الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي .

جامعة أبي بكر بلقايد – تلمسان

كلية الآداب واللغات

المجلس العلمي

الرقم..202/أ م ع /2023.....

(مستخرج) من محضر المجلس العلمي للكلية

manuel pédagogique

سند تربوي للأستاذة: د/ حمودي خديجة....HAMMOUDI Khedidja

بالجلسة المنعقدة بتاريخ: 17 ماي 2023

وافق المجلس العلمي للكلية على السند التربوي (manuel pédagogique)

المعنون بـــــ : intitulé :

Initiation to Research Methodology –
Lectures for Beginners

المعد من قبل: د/ حمودي خديجة....HAMMOUDI Khedidja

قسم: اللغة الإنجليزية

شعبة: الإنجليزية

تلمسان في: 21 ماي 2023

المجلس العلمي

أ.د/ والي داود عبد الحكيم

رئيس المجلس العلمي

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
University of Tlemcen
جامعة تلمسان
Faculty of Letters and Languages
كلية الآداب واللغات
Department of English
قسم اللغة الانجليزية

Initiation to Research Methodology

Lectures for Beginners

L3

Section of English

Author: Dr Khedidja HAMMOUDI

(Lecturer -MCB)

Academic Year 2022-2023

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria	الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
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Section of English

Research Methodology Course (L3 Syllabus)

Course details

Course title: Research Methodology

Credit hours: 1h30 per week (TD)

N° of weeks: 15 Weeks/ Semester (21.30 hours/S)

Level: L3

Coefficient: 2

Credits: 4

UE: Methodology

Instructor

Name: Dr Khedidja HAMMOUDI

Rank: Lecturer

Office: 4th floor (Head of the Section)

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Course description

This course introduces the module of Research Methodology for undergraduate students (L3 classes of the Department of English, Faculty of Letters and Languages). It also gives technical terms, definitions, basic expressions, concepts, illustrations and many other aspects related to the field of research. The primary aim of this course is to theoretically prelude students to knowing what research is and what are the different methodological procedures to achieve the research objectives. This will make them able to practically conduct it and deal with it in the near future as master's students.

Course objectives

- ✓ Introducing research terminology.
- ✓ Get accustomed to the technical concepts that are used in research
- ✓ Helping the learners to undertake research following a certain methodology
- ✓ Prepare students for future research products (extended essays/ master's dissertations)

Modality of evaluation

Written exam (100%)

Course Contents (Presented in the ministerial canvas (2016)

- **Semester 5**
  - Research methods
  - The choice of the research topic
  - Sources of data

- **Semester 6**
  - Data collection
  - Data analysis
  - Thesis writing

Direct references

- Brown, James Dean. *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP. 1988.

- Cohen, Louis, Manion, Lawrence, and Morrison, Keith. *Research Methods in Education*. New York: Routledge. 2007.

- Johnstone, Barbara. *Qualitative Methods in Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2000.

Preface

This manual gives a detailed syllabus addressed to both teachers and students in the department of English. It aims at introducing research methodology to beginning students of English namely those enrolled in their third year; or anyone who wants to deal with basic methodological issues.

This manuscript consists of a dozen of courses designed to help students develop a 'basic' competence with regard to the methodology of research. The courses cover basic concepts, definitions, explanations and illustrations to the different research types, methods and procedures.

Note that one course can take more than one session, i.e., the teacher should divide the lecture according to the competence, needs, as well as the achievements of the learners.

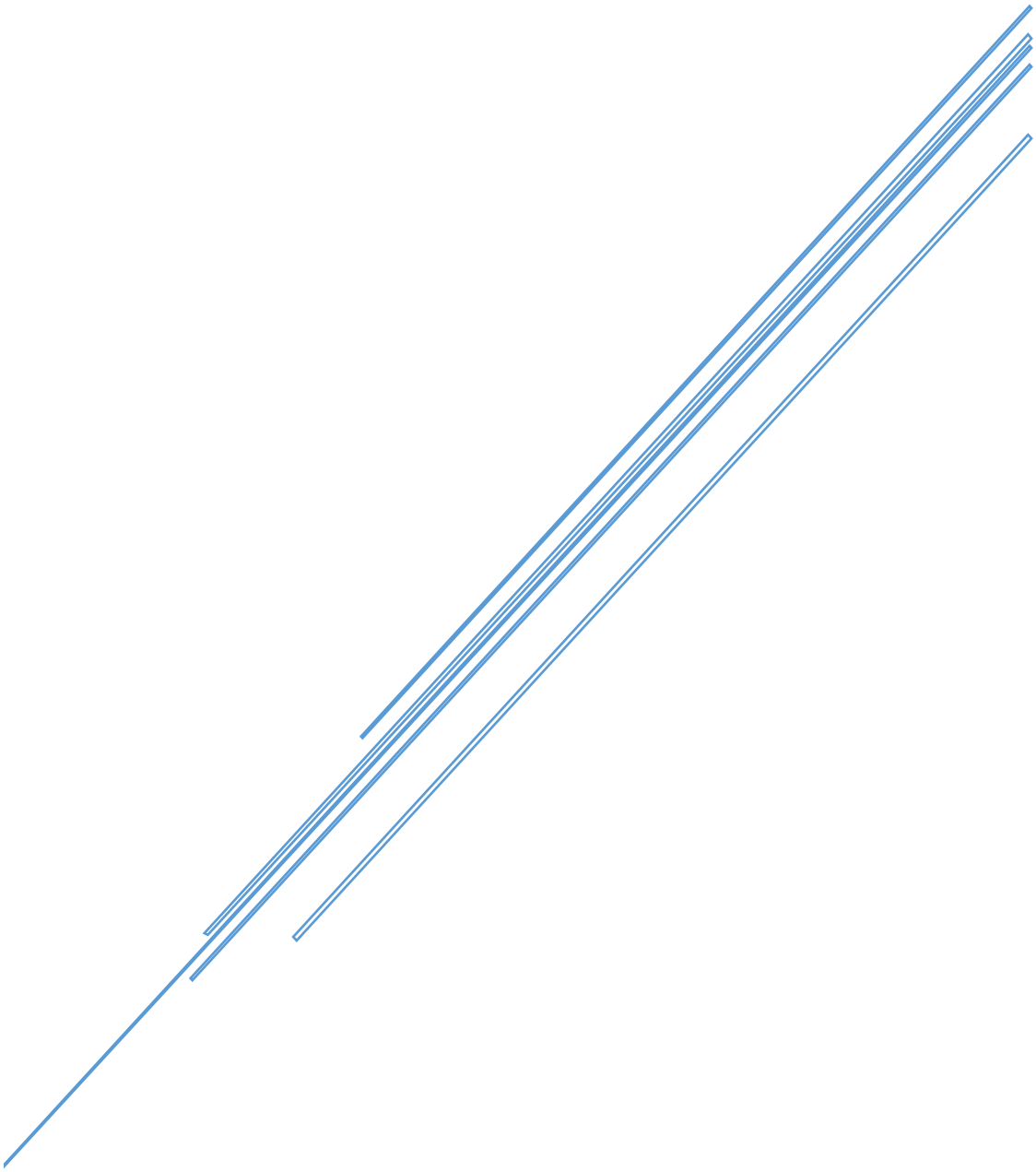
Special thanks go to Prof. R. ZIDANE, Department of English, University of Tlemcen, who guided me at the first stages of my experience as a teacher of Research Methodology for L3 students.

It is certain that this manuscript's version is just a basic attempt and therefore is subject to modification as there must be some mistakes or data to add. For this, I invite all readers, teachers or students, to give their remarks or suggestions on my email address: khedidja.hammoudi@univ-tlemcen.dz

Table of Contents

FIRST SEMESTER

Research & Methodology



L3

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit: 1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: Knowledge of the language</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:
Initiation to research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming/ hook):
Starting from the idea that searching refers to looking for something</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge
(will know)
What research is</td><td>Procedural knowledge
(will be able to)
Define research</td><td>Conceptual knowledge
(will understand)
'Research' in the module</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
Different definitions of research
Types of research
Criteria of a good researcher</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
Trying to find the students' conception and perception of research and its different types and what qualifies them as good researchers</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
-Giving the students' own examples of research
-Comparing between a good and a bad researcher</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
Summarizing what research is about in the field of research methodology and dissertation (thesis/ extended essay) writing.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
Trying to elaborate students' own definition of research</td></tr>
</table>

Research

One of the first items that need to be discussed while talking about research methodology as a discipline, is the term research. A simple illustration of what research is can be taken from our daily life. For example, once you start looking for something, this means that you have a question in mind about it (where is this thing?) and you have an aim behind (to find the missing thing which will be an answer to your first question). Research in science is quite similar to that (with some methodology and scientificity required, of course). It refers to the activity of looking for something; it starts by a question and ends with an answer after following some steps and respecting some norms.

Definitions of research

Research has been defined differently by different scholars. In its basic definition, research refers to a process of investigation about a specific phenomenon, event, action, behaviour or a state. Kothari (2004, p.7) has considered research as the fountain of knowledge that promotes one to seek for more information; it is also an important source of providing guidelines for solving problems of different disciplines including business, governmental, human and social issues.

Research is said to be a sort of formal training which enables one to understand the new developments in one's field in a better way. Therefore, it aims at finding solutions and improving the studied situation. Research is procedural and systematic. In order to find an answer to the raised question, a careful gathering, analysis, and interpreting of data is needed as stipulated by Perry (2005, p.8). At this level, gathering of the data can be defined as the process of collecting subject-related information. Analysis refers to the reading and classification of those data in terms of similarities and differences (frequencies or summaries). Interpretation is the explanation of the analysed data by trying to have meaning and reasoning in relation to the world.

Many glossaries and dictionaries include definitions of research. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines it as "a careful study of a subject, especially in order to discover new facts or information about it". Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines research as 1- Serious study of a subject, in order to discover new facts or test new ideas; 2- The activity of finding information about something that you are interested in or need to know about.

Qualities of a good research(er)

The person who studies something with carefulness and tries by then to discover new facts about it is a researcher according to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Simply put, the one doing the research is the researcher. His/her job is to look for information, or seek knowledge about a particular idea, object, phenomenon, behaviour, concept, and so forth.

For a good research to be elaborated, a good researcher is needed. For this to be accomplished, some qualities need to be present.

- ✓ **Curiosity:** having the will, desire and eagerness to know more about the subject matter;
- ✓ **Honesty:** having the quality of being frank and correct in reporting the data as they are;
- ✓ **Prudence:** the carefulness in any of the processes of research;
- ✓ **Creativity:** the sense of innovation and originality of ideas;
- ✓ **Healthy criticism:** the researcher is asked to be objective as much as possible and avoid including their viewpoints or personal attitudes in research.

Purposes of research

Research is undertaken for different purposes. According to Kothari (2004, p.2), the ultimate purpose of research is to discover answers to questions through the application of scientific procedures. Other aims include:

-To find out the truth which is hidden portray the characteristics of unknown situations, individuals, or phenomena;

-To gain familiarity with a phenomenon or a certain topic in the sense that research makes researchers more acquainted with concepts and aspects;

-To achieve new insights into it and bring newer data into the field. With this being said, research objectives are descriptive, explanatory or exploratory which give rise to different types.

Types of research

There are many types of research which differ in the type of data they collect and the ultimate objectives they are designed to achieve.

Basic research	Also known as pure research which aims at generating new ideas or facts for human knowledge
Applied research	Is meant to discover solutions and solve serious problems
Qualitative research	Is the type of research that relies on texts and descriptions as its data (discussed later)
Quantitative research	Is the type of research that relies on numbers and statistics as its data (elaborated later)

Practice: according to you, what are the things that need to be avoided by a researcher in order to be considered as credible.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Methodology</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowledge of the language</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Making students acquainted with the term methodology in research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students’ thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

What is methodology according to them</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

Methodology</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Follow a methodology</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

The research onion</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• Definition of methodology
• Different steps of a methodological research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Giving several topics and applying the methodological frame all together in class</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Choose a topic and follow the methodological procedures learned</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Correcting the activity to check understanding</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

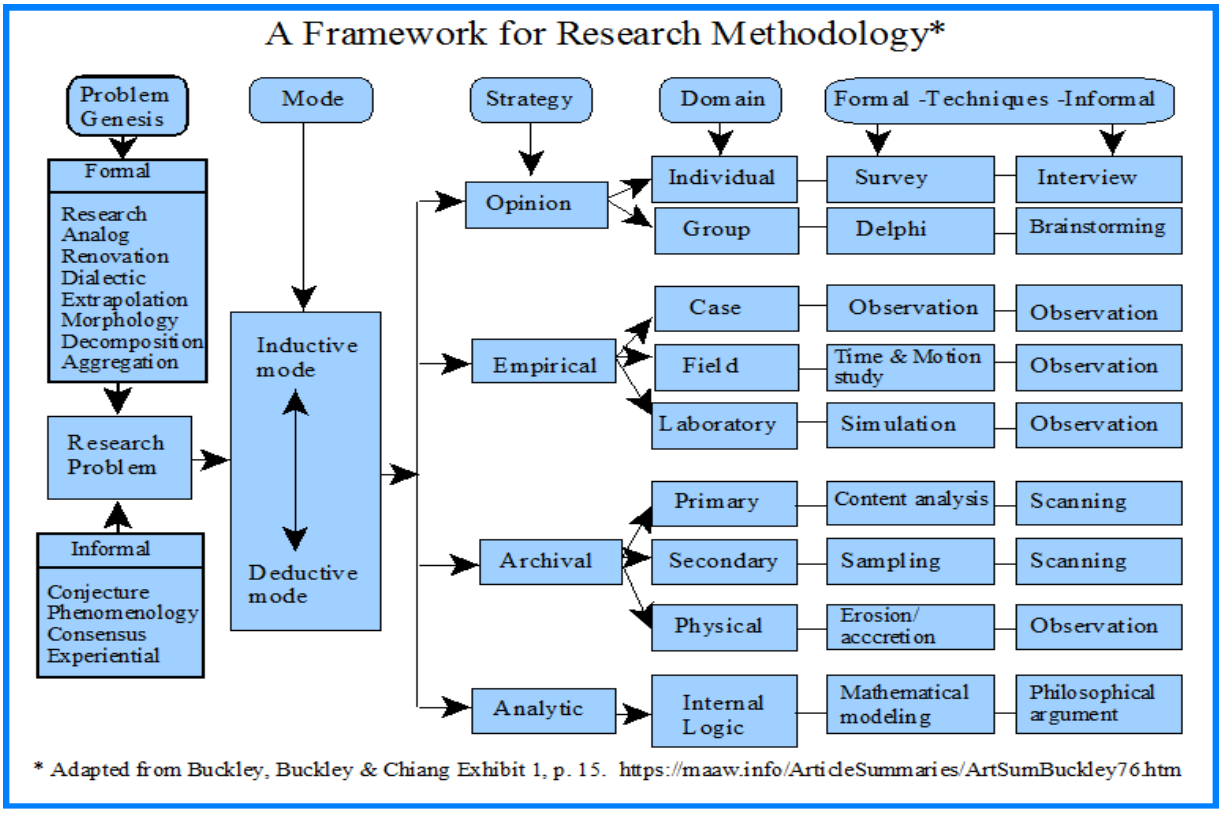
Further readings required</td></tr>
</table>

Definitions of Methodology

Methodology refers to the way of doing something. It is a set of procedures and principles that govern the performance of any process among which research is one. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, methodology is defined as the science of methods in the sense that it includes a "set of methods and principles that you use when studying a particular subject or doing a particular kind of work".

Research methodology

According to the previously mentioned details, research methodology refers to the way of doing research. It refers to implementing those methods, principles, procedures, norms and rules in the processing of research. In this respect, Kothari (2004, p.8) mentions that: research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem via different steps that the researcher needs to adopt in accordance with the research problem and the objectives of the study. Therefore, research methodology means the steps followed by the researcher when making an investigation. It includes the methods, tools and activities of research. Research methodology is a complex process that starts from the research problem until finding the results (figure N).



Research methodology process

The research process denotes to all the steps, procedure and components of the research activity that the researcher does. One that researchers can opt for is the onion research process (figure N) provided by Saunders et al. (2007; 2016). These steps are analogous to a real onion vegetable for the distinct layers it possesses. The onion of research comprises diverse layers and coats representing the steps to searching reality starting from broader considerations of research thoughts to profound accounts of concrete field investigation and deeper participants' observation (Hammoudi, 2022). This is why the research onion is said to provide a rather exhausting description of the main layers or stages which are to be accomplished in order to formulate an effective methodology (Raithatha, 2017).

