RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology:

The methodology selected for the study is survey using a structured questionnaire. **Taylor, S., & Bogdan, R. (1984)[1].** The researcher prepared a comprehensive questionnaire in three parts. **Sudman, S., & Bradburn, N. M. (1982)[2]** The first part contained the personal data of the respondents and the second part contained the detailed information on the subject of research. The third part of the questionnaire which included descriptive questions and answers but it was kept limited to a few most important respondents, like the Chief Minister, former CM, Speaker of the Assembly, MPs, MLAs, Party Presidents, Editors and other top journalists. **Castles, F. G., & Mair, P. (1984).[3]**

Survey Method of Research

Survey research involves the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions. A great many researchers choose this method of data collection. In fact, surveys have become such a vital part of our social fabric that we cannot assess much of what we read in the newspaper or see on TV without having some understanding of survey research.

Survey research owes its continuing popularity to its versatility, efficiency, and generalizability. First and foremost is the versatility of survey methods. Researchers have used survey methods to investigate areas of education as diverse as school desegregation, academic achievement, teaching practice, and leadership. Although a survey is not the ideal method for learning about every educational process, a well-designed survey can enhance our understanding of just about any issue.

Surveys are efficient in that many variables can be measured without substantially increasing the time or cost. Survey data can be collected from many people at relatively low cost and, depending on the survey design, relatively quickly.

Survey methods lend themselves to probability sampling from large populations. Thus, survey research is very appealing when sample generalizability is a central research goal. In fact, survey research is often the only means available for

developing a representative picture of the attitudes and characteristics of a large population.

But without careful attention to sampling, measurement, and overall survey design, the effort is likely to be a flop. Such flops are too common for comfort, and the responsible survey researcher must take the time to design surveys properly and to convince sponsoring organizations that this time is worth the effort **(Wimmer and Dominick, 2003)[4].**

There are two major types of surveys, descriptive and analytical. A descriptive survey attempts to describe or document current conditions or attitudes-that is, to explain what exists at the moment. While in descriptive surveys, the interest is in discovering the current situation in the area under study, an analytical survey attempts to describe and explain why situations exist. In this approach two or more variables are usually examined to investigate research questions or test research hypotheses. The results allow researchers to examine the interrelationships among variables and to develop explanatory inferences.

For a survey to succeed, it must minimize the risk of two types of error: poor measurement of cases that are surveyed (errors of observation) and omission of cases that should be surveyed (errors of non- observation). Potential problems that can lead to errors of observation stem from the way questions are written, the characteristics of the respondents who answer the questions, the way questions are presented in questionnaires, and the interviewers used to ask the questions. The potential measurement errors that survey researchers confront in designing questions and questionnaires are summarized:

There are three sources of errors of non-observation:

•• Coverage of the population can be inadequate due to a poor sampling frame.

•• The process of random sampling can result in sampling error—differences between the characteristics of the sample members and the population that arise due to chance.

•• Non-response can distort the sample when individuals refuse to respond or cannot be contacted.

Non-response to specific questions can distort the generalizability of the responses to those questions.

Presenting clear and interesting questions in a well-organized questionnaire will help to reduce measurement error by encouraging respondents to answer questions carefully and to take seriously the request to participate in the survey.

Survey questions are answered as part of a questionnaire (or interview schedule, as it is sometimes called in interview-based studies). The context created by the questionnaire has a major impact on how individual questions are interpreted and answered. As a result, survey researchers must carefully design the questionnaire as well as individual questions. There is no precise formula for a well-designed questionnaire. Nonetheless, some key principles should guide the design of any questionnaire, and some systematic procedures should be considered for refining it.

Maintain Consistent Focus

A survey should be guided by a clear conception of the research problem under investigation and the population to be sampled. Throughout the process of questionnaire design, the research objective should be the primary basis for making decisions about what to include and exclude and what to emphasize or treat in a cursory fashion. The questionnaire should be viewed as an integrated whole, in which each section and every question serve a clear purpose related to the study's objective and each section complements other sections.

Build on Existing Instruments

Surveys often include irrelevant questions and fail to include questions that, the researchers realize later, are crucial. One way to ensure that possibly relevant questions are asked is to use questions suggested by prior research, theory, experience, or experts (including participants) that are knowledgeable about the setting under investigation.

