

BLOCK 2
INVESTIGATION OF DATA

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UNIT 4

Fieldwork Tradition in Anthropology

UNIT 5

Research Design

UNIT 6

Methods and Methodology

UNIT 7

Tools and Techniques

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UNIT 4 FIELDWORK TRADITIONS IN ANTHROPOLOGY

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Learning Outcomes

After reading this unit, the student will learn to:

- Define the concept of anthropology as a field science;
- Explain the criticisms of arm-chair anthropology;
- Attempt the initiation of fieldwork in anthropology;
- Discuss the relevance of anthropological fieldwork;
- Describe field in the twenty first century; and
- Evaluate the importance of ethics in fieldwork.

4.0. INTRODUCTION

This unit will reflect on how investigation of data in anthropology began. For data to be investigated the first step is data collection. In anthropology data collection begins with fieldwork. Fieldwork is an essential part of being an anthropologist as s/he is involved in first hand contact and data collection from the informants. This unit will provide the genesis of fieldwork in anthropology- its initiation, relevance and importance that makes anthropology a 'field science'. The core theme of this unit would be to explore the reasons why anthropology is known as a field science, how the tradition of collecting first- hand information through direct contact with the informants developed in anthropology, and the significance and relevance of fieldwork in the present world. You may also read BANC 102 Unit 11 which also deals with fieldwork traditions.

4.1 ARMCHAIR ANTHROPOLOGIST AND DATA COLLECTION

Anthropology, as you must have realised by now developed out of human curiosity to know what lies beyond the immediate horizons. As a discipline anthropology saw its origin in Europe and America that we refer to as the western world around

the early 18th century. During this time, human curiosity had led to the beginning of journeys to traverse the distance and find out more about the non-western world. The horizons were basically crossed by the travelers, the missionaries, the traders, the army personnel, administrators etc. These people brought back stories of their travels and interaction with people who were quite different in terms of culture and society. These stories became the data for the anthropologists during the formative era of anthropology. The source of data was never authenticated, leading to much imagination on the part of the anthropologist who tried to reproduce the lives of the people as they deemed logical. Such anthropologists who never went to the field or ever came in first-hand contact with the people under study were labelled as ‘armchair anthropologists’ by the later generations of anthropologists who initiated first-hand data collection.

First-hand data collection involves direct contact with the informants. The works of the armchair anthropologists were thus, criticised as “biased, exaggerated and prejudiced pieces of information that were gathered by unskilled lay persons. Often their purpose was to shock the western world with the existence of odd and peculiar practices of the non-western people” (Srivastava, 2020:148). As Srivastava has rightly pointed out, the information the armchair anthropologists collected through second hand sources were more of distorted stories of the people that were laced with creation of the ‘exotic other’ to shock the western world, rather than a detailed interpretation of their way of life. It was more deemed fit to be a coffee table work to be discussed with fellow men. The lack of first-hand contact with the people and non-validation of data proved futile for the armchair anthropologists. It became the reason for strong criticisms in the later years, as anthropology slowly grew in strength as a field science. Sir James Frazer’s work *Golden Bough* which was published in two volumes in 1890, three volumes in 1905 and twelve volumes in 1906-1915 reflects the work of an armchair anthropologist who never directly visited the field.

Check Your Progress

1. “Armchair anthropologists collected first-hand data”. State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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2. What were the sources of data for the armchair anthropologists?

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3. Who authored *Golden Bough*?

4.2 INITIATION OF FIELDWORK

As we say ‘Rome was not built in a day’ so is the case with systematic and organised anthropological fieldwork. Anthropology as a discipline had to go through various attempted field trips to be recognised as a ‘field science’. In Herbert Spencer’s work *Social Statics*, 1851: 63 the term evolution was used to explain ‘progress’ that set the ball rolling for the anthropologists to work on evolution of society. This work was published much before the publication of Charles Darwin’s *On the Origin of Species*, 1859, (Carneiro, 2003: 3) which was a turning point for other disciplines to understand the concept of evolution. Thus, evolutionary approach came up in the anthropological studies mainly concerning evolution of societies, institutions and their forms, how societies moved from the stages of barbarism, hunting gathering and finally reached the stage of civilisation. The information for such data mainly came from the travelers’ accounts. It would be a misnomer at this juncture to state that the classical anthropologists did not venture out to the field. Attempts were made to carry out fieldwork, however, these were amateur attempts and they heavily relied more on traveler accounts and historical assumptions than on studying the communities and societies first-hand.

Edward Burnette Tylor (1832-1917) a British anthropologist and an advocate of the theory of human development (evolutionism) assisted an amateur archaeologist in his field expedition to Mexico in the mid 1850s. In 1861, Tylor published his first work *Anahuac, or Mexico and the Mexicans, Ancient and Modern* based on this fieldwork. However, Tylor is reckoned more with giving the anthropological world one of the most well-known definition of culture in his work *Primitive Culture* (1891). The work was based on information gathered through secondary sources. Lewis Henry Morgan (1818-1881), an American anthropologist working on evolutionism and a contemporary of Tylor, gave us the concept of kinship and social structure. He worked among the Iroquois, while working on their legal matters, who were practically living in his backyard, and published his findings in the book called *League of the Iroquois* in 1851. Morgan a lawyer by profession, later carried out field studies among many other North American tribes and their kinship systems. Based on his findings Morgan was one of the first to propose that the earliest domestic institutions were matrilineal clans and not the patrilineal families. Morgan’s work on kinship housed kinship studies within the domain of anthropological purview, that was later borrowed by sociology and other social sciences.

The reckoning of fieldwork within the discipline of anthropology came with the famous Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to the Torres Strait Islands in the Pacific, Australia, that went up to New Guinea and Borneo in 1898. The team was led by Alfred Cort Haddon (1855-1940) who started his career as a biologist and finally moved on to anthropology and ethnology. W.H.R. Rivers, William McDougall, C.S. Myers, Sidney H. Ray, Anthony Wilkin, and C. G. Seligman were the scholars who made the team. The aim of the expedition was to record the societies and their belief structures. This field expedition is also reckoned for recording of audio data in terms of music and songs, still photography

and filming. Haddon's contribution to Haptic cinematography emanates from this expedition which has left a mark in anthropology. William Halse Rivers trained as a physician, moved on to psychology and finally became rooted to anthropology with the Torres Strait expedition. He later went on to study the Todas of Southern India. His work gave the genealogical method to anthropology, which is still reflected upon by the present generations of anthropologists.

Franz Boas (1858-1942) an American anthropologist around the same time carried out his first fieldwork among the Inuit of the Baffin Island, Canada in 1883. Boas owing to his strong belief in first hand data collection, denounced and strongly criticised the methods used by the armchair anthropologists. He propagated the study of a society for its relevance in the present meaning 'here and now'. This concept of looking at a society through its own lens rather than judging it on the basis of a comparison with other societies came to be known as cultural relativism. Boas emphasised on understanding the culture of a society in relevance to its present context and thereby reconstruct the history. He accentuated that cultures cannot be ranked on a scale, and vehemently opposed the idea of the objective notion of one society being superior or inferior to another. Boas argued that the history along with its growth and evolution of a society needed to be investigated in its present relevance to interpret and complete the picture. Boas argued that historical particularism took into account the growth of ideas with much greater accuracy than the generalisation of the comparative method that was being used by the classical anthropologists (Hyatt 990:43). Boas accentuated that archaeological, physical, cultural and linguistic aspects need to be taken into account simultaneously while studying a culture. He was the first one to work on all the four branches of anthropology that later became popular in the 20th century. Boas was a visionary who also worked with images. During his study of the Kwakiutl's Winter ceremony at Tsaxis he collected visual data and the publication 'The Kwakiutl of Vancouver Island' 1909 included 173 figures and 26 plates. Boas with his insight on fieldwork for anthropological investigations was reckoned as the Father of American anthropology.

Alfred Reginald Radcliffe-Brown's work on the Andaman Islanders was also based on field study. He spent almost two years in the field (1906-08) for his Master's dissertation which he submitted in 1910. Brown's work concentrated largely on the everyday functioning of the activities in the field and looked at it from a functional point of view. However, as a student of W.H.R. Rivers he also looked into the aspects of diffusion of cultural traits. Though his work could not leave a mark in the academic world in terms of fieldwork, yet he showed the importance of fieldwork in understanding a society.

The reckoning of fieldwork as a method in anthropology is credited to Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942). A Polish anthropologist Malinowski studied social anthropology in Britain under the tutelage of C.G. Seligman. He is known for his intensive fieldwork carried out in Trobriand Island. He pitched his tent right in the middle of the village and lived in the midst of the people for nearly thirty-one months from August 1914-March 1915, again May 1915-May 1916 and finally from October 1917 to October 1918. Malinowski laid the foundation for extended stay in the field. Malinowski not only set a bench mark with his long-extended stay in the field, but also laid emphasis on the importance for the use of local language to communicate with the informants. He learned the language to communicate with the people and participated in the day to day activities of the

people under study to become a part of the community. Communicating in the local language and participating in the everyday activities of the community helped in creating an understanding of the field situation that led to the insider's eye. In *Argonauts of the Western Pacific*, Malinowski has vividly described that the objective of the anthropological investigation is to, '*grasp the native's point of view, his relation to life, realize his vision of his world*' (1922:25). The role of the anthropologist is to present an emic (insider) rather than an etic (outsider) view, as Malinowski the researcher experienced the life of the informants first hand through participation. His work also directed at the importance of rapport building, how a researcher can gain inroads to the community through sharing and gaining trust among the respondents. From Malinowski's work three premises were deduced for strengthening anthropological fieldwork, which today is its hallmark: a. long extended stay in the field, b. communicating in the native language and c. participant observation.