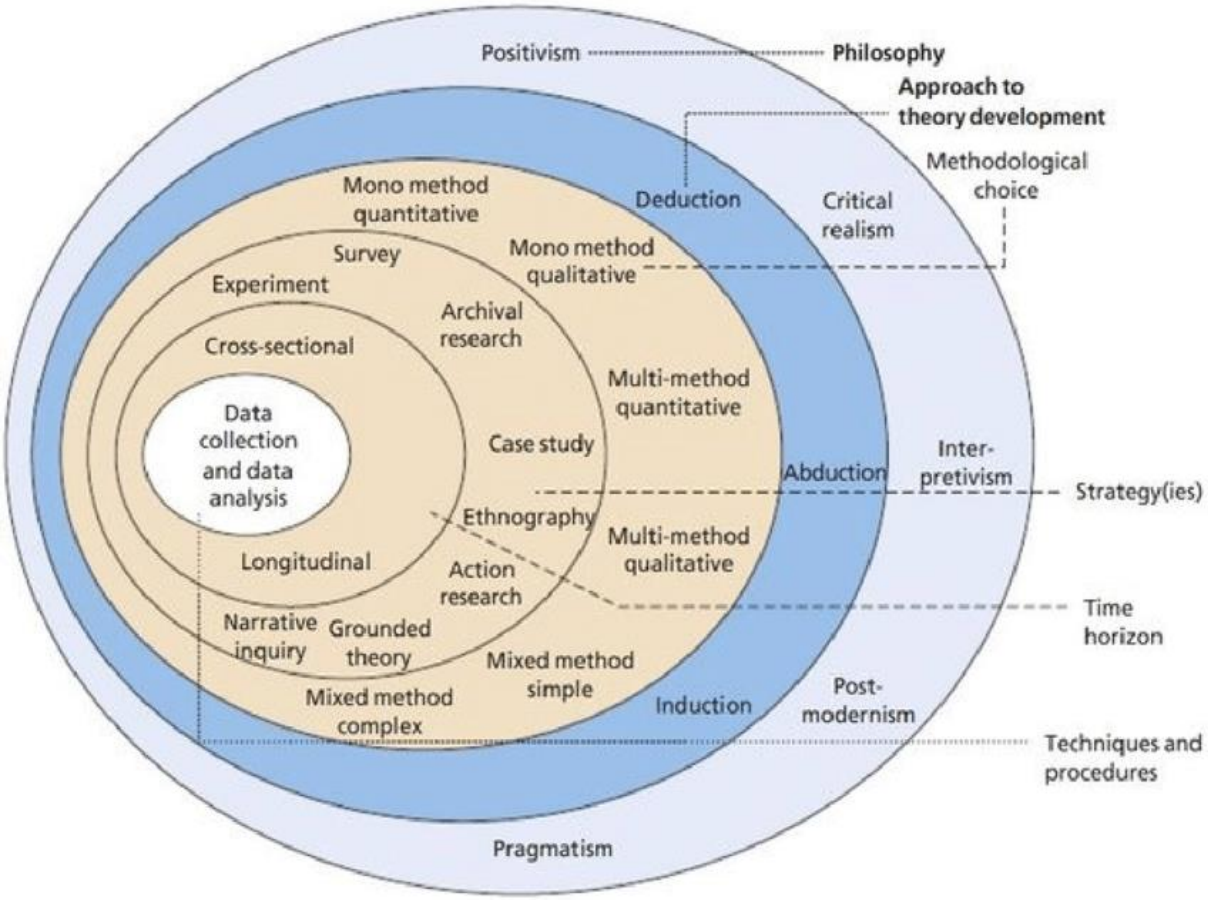


Figure. The onion research process

Source: Saunders et al. (2016)

The philosophy of research

The first layer in the research onion is the *philosophy*. Generally speaking, philosophy refers to one's thoughts about something. In research, philosophy of a research refers to the global belief that a given researcher has about the different processes of their research in addition to their data collection, analysis and interpretation procedures. These research philosophies include mainly: Positivism, Realism, interpretative, Objectivism, Subjectivism, Pragmatism, Functionalist, Interpretative, Radical humanist, Humanist and structuralist philosophies (Saunders, Lewis, & Thomhil, 2007). In fact, research philosophy consists of three main components including ontology which is the nature of reality, epistemology which refers to the

sources of knowledge, and finally axiology which involves the values of the researcher and ethics of research.

The approaches of research

The second layer of the research onion is the approach, which encompasses three types of research: deduction, induction, and abduction. Deduction involves starting with a theory and testing hypotheses and assumptions through observations in order to either confirm or reject the hypothesis. Conversely, induction begins with observations and progresses to theory formation. Abduction, which is considered an intermediate approach, involves observing an empirical phenomenon and using available evidence to arrive at a best guess or conclusion (Melnikovas, 2018: 34).

The methodology of research

Methodology, also referred to as methodological choice, is another layer of the research onion that presents three major choices to the researcher: qualitative, quantitative, or a combination of the two. Qualitative research is primarily based on texts and descriptions, whereas quantitative research is based on numerical data and statistics. Many researchers opt for a combination of both as it can be challenging to separate quality from quantity, and combining them can enhance the reliability and richness of the research.

The strategy of research

Strategy refers to the method of data collection and analysis. The diagram provides us with a variety of strategies. They are: the experiment, survey, ethnography, grounded theory, action research, archival research, case studies and many others. These strategies differ in their sampling, techniques of collection, types of questions, in addition to their fundamental designs. The choice of a strategy is tightly related to the objectives of research.

The time horizons of research

The time horizon is a crucial component of research that refers to the timing frame for approaching the sample and collecting primary data. This layer of the research onion

provides two options: short-term or long-term studies. Short-term research, also known as cross-sectional, involves collecting data from the sample at a single point in time, either from the same or different groups. Conversely, long-term research, known as longitudinal, involves collecting data at various points in time from the same sample to compare results and describe their development over time.

The techniques of research

Techniques and *procedures* constitute the nucleus and the heart of the research onion as presented in the diagram. Of course, they involve the manoeuvre of secondary and primary data collection and analysis, design and selection of sample populations, choosing the appropriate tools and instruments for data collection as questionnaires, interviews, observation, tests, focus groups, etc.

Practice:

Choose a topic that you want to talk about and illustrate it with reference to the research onion, following the different steps and layers.

Keys:

Accordingly, and because onions are to be peeled from outer to central layers, we have designed our own research onion process as shown in figure (N).

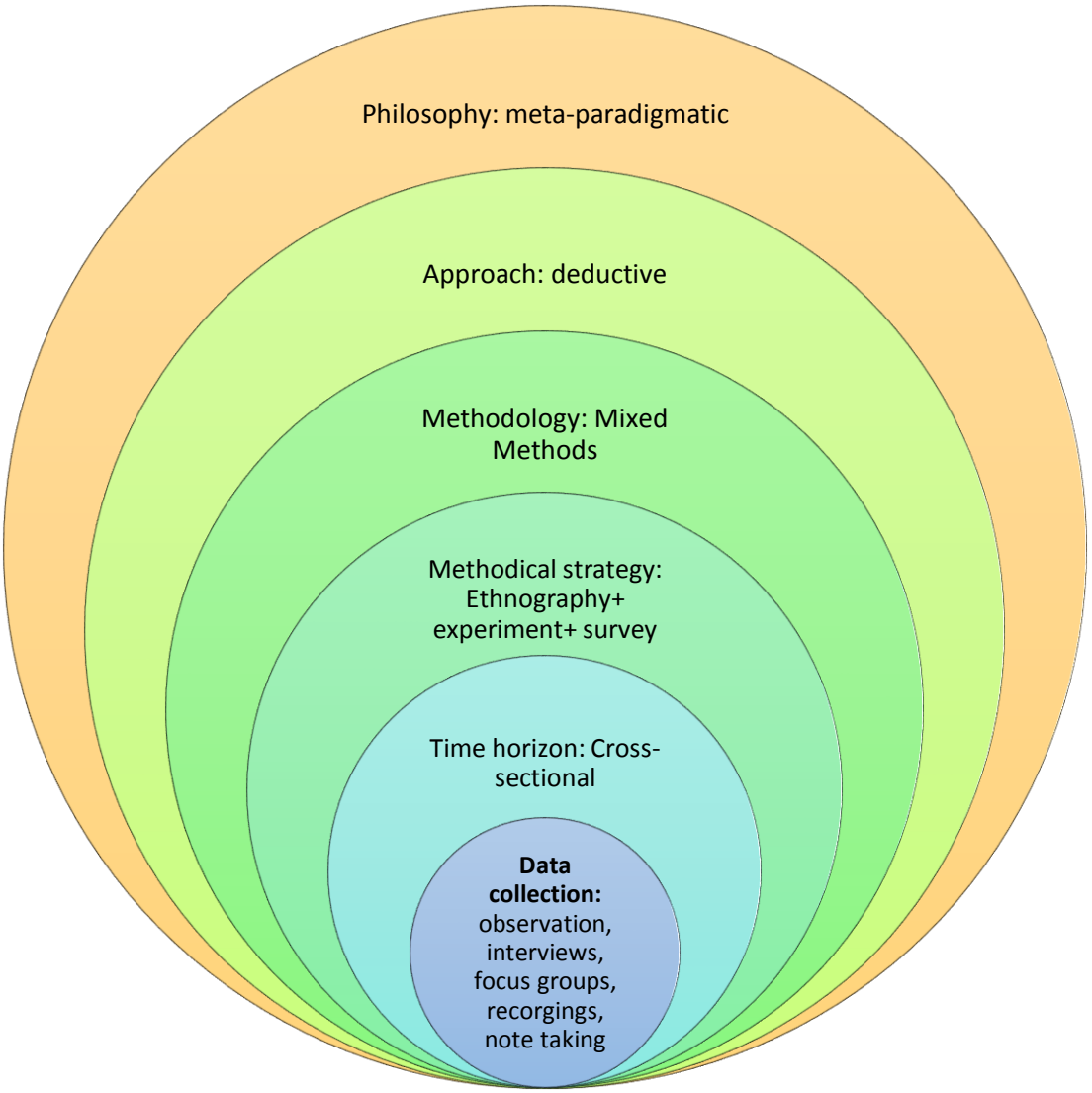


Figure. Research onion of the chosen topic

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Research Methods</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: Knowing what research is</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Differentiating between methodology and method</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

Different methods</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Use the methods</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

Their differences</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

-What is a method?
-Quantitative methods
-Qualitative methods
-Mixed methods
-Some examples of research methods</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Analyse some examples all together in class</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Choose a topic of research and give the possible methods for data collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Comparing QN and QL methods</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Further readings and research required</td></tr>
</table>

Research methods

In research methodology, we often hear about two main famous methods of research: the qualitative and quantitative ones. Whereas the latter refers to the process of collecting numerical data that is analysed statistically, the former relies on data from open-ended, non-numerical answers that are analysed descriptively. For example, using a questionnaire in a survey research will provide the researcher with answers that give him/her the ability to *'count'* them, classify them in tables, draw their illustrations in charts and graphs, and analyse them statistically by softwares. However, using a recorded unstructured interview will certainly bring qualitative data which enables the researcher to employ a descriptive content analysis.

The qualitative-quantitative dichotomy represents two different paradigms/approaches to empirical research. They, therefore, form two facets of the same coin when presented separately. However, their combination will result in a third approach generally known as the mixed method of research. Actually, the intersection of the qualitative and quantitative research methods can either be found at the data collection procedure or in the phase of data analysis and interpretation. For example, a questionnaire does not only tackle close-ended questions that give quantitative data, but can also encompass open-ended questions that bring qualitative answers to be analysed descriptively.

The difference between those types of research does not rely only on the statistical vs. non-numerical dichotomy. Rather, there are more important factors that differentiation is based on. Those criteria include the discipline and orientation of the study, the method applied in the process of data collection, the context, type and nature of the data gathered, and the way of data analysis.

Quantitative Method

This method of research has emerged from the twentieth century movement of research.

1. **Using numbers:** values and numbers are the first noticeable criterion about the quantitative method. However, for numbers like 3 and 13 to be significant, they

have to be associated by some variables which they quantify or refer to. For example, if we are interested in studying quantitatively dialect differences in terms of gender, we will practically divide our sample of let say 50 participants to two different classes of 25. Yet, the value 25 has no significance unless being associated with a given variable; gender in our case (i.e., 25 males and 25 females).

2. **Categorisations:** before tackling the quantitative research, the formula has to be prepared in advance. For example, before giving a questionnaire to one's sample, it has to encompass categorical answers to choose between in case of a multiple choice question which itself will enable the researcher to report and analyse the data gathered statistically. In other words, there is a whole process that precedes the phase of data collection. This process involves the categorisation and preparation of the scales, choices, and values under which the analysis is going to be based.

3. **Large samples:** quantitative research relies in its data collection on groups of people rather than only separate individual cases. Researchers use larger samples in order to figure out similarities and exceptional idiosyncrasies. In more precise terms, the aim of quantitative research is to find out common points between the group and the relationship between variables by counting (in numbers), scaling (in categories), calculating (in averages), measuring (in values) and manipulating (in cause-effect relationship for example) them.

4. **Objectivity:** the criterion of objectivity entail the fact that there is no place for personal interpretation. Numbers give the objective reality that research brought out to light after investigation. That is, not only do we obtain fast, exact, measurable answers through statistical computer softwares, but we also close doors for subjective additions of the researcher. The researcher's task in this model is to uncover this reality without contaminating it in any way.

Some of these characteristics were considered as shortcomings by other researchers. And because of the shortcomings of the quantitative method (as …), qualitative researchers often consider it as "overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in

terms of its generalizations, and failing to capture the meanings that actors attach to their lives and circumstances" (Brannen 2005: 7).

Qualitative method

In their definition of the approach, Denzin and Lincoln (2005a) have mentioned that; "qualitative research is difficult to define clearly. It has no theory or paradigm that is distinctly its own… nor does qualitative research have a distinct set of methods or practices that are entirely its own" (p. 6-7).

1. **Which type of data to collect:** Qualitative type of research brings out results from a wide range of data including recorded interviews, different types of texts such as diaries and field notes, images and videos. All those types of data are supposed to be transformed into descriptions, i.e., textual form, in a richer and more detailed way.
2. **Which context to investigate:** Qualitative research has per aim the description of social phenomena. In order to achieve this ultimate objective, the process of investigation has to occur in a purely natural setting where there is no need for categorizing or manipulating variables as in quantitative methods. What is demanding is the necessity of the researcher to keep in constant touch with the investigated phenomenon or sample.
3. **Subjectivity:** Generally speaking, qualitative research relies on opinions and attitudes as well as explanations of people's behaviours.
4. **Small sample size:** Qualitative method is generally known by its consideration to small samples in order to check their individual behaviour.
5. **Interpretive analysis:** The analysis of the data gathered qualitatively are analysed in an interpretive manner. In other words, the explanation of the research findings are based on the researcher's own viewpoint. In fact, in qualitative research, there is no exact manner of qualitative data analysis; the researcher is the only medium of measurement and therefore of interpretation.

Mixed methods Research

Cannon (2004) proposed seven well-organized steps for conducting a mixed-methods study (see Figure N). The first step involves determining the feasibility of using a mixed-methods approach. In the current study, both numerical and descriptive data are needed, making a mixed-methods approach suitable. Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002:46) suggest that combining both approaches is feasible because they share a common goal of understanding the world we live in and have a unified logic with the same rules of inference. Using a combination of approaches allows for various perspectives to be considered, ultimately contributing to a more complete understanding of the phenomena being studied. Moreover, cross-validation or triangulation can be achieved by combining two or more theories or sources of data to study the same phenomena. Additionally, complementary results can be obtained by using the strengths of one method to enhance the other. Ultimately, both approaches share a commitment to understanding and improving the human condition, and the dissemination of practical knowledge.

