**Federal University Lafia**

**Faculty of Arts**

**Department of History**

**COURSE: HIS 312: HISTORY RESEARCH METHODS 1**

**Credit Units: 3**

**Session: 2012/2013 Semester: First**

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**COURSE: HIS 312: RESEARCH METHODS 1**

**Course Overview**

This course is the first part of a two semester course in History Research Methods. It is designed to expose students to the meaning and nature of research methods, its importance, types of research, the research process, and the sources and methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation in historical research. The course is designed to prepare students for their research projects.

**Course Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this course is to expose students to the craft of research in historical studies. It is also intended to imbue in them the methods and skills required to undertake a systematic and critical analysis of the events in the historical tradition.

Therefore, by the end of this course, students should be able to:

1. Explain what research is in historical studies
2. Describe vividly the stages or steps involved in historical research
3. Critically analyze the major tools and techniques used in historical research
4. Conduct historical research using appropriate methods, tools and techniques.

**Course Outline/Content**

1. **Meaning and nature of research**
2. **Importance and features of research**
3. **Types of research**
4. **The research process**
5. **Methods, tools and techniques in historical research: an overview**
6. **Research report writing**
7. **Revision**

**COURSE: HIS 312: RESEARCH METHODS 1**

* 1. **INTRODUCTION**

Scientific knowledge and research are parts of an indivisible whole. To separate research from knowledge is like separating the soul from the body. Thus, the role of research in human life is as precious as life to man. Research dates back to the time that human mind acquired the status of academic consciousness. Without research no academic discipline can meaningfully survive the challenge hoisted on it by society. This is because man has continuously sought to improve on existing conditions in his society by exploring the unknown through research. This explains the seeming unstoppable journey of society from the Stone Age to the present Computer Age.

* 1. **MEANING OF RESEARCH**

The term research simply means to search again or to repeat a search. The Webster’s international Dictionary defines research as “a careful critical enquiry or examination in seeking facts or principles; diligent investigation in order to ascertain something”.

This insight from Webster is useful in highlighting in a general sense what basically comes to mind when people talk about research. However, it does not give a clear and complete sense of what research really involves. At this point, the definition of D. Slessinger and M. Stephenson comes handy in shedding more light on what research entails. According to them, research involves:

The manipulation of things, concepts or symbol for the purpose of generalizing to expand, correct or verify knowledge, whether that knowledge aids in construction of theory or in the practice of an art.

In effect, research must be critical and exhaustive in its investigation or experimentation, and must aim to extend, confirm or correct knowledge in the light of newly discovered facts. In P.V. Young’s view, social research is a scientific undertaking which, by means of logical and systematized techniques, aims to:

1. Discover new facts or verify and test old facts;
2. Analyze their sequences, inter-relationships and casual explanations which were derived within appropriate theoretical frame of references;
3. Develop new scientific tools, concepts and theories, which would facilitate reliable and valid study of human behaviors.

To John Best, “research is a more systematic activity directed towards discovery and the development of an organized body of knowledge”. In Best’s view, research is goal directed. Its aim is to extend, confirm or extend knowledge in a specific discipline.

McAshan on his part sees research as a careful, critical and exhaustive investigation to discover new facts, test hypothesis, revise accepted conclusion or contribute to uplifting society. In the same vein, Asika opines that research is an organized inquiry that aims to provide information for solving identified problems.

By way of summary, it could be safely concluded that research is a systematic, organized, exhaustive, and careful investigation, which entails the use of rigorous methods and techniques, with a view to providing solution to an identified problem.

**1.3** **NATURE OF RESEARCH**

The subject of attaining one hundred percent accuracy in scientific historical research is a complex one and seems to be elusive, at least for now. The reason for this is that social phenomena are unique and ambiguous. This often generates difficulties as to the precise measure of social investigation. Again, this is because human beings do not operate under controlled conditions. Rather they operate under diverse environmental, psychological and social influences which interact with each other. Worse still, because of the complexity or uniqueness of each individual’s behavior, it is difficult to find two people that are alike in their thinking, working and attitudes. Even the attitude of one person changes under pressure of circumstance from time to time. Consequently, historians have a big problem in that they have to conduct their experiments in a huge social laboratory where precision and accuracy in predictability becomes difficult.