Malinowski in his work *The Argonauts of the Western Pacific* had stated that "one has to cut oneself off from the company of other white men, ... camping right in their villages" (Malinowski, 1922: 6). This statement presumes that fieldwork was a men's prerogative where women did not have a space. However, women did enter the field and have been working way before World War I, with Elsie Clews Parsons as one of the few women of her time who did fieldwork in the American Southwest in 1910. It was gradually held that women have more access to women respondents' lives, a point which was advocated by E. B. Tylor in the 19th century itself who suggested that wives should assist their husbands for fieldwork to assist in such areas (Visweswaran, 1997). Boas too advocated this sentiment as he believed that "women had access to areas of social life men did not have; he considered women more intuitive and skilled in interpersonal relationships and urged them to collect data on the emotional expressive sides of life" (Modell, 1984: 181). A legacy that was carried forward by Boas' students, Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead, Cora Du Bois etc. all women who did their fieldwork in the 1920s and 30s and became leading anthropologists of their time. Mead's work in Samoa was a breakthrough in the understanding of coming of age. Her work reflected on the culture that has an impact on teenagers and how the society has a role to play in growing up. Mary Douglas in the 1940s came to be reckoned for her fieldwork in the Congo on ritual purity and impurity and symbolism. Annette Weiner's work on the Trobriand Islanders is quite remarkable as she brought out the women's role and contribution in the economy that was widely missing in Malinowski's work. Leela Dube's work that brings to light the relationship between 'women and kinship' is commendable as it presented the women's perspective in a patriarchal society. Women anthropologists through their research have been able to bring out the notions of feminism and sexuality which has taken anthropological studies to a new realm.

Check Your Progress

- Herbert Spencer in his work *Social Statics* used the term evolution. State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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5. Franz Boas emphasised on cultural relativism while conducting fieldwork. State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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6. Margaret Mead did not conduct fieldwork. State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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4.3 RELEVANCE OF FIELDWORK IN ANTHROPOLOGY

Anthropology today in many ways have become synonym with ‘going to the field’ and ‘writing cultures/ethnography’. The authority and rhetoric have spread to many fields where ‘culture’ is a newly problematic object of description and critique (Clifford 1984:3) in the present era. Ethnography which stems from fieldwork, as a method, is now being widely borrowed by not only social sciences but also natural and biological sciences. The significance of fieldwork lies in the fact that it is conducted in a natural setting, data is collected first hand by a researcher who is continuously in touch with the informants, most times speaking the local language and through participant observation. “Anthropology is the naturalist’s trade: you sit and watch and learn from the species in its natural setting” (Luhmann 1989:15).

The information thus gathered reflects on the views that give a first-hand description of an event or phenomena making it the insiders view (emic). This emic view gives authentication to data collected through fieldwork. It is a method that helps in distinguishing between; ‘what people think’, ‘what people say’, ‘what people do’, and ‘what people say they ought to have done’ (Srivastava 2004:11 and 2020: 149). Many a times people respond in a way that they feel is normatively correct and socially acceptable. For instance, a person might say we need to use a spoon while eating however, the reality might be that the person uses his/her fingers while eating. A researcher staying in the field and working alongside the informants, observing their behaviour gets a clear picture of what people say they do and what in reality they do. Reality is only exposed when a researcher is in close contact with the informants to investigate, validate and interpret the actual way of life which maybe is quite different from the ‘ideal’ or what one may think as the ideal way of living.

Check Your Progress

7. “Ethnography is based on insider’s view”. State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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8. What is the significance of fieldwork in anthropology?

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4.4 FIELDWORK IN THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY

By now the learners are quite aware that in anthropology there are four main branches. The essence of each of these branches lie in fieldwork. Herein, the question that arises is; “if the ‘field’ is same for all”? Let us think for a moment if the physical, social, linguistic and the archaeological anthropologists would go to the same field for data collection. We may argue that the space for fieldwork in terms of physical, social and the linguistic anthropologists would be same, as these branches deal with human origin, variation, behaviour and culture, however, the tools and techniques used for data collection would vary. The point of departure comes for the archaeological anthropologists as for them there is no direct interaction with human beings. So, what do they do? Archaeological anthropologist builds on the human story through an intensive study of the reminiscences found in material culture in order to reconstruct the past lives. Thus, for archaeological fieldwork the field is without living human informants.

The learners at this junction might remember from their earlier studies (Unit 11 of BANC 102 course) that today fieldwork is not merely associated with going off on an expedition to a faraway place or living among the ‘natives’. The very concept of field itself is fast changing. Anthropologists, though primarily concerned with the lesser known societies, are also taking into consideration the developed and the developing societies. Field today could be an institution, an organisation in which the focus of anthropologists is on corporate, business life, market trends etc. The media, performing arts, movies are all areas of interest for anthropologists. Health and well-being, genesis of diseases, the remains from the past cultures are being researched by physical and ethno-archaeologists. Field can either be a rural or an urban space. Anthropological fieldwork today pertains not only to the study of the ‘other’ but also the ‘self’ as anthropologists are now writing about their lived experiences through auto-ethnographic narratives. Thus, anthropologists today are also working among one’s own people. The virtual space has been in focus among anthropologists, human beings are now carrying out much of their activities online. The virtual world has thus become a field for the anthropologists. In earlier times fieldwork pertained to doing research at a particular site or space. Today fieldwork can be multi-sited too. In multi-sited fieldwork the researcher conducts fieldwork in more than one site where the same categories of subjects may be found. Thus, any space with human activities can be a potential field for anthropologists today- be it virtual or a geographical area.

The beginning of the third millennia, the year 2020 brought in a new phase in all our lives. The COVID 19 Pandemic saw an unusual situation where the normal everyday life was brought to a complete halt across the globe. Human beings were confined to their houses with the announcement of Lockdown and the norm

being social distancing. This was a time many felt would see the end of fieldwork tradition in the anthropological world. However, anthropologists across the globe turned their own houses and lives into the field. The anthropological gaze from the 'other' was turned completely to the 'self'. Studying one's family; interaction, behaviour, day to day life became the pattern. Many turned to the virtual world also and captured the movements in these spaces thus, retaining the fieldwork tradition under unusual circumstances. This has become a valid way of research as COVID 19 restrictions continue to exist.

Check Your Progress

9. Suggest some spaces where anthropological fieldwork can be carried out.

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10. "Virtual World is not a space for fieldwork". State whether the following statement is either True or False.

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11. During the COVID 19 pandemic and the Lockdown period no fieldwork was conducted. State whether this statement is either True or False.

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4.5 ETHICS IN FIELDWORK

Let us try to understand what ethics implies with an example. If you are walking in the street and you find a hundred rupee note, what would you do? Say you pick it up and put it in your pocket. Will this be ethically correct? Herein some may argue that it is not ethical to take what does not belong to you, on the other hand some may argue 'finders keepers' meaning you keep what you find. Thus, ethical concerns may also vary, what is ethically correct for one community might not be so for another. Ethics basically are the moral principles that govern a person's behaviour towards the self and others while performing an activity.

Fieldwork in anthropology involves interactions with human beings where at times the researcher has to deal with sensitive data or information. A researcher might face dilemmas owing to ethical concerns in the field. Ethical issues are

thus a major concern in anthropological fieldwork. The problem might begin with the selection of topic right till the presentation of the data in the form of a written report or a dissertation. The format in which the data is collected, compiled and reproduced may in itself lead to ethical concerns. Today, for example, while clicking a photograph it can also lead to an ethical issue of whether the consent of the person involved had been taken or not. Fieldwork is a part of a researcher's way of gathering information and it is the fieldworker who in a way intrudes into the lives of the people. Thus, a researcher has to be very diligent with how data is collected and disseminated.

While in field the researcher needs to take into account four basic attributes related to data collection: a. confidentiality of sensitive issues which needs to be protected; b. consent of the people under study before embarking on data collection; c. utility concerns the use of the data for the betterment of the community and the society at large; and d. knowledge and its transmission that involves the rights of the community under study as the patent for their indigenous knowledge while maintaining the authenticity of the data (Srivastava, 2020:155). Detailed information about ethics in research can be read in Unit 8.

Check Your Progress

12. "Anthropologists in the field can click photographs without consent". State whether the following statement is either true or false.

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13. What is the meaning of ethics?

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4.6 SUMMARY

In this unit we have tried to acquaint the learners with the history of fieldwork in anthropology. How fieldwork emerged as a method for collecting first-hand information of the people under study. We have tried to trace the beginnings of anthropology to the collection of data from travelers, missionaries and administrators by armchair anthropologists to reconstruct the lives of the people from the faraway places. This gave way to the next generation of anthropologists who denounced the practice of the armchair anthropologists of collecting data from a secondary source. They ventured out to collect the information first hand and thus, started the tradition of going to the field. The doyens of fieldwork who worked towards establishing fieldwork as an integral part of anthropology have been explained in detail in this unit. Fieldwork as we understand today had to go

through a rigorous process, it was through the efforts, trials and errors of the many early anthropologists that today we have been able to establish it as the hallmark of anthropology. As Margaret Meads (1964:5) states, ‘*we still have no way to make an anthropologist except by sending him into the field: this contact with living material is our distinguishing mark*’. For a student of anthropology, fieldwork experience amounts to *rite de passage* of entering into the realm of anthropology.

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4.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. False
2. See section 4.1.
3. James Frazer
4. True
5. True
6. False
7. True
8. See section 4.3.
9. See section 4.4
10. False
11. False
12. False
13. See section 4.5

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UNIT 5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Contents

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Essentials of Research Design
- 5.2 Kinds of Research Design
- 5.3 Steps to Prepare a Research Design
- 5.4 Associated Aspects in Research Design
- 5.5. Role of Digital Technology in Research Design
- 5.6 Summary
- 5.7 References
- 5.8 Answers to Check your Progress

Learning Outcomes

After reading this unit, the learner will be able to:

- Define what research design is and the kinds of research designs there are;
- Describe the steps to follow in order to create a good research design;
- Prepare references/bibliography, foot-notes/end-notes etc., confidently; and
- Apply digital technology in research comfortably.

