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(1)

① No. 1
Ans. =

50, 79, 70, 48, 90, 68, 89,
92, 70,

(1) Mean = $\frac{\text{Sum of values}}{\text{number of values}}$.

$$\text{Mean} = \frac{50 + 79 + 70 + 48 + 90 + 68 + 89 + 70}{9}$$
$$= \frac{656}{9}$$

$$= \boxed{72.88} \text{ mean}$$

② Median: = 48, 50, 68, 70, 70, 79, 89,
90, 92,

$\boxed{70}$ is median.

→ median is middle value.

③ Mode: = 48, 50, 68, 70, 70, 79, 89,
90, 92,

mode is $\boxed{70}$

→ mode is the most frequently values.

(2)

(1)

Q No (2)
Ans: 7.

4 Presentation of Research Data:

Data once ~~present~~ collect should be presented in a such way as to be easily understood. The style of presentation depends of course on type of Data.

Data can be represent in a frequency table charts & graphs etc.

Frequency Table:

In a frequency data table is present in a tabular form, it gives the frequency with which the numbers of time a particular values appears in the Data.

Systolic blood pressure of patient coming to a tertiary care hospital of 22.

Distribution	frequency	Relative	Cumulative Relts.
below 100	6	0.10	0.10
100-120	9	0.15	0.25
121-140	24	0.40	0.65
141-160	15	0.25	0.90
"	6	0.10	1.00

(3)

(3)

Graphs :->

Another way to summarize & display data through the use of graph or pictorial representation of numerical data.

Pie Chart

Pie chart can also be used to display nominal or ordinal data.

Q No (3)

Difference between Relative Risk & odd Ratio?

Relative Risk

→ it can be only used for data from studies with a randomly selected sample.

→ it can be used to calculate the attributable risk

→ usually in prospective cross sectional & clinical trial studies.

→ it needs incidence of the disease.

→ it demonstrate temporality

odd Ratio

→ it can be used to summarize data from most studies.

→ give an estimate of risk when the prevalence of outcome is not known.

→ usually in retrospective studies & in cross sectional.

→ it does not need incidence for calculation.

→ it has good estimate for RR in case of low frequency disease

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Relative Risk.

Example.

You could have two groups of women. One group has a mother, sister or daughter who has had breast cancer.

Odd Risk.

example.

if you are normally one call out of 7 days in a week then the odds of you being on call on a certain day of the week is

$$[(2/7) / (5/7)] = 0.40.$$

(6)

Q No (4)

Ans

Prevalence :->

Prevalence is the number of of a disease cases/ present in a particular population at a given time as known as prevalence.

The formula for calculating the prevalence $P = \frac{\text{number of existing cases of a disease}}{\text{total population at a given point in time}}$.

Point prevalence :->

Prevalence can be thought of as the status of a disease in a population at a point in time as such as also referred to as a point prevalence.

The point can refer to a specific point in a calendar time or to fixed point in the case of event that varies in real time from person to person.

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* period prevalence

it refers to the proportion of cases that exist within the population at any point during a specified period of time.

→ the numerator thus the index cases that we present at the start of the period plus new cases that they developed during this time.

(e.g) frequency of patients receiving dental Rx ~~very~~
b/w may. 30 - June. 2009.

Q No(5)

Ans:

Hypothesis:

A hypothesis is an assumption or an idea that is proposed for the sake of argument so that it can be tested to see if it might be true. In the scientific method, the hypothesis is ~~can~~ constructed before any applicable research has been done, apart from a basic background review as known as hypothesis.

* Steps in testing of hypothesis:

Step 1: Specify the null hypothesis:

The null hypothesis is the (H₀) statement of no effect relationship, or difference between two or more groups or factor.

example there is no diff in infection rate across age

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0 to 5 years.

Step II

Specify the alternative hypothesis

The alternative hypothesis (H_1) is the statement that there is an effect or difference. This is usually the hypothesis the researcher is interested in proving. The alternative hypothesis can be one side only provided one direction. e.g. lower or two-sided.

Example

→ there is an association b/w injury type & whether or not the patient received an IV in the prehospital setting (two side).

Step III

Set the significant level (α)

The significant level (denote by the greek letter alpha- α) is generally set at 0.05. This means that there is a 5% chance that we will

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accept our alternative hypothesis when we null hypothesis is actually true. The smaller significant level the greater the burden of proof needed to reject the null hypothesis.

Step 1 :->

Calculate the Test Statistic & Corresponding p-Value.

In another section we present some basic test statistic to evaluate a hypothesis hypothesis testing is generally used a test statistic that compares group or examines association b/w the variables.

Example - p-value = 0.01 this will happen to 1 in 100 times by pure chance if your null hypothesis is true. Not likely to happen strikingly by chance.

Step 2 Drawing Conclusion.

① P-value \leq significance level \Rightarrow reject your null hypothesis in a

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fewer of your alternative hypothesis
but our result is essentially significant.

(2) p -value $>$ significance level (α) \Rightarrow fail
to reject your null
hypothesis. your result is not
statistically significant.