**1.4 IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH**

The problem of absolute accuracy and precision notwithstanding, historical research is still very important. Some of the practical benefits and theoretical implications are as follow:

1. Behavioral research brings about new knowledge, new methods and new inventions which in turn facilitate man’s journey to progress. This can be seen in the manifestation of new social relations, resolution of ambiguities, correction of distortions, and the consequent logical interpretations of given social variables.
2. Research is helpful in guiding social policies and planning in whatever area that requires a store of reliable and factual knowledge which will serve as the basis of developing a blue print for the implementation of social programs.
3. Research in behavioral science promotes social welfare by providing a deeper understanding of the cause of various social evils and providing effective antidotes. Many of society’s legislative and reformative measures are heavily indebted to reports of behavioral research. Thus, it could said that research helps to find out not only the magnitude and the real cause of social problems, but helps to fashion out solutions to these problems. This could not have been possible without a sound understanding of the origin and development of the problem anchored on historical research. Historical research provides thus a body of sound knowledge and understanding founded on real facts on which social problem are resolved.
4. Research provides enlightenment and helps to roll back the frontiers of ignorance. It thus creates better understanding between different social groups by dispelling the thrust of worn-out assumptions, superstitions and stereotypes. However, it should be noted that while scientific research may unmask the underlying oneness in the diversity of human society, it may also unravel diversity in the midst of apparent unity.
5. Historical research also helps to highlight relationships between social facts and their causes. The knowledge of causative factors and their magnitude makes it possible for the historian to make predictions which may bring about better social control and planning.

**1.5 FEATURES OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH**

The scientific approach to resolving problems has distinguishing characteristics which according to Serakan (1992) includes the following:

1. Objectivity: The scientific method ensures that conclusions drawn from data are based on facts resulting from the data collected. This is because it adopts a systematic approach that ensures that the researcher’s subjective or preconceived opinions are precluded from finding their way into the research findings.
2. Precision and Confidence: The scientific method seeks precision and accuracy in the bid to resolve problems. As such it relies largely on quantitative techniques in its data collection and interpretation so that the conclusions drawn will be precise and accurate. Precision here refers to how close is to the sample population, while confidence is the degree of probability that the estimation made is correct.
3. Rigor: To collect the right data for research, a good theoretical base and methodological design are inevitable. This is because the right data can only derive from the right sample size and design. This requires a good dose of rigor, and the same dose of rigor must be injected if data analysis and conclusions drawn must be valid.
4. Parsimony: A research must contain a manageable number of variables. They must be those variables that are important in predicting a particular situation that would explain the variance instead of a complex set of variables that would only marginally add to the variance explained.
5. Generalizability: This implies that the scope of applicability of research findings must be wide enough to enable its generalization. Thus, the wider the area of study, the greater its usefulness and value.
6. Replicability: Research follows carefully outlined procedures in executing investigations. The methods and techniques employed must be well documented so that if the need to verify the research outcomes arises, its methods could be replicated, thus arriving at the same conclusions.
7. Testability: Research involves the testing of logically developed hypothesis and research questions. The hypothesis and research questions are often framed after a careful identification and definition of the problem. Data is collected and tested against the hypothesis or questions to find out its veracity.
8. Goal Oriented: Every research is directed at solving a given problem. Where there is no problem there is no research. Hence, research must be carried out with set goals and objectives in mind.

**1.6 TYPES OF RESEARCH**

Broadly speaking, research can be classified as fundamental or basic research and applied research. The classification of research is based upon the purpose, the approach and the nature of the research activity.