5.0 INTRODUCTION

You have by now learnt from the earlier units in this course about the importance of research in anthropology and how anthropology is identified as a valid field science. But for all research to be focused and original, it needs to follow certain norms. Before we choose a topic to conduct a research on, and before we create an outline of how the research is to be conducted, we have to be amply clear about what research means. Simply speaking, research can be seen as a methodical inquiry into and logical scrutiny of resources and information so as to ascertain facts, arrive at conclusions and decipher new findings. An equally imperative part of research is to disseminate meaningful knowledge. Kothari (2004) has defined research as a pursuit of truth with the help of study, observation, comparison and experiment, the search for knowledge through objective and systematic method of finding solutions to a problem.

To therefore conduct meaningful research, a rational way should be followed. This is where research design comes in. Research design can be of various kinds and it also provides essential steps to follow so that research may be conducted justly. The purpose of this lesson is to acquaint you to research design in a simple yet distinct way, so that it provides you with the training to conduct research confidently.

1. What is research?

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5.1 ESSENTIALS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is the blueprint of the main research planned. It includes the structure and background of the research methods, tools and techniques to be used. Research design is helpful as it allows the researcher to know which methods to use to investigate a particular problem and thus also allows to master the method. This can lead to a successful research. To define a research design, it is “the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance” Kerlinger (1986:10). Having explained briefly what a research design implies, let us now discuss the characteristics of a research design. If your research is well designed, the lesser you will face issues while conducting research and collecting required data.

Broadly research design as an outline describing the process of research, includes aspects of what data is to be collected, how it is to be collected, what tools and techniques are to be utilised and finally how the data is to be evaluated. The way to go about is to remind oneself throughout that the purpose of a research is to accomplish the aims and objectives thought out by the researcher.

Specifically, the main characteristics of a good research design are:

- i. It is a blueprint that clearly states the aims and objectives of the research study;
- ii. It is an outline that identifies the resources and the methods, tools and techniques to be applied to the research;
- iii. It is a framework that ascertains that the information or data gathered is unbiased, consistent, legitimate and rational.

Once you are clear about the features of a good research design, you have to then be aware of the category in which your research will fall into. There are many kinds of research design but before deciding which kind to fit your research plan into, we should first understand, in which category broadly it will fall.

Check Your Progress

2. Define research design.

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3. What are the main characteristics of a good research design?

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5.2 KINDS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Broadly research design is fundamentally divided into qualitative and quantitative research.

Let us first try to know what qualitative research is.

- i. **Qualitative research:** It is characteristically explanatory, runs like a narrative, telling the story of the people, community or culture studied. It does not have an association with quantitative data but sometimes takes its help to answer general questions about the culture studied. This kind of research tries to first see what exists around us and why does it exist the way it does. It also tries to understand the changes observed descriptively. An important method to conduct qualitative research in anthropology is through the observation method. Rapport establishment is a much needed aspect in qualitative research and thus the sample size in which research is conducted is generally small.

Check Your Progress

4. The sample size in qualitative research is huge. State whether this is True or False.

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- ii. **Quantitative research:** Unlike qualitative research, in quantitative research, the investigation is conducted with the help of surveys and censuses. More than collection of people's narratives and accounts, here the quest is to look for accurate demonstrable data. For example, the number of people in a household; or kinds of families existing in a community; or Telugu speaking people in Delhi etc. Hence the data here is based on definite proof and requires a large group of people to be taken as a sample of study. The research data collected through this method can be analysed with the help of statistical tools in order to arrive at results.

Check Your Progress

5. What tools are used to analyse quantitative data?

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On the basis of these two broad kinds of research design, let us now look at specific kinds of research design which can either be conducted through as part of qualitative or quantitative research design.

5.2 KINDS OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Following a particular kind of research design allows to conduct research according to the plan in mind. It assists in the fulfilling of the purpose of the research. It aids in the creation of refined, applicable and correct results. So it is important to know the kind of research design you would want to use. Let us see here some of the significant research designs that are followed by researchers.

a. Descriptive research

It is where a phenomenon is specifically and concretely described. If one would like to proceed with an explanatory form of research design then one has to provide a good description of the research problem. For example to know why there is gap between poor and rich people, it can only be known if such a gap actually exists. Descriptive study can help in viewing this gap if it is there.

b. Explanatory research

It answers the why which arises from any descriptive study. For example, the reason for presence of more women domestic help as compared to men domestic help can be studied through the explanatory research.

c. Experimental design

Experimental design is a tad bit difficult to apply for researchers studying human beings. However if the opportunity arises, such researchers do make use of the experimental design. It is fundamentally the testing of an independent and a dependent variable and include two groups, that is the control group, where things are as it is, and experimental group, where things have been adjusted to get a result. This design in social sciences can be tested in a laboratory, a field and in natural social world. Statistical analysis is done in such design and it is used to mainly find the differences between the control group and the experimental group.

d. Longitudinal design

A longitudinal design which is also known as a panel design involves the study of the same selected variables over a long period of time. It mostly uses observation as its main method of study. Longitudinal studies can range from studying variables as they are and without manipulating them, from over a week to as long as decades. An example can be observation of a person and her weight loss journey. Covid 19 and its impacts can well become a good longitudinal study.

e. Cross sectional design

This is the opposite of longitudinal design. In a cross-sectional design different samples or a “cross-section” of a population are studied at a single point of time. As such kind of a study is shorter it is hence also cheaper to carry out. Cross-sectional design falls under the gamut of descriptive studies. It helps in knowing about various characteristics which can be found in a population and informs about present happenings in it. For example it can show the intensity of domestic violence in a community happening at the time the study is undertaken.

Check Your Progress

6. Which research design explains the “what” and “how” of a phenomenon?

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7. Which research design explains the “why” of a phenomenon?

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8. What kind of groups are tested in an experimental design?

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9. Fill in the blank space:

A longitudinal design is also known as a

Once the kind of research is comprehended then we can think of how to design the research sequentially to build a fool proof research plan. Let us see below how this can be done.

5.3 STEPS TO PREPARE A RESEARCH DESIGN

Once the type of research design is decided upon, the main blueprint needs to be prepared. This chronological checklist helps the researcher to remain focused in the investigation and does not allow any form of divergent until there is an unforeseen situation which demands any change. So let us discuss each step one by one.

a. Choosing a problem

To conduct a research investigation, there has to be something to research on. This something is your research problem. Throughout your anthropological training, as you progress, you will slowly develop interest in areas and issues about which you will start to make meaningful enquiries, or start framing questions about them. This can concretely be dealt with as

you embark upon to test your anthropological skills in the field by conducting research on any relevant concern you had framed in your mind. However this cannot be done randomly. This is why the discussion that you have had in this unit till now, adequately helps you to rationally choose your problem and work on it. This problem which generally is also known as the topic of research has to be focused, rational and achievable. Sometimes a well sought after problem can yield results which can even be used with an aim to assist policy making. The problem chosen should have to be one, which can be easily and efficiently described. This helps in maintaining clarity in research. While choosing a research problem, the main things that have to be kept in mind are: i. What do I want to know?; ii. Why do I want to know about it?; and What can be the answers to the questions I have in mind? If at the very beginning, the problem exhibits lesser flaws and is motivated, more the chance is to create a good and convincing research result.

Check Your Progress

10. What are the main things to be kept in mind while choosing a research problem?

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b. Statement of the problem

A statement of the problem gives the framework to the research problem at hand. It tries to answer the question: what is the problem that the research is going to investigate. The main aim of a statement of the problem is to depict a broad concern in a focused distinct manner. The problem should have the capacity to be solved through careful systematic investigation. The statement of the problem thus assists in noticeably categorising the intent of the research which is planned to be carried out. Thus a statement of the problem should possess the following features like, i. it should deal with a gap in dissemination of knowledge; ii. It should be valid enough to add new meaning to already existing knowledge; iii. It should allow avenues for newer research; iv. The problem should be researchable through the use of proper methods of data collection; v. it should display the researcher's interest to the problem based on her/his abilities, time and means; and vi. It should show that the problem addressed is ethically done.

Check Your Progress

11. Define statement of the problem.

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12. What are the features of a statement of the problem?

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c. Reviewing the literature

Fink has defined literature review as something which, “surveys books, scholarly articles, and any other sources relevant to a particular issue, area of research, or theory, and by so doing, provides a description, summary, and critical evaluation of these works in relation to the research problem being investigated” (2014).

Literature review is done elaborately before commencing into the field. This is done by collecting as many relevant resources as possible to read through them and to make a connect with the present chosen research problem. Literature review is also done in between field visits to gather deeper understanding of the problem studied. Literature review is done of works which contain similar content of the present research explored. It is done to provide and elucidate new meanings to earlier works or a combination of old and new understanding. Majorly literature review recognises the gaps in the works examined. Literature review assists in the taking of one’s research a step forward where the earlier resources had stopped.

Check Your Progress

13. What is literature review in research?

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d. Aims and objectives

The aim in research is the intent or the target which is to be achieved. Aims are broad statements of desired outcomes, or the general intentions of the research, which ‘paint a picture’ of your research and what you hope to attain by the end of it. It addresses the long term research expectations and outcomes and should be expressed in a way that it can be decipherable when it is attained.

When your aims are clear for your research agenda, then the next job is to formulate the associated objectives of the aim. The objectives should be focused, connected and not too many so as to not get distanced from the main agenda at hand.

