the theoretical framework nor the major problem chosen for study is inherent in the group studied. Nevertheless, given the same basic frameworkâ€” for instance, a sociology based on conceptions of social structure, culture, and symbolic interaction â€”the same fundamental parts of the group studied would be found in a second study, even if the major problems chosen for study were quite different. For instance, one might study a medical school to discover how the students are changed by their experience in it; this would be a problem in the theory of adult socialization. In either case, a complete study would necessarily describe the same basic relationships among students, among faculty, between students and faculty, between both and patients, and so on. Admittedly, the theoretical use to which the analysis was to be put would shape the kind of structural model built, and a model built for one purpose might slight or ignore important elements in the other; but the two could be combined, so that neither would contain any element denied in the other. The use of observational studies Every case study allows us to make generalizations about the relations of the various phenomena studied. But, as has often been pointed out, one case is after all only one case. Suppose that some of the most important factors involved in understanding the particular theoretical problems posed by the case are so invariant in it that we are unaware of their importance. How is one to discover their importance? In any case, the problem is not a real one if we take a long-term view of the development of theory.

**5: Sociology - Wikipedia**

Zelditch, M. (), "Some methodological problems of field studies," *American Journal of Sociology*, 67, Recommended articles Citing articles (0) References.

Ibn Khaldun statue in Tunis , Tunisia – Sociological reasoning predates the foundation of the discipline. Social analysis has origins in the common stock of Western knowledge and philosophy , and has been carried out from as far back as the time of ancient Greek philosopher Plato , if not before. There is evidence of early sociology in medieval Arab writings. Some sources consider Ibn Khaldun , a 14th-century Arab Islamic scholar from North Africa Tunisia , to have been the first sociologist and father of sociology [12] [13] [14] [15] see Branches of the early Islamic philosophy ; his Muqaddimah was perhaps the first work to advance social-scientific reasoning on social cohesion and social conflict. Comte endeavoured to unify history, psychology, and economics through the scientific understanding of the social realm. Writing shortly after the malaise of the French Revolution , he proposed that social ills could be remedied through sociological positivism , an epistemological approach outlined in *The Course in Positive Philosophy* and *A General View of Positivism* Comte believed a positivist stage would mark the final era, after conjectural theological and metaphysical phases, in the progression of human understanding. To say this is certainly not to claim that French sociologists such as Durkheim were devoted disciples of the high priest of positivism. But by insisting on the irreducibility of each of his basic sciences to the particular science of sciences which it presupposed in the hierarchy and by emphasizing the nature of sociology as the scientific study of social phenomena Comte put sociology on the map. Marx rejected Comtean positivism [28] but in attempting to develop a science of society nevertheless came to be recognized as a founder of sociology as the word gained wider meaning. For Isaiah Berlin , Marx may be regarded as the "true father" of modern sociology, "in so far as anyone can claim the title. The sociological treatment of historical and moral problems, which Comte and after him, Spencer and Taine , had discussed and mapped, became a precise and concrete study only when the attack of militant Marxism made its conclusions a burning issue, and so made the search for evidence more zealous and the attention to method more intense. It is estimated that he sold one million books in his lifetime, far more than any other sociologist at the time. While Marxian ideas defined one strand of sociology, Spencer was a critic of socialism as well as strong advocate for a laissez-faire style of government. His ideas were closely observed by conservative political circles, especially in the United States and England. Suicide is a case study of variations in suicide rates among Catholic and Protestant populations, and served to distinguish sociological analysis from psychology or philosophy. It also marked a major contribution to the theoretical concept of structural functionalism. By carefully examining suicide statistics in different police districts, he attempted to demonstrate that Catholic communities have a lower suicide rate than that of Protestants, something he attributed to social as opposed to individual or psychological causes. He developed the notion of objective sui generis "social facts" to delineate a unique empirical object for the science of sociology to study. Sociology quickly evolved as an academic response to the perceived challenges of modernity , such as industrialization , urbanization , secularization , and the process of " rationalization ". By the turn of the 20th century, however, many theorists were active in the English-speaking world. Few early sociologists were confined strictly to the subject, interacting also with economics , jurisprudence , psychology and philosophy , with theories being appropriated in a variety of different fields. Since its inception, sociological epistemology, methods, and frames of inquiry, have significantly expanded and diverged. Curricula also may include Charlotte Perkins Gilman , Marianne Weber and Friedrich Engels as founders of the feminist tradition in sociology. Each key figure is associated with a particular theoretical perspective and orientation. Capitalism at the End of the Twentieth Century Positivism and anti-positivism[ edit ] Main article: Positivism The overarching methodological principle of positivism is to conduct sociology in broadly the same manner as natural science. An emphasis on empiricism and the scientific method is sought to provide a tested foundation for sociological research based on the assumption that the only authentic knowledge is scientific knowledge, and that such knowledge can only arrive by positive affirmation through scientific methodology. Our main goal is to extend