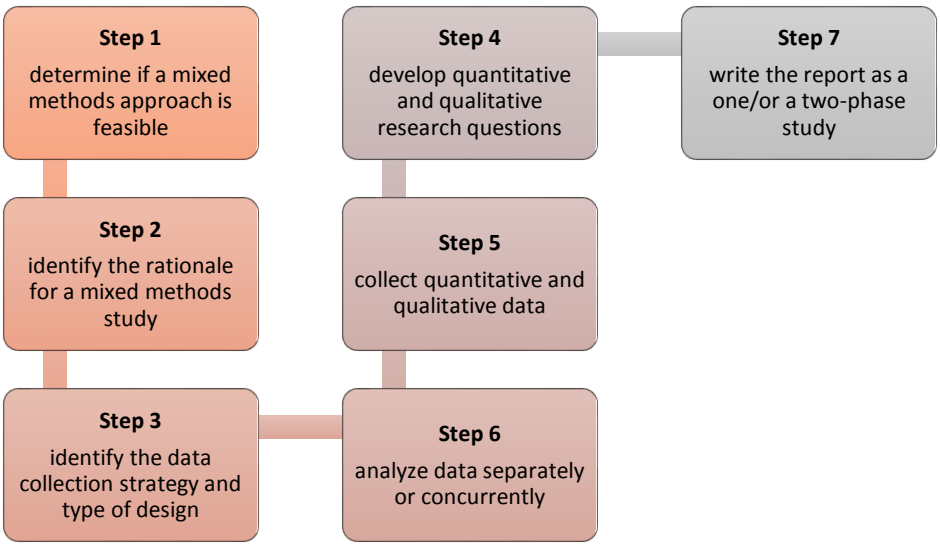


Figure. Steps in the process of conducting a mixed methods study (Adapted from Cannon, 2004)

Practice: Choose a given topic of your interest and state which method is more adequate. Explain by comparing the chosen method with the other ones.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The experiment</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: students should know what a method is</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Grasping the experiment as a method in English studies</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

Starting with the frog/ mouse and injection illustration</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

What the experiment is</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Utilize experiments</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

How to experiment things</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• Definition of the experiment
• How to conduction an experiment</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Illustrating the cause-and-effect relationship</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Choose a dependent variable and state the different effects of the tested independent variables (of your choice)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

• Where to use an experiment as a method
• Advantages and disadvantages of an experimental method</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Further readings required</td></tr>
</table>

The-experiment

We usually hear about experiments in scientific fields where animals as frogs and mice are subject to experimentation via the use of injections. The injections eventually include some elements that are supposed to be introduced to the body of the animal and cause some reactions to that body. The latter is going to show a reaction that certainly reflect the effect of the new elements introduced to it as illustrated in figure N. Similarly, experiments can be used in any other study in order to observe the final results, or more appropriately the effects, on the tested item.

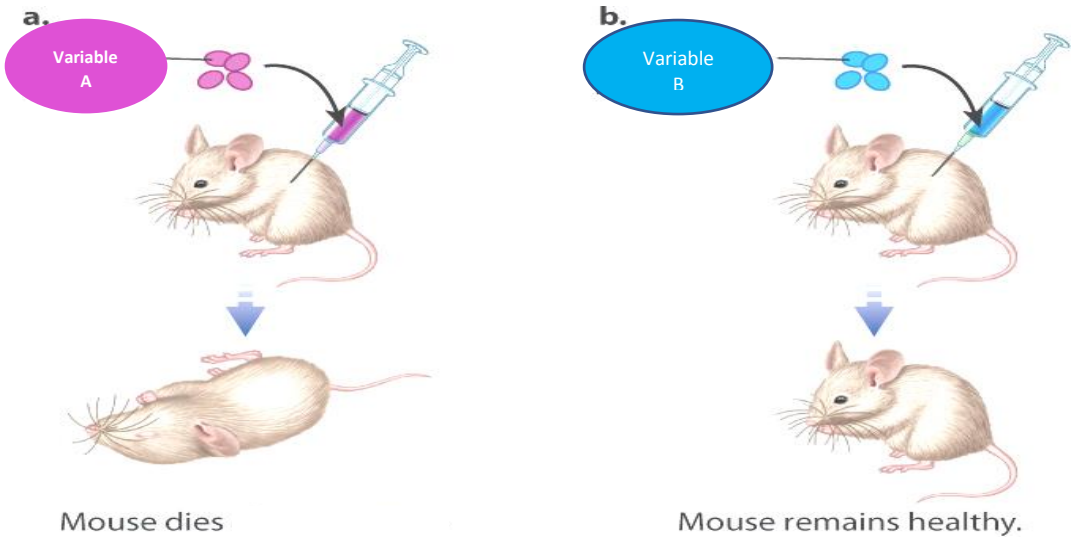


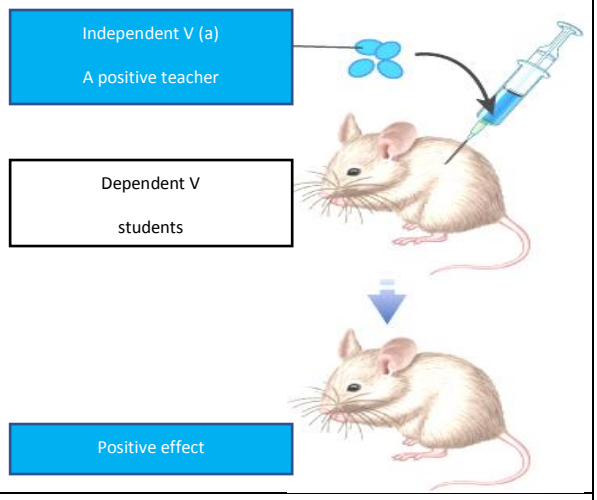
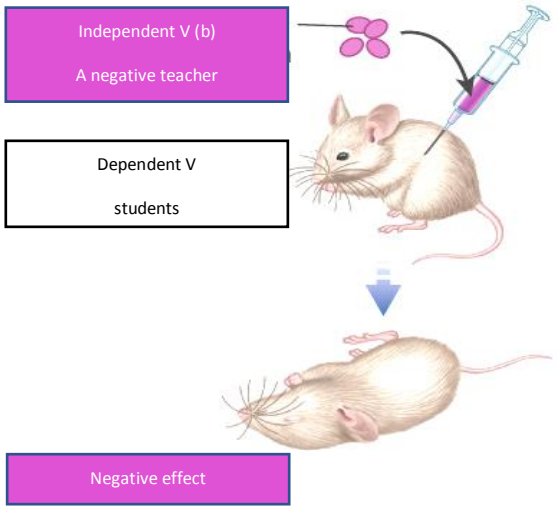
Figure N. Mice under experiments

Source: http://digfir-published.macmillanusa.com/HowDoWeKnow/hdwk3_1.html

Following the previous illustration, the experiment can be defined as a method applied for the sake of testing hypotheses, diagnose the cause of problems, and trace the relationships between variables. Experiments can occur in the form of a test or trial under controlled conditions. Variables and conditions and two essential terms while talking about experiments. The variables are generally the items that are receiving the test or the hypotheses under testing. Two main types of variables are mentioned in experiments namely: the dependent and the independent variables. As their names imply, the dependent variables are those items that receive the test. They called dependent since their behaviour depends on what is introduced (injected) to them via

the independent variables. The latter are said to be independent for the reason that they are changeable according to the general objectives of the researcher.

According to Perry (2005, p.89), the experiment involves controlling and manipulating the independent variable(s) and observing the transformation in the dependent variable(s). In contrast to other design types, the aim of this one is for researchers to attempt to regulate variations in the variance of the independent variable(s) without allowing the involvement of other undesirable factors. In other words, the researcher is able to control the hypotheses that s/he wants to test on the dependent variable which are certainly the research subjects. An analogy of the experiment can be portrayed in the example of studying the effect of the teaching method (independent variable) on students' performance (dependent variable). Indeed, by changing the way of teaching, the students' motivation and performance is going to be influenced either positively or negatively. For this reason, the "Experimental approach is characterised by much greater control over the research environment and in this case some variables are manipulated to observe their effect on other variables" (Kothari, 2004,p.5); a fact that qualifies it as being more reliable than other methods.

In experiment (a), we have a teacher who uses technology in class, all the sessions on time, has a smiling face, and always gives positive energy before the start of the lecture; students show a high degree of involvement in the classroom and are very interested and eager to the next sessions. Their performance is good.	
In experiment (b), we have a teacher who never uses technology in class, all the time late, all the time angry or indifferent, and never shows positivity in the classroom with his students. The result appears on the students' performance, that they are never interested in the class, lots of absences, they show no interest and therefore their grades are not encouraging.	

In fact, the experiment is based on observation and experimentation; it is a systematic approach to answer the "what if" question. This question dictates a possibility of implementing different variables which can cause some results. This is why the experiment is summarised as the cause-and-effect relationship. A good sequence needs to be implemented in order to achieve the experimental method:

1. Identifying the problem and the objectives of the experiment;
2. Defining the dependent and independent variables that the researcher wants to implement in the study;

3. Establishing a control protocol for the manipulation of the variables which can alter and show variability in the results of the experiment;
4. Selecting a research design appropriate to the objectives of the study as well as the sample that is under investigation;
5. Delimiting the population and the sample under observation and which characteristics are taken into account for their selection (eg, gender, age, education, profession, etc);
6. Running the procedures of the experiment and collecting the data;
7. Analysing the data obtained from the experiment;
8. Drawing conclusions

Since the experiment is scientific in nature, it has the following criteria:

- ✓ Empiricism: refers to the fact that facts are based on experience and observation improving a conceptual understanding of the world;
- ✓ Rationality: refers to the quality of being based on logic and reasonable understanding of events;
- ✓ Objectivity: refers to the researcher's freedom from bias in the sense that s/he does not reflect their point of view in the experimental procedures nor in the results obtained;
- ✓ Replication: refers to the fact that the experiment can be repeated many times for the sake of fostering the results or confirming the hypotheses;

Practice: based on the explanation provided, give some examples of topics where the experiment can be implemented as a research method. Illustrate by mentioning the variables and the cause-and-effect relationship.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The survey</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing what a method is</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Introducing the survey as a research method in English language studies</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

Have you seen journalists in some TV channels hanging in the street and asking people about their attitudes towards the new reforms made by the president? That's a survey!</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

The survey method</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Use it</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

How to use it</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

Definition of the survey

How to conduct a survey</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Distributing a questionnaire to the students or holding an interview-like conversation to illustrate how a written/verbal survey works</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Select a topic where a survey can be used</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Distinguishing a survey from an experiment</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Assignments or group works are encouraged

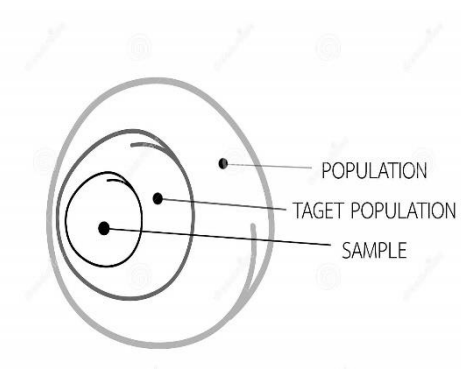
Further readings required</td></tr>
</table>

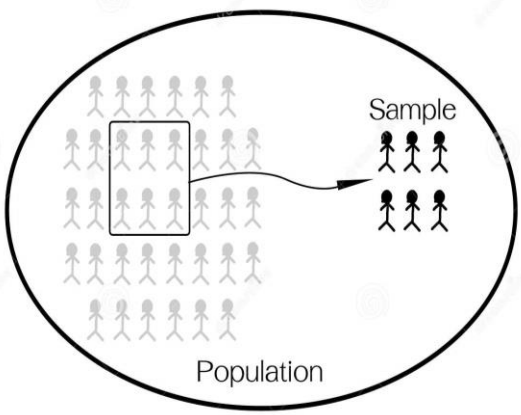
The Survey

The survey is a research method for data collection. It exists in different ways depending on the instrument used. Surveys can be written if the questionnaires are used as they can be spoken if the interviews are used. Surveys can occur in a face-to-face interaction, by phone, or even electronically (the example of online surveys that we receive very often these days).

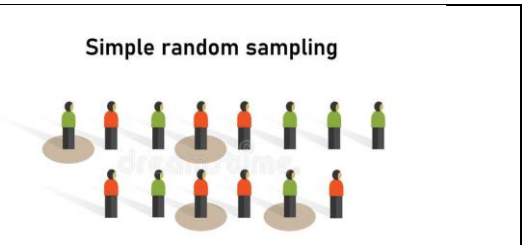
Sampling in surveys

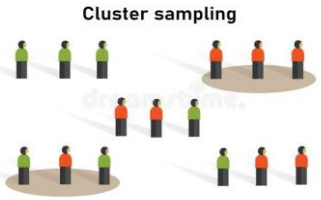
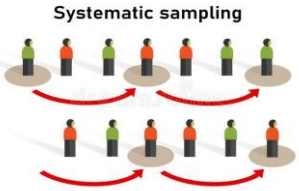
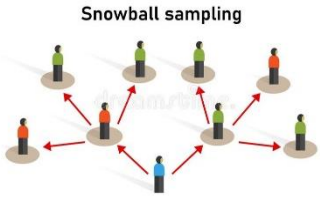
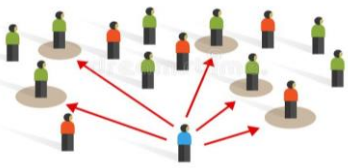
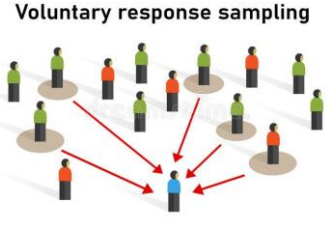
The survey aims at collecting data from a pre-defined group of people who are known in research methodology as the sample. The sample is a group from the whole community (the population) who are supposed to be representative.





Many types of sampling can be indicated (simple definitions are provided with respect to the learners):

Simple random sampling It is a method of selecting a sample of individuals from a larger population in a way that each individual has an equal chance of being selected.	

Stratified sampling is a sampling method that involves dividing a population into subgroups or strata based on certain characteristics, and then selecting a random sample from each subgroup in proportion to the size of the subgroup.	
Cluster sampling It involves dividing a population into smaller groups, called clusters, and selecting a random sample of these clusters for analysis.	
Systematic sampling is a statistical sampling method where a starting point is randomly selected from a population, and then every nth member of the population is selected for inclusion in the sample.	
Convenience sampling is a sampling technique where individuals are selected for inclusion in a study based on their availability and willingness to participate. This sampling method involves selecting participants who are easy to access and may be nearby or easily contacted.	
Snowball sampling also known as chain referral sampling; participants are asked to refer other people they know who may also be interested in participating in the study.	
Purposive sampling also known as judgmental or selective sampling, is a non-probability sampling method in which participants are selected based on specific characteristics or qualities that are of interest to the researcher.	
Voluntary response sampling, in this method, the researcher invites individuals to participate in the study, and it is up to the individuals to decide whether or not to participate.	

The focus of surveys

The global aim of using a survey as a method in any research is to approach the sample closely. The face-to-face interaction survey, be it written, verbal or electronic, helps to develop a deeper view of the participants and how they tend to explain or view the phenomena under investigation. The factual information, attitudes as well as explanations can all been used for the elaboration of one's research. Actually, a "survey... refers to a study which attempts to uncover and present a broad overview of the linguistic and sociolinguistic facts concerning a specific ethnolinguistic community in a particular region" (Blair, 1990:1).

Since surveys are designed to collect data about many topics, Cohen et al. (2006: 207) claim that "most surveys will combine nominal data on participants' backgrounds and relevant personal details with other scales (e.g. attitude scales, data from ordinal, interval and ratio measures)." In this sense, one might say that surveys can provide both quantitative and qualitative types of data. They add that "surveys are useful for gathering factual information, data on attitudes and preferences, beliefs and predictions, behaviour and experiences – both past and present" (Weisberg *et al*. 1996 qtd in ibid). Put differently, survey is a research method that collects information on attitudes, behaviours, previous experiences, and all items that are present socially, psychologically or linguistically in a given community. It shall be noted that the variables qualifying the respondents are also taken into account in the reporting, comparing and measuring of responses in order to draw conclusions.

Steps of a survey

In order to achieve the objectives of the survey study, the researcher has to respect the necessary steps for the success of their survey.

The first step (figure N) is related to the general hypothesis of research in order to be able to design the layout and questions of the survey. In this phase, the researcher has to decide on the type of the survey s/he wants to work on: written or verbal. Later on, the questions need to be formulated and reformulated then piloted with colleagues, teachers or friends before even being asked; aspects of order, clarity, understanding and

completeness have to be checked in order to see whether it will be easy for the respondents to answer the survey correctly and fluently or not. As for the response categories, both close-ended and open-ended questions can be asked, and therefore both qualitative and quantitative answers are expected.