Research objectives are supplementary to the aim. The objectives are the actual steps which the researcher will take in order to reach the goals as anticipated in order to answer the research question. So objectives in a way talk about the what, why, who, when and how of the research. For one to remain focused during

the research study, one should keep coming back to the objectives to check if s/he is moving correctly. Objectives should be realistic, sensible and precisely described.

Check Your Progress

14. Define aims and objectives. Why is it important in research?

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e. Hypothesis

A hypothesis is a speculation. It is a speculation or prediction about the problem posed by the researcher. It is something which can be viewed as an explanation (in this context, a theory) which is tentatively accepted till the phenomenon studied is proved correct or is accepted as suitable. Hence to use a hypothesis, an existing theory has to be tested in the on-going research. It is tested by making observations in the field to draw a conclusion from the unspecific to the exact. The field must have the ingredients to prove a theory as a fact. So when this happens, the hypothesis is proved to be correct and valid. Mostly in ethnographic studies, a hypothesis is not used anymore and researchers go with an open mind and believe in building of theories on the basis of observations made in the field.

Check Your Progress

15. What is a hypothesis?

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f. Unit and Universe of Study

In a research design before using methods to conduct research we have to mention the unit and universe of study. The unit of analysis is the major entity that is being analysed in a study. It is the 'what' or 'who' that is being studied. In your research, typical units of analysis will include individuals (most common), groups, social organisations and social artifacts. The universe is the population which represents the entire group of units that is the focus of your study. Thus, the population could consist of all the persons in the country, or those in a particular geographical location, or a special ethnic or economic group, depending on the purpose and coverage of your study.

Check Your Progress

16. Who is a unit and universe of study?

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g. Methods to be used

Methods describe actions to be taken to investigate a research problem and the rationale for the application of particular processes or modes of operation used to categorise, choose, deal with and evaluate data employed to understanding the problem, thereby, allowing the reader to judiciously examine a research's complete legitimacy and dependability.

Methodology includes a gamut of processes in research and therefore let us understand methodology, methods and tools and techniques separately.

Methodology: It is the outline strategised to understand how research is to be commenced. It identifies the methods to be used.

Methods: Methods are the means of data collection. Some of the major methods are observation, case-study, genealogy, pedigree analysis, statistical methods etc.

Tools and Techniques: The ways by which methods are actually put to action are the techniques and tools. For example: If interviewing is a method, then the technique will be an interview guide and the tool can be an interview schedule. Some of the popular techniques of investigation are survey, census, interview etc., and the tools can be questionnaire, interview guide, interview schedule etc.

A research design in its steps also mentions the requirement of secondary sources if the research demands it. Secondary data is information which is not first-hand and suggests that they have already been collected primarily before and now are available in various places to access. These places may be a library, an archive, a database, the internet etc. Secondary sources helps the researcher to authenticate either her/his own planned research problem or test her/his research findings.

Depending on the kind of research or investigation you are doing, the tools for data collection will be chosen. More elaborate discussion on methods, tools and techniques have been provided on Unit 6 and 7.

Check Your Progress

17. What is the difference between methodology, methods, techniques and tools?

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h. Analysis of Data

The research design towards the end emphasises on the analysis of data which will be dealt with once the research findings are put together. Analysis

of data can be done quantitatively or qualitatively. The former is done with the help of statistical tools and they are neatly and concretely represented. The latter is done through words or what we call as narratives and accounts.

i. Relevance of the study

In the research design, lastly the researcher must mention the relevance of study. It is to let the reader know why the study has been conducted, its justification, its purpose, what is to be gained from the study and who is to benefit from it. It is a statement informing about the importance of the research study. This rational explanation is required as it can assist the reader (a reviewer, an examiner, a granter) to assess the research manuscript better.

Check Your Progress

18. Analysis of data can be both.....(complete the sentence)
19. Is it important to know about the relevance of the study in research design? Why?

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5.4 ASSOCIATED ASPECTS IN RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design while acting as a preliminary base for the main research, it incorporates in its structure, along with all the aspects discussed above, certain inherent facets which have an equally important role to play in the whole research process. These are what we call as bibliography and references. Along with them smaller parts like foot notes, end notes, glossary etc. can also be taken into consideration. Let us first see what bibliography and references entail.

a. Bibliographies

It includes all sources that the researcher collects, reads and uses to take forward in order to assist research and writing but does not necessarily cite them in the text. It consists of all published and unpublished work that the researcher consulted to write her/his research proposal or research paper. Citation styles basically used in bibliographies are Oxford and Chicago styles.

b. References

It includes sources which the researcher cites in the text and not just consults. Sources may be cited once or more throughout the text. If the same source is cited continuously, then in place of the author's name and year of publication, the term *ibid* is used. *Ibid* is an abbreviation and comes from the Latin word *ibidem* which means "in the same place". The main citation styles used in references are APA, AMA and MLA citations.

It is important that both bibliographies and references should follow the alphabetical order (A to Z) and should display the surname first. The practical manual of the course BANC-102 can be referred to see the referencing style.

Check Your Progress

20. What is the main difference between bibliography and references?

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c. Footnotes

A note citing a particular source or providing an explanation of any word or phrase etc., found at the bottom of the same page where the matter explained as a footnote is found. Footnotes are beneficial in the sense that the reader can find the description of any content which requires a short clarification or details at the end of the page itself. This means the reader does not have to rummage through the pages and to reach a particular end page to find the description. However footnotes can clutter the page if there are too many and can affect the main contents of the page adversely if it allows only little space to the main text.

d. Endnotes

Endnotes have the same content as footnotes, but instead of them being found at the end of each page, they are found at the end of the proposal, paper, article, book etc. The plus point about endnotes are that all descriptions and meaning of particular words, sentences or phrases requiring further explanation can be found at one place together. Hence the reader can comfortably read the endnotes simultaneously. However a minus point about endnotes is that, every time a reader needs to know the meaning of any content, s/he will have to go to the end to know about it. This moving back and forth, may be quite upsetting to the reader.

Whether the researcher chooses to use footnotes or endnotes, one thing that s/he should keep in mind is that they should not disrupt the flow of the original text or content. They should be in rhythm with it.

Check Your Progress

21. Mention an advantage of footnotes.

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22. Mention a disadvantage of endnotes.

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5.5. ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN RESEARCH DESIGN

Today the whole process of research starting from the research design to the creation of the main product, research is amply supported by digital and online technology. Digital technology has made research designing and conducting of research a much comfortable task. If we consider the steps of a research design, beginning from the selection of topic, we can create a valid statement of the problem, make use of the digital and virtual platform to find out resources at the pressing of a click to get answers. Devices like the laptop, tablet, smart phones can make the use of digital technology in research better. There are innumerable online resources and many being part of creative commons, allow looking for an understanding of a research problem easier. Literature Review which is a vital part of any research design, can be built by browsing through the internet, and visiting online repositories and consortiums from where relevant material can be collected. Social media also plays an important role in research design from where immense information can be collected. Conducting of research in accordance to research methods can now be easily done through use of “Google Forms” to create questionnaires. These can easily reach the homes of many in a second through any mailing or sharing sites. Interviews or case-studies can be collected through online platforms like, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp video call etc. This process of doing research has proved to be quite helpful during COVID 19. Even cited works can be highlighted through “cited works” option in MS word and can be viewed immediately at the place of the citation itself in the text. Statistical analysis can be performed easily and without any complications with the help of softwares like SPSS and ANOVA.

This is a brief and simplistic description of use of digital technology in research design. This was presented crisply in order to help the students understand how research design and research have become a part of the digital world too.

Check Your Progress

23. Name a few online platforms where a researcher can conduct interviews?

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5.6 SUMMARY

This unit on research design can be considered as one of the most important lessons belonging to this course. The main takeaway from this course can be to have a better knowledge of what research is and how it is conducted using justifiable methods. In all this, research design plays a significant role as it is the design which paves the way for a rational research investigation and final creation of knowledge. Thus this unit systematically discusses each process involved in a research design. The unit covers each aspect of a research design judiciously starting from its definition, to explaining its main features. The unit also deals

with the major kinds of research design and talks about which kind fits which type of research best. The steps to design a research design which can be seen as the backbone of any research are thoroughly described. Towards the end of the lesson certain small yet noteworthy aspects of a research design and research writing are discussed and finally the unit ends with a brief insight into the use of technology in research design.

5.7 REFERENCES

Fink, Arlene. (2014). *Conducting Research Literature Reviews: From the Internet to Paper* (4th edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Kerlinger, F. (1986). *Foundation of Behavioural Research* (3rd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston

Kothari, C.R. (2006). *Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques*. (2nd ed.). New Delhi: New Age International (P) Limited Publishers

5.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Refer to the 1st paragraph in section 5.0.
2. Refer to the 1st paragraph in section 5.1.
3. Refer to the 3rd paragraph in section 5.1.
4. False.
5. Statistical tools.
6. Descriptive research design
7. Explanatory research design.
8. Control group and experimental group
9. Panel design
10. See part **a** of section 5.3
11. and 12. See part **b** of section 5.3
13. See part **c** of section 5.3
14. See part **d** of section 5.3
15. See part **e** of section 5.3
16. See part **f** of section 5.3
17. Refer to the 2nd paragraph of section 5.3
18. Qualitative and quantitative
19. See part **i** of section 5.3
20. See parts **a** and **b** of section 5.4
21. See part **c** of section 5.4
22. See part **d** of section 5.4
23. Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp Video call etc.

