Centre for Distance and Online Education
Punjabi University, Patiala

Class : M.A. II (Journalism and Mass Communication)

Semester : 3

Paper : IX (Research Applications) **Unit : I**

Medium : English

Lesson No.

Department website : www.pbidde.org

M.A (JOURNALISM AND MASS COMMUNICATION)
PART-II (SEMESTER III & IV)
(2023-24 & 2024-25 SESSIONS)

PAPER-IX :RESEARCH APPLICATIONS
Subject Code: JMCM2301T

Max. Marks : 100 — Theory: 70 Marks
Pass Marks : 40 — Internal Assessment: 30 Marks
Time Allowed : 3 Hours

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PAPER-SETTER

The question paper will consist of three sections A, B and C. Sections A and B will have four questions from the respective sections of the syllabus and will carry 12 marks each. Section C will consist of 11 short-answer type questions which will cover the entire syllabus uniformly and will carry 22 marks in all. Each question carries 2 marks.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CANDIDATES

Candidates are required to attempt two questions each from the sections A and B of the question paper and entire section C.

SECTION-A

Worldviews in Research: Positivism, Critical Rationalism, Interpretative Paradigm, Constructionism; Philosophical Worldviews: Positivist, Constructivist, Transformative, Pragmatic; Milestones in Media Research: Payne Fund Studies, Invasion from Mars, People’s Choice Study, Grounded Theory, Inductive and Deductive Research; Marketing Research: Definition, Scope and Importance; Marketing Research Process :Techniques and Tools ;Consumer Research: Meaning, Scope and Functions; Advertising Research: Definition, Scope and Importance.

SECTION- B

Types of Print Media Research: Readership Research and Circulation Research; Methodology of Readership Research: Drawing Readers Profiles, Item-Selection Studies, Reader-Nonreader studies; Research Applications in Electronic Media: Rating and Non-rating Research; Radio Rating Research: Systematic Recall, Dairies, Interviews, Recording Devices; Television Rating Research: Questionnaire, Interviews, People’s Meters, TRP Ratings ;Writing Research Reports: Giving References, Bibliography, Use of Internet Sources for Research; Ethical issues in Social Research.

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. *Introduction to Mass Communication by Gamble and Gamble, McGraw-Hill (1989).*
2. *Communication Theories by Werner Joseph Severin& James W. Tankard, Addison Wesley Longman(2010)*
3. *Communication and Culture by Alfred Govd Smith, Holt Rinehart Winston (1966).*
4. *Fundamentals of Communication by Jensen Harper & Row.*
5. *Men, Messages and Media by Wilbur Lang Schramm, Harper and Row (1973).*
6. *Content Analysis by Klaus Krippendroff, Sage Publication (2013).*
7. *Scientific Social Surveys and Research by P.V.Young, Prentice Hall (1949).*
8. *Methodology and Techniques of Research by Wilkinson and Bhandarkar, Himalaya Publishing House(2010)*
9. *Research Methodology by C.R. Kothari, New Age International (2010).*
10. *Media Analysis Techniques by ArtherAsa Berger, Sage Publication (2013).*
11. *Mass Communication by K. J, McGarthy.*
12. *Research Methodology by R. Cauvery & M.GirjaSudhanayak, S.Chand& Co. Ltd (2010).*
13. *Media Research Methods by Barrie Gunter, Sage Publication (2000).*

M.A. (JMC) PART-II **PAPER IX**

SEMESTER-III **RESEARCH APPLICATIONS**

LESSON NO. 1.1 **Author: Dr. Seema Shukla**

Converted in SLM by Dr. Alka Bansal

Last updated May, 2023

Research

1.1.1 Objectives

After reading this lesson you should be able to –

- Understand the different approaches in research

- Understand the different philosophical approaches in research
- Conceptualize the research problem
- Prepare an appropriate framework for your research study

1.1.2 Introduction

The research itself is a very complex phenomenon. The world is not perfect. Each person who belongs to this world has different ways to perceive the problem and get a solution to it. They perform research to get the solution to the existing problems, but it does not mean that research in and of itself can solve all the world's problems, nor is it meant to suggest that all research must be oriented toward social action. There are methods for designing research that make it more likely to be useful to educators, administrators, policymakers, psychologists, policymakers, parents, and students. Such applied social research is the focus of this text.

To conduct research in a scientific manner a scholar needs to follow certain methods that strongly depend on the worldview and theoretical assumptions. Generally, philosophical ideas influence the practice of research to a larger extent where they need to be identified at the beginning of any research study. There are several approaches have been developed in research, some of them are Positivism, Critical Rationalism, Interpretative, Paradigm, Constructionism, Positivist, Constructivist, Transformative and Pragmatic. The following content will discuss Positivism, Critical Rationalism, Interpretative, Paradigm, Constructionism, Positivist, Constructivist, Transformative and Pragmatic in brief:

1.1.3 World views in Research

1.1.3.1 Positivism

The idea of Positivism was founded by the Scottish philosopher David Hume in the 18th century and later developed into a system by French thinker Auguste Comte. Positivism is an empiricist philosophical theory that suggests all genuine knowledge is either true by definition or positive. The theory discussed individual perception. It talks about the idealistic, realistic, or neutral shade of phenomena.

Hume a positivist thinker conceived of philosophy as the inductive science of human nature, and he argued that humans are persons more of sensitive and practical sentiment than reason. He suggested that human being understands the subject only by their perception; their (human being) cognition does not go beyond what can be perceived, so for these positivists, cognition was limited to getting to know the world through humans' impressions and their psychological experiences.

1.1.3.2 Critical Rationalism

Critical Rationalism was proposed by Karl Popper in Logik der Forschung in 1934. This theory provides an alternative to the prevalent positivism and inductivism approach. The critical rationalism theory advocates that all scientific theories and any other claims that provide knowledge can and should be logically criticized, and (if theory or claim has some empirical content) can and should be subjected to tests which may falsify them. Thus, theory or claims to knowledge may be normatively and contrastingly evaluated to reach on the conclusions.

Interpretive approaches share a focus on two distinctive features: meanings and interpretations. Meanings refer to how actors make sense of their experiences or reach understandings of their everyday organizational lives. While these approaches focus on actors' subjective accounts, scholars concentrate on how these accounts come together, align in particular ways, and become collective. Initially, researchers investigated consensual or shared meanings among participants (Putnam, 1983); however, scholars have since moved away from consensus to focus on clusters of inter subjective understandings that organizational actors hold or develop over time. In particular, organizational actors often construct collective understandings of their situations in ways that differ from what other actors think. For this reason, interpretive scholars contend that they are not relativists or subjectivists who treat any idiosyncratic meaning as valid in constructing realities (Heracleous, 2004). Rather, they focus on how diverse inter subjective meanings align and engage with each other in socially constructing organizations. Still, other scholar's places less emphasis on inter subjective meanings and focus on how actors co-develop meanings through their discourse and social interactions. Interpretations refer to the process of making meanings or forming inferences about organizational phenomena. They function differently when researchers house them in actors' cognitions as opposed to social interactions. Interpretive scholars who adopt sense making approaches often privilege individual cognitions and focus on schemes, cognitive frames, or mental models as the sources of inferences about meaning. Understandings arise from comparing actions and experiences to scripts or frames of reference that individuals hold internally (Gioia, 1986). In this way, interpretive scholars who embrace cognitive approaches construct the social world by assembling it from the minds of participants (Guba, 1990). For many communication scholars, the source of meanings and interpretations resides in language, symbols, and texts (Cheney, 2000). An interpretive approach emphasizes how actors transform social phenomena into texts, narratives, and discourse that become central to organizational practices. It underscores the power of naming or labeling in creating social situations and it focuses on the interrelationships among symbols in developing patterns and constructing meanings (Ricoeur, 1993). In this way, interpretations emanate from actions and interactions through language, symbols, and texts.

The relationship between action and meanings, however, is recursive one. In a retrospective way, meanings reflect back on and shape future interactions (Weick, 1979). Thus, collective or co-created understandings function reflexively to enable or constrain actions. Interpretive researchers who focus on a communicative view of sense making often aim to capture this recursive relationship and bridge both the cognitive and interactional threads of interpretive research. The interpretive approach traces its roots to German idealism in social theory, particularly to Immanuel Kant's (1929) idea that the mind contributes to the construction of knowledge in the world. Thus, social reality exists in spirit or idea – not in concrete facts (Mumby, 2000). It came of age during the intellectual ferment across the social sciences in the 1890s to 1930s that focused on the subjective aspects of scientific inquiry. To capture this spirit of a social situation, Wilhelm Dilthey (1976), and later Max Weber (1968), felt that the cultural sciences needed a new analytical approach based on verstehen or a means of understanding subjective meanings for actions and interactions. Thus, the outward actions of human beings needed to be understood in terms of their inner experiences. Verstehen provided a method to relive or re-enact the experienceof others. For Weber (1968), the essential function of social science was to be interpretive or to understand the subjective meaning of social action.

Edmund Husserl (1931) continued this agenda through drawing on phenomenology to explore intentionality and consciousness as central concerns for subjective understanding. Yet, it was Alfred Schutz (1967) who took up the critical question of how subjective meanings were shared. He advanced interpretive work by exploring cultural knowledge, or the ways that humans developed shared beliefs and norms from personal experiences. This pursuit led to exploring the concept of inter subjectivity as shared meanings or stocks of knowledge acquired through spoken language. Importantly, then, the origins of interpretive work in the social sciences focused on the subjective and inter subjective processes in which individuals attributed meaning to cultural experiences.