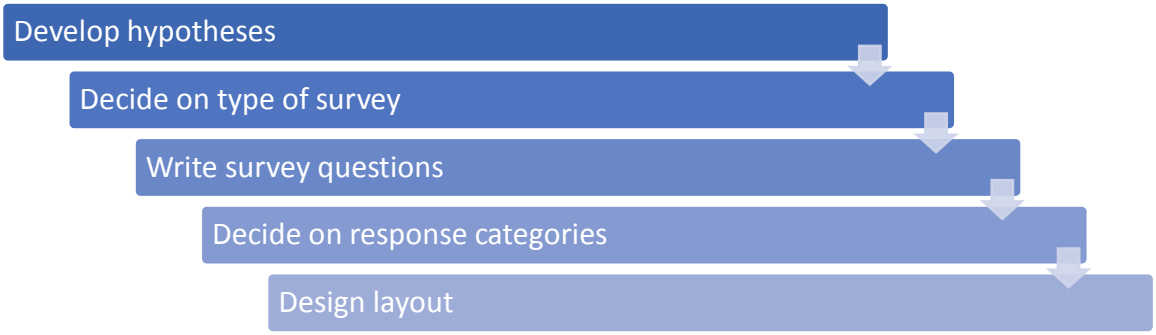


Figure. Step 1 in survey

Source: Adopted from Neuman (2006: 169)

The second step (figure N) is related to the helping instruments and their piloting. This is tightly related to the type of survey as well: interview or questionnaire. In both ways, the data gathered have to be recorded by some means. This can be achieved via a pen-and-paper procedure or a recorder. Yet, in order to accomplish this documentation, the researcher has to ask for the consent of the respondents so as to record the data.

Figure. Step 2 in survey

Source: Adopted from Neuman (2006: 169)

As far as the third phase of survey research is concerned, the researcher has to take into account aspects of population sampling mentioned earlier (figure N). In this respect, Naymard and Schaeffer (2006: 9) claim that: "the survey interview is a means

for measuring demographic characteristics and aggregate attitudes and opinions in many societies and sub-societies around the world. Surveys do this in a systematic way: sampling a population and then using standardized measurement in order to estimate various characteristics of it". As previously explained, the sample that has been involved in the survey are the people from who the researcher obtains the data. The reason for this lies in a twofold fact: first, to get to know more explanations from the respondents who have shown particular behaviors in the discussions; second, to explain in details the objectives of the study and satisfy the researcher-participant confidentiality.

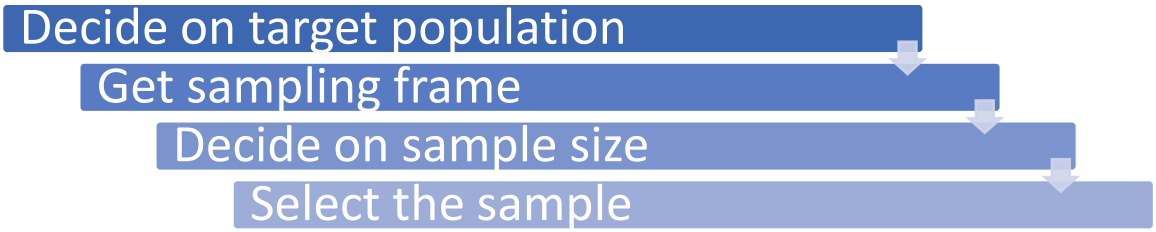


Figure. Step 3 in survey

Source: Adopted from Neuman (2006: 169)

The fourth step (figure N) done by the researcher is to conduct the survey (questionnaire or interview) with the respondents. Availability of the respondents have to be taken into account in addition to the time and duration of the survey.

Figure. Step 4 in survey

Source: Adopted from Neuman (2006: 169)

A survey is a method of research that focuses on the description of a phenomenon. According to Cohen et al. (2007, p.205), in order to describe the nature of the current conditions, define benchmarks by which the current conditions can be compared, or ascertain the connections between certain occurrences, surveys collect data at a specified

time. As a result, surveys' levels of complexity might range from those that offer straightforward frequency counts to those that present relational analyses. The latter statement refers to the fact that data obtained from surveys range from providing only simple frequencies, i.e., how many respondents have answered this or that way (e.g., 15% have positive attitudes towards the implementation to English in primary schools of Algeria whereas 70% have negative attitudes towards this idea; while the remaining 15% are neutral) to providing relational analysis on finding why the respondents answered in that ways.

Principles of surveys

The main principles of the survey method are:

- ✓ The use of qualitative data as people's experiences and beliefs;
- ✓ The use of quantitative data as to count similar or different answers among the respondents;
- ✓ The use of questionnaires and interviews to collect data (written or spoken)
- ✓ Objectivity: no researcher's interference in the data collected
- ✓ Focusing on facts and descriptions of real-life situations or phenomena;
- ✓ Attempting to make generalizations in the sense that what can apply on the sample can be generalized to the population, this is why sampling representativeness matters very much in the design or survey studies.

Practice: comment on the following statement

In fact, a survey may be used to describe general characteristics of a phenomenon. In this respect, Kothari states that: In an experiment the investigator measures the effects of an experiment which he conducts intentionally. Survey refers to the method of securing information concerning phenomena under study from all or a selected number of respondents of the concerned universe. (Prof Zidane's lecture summary, 2019)

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The case Study</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing the research methods</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Defining the case study as a research method</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students’ thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

We have seen different ways of sampling, can one person be the unit of research?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

The case study</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Recognise case studies</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

How it works</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• Definition
• Steps of designing and conducting a case study</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Bringing some master’s dissertations or doctoral theses where the case study is chosen as a research method and show them to students in order to comment on them</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Choose a topic where a case study is adequate as a research method and explain why and how it can be conducted</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Compare between the research methods that we have seen</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Further readings required</td></tr>
</table>

The case study

The case study is another method of research for primary data collection. What is specific about the case study is that it provides a description and analysis of the studied object or subject matter. Another specificity about it is that it deals with one single entity or unit with a close examination in a specific context. This context can either be a small geographical area, a limited number of people, as it can be a given phenomenon (case). In this line of thought, it is mentioned that "the case study method is a very popular form of qualitative analysis and involves a careful and complete observation of a social unit, be that unit a person, a family, an institution, a cultural group or even the entire community" (Kothari, 2004, p.113). Therefore, the quote stipulates a number of examples that can be the subject of the case study including a community, an ethnic group, a family and even one person; what is common between these and worth mentioning is that the case study studies one entity, i.e., the focus of the researcher is on one body. Similarly, Cohen et al (2007) have compared the case study to a TV documentary for the reason that it describes the event, situation, phenomenon, or person as it is without any interference of the researcher's interpretation.

When to use a case study?

In its definition, the case study can be used as a method to study the particularity of a single case and the complexity of the same case. In other words, the case study provides more in-depth details about the units under investigation. In order to know whether the case study is adequate as a data collection method in a particular research, the researcher needs to go back to the objectives that the study aspires to achieve. If these two types of questions are asked, the research certainly needs a case study as a research method: 1) what is happening? and 2) how and why it happened? Whereas the former question brings descriptions, the latter provides and exploration to the phenomenon or the unit under investigation (e.g., Shavelson & Towne, 2002, pp. 99–106).

The second reason a case study can be used as a method is its efficiency in being context-specific whereby data are naturally occurring and are therefore naturally collected, described and analyzed. With this being said, the case study tends to provide real data if compared to experiments where the results are controlled by some pre-established conditions.

How to design a case study?

In order to execute a case study as a research method, the research has to follow some procedures. Clearly, the first step to do is to define the case one wants to study; that is, which entity is going to formulate the subject of the research at hand. As previously stated, cases can be a society (Tlemcen society), a department (Department of Biology), an institution (School of languages), an ethnic group (Afro-American people), or a person (a child with speaking deficiencies).

The second step is to select one among the different types of case study designs. Obviously, a review of these types is required (figure N).

1. Single case study design: takes only one unit of analysis
2. Multiple case study design: takes different units in different contexts of analysis
3. Holistic case study design: one context can include multiple units of analysis
4. Embedded case study design: different contexts including different cases where each included multiple embedded units of analysis

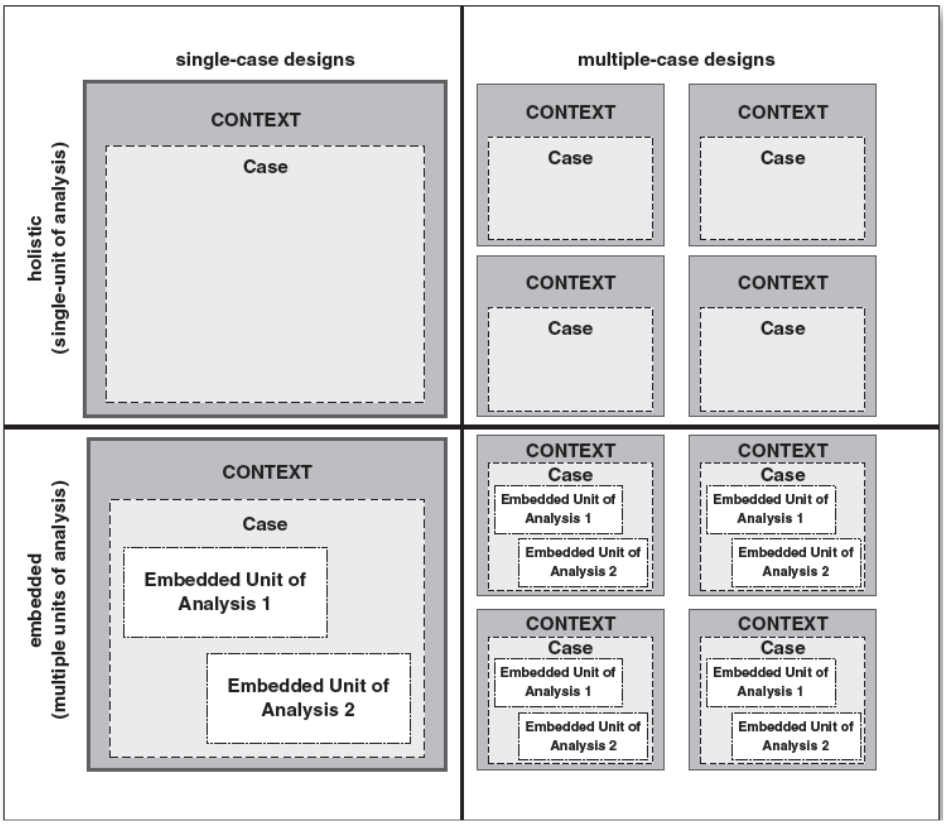


Figure: types of case study designs

Source: COSMOS corporation

The next step is to proceed to the performance of the remaining methodological step of the case study. These include: developing the research questions and hypotheses, selecting the unit of the case, refining the design, and collecting the relevant data. At this level, the researcher can use some theoretical considerations in order to help them construct well their procedures of data collection. Literature has always been beneficial for beginning researchers as it certainly guides them in knowing which is best for them as they have no prior experience on what to choose, what to avoid, and how to proceed.

Sources for data collection in case studies

The research has a variety of sources that can bring primary data in case studies. The use of these is tightly related to the objectives of the study and the availability of the chosen participants. Among these, we have:

1. Direct observations (e.g., participants' behaviours or a specific context)

2. Interviews (e.g., open-ended conversations with key participants)

3. Archival records (e.g., student records, court records,)

4. Documents (e.g., dairies, newspaper articles, letters and e-mails, reports)

5. Participant-observation (e.g., taking part in the conversation or the setting that includes the case under study)

6. Physical artifacts (e.g., data base of companies, computer downloads of employees' work)

Generally speaking, case studies have many advantages which foster its usefulness for beginning researchers. They help to deeply understand social units and encourage providing suggestions for social change in relation to the topics that have been covered during the study.

Practice: relying on the following table, compare and contrast between the studied research methods. Illustrate with examples.

Criteria	**Experiment**	**Survey**	**Case study**
Defined as:	A method applied to test hypotheses and find the cause of the problem (why?)	A method of research that focuses on the description of a phenomenon (what?)	A method that provides a description and analysis of the studied object (how?)
Examines:	Treatments (smaller samples)	Population (larger samples)	One entity/ social unit
Data from:	The change of behaviours influenced by the variables	The informants	(person, family, cultural group, etc.)
Used in:	Experimental research	Descriptive research	Investigation
Based on:	The use of observation, experimentation, deduction and induction	The use of questionnaires and interviews	Questionnaires, interviews, observations
Provides:	Causes and explanations to the studied items	descriptions about educational programmes, teaching methods, textbooks and learning objectives	understanding to social units and gives suggestions for social change

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:3</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The Choice of a Topic</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: background of research and methods</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:
• Learning how to choose a topic of research
• Qualities and criteria of a good research topic</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):
What do you think can make a good research?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge
(will know)
How to choose a topic</td><td>Procedural knowledge
(will be able to)
Think of possible topics</td><td>Conceptual knowledge
(will understand)
The criteria & qualities</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
• The choice of the topic
• What makes a good topic</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
What are the fields that interest you as a student? From this, you can select a topic for research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
Select a topic and state what makes it a good one</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
Evaluation and discussion of the different proposed topics</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
Further practice is required (especially that it will be related to the practice of the second semester)</td></tr>
</table>

Choosing a research topic

The hardest step in one's research is how to choose a topic. It is true that sometimes, the candidate is designed a subject for their thesis or dissertation by their supervisors. However, what can be more interesting, especially for those who want to carry doing research in a specific discipline, is that they have to choose their topic of research by themselves. Therefore, the competence of identifying and developing a good research topic is itself a working skill that enables the students specifically and any researcher broadly launch a first step in their work.

A subjective part that must accompany all researchers in identifying and designing their subject matter is love. The idea of 'loving what you are doing' is a very important ingredient in the success of the whole work for the simple reason that when we love what we do, of course, we will do it in a better way. We hear the majority of MA students or even doctorate candidates that they are doing something that they do not like or a discipline that has been imposed on them; so they find themselves psychologically struggling with the research before dealing with it in a scientific manner or a concrete way. More to the point, loving the topic will lead the researcher to assume their responsibility: the responsibility of choosing the discipline, the responsibility of dealing with the research topic in a given manner, and even the responsibility of scientific breakdowns. The last expression might seem ambiguous as we usually hear about relationship breakdowns. In fact, there emerges a special relationship between the researcher and their research work. This relation, if based on love, will only flourish and be successful even when being under time or energy pressure. For this, love is important as a first working utensil for it does not only supply the researcher with the needed energy to produce but also it provides him/ her with a sense of responsibility towards possible ways of dealing with the chosen research topic.

Back to the scientific boat, it is true that one must choose a topic that interests them yet the subject matter should belong to a specific field of research. Guiding oneself to a given discipline is of great importance. For example, if you are interested in gender differences in language use, your field can either be limited to sociolinguistics where gender is a social variable that may affect the use of language, or psycholinguistics

where gender-related attitudes can be taken into account with regard to language use, and so forth. Another example: if one is interested in investigating new methods of English language teaching for Business students, s/he has already driven themselves to the field of Teaching English for Specific Purposes. What is more fashionable in research, recently, is inter/multidisciplinary investigations where the research topic combines two or more areas for example dealing with discourse analysis (Linguistics) in literary texts like poems or novels (Literature). However, the researcher should take into account their capacities in dealing with one topic or another as multidisciplinary works are a bit challenging to tackle. Consequently, one's research will be a contribution to the selected field (s).

Methodologically speaking, there are divergent ways to identify a research topic adequate for a thesis or a dissertation. These ways can be manipulated differently according to the readings and observations of the researcher. We usually hear many students saying that they do not like reading or sometimes advocating the idea that their suggestion is so original that there is no literature about it. Nevertheless, in order to confirm or deny those claims, certain methods of information searching and even topic selecting are needed at the very beginning of the process; and these include careful reading and brainstorming.

Narrowing the broad through reading

Let us suppose that one is interested in studying linguistic differences in the Arabic speaking World. This topic seems to be attractive at a first glance. Yet, it is too broad for a thesis or a research piece. Thus, it is the activity of reading the related literature that might shape and sharpen the *'drafted'* idea. Progressively, you will find references in the literature that treat the topic from different angles. For example, the authors A. Khrisat and Z. A. Alharthy (2015) deal with the old different dialects of Arabic language and how they are related to the modern dialects in various Arab regions. Another author M. Benkharafa (2013) advocates that there are problems which affect the power of Classical Arabic either directly or indirectly. Therefore, a beginning researcher may take these papers as examples of narrowing a broader topic. In other words, the broader idea can be narrowed into studying dialectal differences, Arabic

varieties, the status of Classical Arabic in the light of the different Arabic dialects, the distinction between the Middle East and North Africa in the realization of some sounds of Arabic, and so forth.

Another illustration, if one is interested in students' difficulties in learning English as a foreign language, s/he needs to specify this idea through reading the literature. Of course, skills of language learning are so divergent including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Thence, one of these skills can be taken separately as a topic of research. A narrower research topic can be elicited from specifying the difficulties into linguistic levels as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and the like.

One's general ideas can surely be a first step for a good research topic but what can be noticed and dedicated is that the process of narrowing the topic will help the researcher in advancing in their research. Interestingly, the narrow topic will guide the researcher to a more precise idea and a structured path of working. It eliminates all the unnecessary elements from the researcher's focus, i.e., it enables them to treat one problematic rather than sinking in a vague space of investigation.