UNIT 6 METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

Contents

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Methodology and Methods
- 6.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Methods
- 6.3 Laboratory and Field Methods
- 6.4 Ethnographic Methods
- 6.5 Emic and Etic Approaches
- 6.6 New Ethnographic Methods
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 References
- 6.9 Answers to Check your Progress

Learning Outcomes

After reading this unit, the learner will be able to:

- Define the outline planned on how research is to be commenced;
- Identify the means of data collection;
- Recognise the various kinds of data collection methods; and
- Apply them to anthropological research

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Now that we have a complete understanding of the research design, let us in this Unit try to learn about methodology and methods, in an elaborate and distinct manner. This will enhance our knowledge about research methods and methodology and will help us in our research process. Simply stating, “a method is a way of conducting and implementing research, while methodology is the science and philosophy behind all research” (Adams John et.al 2007). However for the benefit of our students, we will engage in a discussion on each of them so that little or no doubt remains in your minds, when it comes to the clear understanding of what methods and methodology are and what are their roles in a research investigation. Let us first take try to specifically understand what methodology means.

6.1 METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Methodology is nothing but research methodology and it includes the procedures which assist in the classification, selection, course of action and analysis of data collected on a topic or a research problem. Thus it is the contextual framework. The methodology followed to conduct any research provides the reader with the opportunity to critically examine the study’s complete rationality and dependability. The methodology used permits answers to two main queries: How was the investigation conducted? And how was the data analysed? Thus it is

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plainly to know the “how” of any research carried out and to ensure that the research aims and objectives were categorically addressed.

The researcher once after the selection of her/his research topic or problem, has to think and decide as to how to take forward the investigation to gain answers or results. At this stage the researcher will have to deal with such questions like what data to collect and what to leave out, who should be the sample selected for data collection, how to collect the data and how to finally evaluate it. This is where methodology comes in. All steps will be tackled by the researcher’s methodology choices which when done correctly will give convincing outcomes. Thus a researcher has to be aware not only of the methodology choices that s/he makes but should be clear about why these choices were made. The research design which a researcher creates is justified by the chosen methodology best fitting the aims and objectives of the research. Following a good methodology will elicit scientifically sound results.

Methodology can be viewed both from a quantitative and/or a qualitative approach. These approaches can be mixed to achieve better results. But it is imperative to know that it is the methods which are applied in the field and methodology provides the philosophical and theoretical background to set of methods which are applied according to the requirement of the research. Hence methodology is “the philosophical framework within which the research is conducted or the foundation upon which the research is based” (Brown, 2006).

Having discussed methodology, it is imperative to learn how methods take forward the concept that methodology conveys. Methods are used to justify a particular methodology to do research. They are the research tools to take any research further. So when methodology is the strategy, methods are the tools and procedures used to collect data. It assists in the answering of the research question. They are the techniques to gather evidence to analyse findings so as to generate new knowledge to enhance the understanding of any research problem. These techniques, tools and processes are particular and its development is a central part of a research design. When a researcher plans the methods to be used, s/he first has to ask how the data will be collected from the field and this will depend on the kind of data is needed to answer the research question posed. So let us in the following parts of this unit, take different kinds of methods one by one and provide an explanation for each.

Check Your Progress

1. Define methodology.

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2. Discuss methodology in comparison to methods.

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6.2 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE METHODS

Research data can be collected broadly through two types of methods, the qualitative research methods and the quantitative research methods.

While qualitative methods deal with collecting empirical data emphasised through narrative accounts and connotations, on the other hand, quantitative methods deal with collection of data through numerical and statistical means. Each of them is equally essential to gain knowledge of various kinds.

Qualitative methods are used to clarify concepts, points of view or lived experiences. Here through the use of such methods, researchers are able to collect exhaustive understanding on the topic of research which is generally not comprehended. The qualitative methods which are commonly used are unstructured interviews (asking open ended questions), focus group discussions (conversation with a group of people on a topic to gather collective information), observation (to watch with an intention), ethnography (staying and studying a groups behaviour and culture for a long period of time) etc. Literature review which delves into concepts and theories associated with the research problem can also be considered as a qualitative method.

Quantitative research methods are communicated with the help of numbers and graphs. Such methods are used to test or confirm a theory or a supposition. With the help of this research method, a research can ascertain generalisable facts about any research problem. Quantitative methods which are commonly used are experiments (scientific test where variables are controlled and influenced to determine the cause-effect interaction); observations (of subjects who cannot be controlled) which are recorded numerically; surveys collected using close-ended questions (distributed to a sample either by hand, over phone or online).

There are some basic difference between qualitative methods and quantitative methods. Let us find out what they are:

Qualitative Research Methods	Quantitative Research Methods
Main focus is on examining concepts and formulating new theory/theories.	Main focus is on testing theories.
Evaluated through reviewing, classifying and explaining	Evaluated through statistical means

Majorly articulated through the use of words	Majorly displayed through tables and graphs in numbers
Depends on a smaller and focused sample or group	Depends on a large sample
Questions are open ended and more like conversations	Questions are mostly closed or rigid
Main features: comprehending, contextualising, intricacy, subjectivity	Main features: testing, measuring, objectivity and repeatability

With this brief explanation of the two main kinds of methods, the qualitative and quantitative, let us now find out about other important research methods.

Check Your Progress

4. What are qualitative methods?

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5. What are quantitative methods?

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6. Outline a few differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods.

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6.3 LABORATORY AND FIELD METHODS

When we hear of the term laboratory, the first thing that comes to our mind is a closed room or a set of rooms with equipments, instruments, machines, etc. completely committed to the purpose of scientific research. Anthropology proudly assigns itself the name, a field science. It means everything that we study or read in anthropology is never mere conjectures but is actual knowledge or information produced or collected in the field. Hence for anthropologists the laboratory is the field where it conducts its experiments and the results collected from such investigation is the scientific data.

Let us therefore understand how scientific studies are done in anthropology and what a laboratory exactly entails. Till now we have been talking about how anthropology has a long tradition of doing fieldwork, and how different research designs or steps in a research design makes us collect scientific data conclusively making use of various tools and techniques. But why is scientific research conducted in the field and not in a closed room, one which we know as a laboratory? Anthropology as we all know by now is the study of human beings. Anthropologists besides studying behaviour, rituals, norms and customs of human beings and their cultures also simultaneously study primate behaviour, human genes, mutation, DNA samples too. In all these varieties of study, the main protagonist being the human being, it is not always possible to study them in a closed environment, coercing them to dictates of experiments. However at the same time, experiments are needed many a times to study different aspects of humans to arrive at certain conclusions.

Thus for an anthropologist conducting anthropological research or experiment, in place of the closed room fitted for experiments, the field, the actual space where the individual or group inhabits becomes the laboratory. Depending on the problem of research or the chosen topic, different kinds of methods are used to conduct these experiments or observations. When research is conducted in natural settings it is known as field methods. For further evaluation or analysis however, as required, investigations are also conducted in real laboratory settings for deeper answers.

We will find that in physical or biological anthropology, researchers use a combination of field and laboratory methods to learn about numerous aspects of humans as a biological kind. While aspects like anatomy, physiology, evolution, connection to other species, adaptation etc. are studied in the field, areas like genetics, blood samples, height and weight of dead samples or at times skeletons are done in the laboratory. For social anthropologists, the field will always be the laboratory as the study of living human beings in their actual set up guides in understanding how humans maintain their social relationships and organisations. Here the anthropologists use the basic method of observation aided by interviews.

This kind of studying and observing of human beings in the field leads us to another method in anthropology, called the ethnographic method. Let us see what it entails.

Check Your Progress

7. What is the laboratory in anthropological research?

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6.4 ETHNOGRAPHIC METHODS

Ethnographic methods include an approach where the researcher studies people or a culture in their actual setting with the purpose of producing an account which is known as ethnographic literature. This account has a theoretical backing to assign it a scientific and a valid status. Ethnographic research is viewed thus, as a fundamentally pragmatic first hand research method. The investigation of culture is done by observing society from the perspective of the people inhabiting it. Ethnography is both a method and a product. Ethnographic methods are a good example of qualitative method. Other than this, it is also a method which is inductive, exploratory and longitudinal. The main aim is to gain rich thick description of the community studied.

L.H. Morgan during the mid and late 19th century learnt the language of the Iroquois of North America and also studied their kinship system. This study may be seen as the beginning of ethnographic research. However it was Franz Boas in America and Bronislaw Malinowski in Great Britain, who were the first ones to recommend serious methodologies to pursue ethnographic fieldwork. Boas emphasised on the importance of intensive fieldwork to gather authentic knowledge which he himself conducted among the Kwakiutl's of the Pacific Northwest Coast for over twenty years. On the other hand, Malinowski, though supporting intensive fieldwork, also emphasised on learning and using the local language of the community investigated and involving oneself in participant observation. The emphasis on the use of participant observation method as one of the most significant ethnographic methods got highlighted by Malinowski's study of the Trobriand islanders of the Western Pacific Islands in Papua New Guinea during the First World War. This method allowed him to observe and participate in the daily activities of the Trobriand Islanders (1922). Participant observation became the prominent method of conducting ethnographic research. We can corroborate this with the following definition, that ethnography is "the recording and analysis of a culture or society, usually based on participant observation and resulting in a written account of a people, place or institution" (Simpson and Coleman, 2017).

The ethnographic method of participant observation can be accentuated with the triangulation method by including open ended interviews and 'informal' conversations. The triangulation method here becomes extremely necessary, as research cannot depend on one method alone. Other ethnographic methods which are used along with observation method are case-study, life-history, genealogy, pedigree analysis etc. More information on these are been provided in Unit 7. There are secondary ethnographic methods too which can benefit one's research. They are gazettes, surveys, poll reports, newspapers, research articles, books etc.

An important method in ethnography is the diary which gets little mention in books. A diary is a vital companion during the field visit. The researcher can jot down important points in the diary during the course of observation, interviews and conversations. Once back at the accommodation after a day's fieldwork s/he can write all the things observed in the field and discussed with the respondents during the day. This will later help to go back to these points to see if more information is required to be gathered. It also helps to make the analysis of the findings with clarity. Other ethnographic methods are photography and making of videos to document events and everyday happenings.