In organizational studies, the interpretive approach gained a stronghold in the work on organizational culture that explored the meanings of symbols, values, and beliefs (Pacanowsky &O'Donnell-Trujillo, 1983 [1983 as in the Refs?]; Smircich, 1983). Of note, communication studies on organizational culture moved away from situating meanings in individuals and began to treat culture as shared meanings (Deetz, 1982). Scholars focused on deep understandings that grew out of competing values and norms and treated symbols as socially constructed rather than as reflections of a pre-formed culture.At the same time, organizational communication scholars met in 1981 at an event called "the Alta Conference." This conference was the first gathering of scholars to discuss the potentialof interpretive and critical scholarship for the field. The meeting and the publications that followed from it set forth an agenda for future research, one grounded in a set of clearly demarcated characteristics for interpretive approaches (Putnam & Pacanowsky, 1983). Another aim of this conference was to show how an interpretive lens could offer new research opportunities and enrich such organizational arenas as climate, culture, socialization, and leadership. Some scholars, however, believed that interpretive perspectives gained a foothold in the field through providing a stylized version of positivism, one that cast functionalists as the "bad guys and gals in black hats" and interpret as wearing the white hats (Miller, 2000, p. 57; Tompkins, 1997, p. 368). However, setting up distinct contrasts between the status quo and the alternative view might have been necessary at the time for interpretive work to gain a voice. Kuhn (2005) provides another explanation for why the interpretive approach caught hold at this time. Using an institutional lens, he contends that Alta was not merely a turning point but served to crystallize an innovation in the field. Alta could have represented "a temporary deviation" from traditional research had not a set of institutionalizing practices developed from this event. Specifically, Kuhn tracked how Alta became inculcated in the field by situating the interpretive approach as a unique perspective, habituating and formalizing it in research practices, reaching consensus about the value of this approach, and cementing interpretive scholarship across the discipline over a period of time. As Kuhn (2005) points out, "As the story of Alta and its impacts [were] taught to new generations of graduate students as a social given …the fact of multiple perspectives and of the validity of the interpretive and critical views became increasingly engrained in the field's consciousness" (p. 622).

Another reason that the interpretive approach gained legitimacy in the field was its alliance with the linguistic turn. The linguistic turn underscored the pivotal role of discourse in interpretive studies (Rorty, 1967). Unlike the interpretative perspectives that privileged subjective meanings, the linguistic turn countered the view that language represented or reflected a pre-formed reality. Instead, discourse as a collection of texts formed the raw materials for constituting organizational reality through shaping social practices and the very nature of an organization. The linguistic turn extended the interpretative approach to a domain central to the field, namely, communicative processes. Importantly, interpretive research shifted traditional notions regarding communication in organizations. Initially, scholars treated communication as a conduit or a channel in which actors transmitted messages (Axley, 1984). Early research in the field focused on the directionality of message flow, message barriers and breakdowns, message transmission, and media as communication channels (Redding & Tompkins, 1988). The content of messages played a secondary role to transmission, and meanings typically resided in messages or individual perceptions (Putnam, Phillips, & Chapman, 1996). The interpretive approach in combination with the linguistic turn shifted this image of organizational communication. Communication was no longer a conduit for expressing meanings; rather, it constituted organizational life through the ways that discourse entered into interaction processes. Thus, the linguistic turn moved interpretive approaches away from a primary focus on meanings and symbols to the ways that language shaped social practices. The image of an organization also shifted from being a fixture or a container in which messages flowed to being discursively grounded in social interactions Interpretative approaches share a focus on two distinctive features: meanings and interpretations. Meanings refer to how actors make sense of their experiences or reach understandings of their everyday organizational lives. While these approaches focus on actors' subjective accounts, scholars concentrate on how these accounts come together, align in particular ways, and become collective. Initially, researchers investigated consensual or shared meanings among participants (Putnam, 1983); however, scholars have since moved away from consensus to focus on clusters of inter subjective understandings that organizational actors hold or develop over time. In particular, organizational actors often construct collective understandings of their situations in ways that differ from what other actors think. For this reason, interpretive scholars contend that they are not relativists or subjectivists who treat any idiosyncratic meaning as valid in constructing realities (Heracleous, 2004). Rather, they focus on how diverse inter subjective meanings align and engage with each other in socially constructing organizations. Still, other scholar's places less emphasis on inter subjective meanings and focus on how actors co-develop meanings through their discourse and social interactions. Interpretations refer to the process of making meanings or forming inferences about organizational phenomena. They function differently when researchers house them in actors' cognitions as opposed to social interactions. Interpretive scholars who adopt sense making approaches often privilege individual cognitions and focus on schemes, cognitive frames, or mental models as the sources of inferences about meaning. Understandings arise from comparing actions and experiences to scripts or frames of reference that individuals hold internally (Gioia, 1986). In this way, interpretive scholars who embrace cognitive approaches construct the social world by assembling it from the minds of participants (Guba, 1990).

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History of the interpretative approach

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1.1.3.3 Interpretative Paradigm

Interpretive approaches talk about two distinctive features one is meanings and other its interpretations. In this context meaning refers to how participants make sense of their experiences or reach understandings of their everyday organizational lives. Under this approach the scholar tries to bring all the subjective accounts of participants together. This approach focuses on how diverse inter subjective meanings align and engage with each other in socially constructing organizations to interpret the meaning out of it.

1.1.3.4 Constructionism Paradigm

Constructivism paradigm suggests reality as a construct of individual's human mind; therefore, this approach considers reality as an individual perception. This approach advocated that reality perceived to be subjective. Moreover, this philosophical approach is closely connected with relativism and pragmatism. In simple terms, constructivism approach suggests that all knowledge comes from human experience. This viewpoint is based on inseparability between knowledge and knower.

Constructivism philosophy and the positivism approach talks about different philosophy, where positivism argues that knowledge is generated in a scientific method, constructivism maintains that there is multiple methodology to generate knowledge. Constructivism approach further divided into several types such as cognitive constructivism, phenomenological constructivism, radical constructivism and biological constructivism.

Philosophical World views

1.1.3.5 Positivist

Literally positivism term is used to describe an approach that is based on the study of society. It relies specifically on empirical scientific evidence for instance-controlled experiments and statistics.

1.1.3.6 Constructivist

Constructivism approach argued that learners construct knowledge by themselves rather than just taking it passively. In simple terms, the theory says that people experience the surroundings and reflect upon those experiences, based on their experiences they built their own representations and incorporate new information into their pre-existing knowledge.

1.1.3.7 Transformative

This approach focuses on the causes of major change in thought patterns, concerning an area of scientific endeavor for instances research related to uplift marginalized groups, such as women, ethic/racial minorities, poor, and people with disabilities.

1.1.3.8 Pragmatic

Pragmatism research philosophy accepts those concepts which have relevant actions. Followers of pragmatic approach believed that there are several ways of interpreting the world and conducting research. The argued that one single point of view can never provide the entire picture of any issue or problems, there may be multiple realities or way to see the whole picture. Table 1 will illustrate the difference among the three approaches of research.

	Research approach	**Ontology**	**Axiology**	**Research**
Positivism	Deductive	Objective	Value-free	Quantitative
Interpretivism	Inductive	Subjective	Biased	Qualitative
Pragmatism	Deductive/Inductive	Objective/Subjective	Value-free/biased	Qualitative/Quantitative

Table:1 difference among the three approaches of research

Milestones in Media Research

1.1.3.9 Payne Fund Studies

After development of media, media experts and psychological thinker started observing the impact and effect of media content on receivers. In this context several studies were conducted between 1920-1930. These studies are specifically done to determine the effect of movies on the behavior of children and adolescents. A private foundation called 'The Payne Fund' had given the financial support to whole study therefore these series of studies are known as the "Payne Fund

Studies". The study is not based on any scientific method however it was the first kind of study in which there search attempts to rigorously study the media. They were politically significant and instrumental in the enforcement of the Hays Code. The Payne Fund financially supported total 13 studies.

In Payne Fund Study each study was segregated into three main categories of research that is film content, audience composition, and effects on children. The research study concluded that media content put impacts on children; it (media content) also reinforces specific learning and attitude change to emotion stimulation and behavior influence in children. Although these studies were conducted nearly seventy years ago without appropriate scientific support however it is still noteworthy today. The new age researcher still feels it relevant in new media context.

1.1.3.10 Invasion from Mars

'Invasion from Mars' is one of the major studies done in media effect area. This study was done in 1938 by broadcasting a story of a fake attack on earth. In this study Orson Welles's Halloween radiobroadcaster, narrated a fake story of attack to their listeners. The listeners got panic attack after listening the program and started running towards hills to save them. A group of social scientists 'Hadley Cantril, Hazel Gaudet, and Herta Herzog' studied the incident and later their report was published in a volume entitled 'The Invasion from Mars'. This research study explains the method of research and research team's conclusions as to why certain people panicked and others did not, and what there was in the broadcast and in the situation that made such a dramatic effect possible. This summary appeared first in Newcomb, Hartley, et al. Readings in Social Psychology, published and copyrighted by Henry Holt & Company (New York, 1947).

1.1.3.11 People's Choice Study

The People's Choice is considered to be a landmark statistical and psychological study done on American voters during the 1940 and 1944 in presidential elections.

This study was originally published in 1948. The people's choice study is the first systematic effort to study voters' behavior across the duration of a presidential campaign and to follow up on this data years later.

The study was done by Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet who have followed six hundred people (sample population) from Erie County, Ohio and interviewed them on the monthly bases for continuous seven months leading up to Election Day. Later they did a expanded version of the study by taking the two thousands voters (through nationwide cross-section sampling). Contrary to the most media studies, Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet found that media such as newspapers, radio, and campaign advertising did not have a profound influence on receiver's' (individual) voting habits. Instead, interpersonal interactions and word of mouth were more significant in this case. They argued that mass media content does not reach directly to common people, a small but crucial subset of people works as an opinion leaders and pass information on to less avid media consumers. In brief a groundbreaking work of empirical political science, The People's Choice remains of great importance in an era of anxiety about the influence of media on voting behavior.

1.1.3.12 Grounded Theory

In social science research can be conducted in two ways (other streams also), qualitative and quantitative. Grounded theory is a research method done under qualitative research study to generate a theory from the collected data. This method is generally used to uncover such things as social relationships and behaviours of groups, known as social processes.

Unlike traditional hypothesis-deductive approaches of research, grounded theory is an inductive approach where new theories are derived from the data.

In grounded theory approach data collection, data analysis, and theory development have been done as an iterative process. The data can be collected through experiments, secondary data, interviews or case studies. The figure: 1

shows the ways of collection data. Iterative data collection and analysis occurs until the research reach to the theoretical saturation(the point at which additional data adds no additional insight into new theory).

Although the social science researchers have been facing few shortcomings of developing the theoretical methodology adopted by scientific methods in recent times. This gap is filled by naturalistic approach like grounded theory method to make theoretical conclusions.