Fill in a theoretical gap by your idea

Yes, your idea can be original as it can provide qualitative additions to the previously done works about your interest. If you read about a particular topic too much, you will start a kind of critical thinking about it. This critical thinking can emerge from the question "why an *x idea* has not been mentioned?" This question highlights a gap in previous works and pushes one for further research.

A helpful *'astuce'* that can be beneficial in picking up good topics of investigation is to check the limitations, recommendations and the part where "further research" is mentioned in different manuscripts. In the majority of articles or book chapters, we find, at the end, certain enquiries about the studied topic which itself raises the reader's curiosity. Thence, the sensation of looking for more truth to fill in this research gap is activated.

Gaps can be the areas that have not been highlighted by authors. They can also be related to the limitation of a given research such as: not treating sufficient sample

population or not dealing with all the factors or variables to explain the problematic. For example, in their article dealing with the status of French in North Africa, the authors F. Aitsiselmi and D. Marley (NO DATE) assume that their research did not tackle the issues of borrowing and code-switching which they consider as so much influencing on the linguistic performance of North African inhabitants. So they have given a hint on further research that can be on studying the development of the phenomenon of code-switching between French and dialectal Arabic in countries of the Maghreb. Besides, they give ideas on explanatory factors like technology and media that have not been discussed in their work. They have even added a qualitative suggestion to further investigation that would be a comparative study of French among people living in North Africa and their relatives in the diaspora (p. 219), which can be of a great interest as a topic of experimentation for an MA or PhD dissertations or even a paper for publication.

An observable issue: from outside to inside the literature

Again, literature can help us in identifying whether what we have observed somewhere exists or not, investigated or not, was subject to discussion or not. Sometimes, when being in a specific environment, we notice some type of behaviour that attracts our attention then we think of it as a topic of investigation. Well, yes, observation can be considered as a strong stimulus to introduce new investigations and richer results. The relation that can be drawn between our own 'raw' observation and the already written literature is that certain books and articles widen our vision on how this topic has been viewed and tackled before.

For example, in everyday life we encounter children with Down syndrome. One may notice that those kids exercise a certain linguistic ability in their social interaction and therefore may think of it as a topic of discussion. However, this observable idea needs to be shaped correctly in order to make a good research topic. Hence, we need to go back to recent literature to read about the topic first, and see whether our observation is mentioned somewhere or not. Interestingly, reading would give us a good background on the socio-linguistic/ pragmatic competence of children with Down syndrome. If not, then the door is open to your investigation in the field of Neuro-linguistics (as it deals with language deficiencies) and sociolinguistics (as it touches the social use of

language). What can make it more interesting is the fact that you design a group of participants as a sample of investigation to concretely test whether what you have observed in one situation is applicable on other similar cases.

Duplicating: hypothesis confirmed or denied

Testing an author's given claim seems to be one of the challenging aspects or steps in research. The act of "testing" refers to the operation of examining the applicability of a certain quote, theory or simply an assumption put forwards by someone in the field of interest. At the end, the assumption will be either confirmed or denied by the different methods or instruments of testing. In other words, the researcher will have two answers: "Yes, it applies on a different sample" or "No, it is not to be generalized as it does not apply on the chosen sample". A concrete example can be given to support this claim. Many researchers of the Arabic dialects spoken in the Arab world advocate that the glottal realization of the standard qaf /q/-sound as [ʔ] is prestigious; however, after testing the validity of this assumption on a different sample population akin to Tlemcen speech community in Algeria, Dendane (2013) found that the glottal stop is so negatively perceived and thus stigmatized. Afterwards duplicated research on a nearly similar sample just confirmed the raw statement that what is seen as prestigious in one community of the Arab world is not necessarily applied on all its communities.

After dealing with possible methods of choosing a topic, it is clearly obvious that reading the literature is a very crucial step to initiate a good topic for research.

Criteria of a good research Topic

While selecting a topic for research, many guidelines need to be taken into account and advocated by Rudestam and Newton, (2007, p. 10-11) and Kothari (2004, p. 26):

- ✓ Avoid difficult topics that are not easy to reach or to discuss;
- ✓ Chose topics from your field of work/study, you will have more command on it;
- ✓ Try to make an original contribution to the field through the chosen topic;

- ✓ Avoid ambiguous/ vague topics;
- ✓ Make sure that primary and secondary sources are accessible;
- ✓ The objectives and significance of the topic, the researcher's honesty and objectivity, and the time constraint must all be taken into account.

Practice: with reference to what we have seen in the lecture of "Choice of Topic", try to fill in the form bellow.

First Draft

Field of Research:

Didactics ☐ ESP ☐ Socioling. ☐ Psycholing. ☐ General ling. ☐ Translation ☐

Topic

……
……

Motivation

……
……
……
……

Statement of the Problem

……
……
……
……

Objective of the Research

……
……
……
……

Sample of the Study

……
……
……
……

Research Questions

1. ……
   ……
2. ……
   ……

Research Hypotheses

1. ……
   ……
2. ……
   ……

- Define the general concept (s) of the **theory** of your research
- Review at least 3 references from the related **Literature**

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:4</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Sources of data</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: What does data mean as a concept in research methodology</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):
The opposition between widely known original brands like 'puma or nike' and a second-hand shoes can be projected to understand the difference between primary and secondary concepts that are used along the lecture.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge
(will know)
Sources of data</td><td>Procedural knowledge
(will be able to)
Categorize data</td><td>Conceptual knowledge
(will understand)
Primary & secondary data</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
Primary sources of data
Secondary sources of data</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
Comparing between different examples of data sources</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
What is the difference between primary and secondary sources of data and in which contexts/ types of research can we use each of them?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
How to implement those data sources in an extended essay/ a dissertation/ a thesis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
More readings required</td></tr>
</table>

Sources of Data: primary vs. secondary

The researcher has a variety of options when it comes to the use of differing sources of data. A source, in this context, refers to the place from where the researcher can bring information to his/ her study. In the literature, these sources are found under the labels of primary and secondary data sources. Actually, "there are several ways of collecting the appropriate data which differ considerably in context of money costs, time and other resources at the disposal of the researcher" (Kothari, 2004, p. 17). Indeed, the use of one of these sources (or both) relies initially to the objectives of the study in addition to their availability, cost, need, and time. In order to know what to choose, a consideration of what distinguishes between the two is needed.

Primary sources of data

As the term implies, a primary source refers to a source that is original and used for the first time. In this sense, it is said that "primary sources of data have been described as those items that are original to the problem under study" (Cohen et al., 2007; p.193). Primary data are those collected for the first time by the researcher as they are directly related to the problem under investigation. As far as the instruments used, questionnaires, interviews, observation or documents can all be considered for primary data collection.

Examples of primary sources:

Table N. Some examples of primary sources in relation to different fields

Research field	Primary source
History	• Letters and diaries • Photographs and video footage • Official documents and records • Physical objects

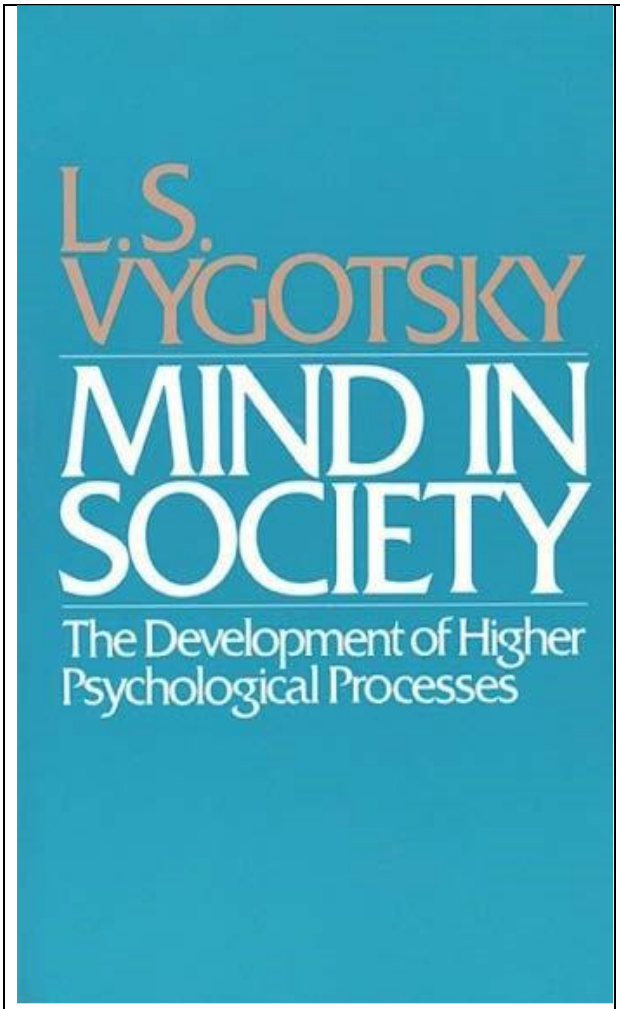
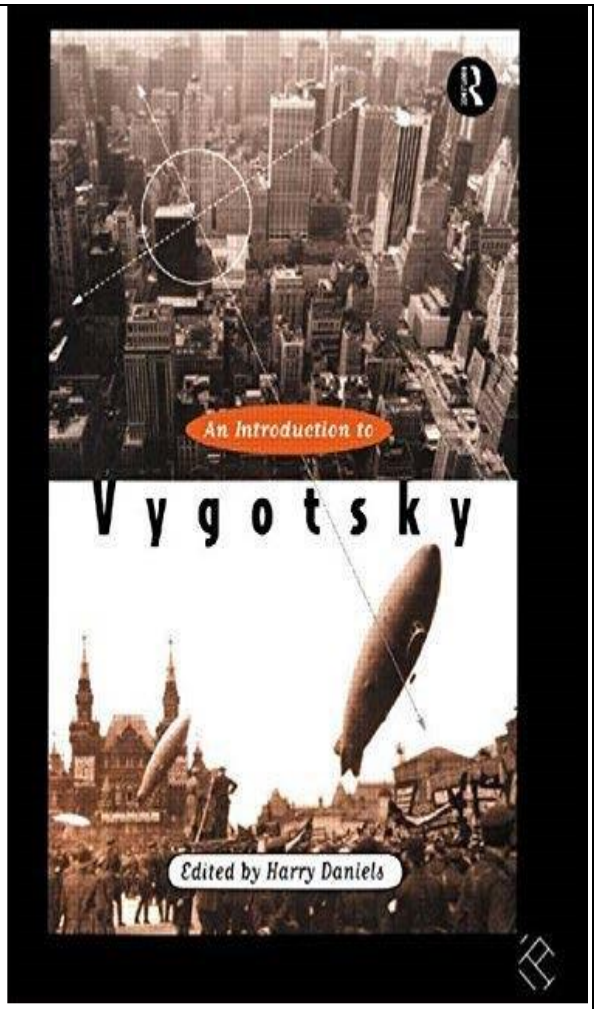
Art and literature	• Novels and poems • Paintings and art installations • Films and performances
Communication and social studies	• Interview transcripts • Recordings of speeches • Newspapers and magazines • Social media posts
Law and politics	• Court records • Legal texts • Government documents

Source: https://www.scribbr.com/working-with-sources/primary-and-secondary-sources/

Secondary sources of data

Secondary sources, however, reflect the idea that they are not original. They appear somewhere else; they have been collected by someone else; they have been written for other purposes than the current objectives traced for the present study. In this vein, it is claimed that "secondary sources are those that do not bear a direct physical relationship to the event being studied. They are made up of data that cannot be described as original" (Cohen et al., 2007; p.194). They generally include books, articles, encyclopaedias, documentaries, textbooks, websites and reviews. This means that secondary sources of data can exist in either published or unpublished forms. Here are some examples that show the use of secondary sources. Famous figures in history use to write their own dairies (primary for them) which can be used later on by researchers in order to develop their biographies (secondary source). The idea here is that the data that are found in the source are not initially or intentionally written for

designing a biography (second purpose), rather a diary was written in order to portray and document everyday life of the writer (first purpose). The theories of language learning such as behaviourism and structuralism, for example, are considered as original works for their authors since they have been elaborated for a particular purpose. Nowadays, many researchers and teachers use them in their articles and lectures respectively for the reason of reviewing the literature to which a different research is related. Review of literature is a concrete image of how secondary sources can be found.

	
This book is a primary text that is written by Vygotsky. It is considered as original since he is the first to talk about it. (written for a specific purpose)	This book contains some excerpts taken from Vygotsky's book; therefore it is considered as a secondary source here. (used for illustrative purposes)

Source: www.2.eit.ac.nz/library/OnlineGuides/Primary and Secondary Sources.pdf

Comparison: how to know that this source is primary or secondary?

In order to decide whether this source is primary or secondary, the researcher has to ask the following questions:

- Are the data coming from a different researcher/ author who has nothing to do with my research?
- Is my interest to use the source limited to reviewing the literature or background information?
- Is this source bringing new information or it only comments on previously mentioned information?

These questions are answered in the following table which summarizes the criteria that distinguish between primary and secondary sources of data collection.

Primary sources	**Secondary sources**
Collected for the first time by the researcher	Already collected or produced by others
Directly related to the subject matter	Written or produced for a different purpose
Factual and original	Analysis and interpretation of the primary data of other works
Its aim is to get solutions to the problem at hand	Collected for other purposes than that of the researcher using them
Real-time data	Data that relates to the past
The researcher is more involved in collecting his/her data	Little involvement as the data are already ready
The collection can take longer periods of time	The collection is quite rapid

Collected through questionnaires, interviews, observations, etc.	Collected from publications, websites, books, articles, diaries, etc.
Quite expensive (in terms of money)	Quite economical

To conclude, it is worth mentioning that both primary and secondary sources are designed to help the researcher to collect data and provide arguments for the topic of research that is under study.

Practice: Choose a topic of research and give examples of possible primary and secondary sources that can be used.

First Term Exam Samples

Answer the following question:

Q1. How can library research help initiate new insights?

Keys

- **Answer 1.** The student should use the following:

-Defining secondary research: past data (published on unpublished), examples such as books, articles, dissertations, etc.

-Advantages of the process of reading are:

1) help the researcher to narrow their topic and scope of research,

2) select a new, meaningful topic by either filling in a gap that is found in the literature or by replication of (an already done) research on a different sample (by asking new research questions/ testing whether previous results are valid -or not- in different research environment –including new informants & use of new data collection instruments).

Answer the following question:

Q2. The experiment, as a research method, is mainly based on deductive and inductive reasoning, beside observation. Comment.

Keys:

- **Answer 2.** The student should employ the following:

-Defining the experiment as a research method.

-Explaining the difference between inductive and deductive processes in relation to observation. The first implies taking a large number of careful observations of the informants and from them inferring some **probable** results (which may change if we observe larger number of participants), the second entails beginning with a set of acceptable conditions, called the hypotheses, and then reaching logical, **valid** conclusions.

-Illustrating each one by a concrete example.

Answer the following question:

Q3. While doing research, why isn't it enough for the researcher to provide only a descriptive account of the studied phenomenon?