If another researcher already has designed a set of questions to measure a key concept, and evidence from previous surveys indicates that this measure is reliable and valid, then, by all means, use that instrument. Resources such as the Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement can give one many ideas about existing

instruments; literature review at the start of a research project should be an even better source.

But there is a trade-off here. Questions used previously may not concern quite the right concept or may not be appropriate in some ways to your population. So even though using a previously designed and well- regarded instrument may reassure other researchers, it may not really be appropriate for specific survey. A good rule of thumb is to use a previously designed instrument if it measures the concept of concern to the study and if there is no clear reason for thinking it is inappropriate with the survey population.

Refine and Test Questions

The only good question is a pretested question. Before one rely on a question in the research, one need evidence that the respondents will understand what it means. So first it should be tried out on a few people.

One important form of pretesting is discussing the questionnaire with colleagues. One can also review prior research in which the key questions have been used. Forming a panel of experts to review the questions can also help. For a student research project, "experts" might include a practitioner who works in a setting like the one to be surveyed, a methodologist, and a person experienced in questionnaire design. Another increasingly popular form of pretesting comes from guided discussions among potential respondents. Such "focus groups" let you check for consistent understanding of terms and to identify the range of events or experiences about which people will be asked to report. By listening to and observing the focus group discussions, researchers can validate their assumptions about what level of vocabulary is appropriate and what people are going to be reporting.

Professional survey researchers also use a technique for improving questions called the cognitive interview. Although the specifics vary, the basic approach is to ask people, ideally individuals who reflect the proposed survey population, to "think aloud" as they answer questions. The researcher asks a test question, and then probes with follow-up questions about how the respondent understood the question, how confusing it was, and so forth. This method can identify many problems with proposed questions.

Conducting a pilot study is the final stage of questionnaire preparation. Complete the questionnaire and then revise it. Next, try it out on some colleagues or other friends, and revise it again. For the actual pretest, draw a small sample of individuals from the population being studied or one very similar to it, and try out the survey procedures with them, including mailings if there is a plan to mail questionnaire and actual interviews if there is plan to conduct in-person interviews.

Which pretesting method is best? Each has unique advantages and disadvantages. Simple pretesting is the least reliable but may be the easiest to undertake. Focus groups or cognitive interviews are better for under- standing the bases of problems with particular questions. Review of questions by an expert panel identifies the greatest number of problems with questions.

Make the Questionnaire Attractive

An attractive questionnaire—neat, clear, clean, and spacious—is more likely to be completed and less likely to confuse either the respondent or, in an interview, the interviewer.

An attractive questionnaire does not look cramped; plenty of "white space"—more between questions than within question components—makes the questionnaire appear easy to complete. Response choices are listed vertically and are distinguished clearly and consistently, perhaps by formatting them in all capital letters and keeping them in the middle of the page. Skip patterns are indicated with arrows or other graphics. Some distinctive type of formatting should also be used to identify instructions

Questions are the centerpiece of survey research. Because the way they are worded can have a great effect on the way they are answered, selecting good questions is the single most important concern for survey researchers.

Sample Size:

For an adequate representation a sample size of 538 respondents was selected for collecting the data. Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (2013)[5]. This included 228 politicians and 310 media personnel from the major media houses from all across the state. It was attempted to ensure the representation of samples from all parts of Jharkhand.

Sampling: In the situations, where the entire population cannot be examined due to time and resource constraints, the usual procedure is to take a sample from the population. A sample is a subset of the population that is representative of the entire population, regardless of its size.

In the research we adopted is the convenience sampling method, Wimmer R., & Dominick, J. (2013)[6] and selected 228 respondents from politicians and 310 from media persons each. This is a nonprobability sample consisting of respondents or subjects who were readily available. **Merits of the method**: Proponents of the this method claim that if a phenomenon, characteristics or trait does in-fact exist then it should exist in any sample. This method often eliminates potential problems in research procedures, testing and methodology before the final research study is attempted. Modern day media, generally use this method every day in their different surveys.

Demerits of this method of sampling: In this method of sampling critics argue that regardless of what results they generate, available samples do not represent the population and therefore have no external validity. Subjects who constitute a volunteer sample also form a nonprobability sample, since the individuals are not selected mathematically. Critics of this method of sampling say that use of volunteer subjects may significantly bias the results of a research study and may lead to inaccurate estimates of various population parameters.

Research Tools: The test was developed and standardized as per the established procedure, on samples of both the politicians and media persons on the basis of a pilot study taken up in the first quarter of 2014. A total of 37 closed ended questions were standardized with four to six options.