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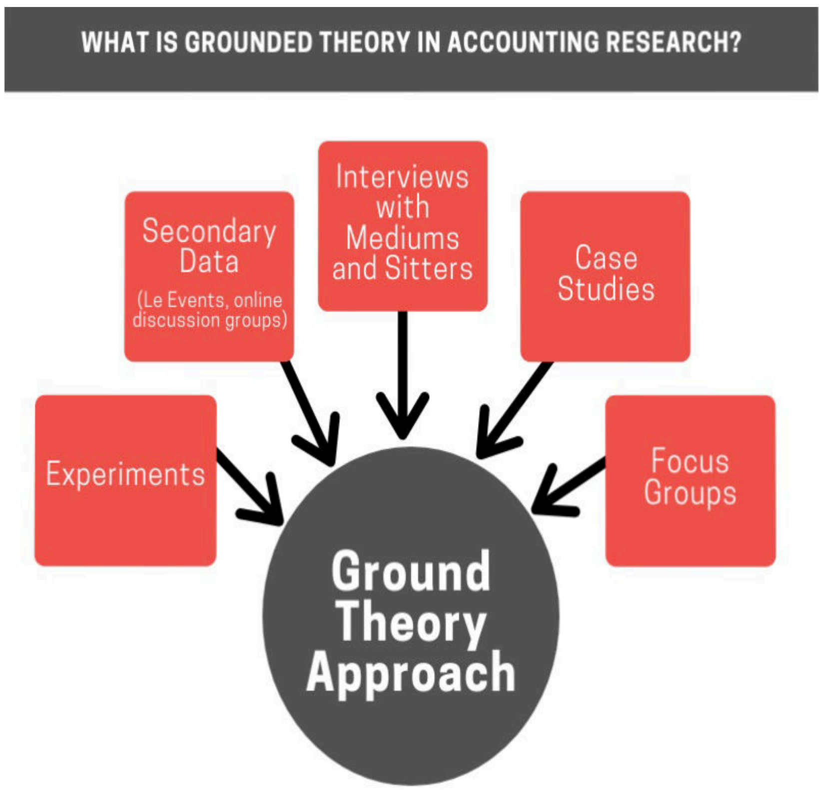

Fig :1 (ways to collect data in Grounded theory approach)

https://statswork.com/blog/what-is-grounded-theory-in-accounting-research/

1.1.4 Summary

To conduct research in a scientific manner a scholar needs to follow certain methods that strongly depend on the worldview and theoretical assumptions. Generally, philosophical ideas influence the practice of research to a larger extent where they need to be identified at the beginning of any research study. There are several approaches have been developed in research, some of them are Positivism, Critical Rationalism, Interpretative, Paradigm, Constructionism, Positivist, Constructivist, Transformative and Pragmatic.

1.1.5 Key Terms

Quantitative Research

Qualitative Research

1.1.6 Long Questions

1. Define paradigm and describe the significance of paradigms.
2. Identify and describe the four predominant paradigms found in the social sciences.
3. Define Grounded theory.
4. What were the findings from the Payne Fund studies?

1.1.7 Short Questions

1. Write short note on:
   Focus group
   Case studies

1.1.8 References

- https://www.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upmbinaries/27395_Pages5_11.pdf
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LESSON NO. 1.2 **Dr. Rajdeep Roy**

Milestones in Media Research

1.2.1 Objectives

The magic bullet theory

The limited effect perspective

Features of current media studies

Understanding the Different Phases of Media Theory

1.2.2 Introduction

Late 1930s was the time when the world witnessed significant phenomenon like **Invasion from Mars**. As soon as radio became most dominant form of communication medium, the mass reacted to Orson Welles's "War of Worlds" in a way that spurred research interest. Princeton University was the one who conducted research on Orson Welles. For Most of the Americans tremendous confidence was in Radio as news medium. The creative techniques of the program were very convincing.

1.2.3 Background

The Research conducted at Princeton in late 1930s focused on characteristics of people who believed program was real. People who were affected were those lacking critical ability, low self-confidence and low emotional security. People with strong religious beliefs were likely to believe in aliens.

Two research techniques or ideas evolved that time in media effect research were-

- Researchers made theoretical distinctions between younger and older children
- Techniques used to measure psychological responses to media messages.

These ideas are adopted in current research today.

1.2.4 Methodology

Media effect studies till the late 1930s were not characterized by well-developed theory and testing of specific hypothesis. The methodologies involved were the Qualitative analysis, Census and survey data. Effects were measured using experimental design, questionnaires, case studies and personal interviews. - Emotional stimulation.

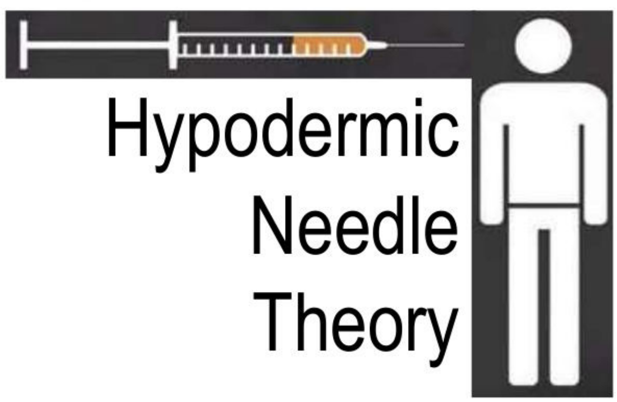
The things being observed were changes in Attitudes Emotions that were stimulated, Health effects, Behavioral changes. Overall, researchers found that media influenced both children's attitudes and behaviors.

Research was done on how certain themes affect viewers. Children and adults were tested for their response to romantic or sensual contents, galvanic skin response. Finally, the findings showed that the older adolescents were more responsive than children.

In order to find the Behavioral Impact of media, Herbert Blumer conducted questionnaires and interviews with children to young adults. Respondents reflect on how exposure to media messages affected their behavior. Result: People believed they have been influenced by media messages. Herbert Blumer in his book Movies and Conduct said "Put forward the most far-reaching hypothesis about the impact of movies on American society."

1.2.5 Early Theory of Media Effects

The Magic Bullet Theory



The theory suggests that the media (magic gun) fired the message directly into audience head without their own knowledge. The message cause the instant reaction from the audience mind without any hesitation is called "Magic Bullet Theory". The media (needle) injects the message into audience mind and it cause changes in audience behavior and psyche towards the message. Audience are passive and they can't resist the media message is called "Hypodermic Needle Theory".

Both theories deals with impact of media messages in audience's mind and how audience reacts towards the message without any hesitation.

For example,_In 1930, Newly formed mercury theater and Orson Wells join together and created a fake news bulletin about aliens invasion in American city called Grover's Mill, New jersey. They broadcast this news bulletin in between the radio program called "The War of the Worlds". The "Panic Broadcast" was reached merely 12 million American people and one million were seriously believed. Due to this broadcast the whole country was in chaos.

Hypodermic Needle Theory promotes a few basic assumptions:

- Humans react uniformly to stimuli.
- The media's message is directly "injected" into the "bloodstream" of a population like fluid from a syringe.
- Messages are strategically created to achieve desired responses.
- The effects of the media's messages are immediate and powerful, capable of causing significant behavioral change in humans.
- The public is powerless to escape the media's influence.

"The People's Choice"

One of the first studies that disproved Hypodermic Needle Theory was "The People's Choice," conducted by researchers Paul Lazarsfeld and Herta Herzog in the 1940s. The study analyzed the effects of media propaganda on people's voting decisions. Lazarsfeld and Herzog examined voting data during the 1940 election of Franklin D. Roosevelt and discovered that interpersonal sources of opinion influenced voters far more than the media did. In many cases, the media's propaganda had no effect on the public at all.

The study proved that people could choose which messages to accept from the media, as well as determine the degree to which those messages would affect them. People weren't the helpless, passive victims of the media as Hypodermic Needle Theory suggested. From his research, Lazarsfeld, along with Elihu Katz, developed the two-step flow model of communication, stating that the media's messages are first received and interpreted by opinion leaders before they reach the general public. Even the "Panic Broadcast" incident used to support Hypodermic Needle Theory was re-evaluated and declared to show diverse reactions among listeners. Like a magic bullet/a hypodermic needle, the media message will exert powerful, relatively uniform effects on everyone who processes it. The Magic Bullet Model Conceptual Model: Audience: powerless in resisting the impact of media messages Media: Dangerously powerful.

The Limited-Effects Perspective:

Joseph Klapper's The Effects of Mass Communication argued that the effects of the mass media ranged from small to negligible. Ironically, his comments came when the television came about.

The Payne Fund

To find out the behavioral impact of media Blumer used student autobiographies. Movies had a profound effect upon fantasy life. Dreams and passions are far removed from reality.

Problems with Blumer's Study was-

- Due to the Social Learning Theory, respondents might not be affected by the movie.
- The technique assumes that people are aware of how media affect them. People may be mistaken about the effects on their own behavior.

- It was not accurate to rely on people's own reports about media impact.

Conclusions of the Payne Fund studies helped to establish a legacy of fear. Legacy of fear means-

- Widespread belief that the media were dangerous.
- The effects of the media messages might pervert and upset the proper social order.
- Film makers should exercise a greater sense of social responsibility.

Features of current media studies

Valkenburg, Peter & Walther (2016) identified five main features conducting a meta-analysis on micro-level media effects theories. In 21st century, the rapid development of the Internet is significantly reforming media use patterns. Media effects studies also are more diverse and specified. The features of media effect studies are-

Selectivity of media use:

There are two propositions of this selectivity paradigm:

(a) Among the constellation of messages potentially attracting their attention, people only go to a limited portion of messages;

(b) People are only influenced by those messages they select (Klapper 1960, Rubin 2009).

Researchers had noticed the selectivity of media use decades ago, and considered it as a key factor limiting media effects. Later, two theoretical perspectives, uses-and-gratifications (Katz et al. 1973, Rubin 2009) and selective exposure theory (Knobloch-Westerwick 2015, Zillmann & Bryant 1985), had been developed based on this assumption, and aimed to pinpoint the psychological and social factors guiding and filtering audience's media selection. Generally, these theories put media user in the center of the media effect process, and conceptualize media use as a mediator between antecedents and consequences of media effects. In other words, users (with intention or not), develop their own media use effects.