Keys:

- **Answer 3.** The student should mention that:

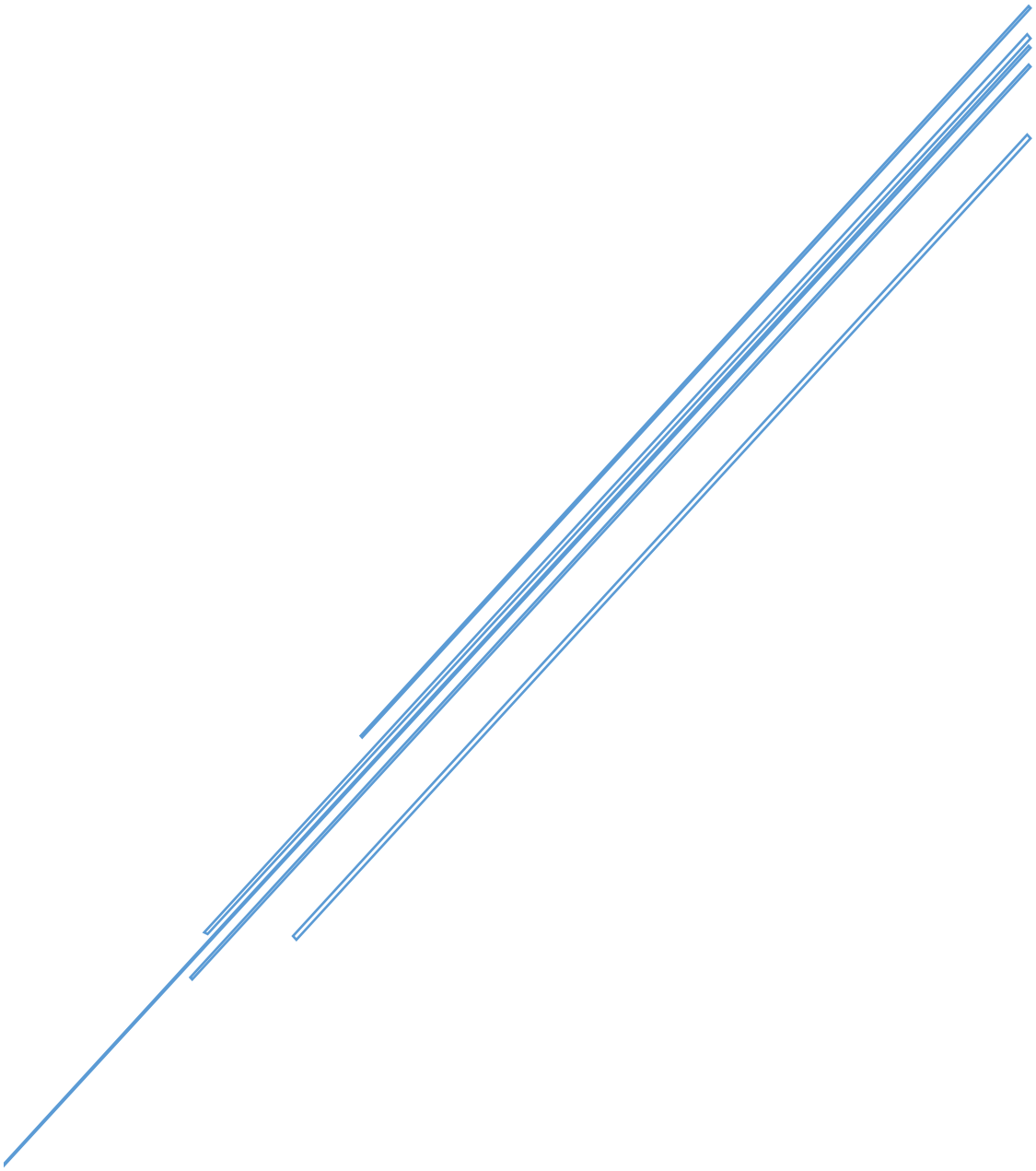
Asking the "**what**- question" (which only provides descriptions related to the studied phenomena/ participants as in surveys) is not enough;

and should add that the researcher has also to ask the "**why**" (to find causes) and "**how**" (to seek understandings) questions which we find in experiments and case studies respectively (where the case study is more advantageous).

A good research is the one that employs triangulation of methods and provides explanations and analyses not only descriptions of the studied object/ problem.

SECOND SEMESTER

Data Collection, Analysis & Thesis Writing



Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Data Collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing what data stand for</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:
➢ Defining the process of data collection
➢ Primary vs secondary data collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):
What do you think about the Monalisa painting?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge (will know)
Data collection</td><td>Procedural knowledge (will be able to)
Collect types of data</td><td>Conceptual knowledge (will understand)
Procedures of collecting</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
• What is data collection?
• What are its procedures?
• Primary vs. secondary data collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
A reminder about the sources of data and their relation with the types of data obtained</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
What makes the difference between primary and secondary data?
How to collect each?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
A comparative activity</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
Further readings needed
Practice will be related to the topic that has been chosen in earlier lectures</td></tr>
</table>

Data Collection

What is/are data?

Data is a plural word for which the singular is ‘datum’. It refers to the information or facts collected for a particular reason to provide evidence or reference.

Types of data

In research methodology, many types of data can be gathered and used.

- **Primary vs secondary data:** If they are collected for the first time, they are considered as primary data; however, if they do not belong to the researcher, they are considered as secondary.
- **Quantitative vs qualitative data:** Data can also differ in terms of number (quantitative data) or perception (qualitative data). Quantitative, or numerical, data are collected via close-ended questions. These questions are yes/no questions, multiple-choice questions, and scaling/ranking questions. The data obtained from responding to these are summarized in numbers and percentages; they can even be mathematically quantified in tables and figures. On the other hand, some questions entail from the respondents answering by providing their opinions, experiences, beliefs, or more details which cannot be quantified not counted by the researcher. For this reason, they are defined as qualitative data. These data are collected from open-ended questions like ‘wh-words’ and opinion-based questions for which the answers can be summarized in descriptions or categories after their coding and classification.

Data collection

Data collection is an important process in research. As its name implies, collecting data refers to the activity of gathering information related to the topic of research and its objectives. This activity is systematic in nature as it dictates for the

researcher the use of certain steps and methods in order to have the adequate data that will reach a good answering to the research questions and hypotheses. The process of data collection is the core of any original work, whatever is the field (scientific or social); yet, what matters is its accuracy and honesty. More to the point, data gathering should adhere to other principles as reliability of the data and its ethical consideration (see the section of ethics in research).

Secondary data collection

The collection of secondary data involves the use of published and unpublished materials. Whereas the former is found in books, articles, journals, reviews, etc., the latter in generally found in diaries and unpublished biographies. Three main characteristics have to be taken into account when gathering secondary data: reliability, suitability, and adequacy. If the researcher knows who collected the data and in which way they were collected, this makes the data more reliable. At this stage, it is enough for the beginning student in research methodology to know that reliability is taken from the stem 'to rely' which means it can be trusted in the sense that the researcher can depend and build on it. Second, one has to be selective in their collection when it comes to secondary sources. The researcher has to choose what is more suitable and appropriate with the topic of research as some data can be suitable for one field but not for another. Consequently, the level of adequacy and accuracy of the secondary data with the purpose of research is also important.

Primary data collection

The collection of primary data relies on researcher as the one in charge of gathering them. This can successfully happen via the use of different research instruments including questionnaires, interviews, observations, tests, and many others.

Research instruments for primary data collection

Research instruments are generally the tools and techniques that we use in order to collect primary data. In other words, they refer to the utensils that any researcher can use for the sake of gathering information from their respondents, i.e., the selected sample.

It is important to know that the choice and implementation of any research instrument relies seriously on the research questions, hypotheses, and final objectives of the research tackled. It is also crucial to bear in mind that the instruments bring different types of data. For this reason, one should be careful in choosing the appropriate one. The sample, context, and variables should all be taken into consideration while manipulating the research instruments.

Triangulation of research instruments is an important concept in any piece of research. As one completes and complements the other, research instruments can be used in binary or triangulation way so that the collected data to be valid.

In fact, there is a large number of research instruments to data collection. We usually hear of people dealing with questionnaires and classroom observations which we can consider as belonging to the tradition of research. More innovative techniques include the interference of the researcher within the sample or the selected group of investigation. A concrete example includes focus groups and tasks design for students; tools that can be used in research done in educational settings.

The selected research instrument should be valid, appropriate and reliable so that to ensure the quality and quantity of the data gathered all depending on the type of research handled.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The questionnaire</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing instruments for data collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:
To be able to distinguish and design a questionnaire as a research tool</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):
Asking the question if ever they have been subject to a questionnaire, how they feel about it and how was their experience with it?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge
(will know)
The questionnaire</td><td>Procedural knowledge
(will be able to)
Develop a questionnaire</td><td>Conceptual knowledge
(will understand)
How to use it</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
• What is a questionnaire?
• How to elaborate a questionnaire?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
Working on a questionnaire (group work)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
Elaborating all the parts of the questionnaire (individual work)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
Reading and evaluating the questionnaires of the students</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
Further practice needed</td></tr>
</table>

The questionnaire

Introduction

Who, amongst us, have ever been asked to fill in a questionnaire either by the administration or researchers at university? It is certainly believed that everyone has received this type of request. Indeed, this sheet that is filled with some questions related to a given topic is called a questionnaire. However, a serious question needs to be asked; what makes a good questionnaire? And how can a researcher develop one that brings valid and reliable data to our research?

Definition

A questionnaire is a research tool/ instrument that is used to collect primary data. These data are generally written information for the questionnaire exists mainly in written forms either on papers (printed) or electronically (online surveys). The questionnaire consists of a number of questions that are related to one precise topic that the researcher clarifies from the beginning in an introductory section. The questions differ in structure and therefore in purpose. The data that the questionnaire aspire to collect are mainly quantitative and qualitative in nature depending on the type of the question raised.

Before administering the questionnaire

The structure of a questionnaire is very important; yet, some steps need to be taken into account before its distribution. It must be recapitulated that the questionnaire is but an instrument that brings some data which are still raw. These data are part of the whole research and are sought in order to decode a research problematic, answer a research question and confirm or reject a research hypothesis. For this, the researcher has to define the research aims and objectives before designing the questionnaire. Asking some enquiries to oneself as: what do I want from this research? What is my objective from this survey? What is my problematic and what do I want to prove? Is the questionnaire a reliable instrument in this study? Does it match the needs of my investigation?

For example, if the researcher's aim is to study whether people code switch between Arabic and English, a questionnaire can fall to a second position compared to the observation in this domain since code switching is a linguistic phenomenon that can be easily observed in the community. Therefore, observation can bring more reliable data that are spontaneous and natural which is not the case for the questionnaire where answers are reflective. However, if the general aim of one's research is to know people's attitudes towards the political system of the country, a topic which is very sensitive, the questionnaire must be the perfect instrument to use. The reason for that can be summarised in the fact that attitudes are cognitive patters which cannot be easily observed (if observation is used) or talked about (if interviews are used). Rather, it will be easy and more relaxing for the respondents to answer a set of questions in the written form especially if it is anonymous (see the structure/ criteria of the questionnaire). Thus, checking the accordance of the research aim in parallel to the utility of the questionnaire in that study is very crucial.

The second thing that should be taken into account is the population and the sample, i.e., to whom this questionnaire is going to be addressed. As stated earlier, the population refers to all the members of the community or the group that we are studying; the sample is a part or a sub-set of the target population which is selected to answer the research enquiry. Two criteria need to be taken into account: the availability and the representativeness of the sample. This means that the researcher has to choose a sample that is easily accessible and available for investigation. For example, if one lives in Algeria and makes their sample from Brazil or South Africa, the investigation is a bit prohibitive unless the data collection procedure is achieved via an online survey; otherwise, access to the sample is so sensitive and important and requires attention before planning and implementing the questionnaire in one's research.

On the other hand, representativeness is also crucial although it is not all the time required or achieved as there are some pieces of research that do not aim at generalization. It has already been mentioned that representativeness and generalization are tightly related to each other (if the sample is representative to the whole population, results obtained from the sample can be generalized to the whole population). Then, the

researcher needs to identify how many participants/ respondents the sample should contain and how many responses are required for the analysis in order to obtain enough data to answer the research questions.

The next step that is related to participants is to decide about how to collect replies. When we talk about collecting replies, we talk about the activity of distributing the questionnaire. This is why availability of the sample is mentioned to be important. Accordingly, in order to obtain the answers, the questionnaire should be well structured. The nicely designed questionnaire is the one that is interesting, short, purposeful and well presented. Usually, respondents give up on filling in a questionnaire when they find it long, ambiguous or difficult to read. This is why a good step to do is to think about how to deliver the questionnaire. A good strategy is to give the questionnaire directly by the researcher (a self-administered questionnaire) where the topic is explained, consent is asked, and questions are clarified personally by the researcher. This activity is called "a foot in the door" where the researcher explains how the questionnaire has to be filled. In case of sending the questionnaire via post or email or websites, a clear explanatory introduction is required.

Questionnaire design

Now, after deciding about all those items, it's time for the questionnaire design. For this, a number of items need to be considered like 1) which questions shall I ask? 2) which type of questions is more adequate for my study? 3) on which sequence shall I order my questionnaire layout? However, before we proceed with questions, an introduction is mandatory.

The introduction

After heading the questionnaire with a title, an introduction of purpose is necessary. It is also called a cover letter, an introductory letter or a consent form. The questionnaire introduction should appear at the very beginning of the sheet, that is before starting the sequence of questions. It includes three main items: first, the objectives and purposes behind the questionnaire (for example, this questionnaire aims at …); second, asking the respondents' consent or permission to fill in the questionnaire (for example,

you are kindly asked to answer the following questions …); and third, mentioning the privacy of the respondents' identity (for example, know that your identity is not going to be revealed…) Encouragement in terms of time and efforts should be provided that answering the questionnaire will not take a long period of time nor would it be effort consuming. For example:

> *I am undertaking a small research project as part of my studies for the accomplishment of the MA degree in Language Sciences at the University of Tlemcen. This research lies on treating the different research methods used in the Department of English as a whole. To do this, a short questionnaire has been developed and I would be extremely grateful if you would answer the following questions which will take no more than fifteen minutes; bearing in mind that it is anonymous and confidential and all the answers provided are used for scientific purposes and data analysis only. Thank you very much for your time!*

The respondents' profile

It is of vital importance to have a part in the questionnaire that tells who are the respondents and what are their criteria. Details such as age, gender, residence, education, and so forth are needed. These details form the respondents' profile which will be very helpful in the process of data analysis where answers are reported. The profile information help to compare between males and females, between the young and the old, between the rural and the urban, between the educated and the uneducated, etc.

The questions

Determining the questions

In order to know which questions to ask, the researcher should go back to the research objectives and more precisely to the research questions. The questions that we develop are to be sub-divisions of the pre-established research questions. The collected responses will, all together, answer these questions. It is preferable to avoid the type of questions which are far from the basic hypothesis or too broad.

Decide on the layout and the sequence

The questionnaire has to be well organized with regard to the sequence of the questions asked. After the introduction and the respondents' profile, the section of the questions comes. It is preferable to group questions that relate to similar areas in items or rubrics. This aims at ordering the questionnaire in parts containing analogous objectives. The questions shouldn't be scattered. One can start with attractive questions or questions that are easily answered when they relate to one issue. For example, if we are asking an overall question about the social and psychological reasons for code switching, it is a good idea to ask a number of questions related to the first item/ rubric (social factors) and another group of questions related to the second item/ rubric (psychological factors). Likewise, we can have the following:

Item I: Social	1. Age →	Do you avoid code switching when you are with old people?
	2. Gender →	Suppose that you are in a group with the opposite gender of yours, do you code switch?
	3. Education →	Do you code switch to show your educational level?
	4. Residence →	Does residence affect code use? How is that?
Item II: Psychological	1. Attitudes →	What is your attitude towards code switching?
	2. Preferences →	Do you prefer using your L1 or FL when you are at school? Why?
	3. Motivations →	What motivates you to switch codes?

4. Feelings → Are you proud of your L1? Do you find it embarrassing to use English in the countryside? Why?

Accordingly, when questions are organised in issues, it will not only be easy for the respondents to answer but also for the researcher to analyse the answers during the coming phases of research. The questions are to be ordered from simple to more complex, from close ended to open ended, from broad to specific, and from peripheral to central items.

Questions types

As previously stated, different questions types can be used. However, one should be clever in keeping their questionnaire sheet clean and not condensed with questions, boxes and choices that may bother or even scatter the respondent. A variety of questions can be employed for the sake of both qualitative and quantitative data.

- **Close-ended questions:** as the name implies, close-ended questions are those whose answers are limited. This means that respondents have no space for further elaboration or explanation. They are generally yes/no questions which require either a "yes" or a "no" as their answers. For example, are you interested in teaching? is a question to which the answer is either "yes or no". This type of questions is purely quantitative; answers that can be summarised in numbers or percentages and categorised in tables, charts or diagrams.
- **Multiple-choice questions:** are also quantitative in nature because the researcher provides a variety of probable answers among which respondents choose one or many depending on the question and their perspective as well. While providing a list of choices, the researcher must be aware to provide all possible answers to the question so that they (the respondents) do not feel directed or limited; what can be a source of subjectivity and bias since they are guiding questions. Hence, providing an open choice like 'other' at the end of the list can save the situation for more objectivity. Here are some examples:

Do you study English because: (you can tick more than one)

- ☐ It is a global language
- ☐ It is easy to learn
- ☐ You need it for work
- ☐ Others

Others (please, mention them!) ……

Do you code switch because:

- ☐ It is a spontaneous behaviour
- ☐ To show off
- ☐ To reflect the educational level
- ☐ Others

Others (please, mention them!) ……

The option 'other' mentioned at the end is called "the catch-all type option". The data gathered are analysed quantitatively by counting tokens and numbers of responses for each choice. It is also of great importance to clarify what the researcher wants exactly from the respondents as say the selection of one choice only or the possibility of selecting or ticking more than one.