1. Fundamental research is any research activity which seeks to improve understanding about a problem that its occurrence is of common nature and interest. The purpose is to find out how such a common problem can be addressed. It is a fact finding research that explores the situation that is general to various organizations or society in order to advance knowledge and contribute to the understanding of the phenomena.
2. Applied research, on the other hand, is carried out with intention of applying the result of its findings as an antidote for a specific problem in a given situation or organization. In other words, applied research aims at discovering why certain events occur and finding a solution to them.

However, it is also now common to classify research as discussed below:

1. Survey Research: In modern times, survey research has become very popular as a method of discovering relevant impact and interrelationships of social variables in given populations. It studies large and small populations by selecting and studying samples chosen from the population to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interactions of social variables. Also, survey research does not engage in the manipulation of variables.
2. Experimental Research: This type of research is concerned with relationship that exists among variables. It is also interested in the nature of these relationships. Its distinguishing feature is that there exists the possibility of subjecting independent variables to control or manipulation and isolating their influences for plausible explanations. This kind of research can be sub-divided into the following three categories:
3. Laboratory Experiment: This is the type of research in which all the independent variables that can affect or influence the dependent variable are subjected to control. Put differently, this type of research is appropriate where the interest of research is to show causal connections in an artificial setting with maximum control of variables. For instance, in this type of research, two groups (the experimental and control groups) are selected but only the experimental group is subjected to the experimental treatment.
4. Field Experiment: This takes place in the actual environmental setting with less degree of control over independent variables. For example, if the researcher is interested in analyzing the behavior of car users on a particular brand of car, the study could be conducted in a car shop because of its natural setting. It is because of the nature of the setting that this type of research is also called natural “experiment”.
5. Field Study: It takes place in the natural setting of the event. It takes place without any kind of control or manipulation over the variables.
6. Ex-Post Facto: This is the type of research conducted when the events under study have already taken place. Here the researcher has no control over the variables apparently because the event has already taken place or the event inherently cannot be manipulated. This research type is suitable when the purpose of the research is to report what has happened. At best, it explains possible and plausible relation and the likely effect that a change in the independent variable may produce on a single or a set of dependent variables. However, it should be noted that an ex-post facto research’s weakness lies in its inability to control independent variables and its difficulty in making use of hypothesis. Nonetheless, it is very effective as an explanatory instrument and helps meaningfully in gaining insight into dependent variables.
7. Case Study Research: This is an intensive study of comparatively fewer persons or facts, which is sometimes restricted to small numbers of cases. In other words, it engages in a comprehensive and detailed analysis of a single and limited number of events and their interrelationships. Its interest is to study everything about something, rather than something about everything.
8. Exploratory Research also known as Pilot Studies: This is useful in all types of studies pending the final selection of a suitable research method and design. It helps to gain insight into the general nature of a problem and the relevant variables. It is also useful in the process of clarifying ideas and concepts associated with the problem. It is useful for framing a perfect schedule or questionnaire. Basically, it is the preliminary study of the universe under study to gain an idea about it.
9. Evaluation Research: This is a recent addition to the types of research. Its purpose is t evaluate the performance of the developmental project and other socio-economic programs that have already been implemented. It is a comprehensive concept of measurement aimed at objectively assessing the impact of any such programs. Evaluation research can be concurrent, phasic or terminal. For this type of research to be useful, the researcher must acquaint himself with the objectives and the process of implementation of the program.
10. Action Research: This is carried out through the launching of a direct action to obtain or arrive at a feasible solution to a given problem. The distinguishing strength of action research is its ability to adapt itself to the occurring changes within the population or universe of the problem. For meaningful research activity, it must first be executed at the stage of the baseline survey, where all the information of research is collected. This is followed by the stage of practically launching the planned action. The next step is the periodical assessment of the project. Thereafter, changes and modifications are made in the functional aspect of the project, and finally the whole process terminates in the evaluation of the project as a whole.
11. Descriptive Research: This is the type of research which specifies the nature of a given phenomena. It is important because it gives a picture of the situation or a population since any consideration of phenomena generally begins with its full understanding. Accurate descriptions are needed for making a wide range of policy decisions. For example, the Nigerian Population Commission conducts census so that the population would be ascertained for national development uses. Its purpose include:
12. To describe systematically detailed facts and characteristics of a given area of interest.
13. To make comparisons and evaluations.
14. To ascertain what others are doing with similar problems or situations and draw from their experiences in making future plans.