scientific rationalism to human conduct. What has been called our positivism is but a consequence of this rationalism. The extent of antipositivist criticism has also diverged, with many rejecting the scientific method and others only seeking to amend it to reflect 20th-century developments in the philosophy of science. However, positivism broadly understood as a scientific approach to the study of society remains dominant in contemporary sociology, especially in the United States. Durkheimian, Logical, and Instrumental. Durkheim maintained that the social sciences are a logical continuation of the natural ones into the realm of human activity, and insisted that they should retain the same objectivity, rationalism, and approach to causality. This approach eschews epistemological and metaphysical concerns such as the nature of social facts in favour of methodological clarity, replicability, reliability and validity. Since it carries no explicit philosophical commitment, its practitioners may not belong to any particular school of thought. Modern sociology of this type is often credited to Paul Lazarsfeld, [34] who pioneered large-scale survey studies and developed statistical techniques for analysing them. This approach lends itself to what Robert K. Merton called middle-range theory: Anti-positivism. Reactions against social empiricism began when German philosopher Hegel voiced opposition to both empiricism, which he rejected as uncritical, and determinism, which he viewed as overly mechanistic. Various neo-Kantian philosophers, phenomenologists and human scientists further theorized how the analysis of the social world differs to that of the natural world due to the irreducibly complex aspects of human society, culture, and being. *Autocritica del sapere strategico*, Milan, Franco Angeli, p. At the turn of the 20th century the first generation of German sociologists formally introduced methodological anti-positivism, proposing that research should concentrate on human cultural norms, values, symbols, and social processes viewed from a resolutely subjective perspective. Max Weber argued that sociology may be loosely described as a science as it is able to identify causal relationships of human "social action" especially among "ideal types", or hypothetical simplifications of complex social phenomena. Relatively isolated from the sociological academy throughout his lifetime, Simmel presented idiosyncratic analyses of modernity more reminiscent of the phenomenological and existential writers than of Comte or Durkheim, paying particular concern to the forms of, and possibilities for, social individuality. The antagonism represents the most modern form of the conflict which primitive man must carry on with nature for his own bodily existence.

**6: USS Barr (DE) - Wikipedia**

*The social scientist making a case study of a community or organization typically makes use of the method of participant observation in one of its many variations, often in connection with other, more structured methods such as interviewing.*