- **Scale/ ranking questions:** belong to the same category of multiple-choice questions but are different in the scale items they provide. Put differently, the respondents are still given the opportunity of choose an answer (on the scale) among many but the choice is in terms of a measurement. When we say a scaling or ranking, we literally, refer to a continuum from one axe to another: a categorisation or classification of a list of items. For example, we take the scale of agreement which starts from 'strongly agreeing' to 'strongly disagreeing'; and between the two axes of the continuous, there are other classifications that need

to be considered. Here is an example of rated questions following the Lickert scale (1932) in which the respondents are asked to tick one item.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Reading is not an important skill in language learning					
2. Knowing the culture of the target language is essential for communication					
3. Listening and speaking go hand in hand as skills but listening is more difficult					
4. The writing skill should be developed separately from the other skills					
5. Culture of the target language influences and thus changes our identity					

Some other types of ranking questions can be evaluative tools, that is respondents will evaluate certain phenomena, expressions, behaviours or ideas. The evaluative scale forms a continuum too; it can range from excellent to poor, from best to worse, from definitely yes to definitely no, and so forth. Here are some examples:

How do you find the quality of education in your department?

- Excellent
- Very good
- Good
- Fair

- Poor
- Very poor

Did the method of teaching meet your expectations?

- Much better than expected
- Better than expected
- Slightly better than expected
- About as expected
- Slightly worse than expected
- Worse than expected
- Much worse than expected

Would you adopt the same method of teaching in your future career?

- Definitely
- Probably
- Possibly
- Uncertain
- Possibly not
- Probably not
- Definitely not

It must be noted that there is a difference between a question that requires a rated response (a choice from a rate) and the one that requires ranked responses (in a form of a scale) where a classification of items in numbers is needed. Therefore, ranking refers to classifying according to a parameter (ranking students according to their averages; ranking workers according to their salary; ranking answers according to their importance, etc.) Put concretely, if the researcher wants their respondents to rank skills of language learning according to their importance, they will be asked to order or number them from first to the last as follows:

Number the following skills of language learning in order of importance (from 1 to 4)

Reading ☐ Writing ☐ Speaking ☐ Listening ☐

- **Open-ended questions:**

In order to collect qualitative data, open questions are needed. As opposed to multiple-choice and close questions which bring quantitative types of data, i.e., data that are analysed numerically, statistically, and in charts, open-ended questions are neither restricted nor predetermined. These questions are mainly used to gather information about opinions, attitudes, justifications and suggestions provided differently by the respondents according to their viewpoints. For example: *What is your opinion about the teaching methods in your department?*

- **Wording the questions**

It must be taken into account the activity of structuring the questions and how their morphology should be. The questions have to be clear and direct. In this sense, the researcher has to avoid ambiguous forms of questions that can mislead the respondents. Ambiguity pushes the respondents either to ask many questions or to avoid answering the question itself. Consequently, clarity is required. Clarity is also related to direct questions, i.e., the question should address one item at once and not many in order first to avoid the respondents' confusion and to guarantee the easiness, order and success in the process of analysis. Additionally, clarity is related to the non-use of difficult words or specialised jargon especially if the sample is not from the same discipline and it is quite important that the researcher pays attention to the language used and to whom it is address, i.e., the respondents' level of education.

More to the point, the researcher should avoid questions of more than one item for example, do you think that you should read less and listen more? Do you like French and English? This form hides a dual question where the answer is divided into two aspects of the question (reading and listening in the first; French and English in the second).

Moreover, the researcher has to avoid questions involving negative forms since they insert ambiguity, and can therefore, provide wrong answers which do not reflect the real intention or thought of the respondents. Forms like aren't you, don't you, won't you, etc. will create confusion as the grammatical answer for these entails 'yes, I am not' or 'no, I am' for positive and negative responses respectively, but in speaking, answers differ; thus, what the researcher collects does not reflect what the respondents basically mean.

Other criteria include the obligation of avoiding vague questions as they are unnecessary and will just provide irrelevant answers. Leading questions that show the researcher's will, opinion or needs are to be avoided from the questionnaire for the reason that they introduce bias and unreliability of the results obtained. The researcher should make the question obvious on what they exactly want from the respondent like: tick one box, put a number, give your opinion, etc.

As far as the number of questions within the questionnaire are concerned, a lot needs to be said. During the process of wording the questions, the researcher has to be concise, precise and brief, to smoothly organise the questions, and to employ a variety of questions as mentioned above. Some questionnaires are confused with large surveys where the number of questions exceeds fifty questions. For a master's project, a questionnaire of twenty-five questions is more than enough even that sometimes expect or be sure that more than five questions will not be answered. If the questionnaire is full of Wh-questions which require phrasing, be sure that very few will give their responses and many will skip them. if the questionnaire has only yes/no questions, the analysis will only be quantitative and needless to recapitulate that qualitative data are needed too. Therefore, the number of questions should be limited and varied in nature as it is beneficial for both the researcher and the respondents alike. As the end of your questionnaire sheet, a simple thanking expression is a good detail to consider.

Piloting the questionnaire

After finishing the structure of the questionnaire (without forgetting to number the questions, use the same font and size), there is a crucial step before its distribution

to the respondents. This step is called piloting the questionnaire. Piloting means testing the research instrument on a group of the sample, or even colleagues, teachers or friends. The purpose behind this activity is to check whether the questionnaire is clear and can be easily understood and answered. Additionally, colleagues and friends can have and give some viewpoints on the flaws or the mistakes that the questionnaire contains. Accordingly, the research can work on correcting those mistakes, add some details or clarifications, omit some ideas that seem unnecessary, unclear or even unrelated to the topic of investigation. This operation will make the questionnaire clearer, well-structured, and easy to be answered. Piloting helps for the refinement of the questionnaire into a better version and can consequently maximises the response rate and minimises the error rate on answers.

Carry out the main survey

The last phase is to carry out the questionnaire survey. Before one starts to deliver the questionnaire, the respondents need to be known. The researcher has to get in touch with them then number or code them. This means that each questionnaire has to be given a code or a number that corresponds each participant. Later that everything is organised and well-ordered, the researcher can distribute their questionnaire either face-to-face or online. The responses are to be gathered afterwards for the process of data analysis which is the last step in questionnaires as tools for primary data collection.

Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

Any research instrument has positive and negative sides. As far as the questionnaire is concerned, the table below summarises its good and bad aspects.

Practice: choose a topic and develop a questionnaire accordingly including all the items and components of a good, reliable questionnaire

Title of the questionnaire

Intro.

This questionnaire is part of …

It aims at collection information about…

For this, we would very grateful if you accept to…

Bearing that your identity is anonymous…

The data provided are going to be used in scientific ways …

Respondent's profile

Gender Male ☐ Female ☐

Age ☐

Residence Rural ☐ Urban ☐

These data generally help in the process of data analysis and allow comparison among the respondents' answers according to the variety of variables that are under investigation.

Questions

SECTION ONE	**Social items**
Q1.	**Age→** do you avoid code switching when you are with old people?
Q2.	**Gender→** suppose you are in a group of the opposite gender, do u code-switch? Why?
Q3.	**Education→** do you code switch to show your educational level?
Q4.	**Residence→** does the place of residence affect code use and switching? How?
SECTION TWO	**Psychological items**
Q1.	**Attitudes→** what is your attitude towards code switching?
Q2.	**Preferences→** do you prefer using your L1 or FL? Why?
Q3.	**Motivations→**what motivates you to switch between codes?
Q4.	**Feelings →**do you find it embarrassing to speak in English in the village? Explain why?

Thank you

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The interview</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing research instruments</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Developing students' awareness that the interview is a research instrument for data collection and it can be implemented in their extended essays or master's dissertations</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

What to do you think about TV interviews like those in ENNAHAR TV?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

The interview</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Develop an interview</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

How to implement it</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• What is an interview?
• How to elaborate an interview?</td></tr>
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Elaborating all the parts of the interview (individual work)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Reading and evaluating the interviews of the students</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Further practice needed</td></tr>
</table>

The interview

Definition

The interview is a research instrument for primary data collection. It refers to a face-to-face conversation between the interviewer (the researcher) and the interviewee (the respondent). Whereas the interviewer is the one who asks the questions, the respondent is supposed to give answers. For this, interviews usually involve a conversation or a presentation of an oral-verbal stimuli and replies. However, some interviews that are employed in certain types of research can be seen a failure if the activity is only restricted to questioning and responding where the respondent does no more then answer the given questions. Because interviews are usually used to collect data about opinions and attitudes, respondents along with the researcher (participants of the interview) are allowed to discuss their interpretation of the world including life experiences, behaviours, beliefs, etc. As a consequence, and in order to make the conversation more animate, the interview is characterised by more open-ended questions.

Planning the interview

Whatever is the type of the interview, preparing a plan for it is important if not compulsory. To prepare for an interview, the researcher has to take into account three stages: before, during, and after.

Before

Before starting an interview, the researcher has to take into account the research objectives behind all the study and whether this instrument is an adequate one answering the research questions and hypotheses. The nature of the topic dictates the suitability of an interview or another research instrument. For example, if the topic deals with a very sensitive issue like people past-experiences in drugs, evaluation of the political system, or intimate topics like sexual preferences or experiences, using an interview as one's research instrument would not be a good idea especially if the society to which the participants belong to is a conservative one. Conversely, easy tackled topics or those

which are very interesting, attractive and seem to be in the normal borders of social freedom (done by researchers, students, teachers, etc.) can benefit from the interview as their research tool for data collection. Therefore, the researcher has to be careful when deciding to use the interview.

Another point to be considered before starting the interview is the interviewee. Asking questions like: who constitute my sample, what is their level of education, which language do they master, what are the conditions that suit them; all these questions will help the researcher in planning and structuring their interview. If the researcher's topic deals with the linguistic performance of old people, for instance, this will certainly guide the directions on how the interview is supposed to be built. The sample in the former example involves old people who can be educated or uneducated, they can be multilingual as they can be monolingual, they have good or bad moods to answer the questions as they can even have some hearing or speaking issues that make the conversation difficult with them. Thus, when the researcher knows who the interviewee is, the task of preparing the interview will be easy. That is, the researcher will take into consideration the age, the educational level, the social background, the language used, and any related parameter that can interfere in the conversation. This allows the researcher to know which questions to ask, in which way, and how much time the interview takes.

Afterwards, the researcher has to plan the questions that formulate the interview along with which type of interview is more adequate as there is a slight relationship between the questions asked and the type of the interview. However, whatever is the type, the questions should be well formulated, clear, and understandable. They should also be simple, direct and brief. Additionally, the questions need to be designed according to, and in order to answer, the research questions.

Interviews are different in structure and sample, i.e., they differ in their form and the way in which questions are ordered and formulated as they differ in the sample to whom they are addressed be it one person or many people. As far as the structure is concerned, three interview types are found: structured, semi-structured, and

unstructured. Structured interviews involve a set of predetermined questions. In this type, the interviewer follows the exact order and number of questions. This interview will follow a rigid, structured procedure while asking questions in the same established manner for all the respondents as previously prescribed. The answers can be documented with some helping techniques such as recordings and note-taking.

As opposed to that, semi-structured interviews give more flexibility and freedom to the researcher. This occurs/ entails the interviewer to ask the same questions that have already been prepared but can add or omit or modify according to the flow of the conversation with the interviewee. This type of interviews is very beneficial as the researcher is guided by a number of questions that have been already planned and have also the chance and the freedom to elaborate or modify according to their interlocutor.

Conversely, unstructured interviews tend to be more open and freer. The interviewer does not have to follow a predetermined set of questions. Supplementary questions can be asked, others can be omitted, the sequence can also be changed. Documentation and recording of answers are not restricted but rather give ore freedom to the researcher to include or exclude differing aspects from the interviewee's responses. Yet, it is stated in the literature that unstructured interviews tend to be very complex and time-consuming especially that the researcher asks unsimilar questions that may sometimes fall outside the focus of the study. The responses cannot be qualitatively comparable as they do not answer the same exact questions. Nevertheless, unstructured interviews can be very beneficial at the very beginning of any investigation in which the researcher is able to use some grand-tour questions especially in exploratory research where limitation of the scope of the study is required. In descriptive research, however, it is more accurate to use structured or at least semi-structured interviews as the questions are already planned; comparison of responses is feasible and easy; less skills are required especially for beginning researchers and results can be generalized qualitatively.

Otherwise, the implementation of an interview in a given study requires from the researcher to be skilful and clever in manipulating the conversation. That is, in order to

succeed an interview, one has to possess the technical competence that governs it well. Honesty, sincerity, and mastery of language are all required. Questions are to be planned previously in parallel with a consent form. This form is like a pact between the interviewer and the interviewee in which parameters and conditions of the interview are provided mainly the objectives of the study and in which ways are those data going to be used. Ensuring the confidentiality and security of the respondent is a very crucial one because when the respondents feel comfortable and protected, they will be at ease in providing answers and help more in the study.

Creating a friendly atmosphere is also helpful for the smooth running of the conversation. The interviewer should have a smiling face, a hamble speech, an understandable language, a positive attitude and an appropriate pitch of voice. The questions should be well structured and related to the topic of research not to intimate things which can be embarrassing or offensive to the respondents whose psyche is very crucial.

Additionally, the interviewer should be courteous, conversational and unbiased. In other words, the researcher should be open to conversing with the informants and showing surprise or disapproval can end the interview by affecting negatively the respondent. For example, if one asks “do you code switch to French?” and the answer is “no”, the researcher needs to be flexible and act the possible normal they can without showing disagreement either by facial expressions, body language or even eyebrow movement as this might not only offend the respondent but also introduce bias to the study. The interviewer has to keep objectivity in both the questions asked and the reactions shown. This is why interviewing is said to be an art governed by scientific principles of research.

As far as the medium of interviewing, interviews can be done in a face-to-face contact or via telephone. The first is referred to as personal interviews while the latter is the telephone interview. Personal interviews entail a face-to-face conversation or contact between the interviewer and the interviewee. This type of interviews is generally carried out in a structured manner. Personal interviews focus on respondents’ experiences,

sometimes on their feelings and motivations. In other occasions, they just give the floor to the respondent to talk about a given topic with a minimum of direct questioning forming focused interviews, clinical interviews and non-directive interviews respectively.

Personal interviews are advantageous in many ways:

- More information can be gathered directly from the respondents;
- The interviewer can decide which sample to answer the interview;
- Observation can be employed in parallel with the verbal conversation with respondents;
- Misunderstandings and misinterpretations can be avoided

Despite all those positive points, personal interviews have certain weaknesses:

- Being more expensive, not in terms of money but in terms of time and efforts especially with large samples (interviewing one by one);
- Some respondents cannot be interviewed easily which means that one should seek the validity of the interview on the sample;
- Interviews can be a large space for bias and lies from the parts of the interviewer and the interviewee respectively: the researcher may have a certain control over the conversation and the respondent can give fake or imaginary information just to make the dialogue interesting.

The other medium of interviewing is the telephone. This type is very rare and is only/ mostly used in industrial surveys. Telephone interviews tend to be quick, direct, easy and economical. The research requirements can be explained easily and both parties will go direct to the point. Still, this type of interviews can have a negative side as not taking or giving enough time to respondents to provide answers. Time of a telephone interview cannot exceed five minutes. In many occasions, there can be accessibility problems which prevents understanding, recording and interpretation of data.

Interviews also differ in the number of respondents or participants. They can be one as in personal and telephone interviews as they can be many as in group discussions, focus groups, and ethnographic interviews. Focus groups are considered as a subtype of interviews while other researchers consider it as a separate research instrument for data collection. Focus groups involve a group of participants to gather qualitative data about a particular topic especially how people perceive reality and how social and cultural aspects are constructed. The group of participants share a collective experience about the discussed issues. The number of members ranges between six to twelve and can have more than a session. Within one topic, we can have more than a group which are homogeneous or heterogeneous with regard to the variables of selection, i.e., gender, age, religion, education, and so forth. Focus group interviews include a moderator who acts as a facilitator and a motivator in asking questions and keeping the conversation as dynamic as possible. One session can take more than two hours.

Types of questions to ask in interviews

The first few questions: these are important not in content but in setting the tone and creating rapport initially for the conversation. This encourages them the feel relaxed and open up to discussion. It's always about how to introduce the topic as it is an ice-breaking period.

Content questions: focus on any given topic like experiences, opinions, feelings, knowledge, sensations and background information.

Probes: include generally detail-oriented and clarification questions. The interviewer can take one content word that is repeated in the speech of the respondent and ask "what does this mean to you?"

The final closing questions: permit the interviewee to say the final word concerning the topic of discussion. These include questions like: "is there anything else you would like to add?". They can bring very rich data as they help in bringing the researcher's attention to some details which were not seen or elaborated before.

Conducting the interview

In order to conduct an interview, a whole process has to be followed.