Statistical Tool: To see the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the percentage analysis was adopted. The percentage analysis was done based on the data collected. **Riff, D., Lacy, S., & Fico, F. (2014)**[7].

Sources of data Collection:

1. The primary data was collected based on a survey with a comprehensive questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of closed ended questions so that the analysis of the data is more definitive. Personal approach was the best method to reach VIPs.

2. The secondary data was collected from the newspapers, magazines, news channels, websites, other media and literature on the subject.

Research Plan:

The following will be the chapters of the research work: **Silverman, D. (2013)**[8]

1. Introduction

2. Review of literature

3. Research method

4. Data presentation and analysis

5. Summary, Conclusion and recommendations.

     Bibliography

     Appendix/Publications

Scope of Study:

The present study attempts to find out the real role of politicians and the media in the development of the Jharkhand state.

Media brings the people together and is helping in the globalization process in the modern scientific era. It is believed that most of the problems of the world are communication problems and most of the problems in this world can be solved by more and better communication. Similarly most of the political problems and problem of unity and integration can be solved with appropriate and effective mode of communication.

There was no significant study on the topic. The present research has studied this important aspect and come up with new facts and findings and the recommendations will be quite helpful for the future projects of the country and the state of Jharkhand.

The theoretical framework of the study:

Media as fourth pillar of state and an important agent of society serves for public by providing them basic knowledge and information on all aspects of a single issue or on various issues of national and international level. It not only provides information and updates on various issues and happenings but it also gives a direction to public for making up their judgments and perceptions. Previously it was impossible to mold public opinion for certain issues through media, and people living in different societies were unaware of the happenings of the world and of their concerned societies, but with the advent of technological revolution development of journalism specifically made it possible to inform general public no matter where they are living and to whom they belong. Journalism has evolved as the major element of media to inform people living at every echelon of society which help them for making up certain perceptions regarding certain issues. In the age of information revolution media exceeded the physical boundaries of the world's states and citizens of present world are now aware of all the happenings. Turning the whole world in to global village made it possible for people to have the information on each and every aspect and this is only possible through the media of present era, when there is no restriction on information accessibility on different issues of importance, similarly people have access on all types of information of their choices.

Media is able to set its scheme to produce desired effects within the society or for the people living in that specific society. Whatever media present, what it intend to promote and making some issues as the important of all. According to Maxwell & McCombs, media (mainly the news media) is not only successful in telling us what to think but they are stunningly successful in telling us what to think about (McCombs, Maxwell, 2005). Similar is the case in public perception, people form perceptions according to what media present to them. Perception plays very important role in making some issues important and some unimportant, this is due to many reasons; sometimes perceptions are affected by lots of other things. According

to Severin (2001), different psychological factors influence perceptions and they include past experience, cultural expectations, motivations, moods, needs and attitudes. According to Feldman (1999), "Perception is the sorting out, interpretation, analysis and integration of stimuli involving our sense organs and brain".

It is evident that there are a variety of ways that the media influences our lives. This study uses media effect theories specifically Agenda setting theory and Framing theory to explore the media coverage of social issues. In doing so it further addresses how the media shapes public opinion.

The agenda-setting process involves different components to gain attention of media professionals and the public (Rogers & Dearing, 1988). Agenda-setting offers the reason why some information about some issues is highlighted while other information is left out. The agenda-setting process helps define how public opinion is formed through highlighting certain aspects of issues in media coverage. The coverage of specific issues often leads to policy action by politicians due to the publicity received from the media. Social problems must receive adequate media attention to be deemed "public issues" (Rogers & Dearing, (1992).

Rodgers and Dearing (in McQuail, 2000:456) further claim that agenda setting is related to several other kinds of effects, including: the bandwagon effect, the spiral of silence, diffusion of news, and media gate-keeping. An important question is who sets the agenda for agenda setters. Media scholars such as Fourie (2001) and McQuail (2000) target major news editors or 'gatekeepers' who can open or close the 'gate' on a story. Each medium has its own set of gatekeepers. According to Straubhaar and La Rose (2003:49) in this regard newspapers, books and magazines have their own hierarchies of editors who swing the gate on new events and new ideas. Fourie (2001: 196) states gatekeeping can be defined as the process through which certain information passes a series of checkpoints before finally being accepted as news material.