Its basic shortcomings include:

1. It is basic for all types of research in assessing the situation as a prerequisite to inferences and generalizations but on its own fails to provide comprehensive answers to questions.
2. It cannot establish cause and effect relationships.
3. Historical Research: This is the systematic examination of the past in order to understand the present and provide a factual basis to predict the future. The historical method of research applies to all fields of study because it encompasses their origins, growth, theories, personalities, crisis, etc. Both [quantitative](http://www.valdosta.peachnet.edu/vsu/dept/coe/coed/edled/edr701/quantita.htm) and [qualitative](https://www.ischool.utexas.edu/%7Epalmquis/courses/qualitative.htm) variables can be used in the collection of historical information. Researchers conducting historical investigations depend largely on the data available on the past. They cannot exercise any control over such data. Archives, libraries, museum, persons, etc. provide the sources of relevant information. The types of information usually collected include artifacts, oral evidence, written documents, etc. Apart from the above that constitute primary sources, second-hand materials (secondary sources) exist as well. The latter can be sourced from books, journals, opinion of contemporaries, etc.

The problems of historical research may include the following:

a). Scarcity or inaccessibility of relevant information

b). Lack of direct observation

c). Inability to control variables

d). Inaccuracy that accompany secondary sources.

The purpose of historical research is to:

1. Provide an accurate account of the past, and
2. Gain a clear perspective of the present.

Once the decision is made to conduct historical research, there are steps that should be followed to achieve a reliable result. Charles Busha and Stephen Harter detailed six steps for conducting historical research:

1. The recognition of a historical problem or the identification of a need for certain historical knowledge.
2. The gathering of as much relevant information about the problem or topic as possible.
3. If appropriate, the forming of hypothesis that tentatively explains relationships between historical factors/variables.
4. The rigorous collection and organization of evidence, and the verification of the authenticity and veracity of information and its sources.
5. The selection, organization, and analysis of the most pertinent collected evidence, and the drawing of conclusions; and
6. The recording of conclusions in a meaningful narrative.

Another categorization of the stages/steps in historical research breaks them down into four steps:

1. Identification of problem.
2. Collection of data which may entail digging up of ancient objects to checking old documents.
3. Establishment of the validity of data. This involves authenticating the source and validating its content.
4. Interpretation o data. This must be made from the standpoint of the theory that the data will most adequately support.

In conducting historical research, the researcher should be very objective in the manner he collects and analyzes data. Also, he has to be cautious over the drawing of conclusions or inferences. As such he has to avoid wild and supported generalizations.

It is pertinent to note at this point that the formulation of problem in historical research is not an easy task. In this case, the researcher collects the preliminary data, defines the research problem and reduces it to scope, among others, to achieve desired results. To be able to do this correctly, he has to acquaint himself with the following:

1. What were the events?
2. Where did they take place?
3. Who were the persons involved?
4. When did the events occur?
5. What factors might have influenced the events?
6. What lessons could be drawn or learnt?

After the formulation of hypothesis or research questions, the next task is the collection or gathering of relevant data about the problem or subject matter under consideration. As stated earlier, historical research is bedeviled with some problems which need to be reduced. This is done by a critical evaluation of data in a process known as historical criticism. The reliable data obtained afterwards are called historical evidence. Thus, historical evidence is that body of validated facts or information which can be accepted as trustworthy as a valid basis for testing and interpretation of hypothesis and, or, research questions.