8. Define ethnographic methods.

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9. What is the fundamental ethnographic method and who propagated it?

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10. Which method did Franz Boas emphasise on while doing ethnographic research?

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6.5 EMIC AND ETIC APPROACHES

While using different methods in the field, we are bound to get results. However how these results are viewed by the researcher is an important question to ponder upon. Here the approach of looking at research from an emic or an etic perspective comes in. If the perspective is presented from the culture studied then it is called the emic approach and if the perspective is presented from the observer's point of view then it is called the etic approach.

To elaborate on each, emic is that perspective which indicates the behaviour and norms of people of a particular culture which they consider to be significant. It is how they perceive them, how they view and classify their lived experiences, why they do things in a particular way, visualise, describe and rationalise phenomena in distinct ways. The emic perspective is what we may call as the insider's view. To know emic perspectives the researcher spends time with people, observe them, engages herself/himself in their daily activities etc. To produce a rich ethnography with cultural details, the anthropologist has to put in a good deal of effort to achieve the emic perspective.

The etic perspective which is not of the culture studied but of the researcher, are explanations which are given by her/him about the behaviour of that culture.

Etic descriptions are also built from conversations and discussions between the researcher and others from the anthropology community offering their own understanding of the culture studied. These descriptions are typically scientifically based and are appraised by historical, political and many other kinds of investigations. Advocates of the etic perspective believe that members of a community are not in a position to consider their everyday activities from an objective standpoint. However it cannot be wholly accepted that cultures would behave realistically while being observed by an outsider (the researcher). The behaviour depicted may not be what the culture actually does privately, in the absence of an observer. Hence in etic description this may act as an issue in providing valid data.

The terms emic and etic were coined by linguist, Kenneth Pike in the year 1954. He derived these terms from the linguistic terms phonemic and phonetic and suggested they be used as a methodological key to understand human social behaviour and human culture. In other words he proposed the conversion of linguistic tools to social research tools to understand human behaviour. Later anthropologists, Ward Goodenough and Marvin Harris also advocated these two methods of studying humans with the intention to learn about particular cultural meanings based on particular cultural beliefs and practices.

Thus based on the way a researcher plans to study a society, community or culture, s/he can accordingly make use of the etic or emic approach, depending on which method suits her/him best.

Check Your Progress

11. Who coined the terms, etic and emic?

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12. What does the etic approach mean?

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13. Discuss the emic approach.

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6.6 NEW ETHNOGRAPHIC METHODS

With time the ways ethnographic research is being done has changed. It no longer means being in a traditional field site where a culture resides, where the researcher goes and observes everyday imponderabilia. We have till now learnt that ethnographic studies are done by living with the people studied for a long period of time, learning and using the native language and involving oneself in participant observation of rituals and practices.

However now the ethnographic field has shifted to different arenas of investigation and has with the introduction of varied spaces and more so multiple spaces, ways of conducting ethnographic research has also transformed.

In today's world, the ethnographic site may be the internet, the virtual world, urban spaces like a museum, hospital, mall and what not. A field investigation can also be multi-sited and at the same time be the researcher's own native space. The researcher in today's anthropological world may even want to research herself/ himself and evocatively talk about her/his lived experiences.

Hence these ways of doing ethnographic research has also brought in a change in how research is conducted. Though the basics of observing and interviewing clubbed with informal conversations, writing a diary, taking photographs remain, the spaces have changed. Along with the change in spaces, the position of the researcher has changed in the context of using methods to find answers. The new ethnographic style or methodology is cognitive in nature and hence it is also now labelled as cognitive anthropology. It is also known as ethno-science. Here the intention is to delve into the lives of the people or site investigated and bring out the actual reason or purpose of any behaviour as enacted or perceived by the people or culture being studied. It is an empirical investigation strengthened by theoretical backing. An auto-ethnographic research method for example, will reveal that the investigator will build a narrative which is emotional, reminiscent, and based on lived experiences. It will discuss the investigator's own subjective and reflective interpretation of the life s/he has lived and how the culture s/he resides in has similar stories to tell, making an auto-ethnographic study a rational and scientific one.

Check Your Progress

14. What is cognitive ethnography also known as?

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6.7 SUMMARY

This lesson is among the major parts of this course giving us a brief and crisp outline of the methods and methodology that is utilised in the conducting of research. Research will have no meaning if it will have no methodology in it. The research problem, the aims and objectives, the respondents will all be scattered

and have no connection, if a methodology is not built to articulately address the research investigation. The methodology which thus is the strategy to how to carry out research is validated by the methods employed to do it. The lesson hence begins with a description of what methodology is and how it is accentuated by various research methods. These different methods are broadly touched upon in the different sections of this lesson starting from the fundamental qualitative and quantitative means of doing research. These two basic methods clear one's doubts as to which method to follow depending on the kind of research problem chosen. The lesson tries to explain the meaning of laboratory and field methods in the context of anthropology, highlighting the uniqueness of anthropology in utilising the field as a laboratory with humans in their original setting as the subject of research. The lesson indulges in a discussion on ethnographic methods along with new ethnographic ways of doing research and draws attention to the etic and emic perspectives of research as well.

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6.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Refer to the 1st paragraph in section 6.1
2. Refer to the 2nd paragraph in section 6.1
3. Refer to the 2nd paragraph in section 6.1
4. Refer to the 3rd paragraph in section 6.2
5. Refer to the 4th paragraph in section 6.2
6. Refer to the table in section 6.2
7. See section 6.3
8. Refer to the 1st paragraph in section 6.4
9. Participant observation method is the fundamental ethnographic method and it was Bronislaw Malinowski who propagated it.
10. Intensive fieldwork
11. Kenneth Pike
12. Refer to the 2nd paragraph in section 6.5
13. Refer to the 1st paragraph in section 6.5
14. Ethnoscience

UNIT 7 TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

Contents

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- 7.1 Types of Data Collection
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 - 7.1.2 Secondary
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 - 7.4.3 Classification
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- 7.6 References
- 7.7 Answers to Check Your Progress

Learning Outcomes

After reading this unit, the student will learn to:

- Describe different sources used for data collection;
- Identify tools and techniques used in fieldwork and in the laboratory; and
- Recognise that fieldwork happen without informants in archaeological anthropology.

7.0 INTRODUCTION

In the earlier unit, we have discussed the steps like formulating a research design, selecting a research topic and going for fieldwork, and how after fieldwork data are compiled, analysed and a report is written, in short how to conduct fieldwork.

Contributor: Dr. Rukshana Zaman, Faculty, Discipline of Anthropology, School of Social Sciences, IGNOU

In this unit we will focus on the tools and techniques that are used in the field for data collection by physical, social, linguistic and archaeological anthropologists. Some of the portions you will feel are similar to what you have read in BANC 102 (13 and 14), we are just trying to help you recollect what you have already read in these units with added information. After reading this unit you may also go back and read UNIT 13 of BANC 102 that would help you to prepare for your fieldwork. We have already discussed in details the concept of field in anthropology in Unit 4 and the tradition of fieldwork thus, herein we would directly start with primary and secondary sources of data.

7.1 PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

Before we move on to the concerns of data collection, let us understand the types of data that an anthropologist is required to collect. Mainly there are two sources of data, a. Primary source and b. Secondary source. Can you guess what would be a primary source of data collection?

7.1.1 Primary Source

The data acquired through first hand contact with populations is known as primary data. Fieldwork is the primary data which involves interaction with human population in their own setting, that is the anthropologist goes and lives with the people and does not bring these people to a laboratory to study them. The main source of information for anthropologists working in physical/biological, social/cultural and linguistic field comes from the field. While for the archaeological anthropologists fieldwork involves collecting material data through exploration and excavation. Section 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4 of this unit gives an in-depth understanding of primary data collection tools and techniques used in fieldwork.

7.1.2 Secondary Source

Secondary source of data involves all reminiscences in the form of written documents, published or unpublished manuscripts or statements, they could be archaeological implements (or artifacts like coins, pottery, jewelry), inscriptions (as may be found in temples), paintings or any other evidence. One has to take into account the documents that belong to several categories – they could be official in the sense that they are found in the institutions and kept in their records. One of the greatest contributions of the British period in India was to set up the record rooms where these documents could be kept for knowing about the past practices and also for undertaking a study. These documents are often called the ‘official documents’. Such documents are available in the National Archives. Census data, population registers, sample survey data, gazetteers, handbooks, articles, journals, books etc., that all fall into the realm of written documents. In addition, there are private documents. They are with the people, such as their diaries, account books, their description of the events, etc. Documents can also be prepared at the behest of the investigator, when s/he requests the respondents to write up the accounts of their lives (or certain aspects of their lives) for the purpose of research. Manuscripts which are basically handwritten documents comprises of scrolls or parchment, diagrams, maps, pictorial representations like murals and paintings, figures etc. Researchers collect both these types of documents for their analysis. Movies, photographs are sources of data for researchers working with media, performing arts, visual arts etc. There are video

libraries and archives where such documents are available. Anthropologists today regard the virtual world as a space for both primary and secondary source of data collection. Google search is coming up in a big way as a source of secondary data however, as a researcher one has to be cautious while using internet sources. One needs to validate the authenticity of such data before reporting it.

Check Your Progress

1. List the two main sources of data collection?

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2. What is the difference between primary and secondary sources used in data collection?

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3. List some of the articles that can be used as secondary sources of data collection.

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7.2 TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

Let us begin this section with an understanding of what are tools and techniques with an example of cooking of rice.