Although McCombs's (1972) researches are mainly related to political issues, he presented insight on how the public comes to an agreement on which issues are the most important and prominent. According to McCombs (1997) there are four visions of agenda-setting that should be identified. These four visions describe "both what the agenda-setting role of the news media is and the professional views

of journalists about what the agenda-setting role of the news media should be" (McCombs, 1997). The first vision is called professional detachment.

In short, this vision states that the main focus of a journalist is to only report the news and to stand apart from the public (McCombs, 1997). McCombs commented that vision challenges the understanding of agenda-setting because most of the time the news media cannot stand apart from the community. "Whatever the media do, they have an effect on the community they serve" (McCombs, 1997). News media may try to objectively report the news; however, the community will still be interested and feel the effects of how the news was portrayed to them.
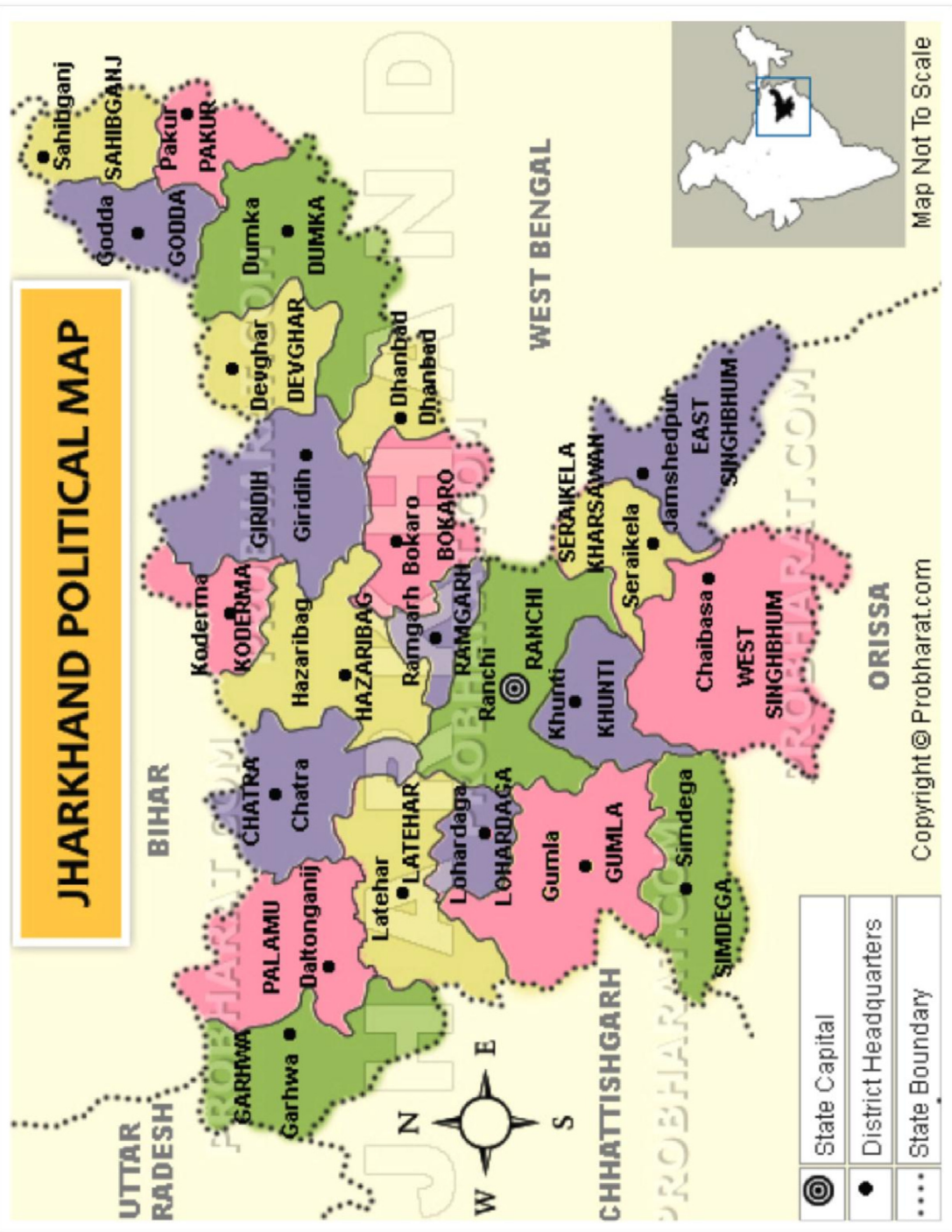
Chan (2007), described the role of media in guiding public opinion, he mentioned that guidance of public opinion is more indirect, flexible and subtle way of dealing with public opinion. He further elaborated that media's role in guiding public opinion is somewhat related to the concept of propaganda by shifting the focus on "what people think" to "what people think about". This is the main hub of media, to give issues to public for what they think and act accordingly of the perceptions they have and in many cases what media give them direction to perceive and act on. Societies are affected by the function of media for providing information, but this could vary from individual to individual.