Tongco Research Methods Abstract Informant selection is highly relevant for ethnobotanical studies, Gustad et al. The purposive sampling technique is used to act as guides to a culture. Key informants are a type of non-probability sampling that is most effective for identifying reflective members of the community of interest when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with interest who know much about the culture and are both knowledgeable experts within. Purposive sampling may be used with both qualitative and quantitative research. Campbell, Seidler, Tremblay The inherent bias of the method contributes to its efficiency, and the method stays robust even when tested against random probability sampling. This paper focuses on how to go about selecting people when tested against random probability sampling. Choosing a willing informant to impart their knowledge and experiences with the purposive sample is fundamental to the quality of data gathered; thus, reliability and competence of the informant selection. Examples of studies that have used purposive sampling method of informant selection must be ensured. Concerns regarding the validity of this nonrandom technique and the reliability of an informant are also tackled in this paper. Data gathering is crucial in research, as the data is meant to contribute to a better understanding of a theoretical framework. It then becomes imperative that selecting the manner of obtaining data and from whom the data will be acquired be done with sound judgment. The question the researcher is interested in answering is, especially since no amount of analysis can make up for improperly collected data. The first purposive sampling is an informant selection tool widely used in ethnobotany. Table 1. However, the use of the method is not adequately explained in most studies. The purposive sampling technique, also called judgment sampling. Purposive Sampling Used in Ethnobotanical Studies. Studies of specific skills, knowledge, or practices; Comparisons between practices; and Case studies. How as close as possible to the typical woodcarver, and how many people will be involved? What level of organization to communicate often with other people of his or her craft would be sampled? Individual or community? The researcher can help find informants will save much time and effort must then decide if purposive sampling is the most suitable tool for the study. To add a quantitative twist, resource persons may be asked to individually name the informant. If so, the researcher is ready to seek out appropriate informants. The best informant would be the person who was mentioned most times by multiple resource persons. For example, informant A was mentioned in four out of eight interviews. This is the highest frequency and so the informant must be good. How the informant becomes more qualified if he was the most mentioned in four out of eight interviews. The sample can also be taken from knowledge wherein ten people are mentioned four times. Two factors emerge from previous studies McDonald et al. One is being sought after here: The goal is by Allen Criteria are set on what would make a good informant, and what would make a bad informant. Based on these, a list of qualifications is composed. It is especially important to be clear on informant qualifications. Purposive sampling can be used with a number of techniques in data gathering. Godambe A study may be started with a survey, then purposive sampling done in Hammiche and Maiza who wanted to study traditional professionals, somewhat nomadic, and former nomads asked the respondents what would denote acculturation who have become tourist guides due to familiarity with the and ran their responses through a data reduction technique to determine which qualities acculturated people. Steps in purposive sampling. Decide on the research problem. Determine the type of information

needed. Define the qualities the informant s should or should not have. Find your informants based on defined qualities. Be patient and persistent! Keep in mind the importance of reliability and competency in assessing potential informants. Use appropriate data gathering techniques. In analyzing data and interpreting results, remember that purposive sampling is an inherently biased method. They then set out to find informants tic regression models Neupane et al. Data reduction techniques are statistical chi-square Albertin and Nair , analysis of variance tools that select from multiple variables those that have Belcher et al. Factor analysis tion Bah et al. Snowball sampling differs from purposive sampling in that purpo- Sampling in Ethnobotany sive sampling does not necessarily use the source of an informant as an informant as well Bernard Key informants have also been used Donald et al. Both random Neupane et al. Within each commune, they knowledge or skill Li et al. The following must be reproducible in order for the results to contrib- examples show the context in which purposive sampling ute to a greater understanding of ethnobotanical theories has been used, discussing the problem, research method, and phenomena Hones One way of ensuring re- and results obtained from the study. It is hoped that these producibility is to have a systematic way of choosing the examples, together with Table 1, will aid a researcher in informant and to describe this method in detail. The list deciding the appropriateness of purposive sampling to a of qualifications is helpful in reproducibility. The idea is particular study. Participant-ob- led to question the robustness of the data. It was also found that throughout the years, is obtained Bernard Seidler studied differ- the tools used in making the clapperstick had changed, ent sample sizes of informants selected purposively and yet the cultural meaning and rituals attached to the clap- found that at least five informants were needed for the perstick remained intact. It is important to lessen bias within the sampling population and to have some idea of the varia- Tran and Perry determined how and why farmers tion in the data. If unbiased informants are scarce, finding used neem Azardirachta indica var. Pesticide poi- the middle ground and canceling out extreme biases dur- sioning had been a problem in the country, and natural ing data interpretation Seidler To study the use of neem as Both qualitative and quantitative sampling methods may an insecticide, survey questionnaires were administered be used when samples are chosen purposively Table 1, to two groups: The neem-using farmers were ies Walker et al. Farmers who did not use neem were se- , direct observations Martinez-Romero et al. Sixteen non-neem users and interviews Anderson , Li et al. The authors discovered that the differences taniariyo et al. Statistical analyses such as logis- between the neem and non-neem groups were largely http: The non-neem groups did not receive yet consumption of these wild food plants may be a cause training though they had heard of the insecticide proper- for shame because the non-tribal people looked down on ties of neem. The efficacy of powdered neem was also consumption of wild food plants as a sign of poverty. El- tested, which turned out to be low, because the active in- ders also mentioned that the children seemed to be going gredient would degrade when exposed to the sun and hu- through a change in food preferences as they were ex- mid and warm conditions. Proper processing and storage posed to other types of food sold in the markets. While some farmers used neem available from the government, others processed their own. It was The above examples illustrate an array of ways purposive recommended that the village have a neem-processing sampling has been used in ethnobotanical studies, in con- plant in order to have enough resources for all farmers. This type of sampling is most applicable when studying Dolisca et al. In every a forest reserve in Haiti as a case study to test the the- culture, there are certain people who know much more ory that local people would be more willing to conserve than the average person when it comes to certain cultural an area if they were to benefit from it. A survey was first domains Campbell , Tremblay , Zelditch done to find out the socio-economic profile of the peo- such as traditional healing. In this case, it is more practi- ple in the area using pre-tested questionnaires and ran- cal to talk to a specialist rather than a random individual dom informant selection. Purposive sampling was then from the culture Bernard Purposive samples are used to select farmers to participate in focus group dis- especially useful in documenting events that not every- cussions. Based on the results of the focus group discus- one can attend or witness, including secret events that sions, a questionnaire was constructed wherein villagers some people in the community may not even be aware were asked to rank the importance of each benefit derived of Zelditch The key informant technique can also from conservation. The farmers Seidler The study revealed that the farmers were environmentally aware. Working with local people