Media properties as predictors

The inherent properties of media themselves are considered as predictors in media effects.

- Modality: Media formats have been evolving ever since the very beginning, whether the modality is text, auditory, visual or audiovisual is assumed to be affecting the selection and cognition of the users when they are engaging in media use. Known for his aphorism of "The medium is the message," Marshall McLuhan (1964) is one of the best-known scholars who believe it is the modality rather than the content of media that is affecting individuals and society.

- Content properties: The majority of media effects studies still focus on the impact of content (e.g., violence, fearfulness, type of character, argument strength) on audience. For example, Bandura's (2009) social cognitive theory postulates that media depictions of rewarded behavior and attractive media characters enhance the likelihood of media effects.

- Structural properties: Besides of modality and content, structural properties such as special effects, pace, visual surprises also play important roles in affecting audience. By triggering the orienting reflex to media, these properties may initiate selective exposure (Knobloch-Westerwick 2015).

Media effects are indirect

After all debates, power assumption of mass media was disproved by empirical evidence; the indirect path of the media's affect on audiences has been widely accepted. An indirect effect indicates that an independent variable (e.g., media use) affecting on the dependent variables (e.g., outcomes of media use) via one or more intervening (mediating) variables. The conceptualization of indirect media effects urges us to pay attention to those intervening variables to better explain how and why media effects occur. Besides, examining indirect effects can lead to a less biased estimation of effects sizes in empirical research (Holbert & Stephenson 2003). In a model including mediating and moderating variables, it is the combination of direct and indirect effects that makes up the total effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable. Thus, "if an indirect effect does not receive proper attention, the relationship between two variables of concern may not be fully considered" (Raykov & Marcoulides 2012).

Media effects are conditional

In correspondence with the statement that media effect is the result of a combination of variables, media effects can also be enhanced or reduced by individual difference and social context diversity. Many media effects theories hypothesize conditional media effects, including uses-and-gratifications theory (Rubin 2009), reinforcing spiral model (Slater 2007), the conditional model of political communication effects (McLeod et al. 2009),[48] the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo 1986). Take the elaboration likelihood model as an example: the variable of "need for cognition", indicating users' tendency to enjoy effortful information processing, is considered as a moderator of media effects on attitudes.

Media effects are transactional

Many theories assume reciprocal causal relationships between different variables, including characteristics of media users, factors in environment, and outcomes of media (Bandura 2009). Transactional theories further support the selectivity paradigm, which assumes that audience somehow shapes their own media effects by selectively engaging in media use; transactional theories make an effort to explain how and why this occurs. Transactional media effects theories are the most complex among the five features. There are three basic assumptions. First, communication technologies (e.g., radio, television, and internet) function as reciprocal mediators between information producers and receivers. They engage in transactions through these technologies (Bauer 1964). Second, the effects of media content are reciprocal between producers and receivers of media content. They influence each other. Producers can be influenced by receivers because they learn from what the audience need and prefer (Webster 2009). Third, transactions can be distinguished as interpersonal.

Understanding the Different Phases of Media Theory

Since the inception of communication as disciple of knowledge, scholars have come up with many theories related to its different components. Media as one of its component has been highly discussed and studied. Book as the earliest medium has had substantial influential upon scholars and readers. With the increment number of media, their influence too has increased. Based on the observations, academicians have put forward many theories describing the effect of these media. Till the date there are four dominant theories .All these theories combine up to make different eras of media theories. **The first phase** starts with origin of mass media, and continues during all 1930s. This period is characterized by passive audiences and powerful media, with strong and direct effects on individuals. Mass communication is mainly aimed at people's behaviors manipulation. Main theories of this phase are: Propaganda and Hypodermic Needle Theory.

The second phase, which goes from the 1940s to the 1960s, in a more optimistic perspective starts considering the limitations of mass communication. Media are not so powerful, because audiences are resistant to their messages. Resistance is based upon psychological individual traits and a crucial role is played by social context and Opinion Leaders. In this period proliferate many mass communication theories such: Persuasion Theory, Two Steps Flow Model, Laswell's Ws Model, and the Limited Effects Theory.

During **the third phase**, going from 1970 to 1980, there is a general step backward to the first phase with some relevant differences. Media are again considered very powerful, but their effects are no longer immediate and impacting the short run of an individual; mass communication is seen as a long run influencer able to shape an individual competences, knowledge, values and beliefs. Most important theories of this phase are: Play Theory, Uses and Gratifications Theory, Spiral of Silence, and Agenda Setting Theory.

The fourth phase started in the 1980s, and is characterized by active audiences who are able to mitigate media effects on individuals' behaviors. McQuail defined this last and current phase, with the term "**Negotiated Influence**". Media take the role of a social constructivist tool, meaning that their aim is to rise up consciousness in individuals as media programs are negotiated by individuals themselves with their expressed preferences. People have the power to choose what information and how they want it to be delivered. There is a tendency to reconsider Lazarsfeld's perspective, as suggested in 1992 by Wolf, as far as it concerns the weight of personal relationships on individuals' values, beliefs and behaviors. Social influence is not dictated by media, but goes through media and especially new media but is driven by social contexts. Strong examples of this new concept are online social networks. Most relevant theories of this period are: Cultivation Theory and Dependence Theory. It is said that the theories evolved from 'powerful effects' to 'limited effects' to 'limited-powerful effects'.

1.2.6 Summary

Media effect studies till the late 1930s were not characterized by well-developed theory and testing of specific hypothesis. The methodologies involved were the Qualitative analysis, Census and survey data. Effects were measured using experimental design, questionnaires, case studies and personal interviews. - Emotional stimulation.

1.2.7 Key Terms

Uses and gratification

Selective exposure

1.2.8 Long Questions

1. Explain Magic Bullet theory.
2. Explain Joseph Klapper's The Effects of Mass Communication.

1.2.9 Short Questions

1. **Write Short note on:**

   The People's Choice

   The Payne Fund

1.2.10 References

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LESSON NO. 1.3 AUTHOR: DR. RAJDEEP ROY

Inductive and Deductive Research

1.3.1 Objectives

To understand the concept of mass-features-behavior

-Mass audience

-Models of communication

-Functions of models

-Inductive and Deductive research

1.3.2 Introduction

The term 'mass' was first used to refer 'the common people'. Herbert Blumer described 'mass' as a special type of social formation in the modern society. Mass is different from crowd, public and group. The members of mass are anonymous independent individuals whose credentials cannot be established through simple physical means. Mass behavior is homogeneous, spontaneous, elementary and endogenous.

1.3.3 Concept of Mass

Mass is the alienated group of individuals who features the objects and areas of life. The following features of mass are significant to understand mass society.

1. Mass has a huge aggregate.
2. Mass is a symbol of power and dignity of people.
3. Mass cannot be differentiated.
4. It is spread over a large geographical territory.
5. Mass cannot be arranged in order.
6. It reflects the expectations and characteristics of the mass society.

The Mass Behavior

Unlike crowd, mass is guided by the individual intentions of action. The individual intentions of action are forms of selections. Selection of a product, selecting a venue, voting for a political candidate are all forms of selection which depend on individual intentions and act individually. These selections are often done on vogue impulses created by mass interest. When mass acts for organized movement, then it becomes mass behavior. Consequently, the behavior gets structure and thus, creates culture, rules, attitudes and consciousness.

The Mass Audience

After the advent of radio and cinema, the term 'audience' was coined. Later, television added more significance to its existence. The term 'mass audience' becomes more significant when we illustrate it from the viewpoint of media effect studies. Generally, mass audience is not organized. It is heterogeneous and widely spread. Its membership is very large with diverse demographic features. The members of mass audience do not interact with each other and remain anonymous. As they are often manipulated by the media and corporate sectors many a times, the elite member of audiences refuse to be exploited and they criticize and attack when they realize that the media is going out of control.

THE DOMINANT PARADIGM OF DEVELOPMENT

Dominant paradigm refers to the values, or system of thought, in a society that are most standard and widely held at a given time. Dominant paradigms are shaped both by the community's cultural background and by the context of the historical moment.

In his article **"THE DOMINANT PARADIGM OF DEVELOPMENT, 1976",** Everett M. Rogers stated that, 'through the late 1960s, a dominant paradigm ruled intellectual definitions and discussions of development and guided national development programs. This concept of development grew out of certain historical events, such as the Industrial Revolution in Europe and the United States, the colonial experience in Latin America Africa, and Asia, the quantitative empiricism of North American social science, and capitalistic economic/political philosophy. Implicit in the ruling paradigm were numerous assumptions which were generally thought to be valid, or at least were not widely questioned, until about the 1970s.

The dominant paradigm sought to explain the transition from traditional to modern societies. In the 19 50s, the traditional systems were the nations of Latin America, Africa, and Asia. All were relatively poor, with GNPs averaging about one-fifth or less than those of the developed nations of Europe and North America. Almost all were former colonies (the African and Asian nations more recently so), and most were still highly dependent on the developed nations for trade, capital, technology, and, in many cases, for their national language, dress, institutions, and other cultural items. It seemed that the developing nations were less able to control their environment and were more likely to be influenced by unexpected perturbations in their surroundings. In these several respects, the developing countries seemed to be somehow "inferior" to the developed nations, but of course with the hope-for potential of catching up in their overall development. The developed nations of the West were taken as the ideal toward which the developing states should aspire. The development of traditional societies into modern ones was a contemporary intellectual extension of social Darwinian evolution.

In Theory and Research

The early generation of development communication studies was dominated by modernization theory. This theory suggested that cultural and information deficits lie underneath development problems, and therefore could not be resolved only through economic assistance (a la Marshall Plan in post-war Europe). Instead, the difficulties in Third World countries were at least partially related to the existence of a traditional culture that inhibited development. Third World countries lacked the necessary culture to move into a modern stage. Culture was viewed as the 'bottleneck' that prevented the adoption of modern attitudes and behavior. McClelland (1961) and Hagen (1962) for example understood that personalities determined social structure. Traditional personalities, characterized by authoritarianism, low self-esteem, and resistance to innovation were diametrically different from modern personalities and consequently anti-development.