Accordingly the research has tried to study the role of media in the political stability in Jharkhand state of India. With this it has been studied, has the media engaged in a biased and partisan role through its way of news presentation? In the above perspective the interrelationship of media and media persons with the government, politicians and development of the Jharkhand state has also been studied. View of media about the social fragmentation in the tribal and non-tribal population and the role of politicians in the state of affairs in Jharkhand has also been studied.

Sources of data:

Media persons and political leaders constituted the primary source of data. Books, journals, websites and news papers have formed the secondary source of information.

JHARKHAND POLITICAL MAP

Sahibganj
SAHIBGANJ
Pakur
PAKUR
Godda
GODDA
Dumka
DUMKA
Devghar
DEVGHAR
Dhanbad
Dhanbad
Giridih
GIRIDIH
Koderma
KODERMA
Bokaro
BOKARO
Ramgarh
RAMGARH
SERAIKELA
KHARSAWAN
Seraikela
Jamshedpur
EAST
SINGHBHUM
Hazaribag
HAZARIBAG
Ranchi
RANCHI
Khunti
KHUNTI
Chaibasa
WEST
SINGHBHUM
Chatra
CHATRA
Latehar
LATEHAR
Lohardaga
LOHARDAGA
Gumla
GUMLA
Simdega
SIMDEGA
Palamu
PALAMU
Daltonganj
Garhwa
GARHWA
Garhwa

BIHAR
WEST BENGAL
ORISSA
CHHATTISHGARH
UTTAR PRADESH

Map Not To Scale

Copyright © Probharat.com

State Capital
District Headquarters
State Boundary

N
E
S
W

Geographical Area of work:

The entire state of Jharkhand has been covered for the present profile of respondents.

The profile of the respondents in the research:

The respondents who have been covered in the survey are basically either politicians or media persons and they are from all the age groups beyond 15 years. Persons of all the religions, tribals, non-tribals, different political parties, MPs, MLAs, top politicians, Chief Editors, Editors and media men of different organizations have also been covered.

Overall a total of 538 respondents have been surveyed and their absolute numbers as per all the independent variables were as follows:

In the research the respondents were selected from different age groups, educational background, political background, religions and media.

Table:1 Profile of the respondents based on age groups

Age groups	Frequency
15 to 25	14
26 to 35	160
36 to 45	210
46 to 55	114
56 to 65	30
66 and above	10
Total	**538**

Table : 2 Profile of the respondents based on educational qualifications

Educational Qualifications	Frequency
Matriculation	10
Under Graduate	34
Graduate	276
Post-Graduate	192
Doctorate	26
Total	**538**

Table:3 Profile of the respondents based on their employment in electronic media/ print media / party affiliations

Employment in electronic media/ print media / party affiliations	Frequency
Journalist(Electronic Media)	66
Journalist(Print Media)	244
Politician (CPI-ML)	6
Politician (AJSU)	2
Politician (BJP)	116
Politician (INC)	40
Politician (JDU)	2
Politician (JMM)	26
Politician (JVM)	24
Politician (MCC)	4
Politician (RJD)	8
Total	**538**

Table: 4 Profile of the respondents based on their Tribal / non-tribal origin

Origin, Tribal/Non-Tribal	Frequency
Tribals	36
Non-Tribals	502
Total	538

Table: 5 Profile of the respondents based on their religion

Religion	Frequency
Hinduism	498
Christianity	10
Islam	20
Sikhism	6
Others	4
Total	538

Table: 6 Profile of the respondents based on their origin from Jharkhand / outside Jharkhand

Origin from Jharkhand / outside Jharkhand	Frequency
Yes	346
No	192
Total	538

Table:7 Profile of the respondents based on MLA/MP/Politician/Electronic Media/Print Media

MLA/MP/Politician/Electronic Media/Print Media	Frequency
Journalist(Electronic Media)	66
Journalist(Print Media)	244
MLA	58
MP	2
Politician	168
Total	538

Operational Definition of major terms used in studies:

Media persons, political leaders, role performance, economic development, backwardness, political instability.