Historical criticism is in the following two stages:

1. External criticism
2. Internal criticism

The external criticism of source materials is concerned with the authenticity or genuineness of a given set of data. It answers questions such as:

1. Is this book the genuine work of the author?
2. Is this document what it appears to be?

On the other hand, internal criticism is designed to establish the accuracy and worth of a set of historical data. For example, while a document may be genuine, it may not provide an accurate picture of events because the originator may have been biased or unaware of the critical issues involved due to poor memory, incompetence, etc.

Questions like the following are usually raised:

1. How qualified and unbiased is the author?
2. How independent is the researcher?
3. What was his relationship to the event recorded?
4. Are the things he said credible?

The above shows that both types of criticism are interrelated though they are frequently at odds with one another owing to the fact that an increase in the status of one tends to jeopardize the other.

After the external and internal validation of a set of data have been established, the next task is an objective analysis, synthesis and reporting of data. This is the stage at which questions raised or hypothesis formulated are answered or tested. Thus, the researcher’s resourcefulness is greatly needed here. A set of problems that tend to becloud many historical research reports are closely related to those already discussed. They include scarcity of information, inability to control events that have already taken place, lack of direct observation, poor formulation of hypothesis/research questions, poor analysis resulting from oversimplification, overgeneralization, poor reporting style, etc.

It is in the light of these problems that a number of criteria were suggested for evaluating historical research. According to G.J. Mouly, the following are obtainable:

* 1. Problem should be clearly stated
  2. Primary data should be sought as much as possible to avoid dependence on secondary sources.

The dependability and the relevance of the data should be adequately established. The synthesis and interpretation should reveal evidence of objectivity, mastery of data and deep insight into the relationship involved. The report should be succinct, clearly presented, intelligible, as well as reflect evidence of creativity and scholarship.

**1.7 THE RESEARCH PROCESS**

In the behavioral sciences, scientific research is a process involving many inter-related themes. The scientific series of sequential stages or steps constitute what is called the research process. The research process is overall scheme of scientific activities in which social scientists engage. Basically, the research process include among other seven major types of activities. They are:

1. The problem
2. Hypothesis
3. Research design
4. Measurement
5. Data collection
6. Data analysis
7. Empirical generalization

Below is a model and visual representation of stages of research. Any knowledge derived at the end of this process, will by every standard, be deemed a scientific knowledge. Each of these stages is under-related to the theory in the sense that both are affected by each other.

Hypothesis

The Problem Research Design

Generalization Measurement

Data Analysis Data Collection

**1.7.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION**

Problem in research refers to the entire situation where a need for research arises. This means that the researcher must demonstrate sufficient awareness of the existence of a problem in his environment, and be sensitive to stimuli around him. Consequently, it can be said that research is problem focused.

The researcher has to identify a clear and precise problem statement that must be investigated with the aim of finding a solution. Thus, a problem is any situation that needs to fill the gap between the actual state and the desired state.

**1.7.2 THE HYPOTHESIS**

Hypothesis is a logical conjectured relationship between two or more variables expressed in testable statement. The relationship is derived on the basis of the network of association established in the theoretical framework formulated for the research study. It is intended to predict the outcome of the study.

**1.7.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design deals with the sources and types of information required. They must be relevant to the research problem.

The research design is the structure, programme and strategy upon which hypotheses are evaluated. The research design guides the researcher in the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting observation. The research design ensures the use of techniques and tools appropriate to meet the desired objectives of the study. This involves the selection of research methods, sample, and sampling techniques and determining sampling size among others.

**1.7.4 MEASUREMENT**

Measurement is any procedures in which observation are available to logical, mathematical and statistical manipulations. It is therefore a procedure in which numerals are assigned to properties, objects or events according to rules. In behavioral science research, we can distinguish four levels of measurement.