Well, one might feel as to how can cooking of rice be an example of tools and techniques, as making rice is so simple. However, if we explore, we would realise that there are many ways of cooking rice. We can cook plain rice, zeera rice, vegetable rice, pulao rice and the list can go on. Depending on the type of rice to be cooked the tools and techniques would also vary along with the ingredients. Likewise, in the field situation too, a researcher first needs to decide on the topic and based on the topic select the tools and techniques. Broadly speaking the tools for data collection in anthropology are mainly: a. observation; b. interview; c. life history; d. case study; and e. focus group discussion. Within these, we can

use different techniques, like for observation we can use either participant observation, quasi participant or non-participant observation and for interview, we can use either direct interview or indirect interview, formal or informal interview using interview guide or interview schedule. In a similar manner the tools and techniques for physical/biological and archaeological anthropology would also vary depending on the type of research. This we will discuss in section 7.3 and 7.4 of this unit.

7.2.1 OBSERVATION

Observation can be defined as viewing a particular incident or phenomenon or even interactions and interpersonal relationship between two or more people. However, this viewing, to be a part of a scientific investigation needs to be systematic and in context to an event. For example, if you go to a community and observe a tree in the village, just to describe the tree, its location within the village is not enough, one needs to relate this tree to the activities of the community, how the people relate themselves to the tree, the significance of the tree in the lives of the community etc. If these are observed, recorded and reported, the tree becomes a part of the scientific observation. Observation has further been divided into: a. participant observation; b. non-participant observation; and c. quasi-participant observation. While some also talk about: a. direct participation; and b. indirect participation.

Participant Observation: Participant observation owes its existence to Malinowski whose study among the Trobriand Islanders of Papua New Guinea set the yardstick for fieldwork in anthropology. Malinowski's fieldwork derives attention for the fact that it comprised of a long stay around thirty-nine months in the field from 1914-1918. Malinowski's fieldwork became classic as he used the native language to communicate, setting a trend for future anthropologists. Participant observation amounts to the researcher participating in the activities of the community under study where the researcher directly involves herself or himself to be a part of the community or activity. One basically tries to get a view as an 'insider'. In earlier times emphasis was given for a stay among the people, however, with the study of corporate, market, business, media, performing arts etc., the trends have changed.

Non-Participant Observation: In non-participant observation the researcher observes the activities of the community under study from a distance without getting directly involved. Here the researcher is detached and does not directly experience the lives of the people under study. The researcher herein records observations and data as an 'outsider'; viewing the activities in an objective manner, whereas, if the observer participates and gets involved both physically and emotionally, the observation becomes subjective in nature, where the observer not only records data on the basis of observation but also based on their personal experiences.

Quasi-Participant Observation: In most cases the observation conducted by researchers in the field is known as quasi-participant observation as complete participation in many cases is not possible. Many a times it is not possible for the researcher to get directly involved in the field situation. For example, while studying the rites of passage in a community, a researcher may closely observe the initiation rituals being performed for the boys or girls, however, the researcher cannot in person go through the initiation rites. Thus, even though there is participation, yet it is not complete. In this regard Victor Turner's work on the

symbols and the initiation rituals among the Ndembu people of Zambia suffices as an example. Likewise, while working among corporate houses, business ventures, media, performing arts etc., it is not possible to completely take up a job in these sectors or work for the organisation just to observe them.

7.2.2 INTERVIEW

‘Interviewing is fundamentally a process of social interaction’, so says Goode and Hatt (1981). In a field situation, it is not enough to observe. Observation needs to be linked to questioning of phenomena, incidents and events. There are many ways of conducting an interview as there are many types of interviews. The basic interview techniques are: a. direct interview; and b. indirect interview. In direct interview, the researcher meets the informant and conducts a face-to-face interview. While in indirect interview, the researcher can either send the interview questions to the informant via mail/post, email or conduct a video, web or telephonic interview. Direct interview may either be formal or informal. In a formal interview, a researcher needs to follow certain protocols, like taking prior appointment with the person to be interviewed, consent of the informant, and deciding upon a space and time for the interview. In many cases, the length of the interview time is also pre-decided. Such interviews involve key stakeholders, like government officials or renowned persons in their field for whom time is of outmost essence. However, in the field situation in a village, most interviews are informal and at times impromptu in nature. When a researcher is staying with the people s/he can conduct interviews while working with the community people, helping out with some community work or even while sharing a cup of tea in the village tea stall or at some one’s place. This has been called ‘deep hanging out’ by many anthropologists (Fontein, 2014: 77). During fieldwork as the researcher is present in the field, direct interview is the norm, either formal or informal. Consent of the participants, be it verbal or non-verbal, is of essence while conducting any type of interview.

The advantages of direct interview over indirect interview is that while interviewing, it is not just what is being said that is important but how it is said is equally important and is a significant aspect of data. People may say one thing or say it in a way that, what they mean is different from what they speak. A silence or pause or reluctance to speak is also data in its own way. Facial expressions and emotional responses are recorded along with what is actually just spoken. Thus, for anthropologists, face-to-face as well as open-ended interviews are much preferred techniques than formal structured and restricted interviews. What we call open-ended interviews also allow free flow of ideas and information, that give rise to a rich depth of data that is not possible in structured formats.

7.2.3 LIFE HISTORY

Life history is used by anthropologists to reveal the extensive account of a person’s life, whether written or narrated by the person, or by others, or by both (Langness, 1965). Life history presents the characteristics which are unique to the individuals and distinguish them from others in the group (Young 1996: 26). It also at times might represent the characteristics of a group, way of life. The selection criteria of a person whose life history is to be taken into account depends on that person’s contribution as a member of that community. It need not be a reputed person having name and fame. It can be a person, whom you select as the key informant and who has knowledge relevant to your topic of study and can provide an insider’s view.

A key informant is generally selected by a researcher during the time of rapport building when the researcher goes around the field space trying to know the community and adjust to the surroundings.

A life history allows an in-depth study. The rationale behind the collection of life-histories is that people do not live in vacuum. They live in society and hence, guided by its norms and values. Unlike historians and biographers who look for the life history of unique or powerful persons, anthropologists collect the life histories of ordinary persons, in their ordinary day-to-day existence; so that they can learn about the general culture and the way of life in a time period. Life histories often reflect changes and the impact of social and cultural events and transitions on the life of a person. One of the most celebrated life histories in anthropology is found in the book *Pedro Martinez: A Mexican Peasant and His Family*, written by Oscar Lewis (1964), which describes the life of an ordinary Mexican person and his family in great detail.

The individual life history method was developed in American cultural anthropology, as it faced the distressing situation of vanishing tribes. Quite often, they could locate only a single or very few members of a tribe and collection of detailed life history of a single person was the only way in which something about a vanished tribe could be reconstructed.

7.2.4 CASE STUDY

Herbert Spencer was the first sociologist to use case material in his ethnographic work. A case study involves an in-depth research of a particular event, incident or phenomenon where a community or a group of people are directly involved or affected. Herein, we can take the example of the Bhopal Gas Tragedy which happened in Bhopal on 3rd December, 1984. One can study the after effects of the tragedy in terms of physical or biological issues, psychological issues or medico-legal issues, etc. In such a study, the homogeneity of the group is described in terms of its association with the tragedy and how the individuals relate to the tragedy. The human mind has a way of remembering incidents and occurrences that are relevant to their own selves. Thus, case studies of different people relate directly or indirectly to the incident when taken, can provide information on the same context, but from different perspectives or levels of memories and understanding of the event.

A case study is a holistic method that enables us to get an all-round perspective on a single incidence or event. Some anthropologists, like Max Gluckman and Van Velson, had also devised what was known as the extended case method. This was often used for analysis of conflicts and legal disputes and cases and basically consisted of following a case or an event over a long period of time, so that one could get an insight not only into structures and norms, but also into processes of social life.

7.2.5 GENEALOGY

Genealogy helps in tracing the line of descent and lineage. It forms an integral part of anthropological fieldwork as it connects the past to the present. Genealogical studies have also unveiled the myths and beliefs associated with ancestors and ancestor worship. For example, during a genealogical study in a Karbi village, it was seen that many people in the family shared the same names.

The genealogy revealed that newborn in a family could be named only after those ancestors for whom the *chomangkan* (ritual related to ancestor worship) ceremony had been performed. As the *chomangkan* ceremony required a huge amount of funds and finances, the Karbis have almost stopped performing this ritual and in the village the last *chomangkan* had taken place some twenty years ago, when the study was being conducted in the late nineties. Thus, children were being named after the same ancestor in the families (Zaman, 2003). For an in-depth understanding of genealogy please refer to BANC 102 Unit 6: Institutions II: Kinship Family and Marriage.

7.2.6 FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

Till now we have been discussing one-to-one interaction via direct or face-to-face interview done by the researcher with the individuals in the community. Focus Group Discussion is a way of interviewing a group of people within the community together who can contribute to the topic of study. The researcher at times might feel the need to have interaction with more than one person on the same topic or the opinion of many people on the topic might prove beneficial to the research. In such a case Focus Group Discussion (or FGD) is conducted. While conducting an FGD, the group comprises of 8-10 people. A small group is manageable and the moderator can keep the conversation going. If the group is large, some might not feel comfortable to speak, while others might dominate the flow of conversation. In FGD, normally a heterogeneous group or different stakeholders are selected so that their views and opinions on the same topic can be understood. While conducting an FGD the researcher does not participate in it but observes and records the entire session.

This technique is more suitable for goal-oriented and action research, where one is focusing only on one aspect, like say introduction of polio vaccine in a village or assessing people's attitudes to the introduction of a new welfare scheme. It is rarely used for quantitative research.

7.2.7 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE AND QUESTIONNAIRE

In order to conduct an interview we need to have a systematic approach. Questions are formulated so that the researcher is able to acquire relevant information from the informants during an interview. Different types of interview schedules and guides are prepared as per the requirement of the research work. For direct interview, either a structured interview schedule or unstructured interview guide is prepared by the researcher.