These studies best illustrated one of modernization's central tenets: ideas are the independent variable that explains specific outcomes. Based on this diagnosis, development communication proposed that changes in ideas would result in transformations in behavior. The underlying premise, originated in classic sociological theories, was that there is a necessary fitness between a 'modern' culture and economic and political development. The low rate of agricultural output, the high rate of fertility and mortality, or the low rates of literacy found in the underdeveloped world were explained by the persistence of traditional values and attitudes that prevented modernization. The goal was, therefore, to instill modern values and information through the transfer of media technology and the adoption of innovations and culture originated in the developed world. The Western model of development was upheld as the model to be emulated worldwide.

Because the problem of underdeveloped regions was believed to be an information problem, communication was presented as the instrument that would solve it. As theorized by Daniel Lerner (1958) and Wilbur Schramm (1964), communication basically meant the transmission of information. Exposure to mass media was one of the factors among others (e.g. urbanization, literacy) that could bring about modern attitudes. This knowledge-transfer model defined the field for years to come. Both Lerner's and Schramm's analyses and recommendations had a clear pro-media, pro-innovation and pro-persuasion focus. The emphasis was put on media-centered persuasion activities that could improve literacy and, in turn, allow populations to break free from traditionalism.

This view of change originated in two communication models. One was the Shannon-Weaver model of sender-receiver, originally developed in engineering studies that set out to explain the transmission of information among machines. It became extremely influential in communication studies. The other was the propaganda model developed during World War II according to which the mass media had 'magic bullet' effects in changing attitudes and behavior.

From a transmission/persuasion perspective, communication was understood as a linear, unidirectional process in which senders send information through media channels to receivers. Consequently, development communication was equated with the massive introduction of media technologies to promote modernization, and the widespread adoption of the mass media (newspapers, radio, cinemas, and later television) was seen as pivotal for the effectiveness of communication interventions. The media were both channels and indicators of modernization. They would serve as the agents of diffusion of modern culture, and also, suggested the degree of modernization of society.

The emphasis on the diffusion of media technologies meant that modernization could be measured and quantified in terms of media penetration. The number of television and radio sets and newspaper consumption were accepted as indicators of modern attitudes (Lerner 1958, Inkeles & Smith 1974). Statistics produced by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) showing the penetration of newspapers, radio and television sets became proxy of development. Researchers found that in countries where people were more exposed to modern media, more favorable attitudes towards modernization and development. Based on these findings, national governments and specialists agreed to use the media as instrument for the dissemination of modern ideas that would improve agriculture, health, education, and politics. So-called 'small' media such as publications, posters and leaflets were also recommended as crucial to the success of what became known as Development Support Communication, that is, the creation of the human environment necessary for a development program to succeed" (Agunga 1997).

The 'diffusion of innovations' theory elaborated by Everett Rogers (1962, 1983) became one of the most influential modernization theories. It has been said that Rogers' model has ruled development communication for decades and became the blueprint for communication activities in development. Rogers' intention was to understand the adoption of new behaviors. The premise was that innovations diffuse over time according to individuals' stages. Having reviewed over 500 empirical studies in the early 1960s, Rogers posited five stages through which an individual passes in the adoption of innovations: **awareness, knowledge** and **interest, decision, trial** and **adoption/rejection**. Populations were divided in different groups according to their propensity to incorporate innovations and timing in actually adopting them. Rogers proposed that early adopters act as models to emulate and generate a climate of acceptance and an appetite for change, and those who are slow to adopt are laggards. This latter category was assumed to describe the vast majority of the population in the Third World.

For Rogers, the subculture of the peasantry offered important psychological constraints on the incorporation of innovations, and consequently, development. His view on development reflected the transmission bias also found in Lerner and Schramm. According to Rogers, development communications entailed a 'process by which an idea is transferred from a source to a receiver with the intent to change his behavior. Usually the source wants to alter the receiver's knowledge about some idea, create or change his attitude toward the idea, or persuade him to adopt the idea as part of his regular behavior' (Rogers 1962).

However, diverging from the media-centrism and 'magic bullet' theory of effects that underpinned earlier analyses, Rogers and subsequent “diffusion” studies concluded that the media had a great importance in increasing awareness but interpersonal communication and personal sources were crucial in making decisions to adopt innovations. This revision incorporated insights from the opinion leader theory (Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955) according to which there are two steps in information flow: from the media to opinion leaders, and from leaders to the masses. Media audiences rely on the opinions of members of their social networks rather solely or mainly on the mass media. In contrast to powerful media effects models that suggested a direct relation between the mass media and the masses, Lazarsfeld and Katz found that interpersonal relations were crucial in channeling and shaping opinion. This insight was incorporated in diffusion studies, which proposed that both exposure to mass media and face-to-face interaction were necessary to induce effective change. The effectiveness of field workers in transmitting information in agricultural development projects also suggested the importance of interpersonal networks in disseminating innovations (Hornik 1988). Confirming Lerner's and Schramm's ideas, another important finding of diffusion research was that what motivate change are not economics but communication and culture. This is what studies on how farmers adopted new methods showed. Such studies were particularly influential because a substantial amount of early efforts targeted agricultural development in the Third World (Rogers 1983). Other applications targeted literacy programs and health issues, mainly family planning and nutrition.

In the mid-1970s, main representatives of modernization/diffusion theories considered it necessary to review some basic premises (Rogers 1976, 1983). In a widely quoted article, Rogers admitted 'the passing of the dominant paradigm.' Schramm and Rogers recognized that early views had individualistic and psychological biases. It was necessary to be sensitive to the specific socio cultural environment in which “communication” took place, an issue that was neglected in early analyses. To a large extent, these revisions resulted from the realization that the “trickle down” model that was originally championed was not proven to be effective in instrumenting change. The stages model remained but the top-down perspective according to which innovations diffuse from above needed modification.

Critical Paradigm

Critical theories share some ideas of the interpretative paradigm, but what makes it different is that critical paradigm focuses on oppression. Critical social scientists believe it necessary to understand the lived experience of real people in context. Persons can perceive reality outside them and represent that reality with language. Also, reality is defined by the interaction between the knower and the known. Critical approaches examine social conditions and uncover oppressive power arrangements. The theories found in this paradigm critique the known structure of social arrangement, and deny the existence of any true enduring one. They suggest, instead, a certain group has an explicit political agenda, which struggles with culture and other groups' interests. In the field of communication, critical scholars are particularly interested in how messages reinforce oppression in society. No aspect of life is interest free, even science. They believe there are some groups who benefit from oppressing others, so their main jobs are to point out the existing contradictions, in order to help people be aware of what is really going on, and create new forms of language that will enable predominant ideology to be exposed and competing ideologies to be heard.

The Models of Communication

Since 1940, there has been a big quest for communication models. The communication models help to understand how the process works, how it develops and how it affects. The communication process is an evolving phenomenon and a model represents this phenomenon in abstract terms. A communication model helps in understanding and generalizing communication, an extremely complex process.

The functions of models

A model helps in visualizing the different processes of the same communication phenomenon. It highlights the sequence of every important event. The sequence makes huge difference in creating meaning. Model creates a pattern for every communication process and that pattern focuses on flow of information and the nature of the interaction. The model suggests that each participant involved in the communication process contribute to the meaning and those meanings designate them according to their function as source, recipients etc.

The basic types

There are two basic types of communication models: Linear and Non-linear. The linear models are unidirectional. They portray the process of sending message from speaker to audience with or without effect. The linear models can be vertical and horizontal as well. On the other hand, in non-linear models, the message flow is bi-directional or multi-directional. The non-linear models are circular and convergence models.

Inductive (Qualitative) & Deductive (Quantitative) Research

Trochim refers to two "broad methods of reasoning as the inductive and deductive approaches. He defines induction as moving from the specific to the general, while deduction begins with the general and ends with the specific;

arguments based on experience or observation are best expressed inductively, while arguments based on laws, rules, or other widely accepted principles are best expressed deductively. Creswell and Plano Clark say that the deductive researcher “works from the ‘top down’, from a theory to hypotheses to data to add to or contradict the theory”. In contrast, they define the inductive researcher as someone who works from the “bottom-up, using the participants’ views to build broader themes and generate a theory interconnecting the themes”. In research, the two main types of analysis typically used are quantitative (deductive) and qualitative (inductive). Though there seems to be some disagreement among researchers as to the best method to use when conducting research and gathering data, these two methods are not mutually exclusive and often address the same question using different methods.

The major difference between the two methods is centered on how they view the nature of reality. The quantitative theorists believe “in a single reality that can be measured reliably and validly using scientific principles”, while qualitative theorists “believe in multiple constructed realities that generate different meanings for different individuals, and whose interpretations depend on the researcher’s lens”. It is the relationship between the researcher and the participant that characterizes the disciplines. In quantitative research it is believed that researchers should separate themselves from the participants while qualitative researchers are aware that the relationship between the researcher and the participant is important in the understanding of the observable event. In addition, quantitative researchers believe that “research should be value-free,” while the qualitative researcher understands that “the research is influenced to a great extent by the values of the researcher”.

Despite the many differences, Onwuegbuzie and Leech contend that there are many similarities between the two orientations. They propose replacing the terms qualitative and quantitative with exploratory and confirmatory to more clearly reflect the relationship between the two methodologies. The methods may be different but the goals remain the same and Onwuegbuzie and Leech worry that the separation of the two paradigms can lead students in graduate school to becoming “one-dimensional with regards to their knowledge of the research process”. They go on to say that “we continue to prepare students for an ‘either-or’ world, a dichotomous world, that no longer exists”. Onwuegbuzie and Leech suggest that “those who teach social/behavioral research methodology have to stop identifying themselves as qualitative or quantitative researchers". The method chosen should depend in large part on what the research question was, what one wants to know, and how they determine they will arrive at that knowledge. According to Trochim, the context, purpose, and types of research questions asked will define the methodological foundations of a study. Onwuegbuzie and Leech point to the fact that both methods include the use of research questions which are addressed through some type of observation. They also note that the observations in either method will lead the researcher to question why what they observed happened. Another similarity is how the two paradigms interpret data. Both use some form of analysis to find the meaning and employ techniques to verify the data.