1. Nominal scale
2. Ordinal scale
3. Interval scale
4. Ratio scale
5. Nominal Measure: This when numbers are used to distinguish between categories in a strictly qualitative manner. It is used to qualify objects or observations. The number or symbols constitute a nominal or classificatory scale.
6. Ordinal Measure: This is when numbers are used to organize systematic progression. The objects are ranked and arranged in order. It categories the variables and denote qualitative differences.
7. Interval Measure: This is the measure that arranges all the positions in terms of greater, equal or less. The unit of interval of measurement is equal. The interval sale often used in the social sciences is the Standardized Intelligent test (IQ). It ranks ad measures all magnitude or the differences in the preferences.
8. Ratio Measure: This scale is those measured on true zero point (absolute zero). Often, it is used in social science to measure age, length, weight area, time etc. it does not only measure magnitude or the differences between points, but also measures the in the differences because of its zero point origin .

**1.7.5 DATA COLLECTION**

This is the stage at which researchers makes their observations and record them. This is done by:

1. Observation techniques
2. Survey methods, and,
3. Non-reactive or unobtrusive methods.

The sources of data are also classified as primary and secondary sources.

1. Observation Techniques: social sciences are based on observation. Observation makes it possible to study behavior as it occurs. Researchers do not ask people about their behavior and action. They simply watch them do things and say things. Through observation, the researcher is able to desire the observed phenomena as they occur in their naturally settings.
2. Survey Techniques: This technique is handy where the phenomena are not easily accessible to the researcher’s direction observation. The investigator must collect data by asking people who experienced the phenomena to reconstruct them. The approach is a sample of individuals that may have the relevant experience, and interview them about their experiences. There are three methods involved in survey methods.
3. The mail questionnaire
4. The personal interview
5. The telephone survey
6. Unobtrusive Measures: it is a method of observing and measuring societal phenomena in which the researcher has little or no impact on what is measured. This method directly removes the researcher from the contamination that could arise when researchers and research subjects confront each other. In an unobtrusive method, the subject is not aware of being tested and there is no danger that the act of measurement will serve as a force of change in behavior. Three sources of unobtrusive measures are:
7. Physical traces
8. Simple observation, and,
9. Archival records
10. Physical Traces: This is evidences left behind by a population. Producers of these traces are not aware that they could be used.
11. Simple Observation: This is a process in which the observer has no control over the behavior or signs in question.
12. Archival Records: This is the analysis of private and public archival records.
    * 1. **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

It is the process of identifying the nature of events, identifying component parts and how these relate to each other and assigning meaning to the research findings. The three ways of analyzing data are: i. Univariate analysis, ii. Bivariate analysis, and iii. Multivariate analysis.

1. Univariate Analysis: this is the examination of only one variable at a time. It has the objective of describing. The basis method employed here is to report all individual cases. This means reporting the attribute describing each case under study in terms of the variable in question.
2. Bivariate Analysis: This is the analysis of simultaneous relationship among many variables. An example is to examine simultaneously, the effect of age, sex and social class on political participation or choice of business vocation. Multivariate analysis can be demonstrated through the use of contingency table or cross tabulation. In multivariate analysis there is always more than one independent variable and the dependent variable is explained through the use of more than one independent variable.
   * 1. **EMPIRICAL GENERALIZATION**

Behavioral science is not only interested in the effect of one variable on the other, it is also interested in generalizations to a larger population. There are two important elements that may endanger external validity or generalization. These are Representation and Reactive arrangement

1. Representativeness of sample: To allow generalization to go beyond the limited scope of the specific study, care should be taken to select the sample by using sampling methods that must assure representativeness. Probability methods such as random sampling will allow generalization to go to a larger defined population. The experimental and control groups should each constitute a probability sample of the population.
2. Reactive arrangement: Results of students are to be generalized to a larger defined population and real life settings. This is not always easy to accomplish because some studies are carried out in higher artificial environment such as laboratory. In addition to this artificiality many factors in the setting may be reactive with the result that external validity is adversely affected.

**1.8 RESEARCH REPORT WRITING**

This is the final stage of the research process because it is the stage at which the research activity is documented. A research activity that is not documented is of no value at all. Research report consists of three main parts namely:

1. Prefatory pages
2. Main body, and
3. Appended sections.

The prefatory pages consist of:

1. Title of the report
2. Table of content
3. Executive summary

The main body consists of introduction, methodology, findings, summary, conclusion and recommendation.