Interview schedule: Interview schedule is the format used by the researcher during an interview. An interview schedule can either be structured or unstructured. A structured interview schedule has a fixed format of questions that the researcher uses while conducting an interview which is mainly used for conducting surveys, or for gathering quantitative data. Census data is normally collected using fixed structured interview schedules. In most cases such quantitative data needs to be compiled, tabulated and analysed.

Interview guide: Unstructured interview guide is used for taking interviews where a strict format is not followed and mainly used for qualitative data. The interview guide helps in structuring a few basic questions regarding the topics

that has relevance and needs to be questioned during an interview, which might not be in any set framework. These questions help in maintaining the flow in a conversation and also guide the interviewer to bring the conversation back to the topic whenever the informants gets too carried away and move astray from the topic. An interview using an interview guide can be free flowing like while gathering information for a life history or case study.

Questionnaire: While conducting interviews where the researcher is not physically present, the researcher sends the document to the informant and the information is filled up by the informant. Such a document is called a questionnaire. A questionnaire can be used in the virtual space too like creating a survey format that can be posted online on the social networking sites that allows the respondents to fill up the same online without having to take a print out. The basic difference between an interview schedule and a questionnaire is that the interview schedule is administered by the interviewer himself/herself in the field, and it is the researcher who fills up the information in the sheet, while for a questionnaire the researcher is directly not present with the informant when s/he fills up the answers. The sequence of questions is very important for a questionnaire. One begins with simple and forthright questions that can be easily answered followed by more difficult and reflective questions. Often one gives what are known as multiple choice questions where one has to choose from several options. Also, one needs to place what are known as test questions. To assess the reliability of answers to vital questions, one may have to frame multiple questions to get at the same information. For a questionnaire to be administered the group has to be literate enough to fill up the forms. This is a drawback that is not there while administering a interview schedule (for more information check Block 5 Practical Manual of BANC 102).

Check Your Progress

4. Participant observation is associated with which anthropologist's work?

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5. Name the different types of observation techniques used by anthropologists.

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6. 'Interview is a process of interaction.' State whether this statement is true or false.

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7. 'In anthropology life history is taken only of prominent personalities'. State whether the following statement is true or false.

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8. Which sociologist first used the case study method in his fieldwork?

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9. 'We need a group of people in a focus group discussion.' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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10. 'Anthropologists use interview schedules and guides for collecting data.' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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11. 'An anthropologist fills up the questionnaire during an interview.' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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7.3 FIELDWORK BEYOND PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

Till now, we have been discussing the tools and techniques that help mostly in qualitative research. In qualitative research observation and interviews are the backbone. In this part of the lesson we will discuss how physical/biological anthropologists carry out quantitative research. The work of the physical/biological anthropologists revolves around the understanding of human variation,

growth and adaptations to different environments. These are aspects that cannot be simply observed or information can be gathered through interview. The physical/ biological anthropologists move beyond participant observation to practical observations and measurements of the informants in the field. Certain instruments are required to measure and determine human variation and growth in a population. In order to achieve this goal they use anatomical method, anthropometric measurements, serogenetics, pedigree analysis and most recently the techniques of molecular biology.

7.3.1 ANATOMICAL METHOD

Physical/biological anthropology strives to determine: a. the link between human origin and its relation with non-human primates and b. physical variations in extinct and extant human populations. To comprehend human origin and variation the knowledge of comparative anatomy, skeletal biology, human osteology and anthropometry are taken into account as important components of human anatomy. The science of human anatomy deals with the structure of human body.

7.3.2 ANTHROPOMETRY

Anthropometry deals with measurements of size and proportions of the human body (both dead and alive). The knowledge of anthropometry was used since the ancient times by the Egyptian and Greek civilisations. The foundation of scientific anthropometry in the field of anthropology was laid by Blumenbach and carried forward by Paul Broca, W.H. Flower, Rudolf Martin etc. The instruments used in anthropometric measurements for measuring body size and body composition are weighing scale, tape, calipers- sliding, spreading and skinfold, anthropometer, body volume tanks and bioelectrical impedance analysers. Similarly, radiographic instruments, X-ray scanners and ultrasound densitometers are used to determine bone mass, subcutaneous fat density and lean body mass. The anthropometric measurements help in determining the relative size or shape of the whole body or its parts in populations. Such studies may lead to the understanding of variations in growth with reference to environmental conditions in different populations.

7.3.3 PEDIGREE ANALYSIS

Pedigree is a family history of hereditary conditions. It is used to identify inherited patterns and infer patterns of inheritance. Pedigree analysis helps a researcher to trace, identify and analyse the mode of inheritance of diseases in a family. The mode of inheritance whether the disorder is dominant or recessive, autosomal or X- linked can be determined by looking at the typical pattern of inheritance. For example, in X-Linked diseases the transmission is from mother to son and while in the females it passes on as a recessive gene, as men do have X chromosome. Males will be commonly affected in an X-linked gene, while in autosomal disorders, males and females have equal chances of being affected. Queen Victoria's family line is one of the classic examples of X chromosome linked diseases known as Hemophilia B popularly known as Christmas disease. Owing to this condition the blood does not clot among the male inheritors of this disease. The study of pedigree helps in identifying the affected individuals and the mutant carriers. From this data the risk of carrier status for other family members or the chance of a couple having an infected child can be estimated (Rao, 2011: 39-40).

7.3.4 SEROGENETICS

Serogenetics pertains to the study of serological proteins. It involves the study of protein polymorphism in serum (the protein component of blood) to determine the genetic basis of traits.

Learners may also see the course BANC 101, Unit 4 to know more on the above techniques used by physical/biological anthropologists.

Check Your Progress

12. 'Anthropometry studies only dead human populations.' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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13. 'Serogenetics is a study of the protein component in blood' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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14. 'Genealogy and pedigree are same.' State whether the following statement is true or false.

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7.4 FIELDWORK WITHOUT INFORMANTS

Archaeological anthropology endeavours to reconstruct the human past through the study of material remains. It is the only branch in anthropology that does not deal with living human populations. The data collection comprises of any human or non-human material remains, associated with human activities, that help in unveiling the lives of human beings in the bygone days.

7.4.1 EXPLORATION

Exploration primarily is an interdisciplinary investigation involving archaeology and anthropology. It aims at locating and understanding the potentials of archaeological sites to unravel human and non-human material remains. Many a times, sites with archaeological significance have been accidentally unearthed during construction activities. However, trained archaeological anthropologists also plans exploration of sites using specialised maps like geological, vegetation, agricultural, soil, rainfall, natural resources etc., which gives insight into the topography of a region and which could have been a space for earlier human activity. These sites could be related owing to subsistence, food production and procurement, trade etc. If we analyse the Mohenjo-daro and Harappan civilisation

we would see that these were near the river which allowed both trading and farming. Exploration basically involves analysing a site for potential human activity without carrying out excavation. It is the first step before excavation. In exploration various techniques are used like field walking, aerial photography, magnetometer survey, electrical resistivity survey, probing, remote sensing and geographical information system.

7.4.2 EXCAVATION

Excavation is scientifically and systematically unearthing the deeper layers of the soil to uncover the hidden past. As stated earlier, remains of human beings and their material culture forms the backbone of archaeological studies. In order to reconstruct the lives of the human beings of the past, their material culture like broken pieces potteries, beads, coins, jewelry, inscriptions etc., helps in recreating the story. The method of archaeological excavation follows a sequence and the first is the layout of a trench, after exploration of a site. During any excavation it is important to record stratigraphy, which follows the law of superimposition. Materials when unearthed, need to be labelled according to a format known as documentation of artifacts. Documentation involves description of the site where the material has been found, date of excavation, trench details, type of material, depth where found and measurements of the artifact. It is followed by a photograph and drawing of the artifact. This exercise is to be done before removing the object from the site after cleaning and dusting.

7.4.3 CLASSIFICATION

Excavation is followed by classification of the materials, which involves group of materials according to similarity. Those materials which do not fall under any group are labelled separately. Typo-technological classification is the most commonly followed classification for stone tools and pottery. For more details please refer to course BANC 103, Unit 1.

7.5. SUMMARY

In this unit we have tried to acquaint the learners with the tools and techniques that a researcher uses in the field to collect data. The basic aim of this unit is to prepare the learners to be able to select the right tools and techniques in the field based on the topic they select. By now the learners might have become aware that in conducting anthropological research, the researcher may use one or more of the tools and techniques to conduct fieldwork. Herein, we have discussed in depth the two sources of data collection, primary and secondary that are used in data collection. An overview of tools and techniques used in the different branches of anthropology has been provided along with detailed discussion on observation, interview, life history, case study, genealogy and focus group discussion. However, there was and still a phase that has posed a challenge in anthropological fieldwork due to the COVID 19 pandemic specially during lockdown, when movement was and at places still restricted. Self-quarantine and social distancing has become the norm. The anthropologists at work have taken up this challenging situation and converted their own homes into a field-site. Many approach their immediate family members like, parents, siblings, children and wife to become informants and the researchers conduct data collection through observation, interviews, case studies and create genealogies of situations and customs that can be investigated at home. Others have taken to the social media platforms to collect data on various

aspects. Telephones, mobile phones etc., are being used to conduct telephonic interviews, while some have developed questionnaires to be distributed in the social media platforms. Thus, the work of the anthropologist is never hampered but it continues with renewed vigour with technology enabled processes by which the informants are reached and researched.

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7.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Primary and Secondary sources of data collection.
2. See section 7.1
3. See section 7.1.2
4. Bronislaw Malinowski
5. See section 7.2.1
6. True
7. False
8. Herbert Spencer
9. True
10. True
11. False
12. False
13. True
14. False