Quantitative research often translates into the use of statistical analysis to make the connection between what is known and what can be learned through research. Collecting and analyzing data using quantitative strategies requires an understanding of the relationships among variables using either descriptive or inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are used to draw inferences about populations and to estimate the parameters of those populations. Inferential statistics are based on the descriptive statistics and the assumptions that generalize to the population from a selected sample. With quantitative analysis, it is possible to get visual representations for the data using graphs, plots, charts, and tables. For researchers using quantitative analysis, the conclusions are drawn from logic, evidence, and argument. The interpretation of raw data is guided by the general guidelines presented to evaluate the assertions made and to assess the validity of the instrument. Quantitative analysis also employs protocols to control for, or anticipate, as many threats to validity as is possible.

Qualitative research can be defined as a study which is conducted in a natural setting. The researcher, in effect, becomes the instrument for data collection. It is up to the researcher to gather the words of the participants and to analyze them by looking for common themes, by focusing on the meaning of the participants, and describing a process using both expressive and persuasive language. Creswell (2005) defines qualitative study as:

"a type of educational research in which the researcher relies on the view of participants, asks broad, general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or texts) from participants, describes and analyzes these words for themes, and conducts the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner."

Qualitative research is a rigorous approach to finding the answers to questions. It involves spending an extensive amount of time in the field, working in the often complex, time consuming process of data analysis, writing long passages, and participating in a form of social and human science research that does not have firm guidelines or specific procedures. Conclusions change and evolve continuously as more data is collected. Qualitative research is often said to employ inductive thinking or induction reasoning since it moves from specific observations about individual occurrences to broader generalizations and theories. In making use of the inductive approach to research, the researcher begins with specific observations and measures, and then moves to detecting themes and patterns in the data. This allows the researcher to form an early tentative hypothesis that can be explored. The results of the exploration may later lead to general conclusions or theories.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) operate from the assumption that both qualitative research and quantitative research address the same elements in the research process. The differences arise due to the way that the researchers implement each step. For Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), the differences are not opposites but are rather differences on a continuum. As a result of this conclusion, they maintain that no one study is purely quantitative or qualitative and that each method has many of the same elements.

Intent of the Research

The intent of research is typically expressed in the form of a purpose statement or the guiding objectives of the study. In quantitative research, the intent is usually to test theories deductively searching for evidence to either support or to refute the hypothesis, while qualitative researchers gather information from individuals to identify themes which allow them to develop theories inductively.

How Literature is Used

For quantitative researchers the literature review plays a major role in justifying the research and identifying the purpose of the study. The literature can be used to identify the questions to be asked and to inform the hypotheses. Literature reviews in quantitative research are more comprehensive and more detailed than is the case in qualitative research. In qualitative research, the literature review is used to provide evidence for the purpose of the study and to identify the underlying problem that will be addressed by the inquiry. The literature review is typically brief and does not usually guide the research questions to the same extent as literature reviews in quantitative research does. This is done to ensure that the literature does not limit the types of information the researcher will learn from the participants.

How Intent is Focused

The intent of a study and the literature review help to narrow the hypotheses and research questions. In quantitative research, the intent focuses on pointed, close-ended questions that test specific variables that derive from the hypotheses. The researcher tests these hypotheses in an attempt to support or refute the relationship statements in the theories. In qualitative research, the intent is to learn from the participants. Therefore, the questions tend to be open-ended to permit the complexity of a single idea or phenomenon to emerge from the participants' perspectives. The researcher often focuses on a single phenomenon to gather as much information as possible about that particular phenomena.

How Data are Collected

In quantitative research, data can be collected from many participants at many research sites. Researchers rely on gathering information either by sending or administering testing instruments to participants. Data is usually collected through the use of numbers which can be statistically analyzed. In qualitative research, the words and images of a few participants collected at their respective research sites, are recorded by the researcher.

How Data are Analyzed Quantitatively

Quantitative research makes use of numerical statistical analysis which allows researchers to either reject the hypotheses or to determine the effect size. Analyzing the data involves addressing each one of the research questions or hypotheses individually. Creswell identifies two types of statistical analysis: descriptive and inferential. He says that researchers need "descriptive statistics that indicate central tendencies in the data (mean, mode, median), the spread of scores (variance, standard deviation, and range), or a comparison of how one score relates to others (z-scores, percentile rank)". In addition, he says that analyzing the data might also identify the variables: independent, dependent, control, or mediating.

The second type of statistical analysis depends on the use of inferential statistics. This type of analysis allows the researcher to compare the effect of independent variables on one ormore groups by analyzing changes in the dependent variable. Creswell says that this allows the researcher to analyze data from a sample and then to draw conclusions about an unknown population. The purpose of this kind of study is to assess whether the differences in groups (their means) or the relationship among variables is much greater or less than what we would expect for the total population.

How Data are Analyzed Qualitatively

Qualitative researchers choose their analysis methods not only by the research questions and types of data collected but also based on the philosophical assumptions underlying the study. Analysis also requires an understanding of how to make sense of text and images so that the researcher can form answers to the research questions. Qualitative researchers look for patterns or themes in the texts or image analysis. They also look for larger patterns of generalizations. Data are gathered through methods of observation, interviewing, and document analysis. These results cannot be measured exactly, but must be interpreted and organized into themes or categories.

Creswell discusses six steps commonly used in analyzing qualitative data. The first step is to generate a large consolidated picture from the detailed data (transcriptions or typed notes from interviews) to the more specific: codes and themes. Secondly, it involves analyzing data while still in the process of collecting data. In qualitative research, the data collection and analysis are carried out at the same time. This is different from quantitative research where the collection of data comes before analysis. Thirdly, the phases of research in qualitative research are recursive, where the researcher can move back and forth between collecting data and analyzing. Fourth, qualitative researchers analyze their data by reading it over several times and conducting an analysis each time. Reviewing the material allows the researcher to continue to explore for more details and patterns related to each common theme. Fifth, there is no single approach to analyze qualitative data although several guidelines exist for the process. It is an eclectic process. Sixth, qualitative research is interpretative: the researcher makes personal assessments of the data in a descriptive format. The researcher then develops the themes that capture the major categories of information thus bringing their own perspective to the interpretations.

Role of the Researcher

The quantitative researcher believes in maintaining an objective approach to the experiment by remaining in the background. Steps are taken to ensure that any preconception is minimized so that the information gathered is not contaminated by the personal beliefs of the researcher. In contrast, qualitative researchers identify their personal stance with regards to how their experiences and backgrounds shape the interpretations they make through the coding and theme process

How Data are Validated

It is important to establish validity regardless of which research methodology is employed. Quantitative research relies on using validity procedures based on external standards, such as judges, past research, and statistics. Validity does not rely on the participants as much as it relies on the evidence that supports the interpretation of the test scores. Qualitative researchers are interested in the accuracy of the final report. They use various methods, to ensure accuracy such as member-checks (where the participants get to review their comments), or the use of many sources to verify a theme. Qualitative validity procedures rely on the participants, the researcher, or the reader.

1.3.4 Summary

Onwuegbuzie & Leech say that the roots for the dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative research lie in the different epistemological beliefs of earlier times. They also argue that the “polarization” between the two methodologies should be replaced by a new relationship in which the methodologies are complementary. Instead, they suggest that researchers introduce a new terminology that reflects the new relationship, with the word qualitative being replaced by the word exploratory and the word quantitative replaced by the word confirmatory. If the terms were replaced, researchers might see the value of allowing the purpose of the research to dictate the methodology. For instance, researchers might begin by exploring a topic that they are interested in through the use of preliminary observations, interviews, open-ended questions, and data gathering (qualitative). At this point, the researcher might use test instruments to provide numbers which could be statistically analyzed.

Alternatively, the researcher could test a hypothesis by providing participants with surveys and asking them to answer questions.

1.3.5 Key Terms

Inductive Research
Deductive Research

1.3.6 Long Questions

1. Write a note on relevance of Mass Media research in development.
2. Explain role of literature review in research.

1.3.7 Short Questions

Write short note on:

Linear Model
Non-linear Model

1.3.8 References

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LESSON NO. 1.4 **DR. RAJDEEP ROY**

Marketing Research

1.4.1 Objectives

To study and understand tools applied for Marketing Research.

1.4.2 Introduction

Marketing Research is the function that links the consumers, customers, and public to the marketer through information. This information is used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; generate, refine, and evaluate marketing actions; monitor marketing performance; and improve understanding of marketing as a process. However, Market Research is the systematic collection and evaluation of data regarding customers' preferences for actual and potential products and services. A consumer goods company that wants to develop a new cheese product for the growing Hispanic demographic can use market research. If the consumer market research demonstrates that consumers do in fact have an unsatisfied need for a cheese that could replace the product they are currently consuming in Latin America, the company could go ahead and develop the cheese product.

1.4.3 Marketing research

Marketing research is often partitioned into two sets of categorical pairs, either by target market:

- Consumer marketing research, and
- Business-to-business marketing research

Or, alternatively, by methodological approach:

- Qualitative marketing research, and
- Quantitative marketing research

Consumer marketing research is a form of applied sociology that concentrates on understanding the preferences, attitudes, and behaviors of consumers in a market-based economy, and it aims to understand the effects and comparative success of marketing campaigns. The field of consumer marketing research as a statistical science was pioneered by Arthur Nielsen with the founding of the ACNielsen Company in 1923. Thus, marketing research may also be described as the systematic and objective identification, collection, analysis, and dissemination of information for the purpose of assisting management in decision making related to the identification and solution of problems and opportunities in marketing.

There are two main approaches to marketing; Primary and secondary research methods**.** Secondary research involves using information that others have already put together. For example, if you are thinking about starting a business making clothes for tall people, you don’t need to question people about how tall they are to find out how many tall people exist—that information has already been published by the U.S. Government. Primary research, in contrast, is research that you design and conduct yourself. For example, you may need to find out whether consumers would prefer that your soft drinks be sweater or tarter.

Research will often help us reduce risks associated with a new product, but it cannot take the risk away entirely. It is also important to ascertain whether the research has been complete. For example, Coca Cola did a great deal of research prior to releasing the New Coke, and consumers seemed to prefer the taste. However, consumers were not prepared to have this drink replace traditional Coke. Several tools are available to the market researcher including mail questionnaires, surveys, observation, and focus group study to conduct market research.