Media Persons:

Definition: Person who write about factual events in any media for a living.

Synonyms: announcer, broadcaster, columnist, commentator, contributor, correspondent, cub, editor, hack, newspaper person, newsperson, pencil pusher, press, publicist, reporter, scribe, scrivener, stringer, television commentator, writer and anchor.

Political leaders

Definition: A politician, political leader, or political figure (from Greek "polis") is someone who is involved in influencing public policy and decision making. This includes people who hold decision-making positions in government, and people who seek those positions, whether by means of election, inheritance, coup d'état, appointment, electoral fraud, conquest, divine right, or other means. Politics is not limited to governance through public office. Political offices may also be held in corporations, and other entities that are governed by self-defined political processes.

What makes a good leader?

The leadership qualities that are required to make a good leader can vary in different companies, teams and situations as they are context-dependent.

This can be illustrated in both modern leadership models and art. For example, the fact that leadership qualities are dependent on context is demonstrated in the play The Admirable Crichton and the film Twelve O'clock High - the latter having been used on leadership training courses for more than half a century.

In "The Admirable Crichton", written in 1902, **Barrie, J. M. (1933)**[9] the Lord and butler swap their roles as leader and servant as the situation changes. On a desert island, the butler's practical skills are essential for survival, whereas the Lord's knowledge of English politics is of no value.

In the film "Twelve O'clock High", produced in 1949, as a squadron starts to suffer increasing losses during the war, the leader's people-oriented approach starts to fail. He is replaced by a dictatorial bully who turns the squadron round and restores their pride (in a modern setting, such leadership behavior would often be regarded as unacceptable).

Leadership Styles:

In theory, the ideal scenario is for a leader to have infinite flexibility. This need to change one's leadership style according to the circumstances is one of the fundamental principles underlying popular models such as Situational Leadership (developed by Blanchard and Hersey in the late 1960s). **Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969)**[10]

However, modern leadership theory has begun to realize that the perfect, flexible leader does not exist. Everyone has strengths and weakness, and there is a need to strike a balance using the individual's preferred styles and meeting the needs of the situation. The modern goal is to develop 'good enough' leadership.

Considered a politician:

People, who are politically active, especially in party politics. A person, holding or seeking political office whether elected or appointed, whether professionally or otherwise. Positions range from Homeowner associations to executive, legislative and

judicial offices of state and national governments. Some law enforcement officers, such as sheriffs, are considered to be politicians.

Role performance:

A role (from the French role and sometimes so spelt in English) or social role is a set of connected behaviors, rights and obligations as conceptualized by actors in a social situation. **Merton, R. K. (1957)[11].** It is an expected or free or continuously changing behaviour and may have a given individual social status or social position. It is vital to both functionalist and interactionist understandings of society. Social role posits the following about social behaviour:

1) The division of labour in society takes the form of the interaction among heterogeneous specialised positions, we call roles.

2) Social roles included appropriate and permitted forms of behaviour, guided by social norms, which are commonly known and hence determine the expectations for appropriate behaviour in these roles.

3) Roles are occupied by individuals, who are called role performers.

4) When individuals approve of a social role (i.e., they consider the role legitimate and constructive), they will incur costs to conform to role norms, and will also incur costs to punish those who violate role norms.

5) Changed conditions can render a social role outdated or illegitimate, in which case social pressures are likely to lead to role change.

6) The anticipation of rewards and punishments, as well as the satisfaction of behaving pro-socially, account for why agents conform to role requirements.

For many roles, individuals must meet certain conditions, biological or sociological. For instance, a boy cannot take the biological role of mother. Other roles require training or experience. For instance, in many cultures doctors must be educated and certified prior to practicing medicine.

Role development can be influenced by a number of additional factors, including social, genetic predisposition, cultural or situational.

Role performance means the performance of an individual as per his/her role in the society/ government.