The appended section consists of bibliography and appendices.

**1.9 STYLES OF REPORT DOCUMENTATION**

In documenting supporting statements facts from authors, three things are to be considered. These are the areas of references, footnotes and bibliography. References and footnotes are used at the end of every chapter, while bibliography appears at the end of the research report.

There are many styles of reporting documented materials, but two of them are the most common and they will suffice for the purpose of this course. The two styles are the American Psychological Association (APA), known as the Harvard style while the second is the Kate Turabian, known as the Chicago style. In adopting any of these styles, the researcher must be consistent on what to use throughout the work.

An example of the Harvard Style would be: Koontz, Harold and Heinz Weihrich (1989), Management, 9th Edition, McGraw-hill Book Company, New York, USA, PP.44 – 45.

An example of Chicago Style would be: Richard T. Gill, Economic Development: Past and Present, (Prenctice-Hall Inc., Englewood, Cliffs, New Jersey, 1963), PP.13 – 23.

Major differences are:

The first name of the author reports before his last name in Chicago Style and the year of publication is reported after place of publication.

Assignment:

1. Discuss the major components of the appended section of the research report and highlight the difference between the Harvard and Chicago styles of documentation.

**1.10. PROJECT REPORT WRITING FORMAT**

Five Chapters.

Prefatory Pages:

1. Certification
2. Title Page
3. Dedication
4. Acknowledgement
5. Table of Content
6. List of Tables
7. List of Figures
8. Abstract

Main Body:

Chapter one: General Introduction

1:1 Background of study  
1:2 Statement of the problem  
1:3 Objectives of the study  
1:4 Hypothesis of the study/Research Questions  
1:5 Justification of the study  
1:6 Scope and Limitation of the study  
1:7 Definition of Terms/Concepts

Chapter Two: Review of Literature  
Chapter Three: Methodology of Research  
3:1 Area of Study  
3:2 Research of Design  
3:3 Sample Size and Sampling Technique  
3:4 Research Instrument  
3:5 Sources and Collection of Data  
3:6 Measurement of Variables  
3:7 Data Analysis Technique  
Chapter Four: Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion  
Chapter Five: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation  
Appendage:  
 Bibliography  
 Appendix

**1.10 TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGN**

Elsewhere we have defined research design as an overall plan that spells out the sources and types of information required and relevant to the research problem. We also said, it specifies the strategies for obtaining data and the appropriate techniques and tools in analyzing data.

Essentially, the research design answers such questions as: Where do I get the information for the research? Is the information relevant to the research problems? How do I obtain the information? What tools do I need to analyze the obtained information, among many others?

Research designs are classified into two general categories namely: Fundamental, Basic or Pure Research and Applied Research.

Fundamental research is done to improve understanding about certain problems that commonly occur. The purpose is to find out how they can be addressed. On the other hand, Applied Research is done with the intention of applying the results of its findings to solve specific problems in the organization. In other words, applied research is aimed at discovering why certain events occur and find a solution to them. Basic research is a fact-finding research that explores the situation general to various organizations in order to generate knowledge and contribute to the understanding of the phenomena.

**FURTHER READING:**

1. Osa Osemwota, M.A. Okhakhu and D.A. Tonwe (eds.), *Research and Statistical Methods in Social Sciences, Humanities and Education*

2. E. Dionco-Adetayo, *Guide to Business Research*

3. N. Asika, *Research Methodology in the Behavioural Sciences*

4. F. Kerlinger, *Foundation of Behavioural Research*

5. C. Parson, *Thesis and Project Work: A Guide to Research and Writing*

6. J. Roscoe, *Fundamental Research Statistics for Behavioural Sciences*

7. R.I. Marshal, *The Historical Criticism of Documents, (Nigeria:The Historical Association, Mason Publishing Company)*