1.4.4 Survey

Surveys are useful for getting a great deal of specific information. Surveys can contain open-ended questions. Open ended questions have the advantage that the respondent is not limited to the options listed, and that the respondent is not being influenced by seeing a list of responses. However, open-ended questions are often skipped by respondents, and coding them can be quite a challenge. In general, for surveys to yield meaningful responses, sample sizes of over 100 are usually required because precision is essential. For example, if a market share of twenty percent would result in a loss while thirty percent would be profitable, a confidence interval of 20-35% is too wide to be useful.

Surveys come in several different forms. Mail surveys are relatively inexpensive, but response rates are typically quite low. Phone-surveys get somewhat higher response rates, but not many questions can be asked because many answer options have to be repeated and few people are willing to stay on the phone for more than five minutes. Mall intercepts are a convenient way to reach consumers, but respondents may be reluctant to discuss anything sensitive face-to-face with an interviewer.

Surveys, as any kind of research, are vulnerable to bias. The wording of a question can influence the outcome to a great deal. For example, more people answered no to the question “Should speeches against democracy be allowed?”

than answered yes to “Should speeches against democracy be forbidden?” For face-to-face interviews, interviewer bias is a danger, too. Interviewer bias occurs when the interviewer influences the way the respondent answers. For example, unconsciously an interviewer that works for the firm manufacturing the product in question may smile a little when something good is being said about the product and frown a little when something negative is being said. The respondent may catch on and say something more positive than his or her real opinion. Finally, a response bias may occur—if only part of the sample responds to a survey, the respondents’ answers may not be representative of the population.

1.4.5 Focus group

Focus groups are useful when the marketer wants to launch a new product or modify an existing one. A focus group usually involves having some 8-12 people come together in a room to discuss their consumption preferences and experiences. The group is usually led by a moderator, who will start out talking broadly about topics related broadly to the product without mentioning the product itself. For example, a focus group aimed at sugar-free cookies might first address consumers’ snacking preferences, only gradually moving toward the specific product of sugar-free cookies. By not mentioning the product up front, we avoid biasing the participants into thinking only in terms of the specific product brought out. Thus, instead of having consumers think primarily in terms of what might be good or bad about the product, we can ask them to discuss more broadly the ultimate benefits they really seek.

Focus groups are well suited for some purposes, but poorly suited for others. In general, focus groups are very good for getting breadth—i.e., finding out what kinds of issues are important for consumers in a given product category. Here, it is helpful that focus groups are completely “open-ended:” The consumer mentions his or her preferences and opinions, and the focus group moderator can ask the consumer to elaborate. In a questionnaire, if one did not think to ask about something, chances are that few consumers would take the time to write out an elaborate answer. Focus groups also have some disadvantages, for example:

- They represent small sample sizes. Because of the cost of running focus groups, only a few groups can be run. Suppose you run four focus groups with ten members each. This will result in an n of 4(10)=40, which is too small to generalize from. Therefore, focus groups cannot give us a good idea of:

- The proportion of the population is likely to buy the product.
- The price consumers are willing to pay.
- The groups are inherently social.

This means that--

- Consumers will often say things that may make them look good (i.e., they watch public television rather than soap operas or cook fresh meals for their families daily) even if that is not true.
- Consumers may be reluctant to speak about embarrassing issues (e.g., weight control, birth control).

1.4.6 Personal interview

Personal interviews involve in-depth questioning of an individual about his or her interest in or experiences with a product. The benefit here is that we can get really into depth (when the respondent says something interesting, we can ask him or her to elaborate), but this method of research is costly and can be extremely vulnerable to interviewer bias.

1.4.7 Observation

Observation of consumers is often a powerful tool. Looking at how consumers select products may yield insights into how they make decisions and what they look for. For example, some American manufacturers were concerned about low sales of their products in Japan. Observing Japanese consumers, it was found that many of these Japanese consumers scrutinized packages looking for a name of a major manufacturer—the product specific-brands that are common in the U.S. (e.g., Tide) were not impressive to the Japanese, who wanted a name of a major firm like Mitsubishi or Proctor & Gamble. Observation may help us determine how much time consumers spend comparing prices, or whether nutritional labels are being consulted.

1.4.8 The Marketing Research Design

- Qualitative marketing research is generally used for exploratory purposes for small number of respondents, It is cannot be generalized to the whole population. The statistical significance and confidence is not calculated. The examples include focus groups, in-depth interviews, and projective techniques as explained earlier.

- Quantitative marketing research is generally used to draw conclusions and test a specific hypothesis. It uses random sampling techniques so as to infer from the sample to the population. It involves a large number of respondents. Techniques include choice modelling, maximum difference preference scaling, and covariance analysis.

Based on observations

- Ethnographic studies are by nature qualitative, the researcher observes social phenomena in their natural setting, observations are cross-sectional (observations made at one time) or longitudinal (observations occur over several time-periods) - examples include product-use analysis and computer cookie traces.

- Experimental techniques - by nature quantitative, the researcher creates a quasi-artificial environment to try to control spurious factors, then manipulates at least one of the variables.

Researchers often use more than one research design. They may start with secondary research to get background information and then conduct a focus group (qualitative research design) to explore the issues. Finally they might do a full nationwide survey (quantitative research design) in order to devise specific recommendations for the client.

Self Check Exercise

Conduct an interview to know an individual's interest for buying a new car.

1.4.9 Significance of Marketing Research

The marketing research provides management with relevant, accurate, reliable, valid, and current market information. Competitive marketing environment and the ever-increasing costs attributed to poor decision making require that marketing research provide sound information. Sound decisions are not based on gut feeling, intuition, or even pure judgement.

Managers make numerous strategic and tactical decisions in the process of identifying and satisfying customer needs. They make decisions about potential opportunities, target market selection, market segmentation, planning and implementing marketing programs, marketing performance, and control. These decisions are complicated by interactions between the controllable marketing variables of product, pricing, promotion, and distribution. Further complications are added by uncontrollable environmental factors such as general economic conditions, technology, public policies and laws, political environment, competition, and social and cultural changes. Another factor in this mix is the complexity of consumers.

Marketing research helps the marketing manager link the marketing variables with the environment and the consumers. It helps remove some of the uncertainty by providing relevant information about the marketing variables, environment, and consumers. In the absence of relevant information, consumers' response to marketing programs cannot be predicted reliably or accurately. Ongoing marketing research programs provide information on controllable and non-controllable factors and consumers; this information enhances the effectiveness of decisions made by marketing managers.

Traditionally, marketing researchers were responsible for providing the relevant information and marketing decisions were made by the managers. However, the roles are changing and marketing researchers are becoming more involved in decision making, whereas marketing managers are becoming more involved with research. The role of marketing research in managerial decision making is explained further using the framework of the "DECIDE" model.

Organizations engage in marketing research for two reasons: (1) to identify and (2) solve marketing problems. This distinction serves as a basis for classifying marketing research into problem identification research and problem solving research.

Problem identification research is undertaken to help identify problems which are, perhaps, not apparent on the surface and yet exist or are likely to arise in the future like company image, market characteristics, sales analysis, short-range forecasting, long range forecasting, and business trends research. Research of this type provides information about the marketing environment and helps diagnose a problem. For example, the findings of problem solving research are used in making decisions which will solve specific marketing problems.

The Stanford Research Institute, on the other hand, conducts an annual survey of consumers that is used to classify persons into homogeneous groups for segmentation purposes. The National Purchase Diary panel (NPD) maintains the largest diary panel in the United States.

Standardized services are research studies conducted for different client firms but in a standard way. For example, procedures for measuring advertising effectiveness have been standardized so that the results can be compared across studies and evaluative norms can be established. The Starch Readership Survey is the most widely used service for evaluating print advertisements; another well-known service is the Gallup and Robinson Magazine Impact Studies. These services are also sold on a syndicated basis.

Marketing research techniques come in many forms:

- Ad Tracking – periodic or continuous in-market research to monitor a brand’s performance using measures such as brand awareness, brand preference, and product usage. (Young, 2005)
- Advertising Research – used to predict copy testing or track the efficacy of advertisements for any medium, measured by the ad’s ability to get attention (measured with Attention Tracking), communicate the message, build the brand’s image, and motivate the consumer to purchase the product or service. (Young, 2005)
- Brand equity research — how favorably do consumers view the brand?

- Brand association research — what do consumers associate with the brand?
- Brand attributes research — what are the key traits that describe the brand promise?
- Brand name testing - what do consumers feel about the names of the products?
- Commercial eye tracking research — examine advertisements, package designs, websites, etc. by analyzing visual behavior of the consumer
- Concept testing - to test the acceptance of a concept by target consumers
- Cool hunting - to make observations and predictions in changes of new or existing cultural trends in areas such as fashion, music, films, television, youth culture and lifestyle
- Buyer decision making process research — to determine what motivates people to buy and what decision-making process they use; over the last decade, Neuro marketing emerged from the convergence of neuroscience and marketing, aiming to understand consumer decision making process
- Copy testing – predicts in-market performance of an ad before it airs by analyzing audience levels of attention, brand linkage, motivation, entertainment, and communication, as well as breaking down the ad's flow of attention and flow of emotion. (Young, p 213)
- Customer satisfaction research - quantitative or qualitative studies that yields an understanding of a customer's satisfaction with a transaction
- Demand estimation — to determine the approximate level of demand for the product
- Distribution channel audits — to assess distributors' and retailers' attitudes toward a product, brand, or company
- Internet strategic intelligence — searching for customer opinions in the Internet: chats, forums, web pages, blogs... where people express freely about their experiences with products, becoming strong opinion formers.
- Marketing effectiveness and analytics — Building models and measuring results to determine the effectiveness of individual marketing activities.