Economic development:

Economic development generally refers to the sustained, concerted actions of policymakers and communities that promote the standard of living and economic health of a specific area. Economic development can also be referred to as the quantitative and qualitative changes in the economy. Such actions can involve multiple areas including development of human capital, critical infrastructure, regional competitiveness, environmental sustainability, social inclusion, health, safety, literacy, and other initiatives. Economic development differs from economic growth, whereas economic development is a policy intervention endeavor with aims of economic and social well-being of people, economic growth is a phenomenon of market productivity and rise in GDP. Consequently, as economist Amartya Sen points out: "economic growth is one aspect of the process of economic development." **Sen, A. (1983)[12].**

The scope of economic development includes the process and policies by which a nation improves the economic, political, and social well-being of its people.

There have been several major phases of development theory since 1945. From the 1940s to the 1960s the state played a large role in promoting industrialization in developing countries, following the idea of modernization theory. This period was followed by a brief period of basic needs development focusing on human capital development and redistribution in the 1970s. Neo-liberalism emerged in the 1980s pushing an agenda of free trade and Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI), emphasizing comparative advantage. More recently Post development theory has emerged to challenge the ideas of western-based development by arguing against reductionism, universalism, and euro centricity. Post-Development Theory is rooted in the experiences of Latin America, Africa, and India.

Backwardness:

The backwardness is a theory of economic growth created by Alexander Gerschenkron. **Gerschenkron, A. (1992)[13].** The model postulates that the more backward an economy is at the outset of economic development, the more likely certain conditions are to occur. USSR leader Gorbachev once said, "If you don't move forward, sooner or later you begin to move backward."

The more backward the economy: The more likely intervention by special institutions will be necessary to properly channel physical capital and human capital to industries. Special institutions include banks, as in the moderately backward Germany, or the state, as in the severely backward Russia.

The greater the emphasis on the production of producer goods than consumer goods.

The greater the emphasis on capital-intensive production rather than labor-intensive production.

The greater the scale of production and enterprise.

The greater the reliance on borrowed rather than indigenous technologies.

The smaller the role of the agricultural sector as a market for new industries.

The greater the reliance on productivity growth.

Political instability:

If any political system does not perform as per the expectations and the government is not able to complete its regular terms it is said that the concerned region has political instability. **Sharma, B. K. (1989)[14].** Even if the political government/system is on the tenterhooks of a few people or parties and it is not able to work properly, it creates political instability.

Research questions, Mennecke, B. E., Valacich, J. S., & Wheeler, B. C. (2000)[15].

1. Do media and politicians play equally important role in the development of Jharkhand?

2. Whether politicians are playing a destructive role because they are greedy and self-focused?

3. Is media engaged in a biased and partisan role?

4. Are both media persons and politicians working for their vested interests?

5. Has social fragmentation of the tribal population in Jharkhand contributed to the instability in Jharkhand?

6. Has political instability led to the economic backwardness of the state?

7. Has political instability direct interrelationship with the large number of the political parties in Jharkhand?

8. Has instability in Jharkhand caused vertical division of tribals and non-tribals?

9. Has political instability in Jharkhand a direct link with the less number of Assembly seats in the state?

Reference:

1. Taylor, S., & Bogdan, R. (1984). Introduction to research methods. New York: Wiley.

2. Sudman, S., & Bradburn, N. M. (1982). Asking questions: a practical guide to questionnaire design.

3. Castles, F. G., & Mair, P. (1984). Left–right political scales: Some 'expert'judgments. European Journal of Political Research, 12(1), 73-88.

4. Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (2013). Mass media research, An Introduction. Thompson Learning, p167.

5. Ibid, p83.

6. Ibid, p87.

7. Riff, D., Lacy, S., & Fico, F. (2014). Analyzing media messages: Using quantitative content analysis in research. Routledge.

8. Silverman, D. (2013). Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook. SAGE Publications Limited.

9. Barrie, J. M. (1933). The Admirable Crichton, 1902. The Plays of JM Barrie.

10. Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). Life cycle theory of leadership. Training & Development Journal.

11. Merton, R. K. (1957). The role-set: Problems in sociological theory. British journal of Sociology, 106-120.

12. Sen, A. (1983). Development: Which way now?. The Economic Journal, 745-762.

13. Gerschenkron, A. (1992). Economic backwardness in historical perspective.The sociology of economic life, 111-30.

14. Sharma, B. K. (1989). Political Instability in India. Mittal Publications.

15. Mennecke, B. E., Valacich, J. S., & Wheeler, B. C. (2000). The effects of media and task on user performance: A test of the task-media fit hypothesis.Group Decision and Negotiation, 9(6), 507-529.