may in fact be better for conservation in this community as it Whenever possible and deemed efficient, random or prob- would incorporate their concerns into an integrated con- ability sampling is recommended as a means of informant servation plan that would benefit all. However, random sampling is not ered the presence of an educational program that aimed always feasible, and not always efficient. A high disper- to increase cultural identity and knowledge of local biodi- sion of samples may induce higher costs for a researcher versity in the area and compared children enrolled in the Alexiades , Bernard , Snedecor Miss- program with children who went to a more convention- ing data, which is common in field situations, also renders al school. All students of the educational program were random samples invalid for traditional probabilistic statisti- included in the study. Children who were not part of the cal inference Godambe This often occurs because educational program, as well as the mothers in the study, not everybody is willing to participate, and possibly not were selected opportunistically based on availability. El- be around during sampling Alexiades Gomez-Be- ders were also used as key informants that could provide loz randomly chose informants among men who information on how the knowledge about and gathering of were willing to participate in his study and encountered wild food plants had changed over time. Wild food plants respondents that suddenly became unavailable when he were not gathered as much because there were few- was ready to administer his survey. Some respondents er of them. It was also found that knowledge about wild also did not answer all items in questionnaires, and so food plants was decreasing because the children went new informants were needed to be found.

The Decroux sourcebook Gsk annual report 2015 Ready-to-Use Small Frames in the Art Nouveau Style Part one : Introduction to nursing research. Formation of econometrics Reflecting God Study Bible Clinical laboratory methods Couples in Conflict (Penn State University Family Issues Symposia) Scotlands 10 Tomorrows Brain teasers for 3rd grade History of biafran war An Instance Of Psychic Development Pamphlet A proposal for dividing the jurisdiction of the Court of Queens Bench in Upper Canada, and establishing a Change and Reaction in the LCMS: 1938-1965 Progress in comparative endocrinology A Modern Theory of Evolution Ship-building. By W. C. Steadman. Urine specimen collection and preservation The Woolsack Conspiracy Anglo-American cataloguing rules 129 15. Horses of Many Colors Weapons animals wear Fhm June 2013 Statewide lease report. Other daughters of the Revolution Lasker His Contemporaries No. 5 The Evolution Of Conscious Faculties 2. The relation of the / Economic sanctions as instruments of American foreign policy Escher : science and fiction C.H.A. Broos The interpersonal level: making connections The constitutional history of England since the accession of George the Third, 1760-1860; by Thomas Erskin Save the beloved country The Peninsular war: Martin Diaz. The Arams of Idaho Preventing child maltreatment through social support Short Stop Romancs Jackie warner 10 pounds in 10 days Strindberg and Shakespeare Hawley, Massachusetts