- Mystery consumer or mystery shopping - An employee or representative of the market research firm anonymously contacts a salesperson and indicates he or she is shopping for a product. The shopper then records the entire experience. This method is often used for quality control or for researching competitors' products.
- Positioning research — how does the target market see the brand relative to competitors? - What does the brand stand for?
- Price elasticity testing — to determine how sensitive customers are to price changes
- Sales forecasting — to determine the expected level of sales given the level of demand. With respect to other factors like Advertising expenditure, sales promotion etc.
- Segmentation research - to determine the demographic, psychographic, cultural, and behavioral characteristics of potential buyers
- Online panel - a group of individual who accepted to respond to marketing research online
- Store audit — to measure the sales of a product or product line at a statistically selected store sample in order to determine market share, or to determine whether a retail store provides adequate service
- Test marketing — a small-scale product launch used to determine the likely acceptance of the product when it is introduced into a wider market
- Viral Marketing Research - refers to marketing research designed to estimate the probability that specific communications will be transmitted throughout an individual's Social Network. Estimates of Social Networking Potential (SNP) are combined with estimates of selling effectiveness to estimate ROI on specific combinations of messages and media.

All of these forms of marketing research can be classified as either problem-identification research or as problem-solving research.

1.4.10 Summary

Traditionally, marketing researchers were responsible for providing the relevant information and marketing decisions were made by the managers. However, the roles are changing and marketing researchers are becoming more involved in decision making, whereas marketing managers are becoming more involved with research.

1.4.11 Key Terms

Brand equity

Price Elasticity

Online Panel

1.4.12 Long Questions

1. Explain significance of marketing research with examples.
2. Focus groups are well suited for some purposes, but poorly suited for others. Comment.

1.4.13 Short Questions

Write note on

Focus group

Interview

1.4.14 References

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M.A. (JMC) PART-II **PAPER IX**
SEMESTER-III **RESEARCH APPLICATIONS**

LESSON NO. 1.5 **DR. RAJDEEP ROY**

Consumer Research

1.5.1 Objectives

To study consumer research process, scope and opportunities. And to understand the benefits of advertising research.

1.5.2 Introduction

It is a Part of market research in which the preferences, motivations, and buying behavior of the target customer are identified through direct observation, mail surveys, telephone, or face to face interviews, and from published sources such as demographic data and others.

1.5.3 Importance of Consumer Research

Consumer Research enables marketers to predict how consumers will react to promotional messages and to understand why they make the purchase decisions. Marketers realize that more they know about their target consumers' decision making process, the more likely they are to design marketing strategies and promotional messages that will favorably influence these consumers. Consumer Research enables marketers to study and understand consumers' needs and how they make consumption decisions.

The Quantitative Consumer Research is descriptive in nature. It enables marketers to "predict" consumer behavior. The research methods include experiments, survey techniques, and observation. Findings are descriptive, empirical and can be generalized.

On the other hand, Qualitative Consumer Research consists of depth interviews, focus groups, metaphor analysis, and projective techniques. It is administered by highly trained interviewer-analysts. The findings tend to be subjective. The sample sizes are comparatively small.

1.5.4 The Consumer Research Process

Six steps are involved in consumer research process. These are:

- Defining the objectives of the research
- Collecting and evaluating secondary data
- Designing a primary research study
- Collecting primary data
- Analyzing the data
- Preparing a report on the findings

1.5.5 Scope and opportunities of consumer research

Consumption and spending pattern of urban and rural customers are changing at a fast pace. Socio-economic changes are resulting in creation of new markets and expansion of existing markets. There is an elite class of consumers living in the top cities who can be identified with any developed country in terms of consumption habits. There is a large size of 'climbers' who are a large market size. 'Aspirants' provide opportunities for low priced brands/ commodities. Rural Indian Market has a huge potential and is a differentiated market. Rural disposable incomes are growing and present opportunities to companies. There is a requirement for a rural marketing mix with relevant advertising and use of non-conventional media.

1.5.6 Advertising Research

A research conducted to improve the efficiency of an advertisement is known as advertising research. The research could be focused on one particular advertisement or could be conducted in general to know the impact of advertising on consumer behavior.

The approach used for this research could be of different forms like sociological, psychological, economic, emotional etc. Advertising companies generally offer two types of research- customized and syndicated. **Customized research** is, when a company asks the researcher to conduct a research of a particular need. The results of this research are provided only to that client company. **Syndicated research** is more of a generic research conducted by the researcher, the results of which are sold to various clients. Example: If the firm Nielsen is asked by HUL to conduct a research on the popularity of its shampoo brand **Sunsilk**, the research that is thus conducted will be a customised research. But if Nielsen has already conducted a research on 'The preferences of Indian youth while buying a shampoo' and now, if HUL or any other firm buys the results of this research, it is said to be a syndicated research.

There are various approaches used in advertising research. Amongst all the approaches, **copy-testing** is the extensively used one. Copy testing is a method that uses consumer responses, feedback and behaviour to arrive at some results. Copy testing is done in three dimensions- Cognitive dimension, affective dimension and Conative dimension. In the cognitive dimension, research is conducted to know, what consumers know about the product, brand, service or what do they recall from the previous ads. This is generally done by forming focus groups, physiological studies etc. The next dimension is the **affective dimension**. This dimension studies what are the changes in the attitude of the consumer, about the product, after being exposed to a particular advertisement or campaign. This is done by forming focus groups, central location testing etc. **Conative dimension** refers to studying the actual consumer behaviour, to know what will they 'do' after watching an advertisement. The consumer is asked if they are willing to buy a product, after being exposed to an ad or the sales of a particular product are tracked down after the release of an ad or campaign.

Self Check Exercise

Conduct a research on the popularity of Pitanjali Shampoo.

Other approaches in advertising research could be:

1. Psychographic studies- To know the attitude and behaviour of a consumer towards a particular product, to target these attitude characteristics through ads.

2. Market segmentation- Consumers are divided in different groups based on some quality like age, income etc. Their tastes regarding different features of a product are studied and advertisements are thus made.

3. Audience size and composition studies- It is used to know the reach and frequency of an ad.

4. Market share studies- These are used to study the changes in market share of the company, if any, before and after the launch of an ad campaign.

5. Competitors' studies- The strategies that the competitor is using are thoroughly studied and its effects on the products and markets of the company are noted.

6. Popularity research- Used to know the popularity of a particular advertisement.

After the data is collected, mathematical tools like regression, correlation can be used to study the data and obtain the results. The effectiveness of a research depends upon the validity of its results and this validity is obtained, only if the consumers respond properly to the questionnaire or feedback.

Steps for successful campaign

- **Apply the 5 Ps**: In social marketing, the 5 Ps—product, place, price, promotion, and policy—can help guide health promotion practices. This simple framework helps identify the behavior you are trying to encourage (product), where your target audience adopts or thinks about a behavior (place), the barriers to that behavior (price), and how to influence the behavior (promotion). The fifth P, which is a recent addition to this construct, considers the way policy influences this behavior.

- **Choose the right message appeal:** Message appeals are the means by which people are influenced to adopt a behavior. Examples of appeals include threat/fear, rationality, emotion, humor, and individualism. Some campaigns may employ more than one appeal. How you determine your appeal(s) should be based on your target audience. For instance, after pre-testing your messages, you may find that older populations are generally more influenced by fear, while younger audiences are influenced by emotional and humorous appeals.

- **Know your audience:** Identifying your target audience not only helps you choose the right message appeal, it also helps you choose what type of media to use in your campaign. A campaign for teens may be a good fit for a social media campaign or a television ad, but a campaign for parents might employ billboards or radio ads. Before buying ad space, do your research, and make sure your decisions will get the best return on investment.

- **Identify "free" placement opportunities:** Some media outlets will place PSAs at no cost. (Don't forget—you will still endure production costs!) These radio or TV spots are usually either 30 or 60 seconds long. It's a good idea to have both versions so the station can be flexible. Keep in mind that this placement is made at the discretion of the station, so work with their production team to arrange air times that are effective for your campaign.

- **Test your message:** As we've mentioned, campaigns are pricey. To make sure you are spending wisely, pre-test your message, formally or informally. This will help you better predict how your target audience will respond to the campaign and its messages and give you the chance to adjust your materials accordingly.

1.5.7 Limitations of Marketing Research

Marketing Research (MR) is not an exact science though it uses the techniques of science. Thus, the results and conclusions drawn upon by using MR are not very accurate. The results of MR are very vague as MR is carried out on consumers, suppliers, intermediaries, etc. who are humans. Humans have a tendency to behave artificially when they know that they are being observed. Thus, the consumers and respondents upon whom the research is carried behave artificially when they are aware that their attitudes, beliefs, views, etc are being observed. MR is not a complete solution to any marketing issue as there are many dominant variables between research conclusions and market response. MR is not free from bias. The research conclusions cannot be verified. The reproduction of the same project on the same class of respondents give different research results. Inappropriate training to researchers can lead to misapprehension of questions to be asked for data collection. Many business executives and researchers have ambiguity about the research problem and its objectives. They have limited experience of the notion of the decision-making process. This leads to carelessness in research and researchers are not able to do anything real. There is less interaction between the MR department and the main research executives. The research department is in segregation. This all makes research ineffective. MR faces time constraint. The firms are required to maintain a balance between the requirement for having a broader perspective of customer needs and the need for quick decision making so as to have competitive advantage. Huge cost is involved in MR as collection and processing of data can be costly. Many firms do not have the proficiency to carry wide surveys for collecting primary data, and might not be able to hire specialized market experts and research agencies to collect primary data. Thus, in that case, they go for obtaining secondary data that is cheaper to obtain. MR is conducted in open marketplace where numerous variables act on research settings.

1.5.8 Summary

Market Research is the systematic collection and evaluation of data regarding customers' preferences for actual and potential products and services. The types are Consumer marketing research, and Business-to-business marketing research or, alternatively, by methodological approach, Qualitative marketing research and Quantitative marketing research. Qualitative marketing research is generally used for exploratory purposes for small number of respondents. Quantitative marketing research is generally used to draw conclusions and test a specific hypothesis.

1.5.9 Questions

1. Write a detailed note on importance of marketing research.
2. What is the scope of Consumer Research in social media.

1.5.10 Key terms

Consumer marketing research

Business-to-business marketing research

Qualitative and quantitative research

AC Nielsen

Applied sociology

Survey

Interview

Questionnaire

Focus group

Ethnographic studies

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Mandatory Student Feedback Form

https://forms.gle/KS5CLhvpwrpgjwN98

Note: Students, kindly click this google form link, and fill this feedback form once.