Starting the interview:

The first few minutes before the meeting are very important since it is the time the interviewer sets the tone, climate and atmosphere of the interview. It is the period where "we sell ourselves" that is to make ourselves accepted by the other parties of the discussion. The researchers have to show that they need that person (the interviewee) and that they are so much interested in what s/he is going to say. The interviewer should sound nice and non-threatening. The best way to presenting ourselves should go between formality and informality which allow objectivity and confidentiality respectively. Before starting the question-response activity along with recordings, the researcher has to explain, for another time, the reasons and objectives behind the interview. s/he has to highlight the ways in which the information given are going to be used. By this, the interviewer is going to establish a relaxing atmosphere for debate especially if s/he doesn't show any directive attitude or critique. Indeed, a small introductory talk can set the good tone to start posing the questions.

During the interview:

Dorney has mentioned that a good qualitative interview should accomplish two features: first maturity and second richness of data. One should know that the interviewer is there to listen more than to speak, nor to interrupt or to direct the interviewee to a particular answer. Even if there is a confusion, silence or moments of hesitation and thoughts, letting it go natural and being patient and neutral is the solution. Neutrality can be achieved by avoiding all types of personal bias (be it social, political or even moral) and setting the interviewee in a better, safe and free atmosphere to express themselves. The interviewer should not be authoritative (although the questions belong to them). It should be known that interviews are a space for disapproval or judgement whatever are the researcher's opinion or principles. The interviewees do not have to feel themselves threatened otherwise they will only try to defend themselves and their ideas against the interviewer.

When the first feature is achieved, the second can be easily arrived at if the interviewer is clever enough in keeping the flow of the discussion by asking clear questions and interrupting when necessary or when more data/ explanation are needed. These are some techniques by which one can achieve the two criteria at the same time. The interviewer has to show to be a sympathetic listener by keeping feedback channelling signals (saying 'yes/ yeah', moving the head, making agreement noises as 'uhum' and smiling). This feedback can have positive effects on the conversation particularly that the interviewee feels praised in response to their answers.

However, sometimes the interviewee is given so much time that they start to narrate irrelevant stories. What to do at this stage? Keeping the positive attitude is very important; changing the facial expression will not be helpful since it can even ruin the whole process. Using a slightly redirecting question can be vital to get the speech to the track. Thus, asking a question like "you have said earlier that … and this has attracted my attention" or a sentence like "I just want to know more to make sure I got you well" will be very helpful and even impressive as the respondent will feel they are giving interesting data so they get back to the idea that better serves the work.

Ending the interview

Before saying a thanking expression to close up the interview, some signals should be given to show/ mark the end. Saying a sentence like "my last question is…" or summarizing important points of the discussion and sometimes giving an explicit opportunity for the interviewee to give comments or suggestions as say "do you want to add something?" are all good ideas. The researcher should be very careful not to end the discussion with something difficult or embarrassing but something positive that can function as a debriefing. Finally, the interviewer has to express their gratitude, gratefulness and respect by using praising words and expressions. The researcher can also talk about the next step in their research process or just talk about the logistics of how to keep in touch with each other in the future, etc.

Advantages and disadvantages of the interview

Like any research tool, the interview has positive and negative sides.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: The observation</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing the research instruments</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

The observation as a research tool for primary data collection</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students' thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

The story of seeing a friend but not noticing what they were wearing</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

The observation</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Develop a checklist</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

Handle the observation</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• What is an observation?
• How to elaborate an observation?</td></tr>
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Working on an observation checklist (group work)</td></tr>
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Elaborating all the parts of the observation checklist (individual work)</td></tr>
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Reading and evaluating the observation checklists of the students</td></tr>
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Further practice needed</td></tr>
</table>

Observation

Introduction

You might be sharing a conversation with a friend of yours and gossiping about a given topic. You ask your friend whether she has seen Sarrah today or not. Her answer is "yes". You furtherly ask: "what was she wearing today?"; she answers "I don't know." In this sense, one can say that your friend has seen Sarrah but haven't observed her. Likewise, we understand that observation is not only about seeing but it is rather about seeing with carefulness and attention to details.

Definition and criteria

Observation is a research instrument for primary data collection. It takes from our sight as the medium of investigating naturally occurring behaviours. Any one can observe and notice things and events happening around, but this activity is not necessarily scientific in this way. Rather, for an activity of observing to become scientific, authentic and reliable, it must have other purposes than a subjective curiosity. This means that we do observe people's behaviours for the sake of gazing and gossip but to achieve a given answer to a particular research question; an answer that can only be achieved through field observation which, in turn, leads to the confirmation or rejection of the researcher's assumed hypotheses.

Another criterion for an observation to be scientific is to be planned. In more precise terms, to start observing a given sample, the researcher needs to plan what to observe, when and how. These three questions must be already studied so that to make the activity easy and successful. For this reason, a checklist is very helpful.

Example

Purpose: Observing students' difficulties in English pronunciation

Plan:

- ✓ When → morning/ afternoon/ beginning of the year/ middle…
- ✓ Where → classroom/ outside/ home/ social media…

- ✓ How → take part/ from far/ friend-of-friend…
- ✓ What or who → students (which university/ department/ class/ level/ group…)
- ✓ How much → one session/ a semester/ a whole year…

Observation must be recorded. Fieldnotes are one of the most salient ways of recording and documenting the observed events or actions. By fieldnotes we mean taking some remarks and notes which tend to report the reality. The researcher is free to symbolize their notes according to what they see adequate, fast, reliable, and practical for later consulting and analysis. Put differently, the researcher has to take notes which s/he will understand later as sometimes we use symbols and forget their keys; and this makes the task of data analysis a bit hard and time consuming; sometimes these data are not well understood and therefore cannot be reliable to consist the exact primary/ raw material of the whole research.

For the above-mentioned reasons, a checklist observation is always recommended. The researcher is planning to observe or check in concrete situations can be previously planned and structured in a form of a list where the researcher has only to tick once being in the fieldwork. For example, if you are interested in investigating whether people speak urban or rural dialects in a given speech community, your checklist has to include two boxes where rural and urban aspects have to appear; the task that facilitates the whole process of observation where the information is recorded and documented according to its real context and is reliable for later analysis.

This type of observation recording is generally known as structured observation. As its name implies, a structured observation has a standardized form and conditions of observation in the sense that the researcher knows exactly what to observe and which criteria of data to select. This type is much more used in descriptive research where the aim is to portray reality and describe the wanted characteristics. However, in some situations the aim of a given research is not to describe but rather to explore and discover what is happening. Consequently, an unstructured type of observation recording is needed. Put differently, if the researcher is willing to do exploratory research and utilise the observation as an instrument, it is the unstructured type that is needed where

conditions, criteria and variables are not previously thought of but rather explored during the observation process.

Observation can take different shapes depending on the aim and the position of the researcher. If the observer wants to share the details of the participants, they shall take part within the context and therefore undertaking a participant observation. In other words, if the researcher is also a member of the observed group, they are practicing a participant observation (by taking part of the event). Conversely, if the researcher is detached from the context and does not take part within the group and observes the events or behaviours from far, s/he is doing a non-participant observation. Sometimes, when the observation is done without the awareness of the participants, the researcher is disguised and thus the type of the observation is called disguised observation.

The aims of the researcher from observation can change according to the ultimate aims of the study: naturality or conditioning. In other words, when the researcher starts to observe a given group, a community or a case where there are no previous thoughts or plans about it, this observation is called an uncontrolled observation. Put differently, an uncontrolled observation is one that is done in natural settings where there is no influence nor conditions for achieving the description of the observed group. However, when the observer plans some conditions for the observation like in experimental groups, this observation is controlled and what is observed is the result of those conditions.

Observation can be very beneficial in ethnographic types of research which entail the researcher to take part in the social activities of a given group where s/he can be even a member so that to understand the social mechanisms after developing personal associations in the community. Likewise, participant observation allows the observer to develop an insider perspective in order to understand the linguistic and social behaviours of the community. At the same time, the researcher can practice a non-participant observation while s/he can preserve an outsider perspective as not being originally a member from the observed community. Using observation in ethnographic works helps the researcher construct a multifaceted view of the studied community.

Visible and hidden types of observation as also found in the literature. While the former entails the researcher's presence to be known by the informants, the latter refers to the complete opposite. The two types of observation are related to the members' awareness about the presence of someone to observe their behaviour. While there are some ethical issues and diverging opinions with regard to hidden observation, it is very advantageous in reducing bias which is raised when the participants are aware of being observed.

This distinction is also similar to direct and indirect observations. In direct observation, the researcher has a passive role that is restricted to recording the events with no control over the situation or the participants. Direct observation is said to be the most straightforward form of data collection in comparison with other instruments like questionnaires. That is, instead of distributing questionnaires that can be filled or ignored, observing naturally occurring behaviours is more reliable and is therefore more economical. For example, if one wants to investigate politeness strategies in the speech behaviour of shopkeepers, it is way better to observe naturally occurring verbal and physical behaviours while having a personal shopping than to ask questions in a written form like questionnaires. Observation saves time, money and efforts as well. Nevertheless, this observation cannot be bias-free especially at the level of even interpretation by the researcher, i.e., one behaviour can be explained differently and the observer's explanation or description is one among many.

What can be observed?

Behaviours and objects can be observed, but cognitive phenomena such as attitudes, intentions or motivations cannot be. Generally speaking, all what is tangible can be observed. All what is concrete can be observed. All what happens around can be observed. Let us summarize them into points.

- **Physical actions:** refer to the behaviours that are performed physically, e.g., work patterns;
- **Verbal behaviours:** refer to the conventional practices of the participants, e.g., office conversations;

- **Expressive behaviours:** all what is emotional but observed in concrete expressions, e.g., tone of voice and facial expressions;
- **Spatial relations and locations:** refer to the aspect of space and distance, e.g., the distance between interlocutors;
- **Temporal patterns:** refer to aspects of time, e.g., the time spent in a job interview;
- **Physical objects:** refer to any object, e.g., the objects used or touched during a meeting;
- **Verbal and pictorial records:** refer to the recorded stuff and pictures.

As said earlier, we can observe people, actions, events, behaviours and phenomena occurring around.

Advantages and disadvantages

Like any other research instrument, observation has both positive and negative aspects.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:1</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Tests</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing research instruments</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

Tests are not only meant to obtain grades, but can also be used as research tools</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students’ thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

When you hear about tests, what comes to your mind?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

Tests as tools</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)

Develop tests</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)

The importance of tests</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• What is a test?
• How to elaborate a test?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Working on a specific test (group work)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Elaborating all the parts of the test (individual work)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Reading and evaluating the tests of the students</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

Further practice needed</td></tr>
</table>

Test

Tests are very impressive instruments that collect data which are numerical rather than verbal; a fact that makes it a purely quantitative tool of data gathering. We generally hear of tests as related to educational procedures of assessment and evaluation. However, as any other research instrument, the researcher has to ask whether tests are convenient and adequate for the research topic they tackle or not. To answer this, more concrete queries need to be asked like: what I am going to test? (Personality, intelligence, achievements, etc.); who are going to constitute my sample? (Group or individual testing); how can I structure my test? (For evaluation or explanation) and many other questions…

Constructing a test

In order to construct the testing instrument, the researcher has to take into consideration the purpose, the type, the content, the format, the validity and reliability of the test.

Identifying the purpose

Purposes of testing are many. For example, to diagnose students' strengths, weaknesses and difficulties; to measure achievements or to identify readiness for a programme. In these cases, the researcher's purpose is to know the essential pre-requisites of informants in terms of skills, abilities, knowledge and understanding. They generally come in the form of a pre-test or what is known as a placement test. These types of tests occur at different stages. For instance, one can conduct a placement test at the very beginning of the year before the commencement of a programme; its purpose is to identify the starting abilities like initial entry abilities of students (subjects/ participants) in order to design courses according to those competences or to know on which skill shall the teacher focus more. Other types of placement tests can be designed for administrative purposes like grouping students according to their levels as in CEIL (Intensive Language Teaching Center).

Placement testing has its equivalent in baseline assessment which is important in knowing the value-added component of teaching and testing. This means that this

instrument for collecting baseline data can be used by teachers in order to figure out how much the educational experiences have added value to the students (especially if know their initial abilities).

Anyone of us, whenever we hear about testing, we directly associate it to the period of exams since we usually sit for a test in order to have a mark in order to succeed in the module and therefore validate the semester. However, testing can be used for other purposes beside these. On the top of these objectives, tests can be used as instruments to collect primary data. The question is: can tests be included as research instruments? If yes, which type of data are we going to collect through tests? And how can a researcher elaborate a test in order to gather the necessary amount of data?

Tests are research tools for primary data collection. Testing refers to assessment and evaluation. This means that the researcher is supposed to estimate, rate or measure a given quality, item or topic in the subject under investigation (an achievement, an ability, personality, intelligence, skills, and so forth). Evaluation refers to the fact of giving value to this particular thing. Then, combining assessment and evaluation is going to give the researcher the ability to judge. Indeed, the data that are going to be judged or tested are generally:

Knowledge: people's luggage about something (eg. knowledge about language, life, society, culture, etc.)

Competences: can abilities (pre/ post) in doing or performing a given operation; aptitudes and one's readiness to do something; or a given skill as reading or speaking

Feelings: related to stress, anxiety, depression, and even related to personality (introverts vs. extroverts)

Before starting the process of testing, one needs to plan the tests first. In order to collect data through tests, the researcher has to take into account the following items:

Research objectives: the ultimate purposes of the research are going to tell which instrument is much more suitable than any other. One should ask themselves "Am I going to achieve the research goals after using this instrument? Am I going to answer

my research questions after implementing this research instrument?" there is a tight relationship between the adequacy of the research tool and the objectives of one's research. Second, the researcher has to pay attention to the type of the study; be it evaluative or experimental in nature. This will allow us to know which items to evaluate or to test. Third, the researcher has to take into account the sample population (who are we testing? How many groups do we need?). The researcher has to decide about all the variables of subject selection. The fourth thing is the items to be tested. These include details about personality, intelligence, skills or the abilities that the research focus on. The last parameter is the structure of the test. This refers to the form in which the test should appear and will be given to the subjects or used for evaluation.

The construction of the test

The first idea to deal with is whether the test is designed for an evaluative or an experimental purpose. For example, is the researcher using tests in order to diagnose students' strengths or weaknesses in a given matter? Or is s/he using tests in order to measure their achievement in a particular lecture? Or his/her purpose is to identify the subjects' readiness for a given programme? We first need to differentiate between the two types of tests. As the term implies, evaluative tests are meant to evaluate subjects' competences.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Data analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: knowing what data gathering is</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:

How to analyse the data</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students’ thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):

After finishing the collection of data, what are we going to do with it?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge

(will know)

Data analysis</td><td>Procedural knowledge

(will be able to)</td><td>Conceptual knowledge

(will understand)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:

• What is data analysis?
• Qualitative data analysis
• Quantitative data analysis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice

Suppose that you have collected data from the pre-establish questionnaire, how you are going to analyse them?</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment

Giving them the raw data obtained from a questionnaire to analyse it</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing

Summarizing the details and differences between QN and QL analyses</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions

More readings are needed</td></tr>
</table>

Data analysis

For beginning researchers, the term analysis seems quite odd and really complicated. The reason for that is related to the fact that most of them are not acquainted with the term especially that this operation needs some knowledge is mathematics, statistics or how to implement these in work related to humanities and social sciences.

Simply put, analysis is the phase that comes after finishing data collection. It refers to the process of 'working with the data' that has already been gathered by the researcher. The ultimate objective of the analysis is to draw conclusions related to the pre-established research questions. This process includes some key components that make the analysis successful; these components react directly with the purpose and questions of the research as well as the data that were/ are collected. Accordingly, data analysis is done via some methods that will lead to an interpretation of the findings which, after their identification, the writing process prevails.

From purpose to reporting the findings, the researcher has distinct ways of achieving the analysis: a linear approach vs a cyclic approach. Whereas the former refers to a structured way of following the aforementioned components in a fixed (unchangeable) manner, the latter entails more flexibility to achieve the analysis for the researcher has the freedom to change the sequence of these components.

Simply put, data analysis is the reading of the data gathered in order to formulate the results. Since there are different types of data, analysis is also different in relationship to the data collected (quantitative vs qualitative). Consequently, two major types of analysis emerge: quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative analysis is related to the quantitative type of data. As its name implies, QNA relies on numbers, statistics, and percentages which makes it purely mathematical in nature. According to Kothari (2004, p. 131), The role of statistics in research is to function as a tool in designing research, analysing its data and drawing conclusions therefrom. QNA helps reducing larger amounts of data for their better understanding and interpretation.

Procedures used in QNA

There are two basic types whereby QNA can occur namely: summary measures and variance measures.

- **Summary measures:** generally, seek to know the typical value of a group (average) and how the data converge together forming aspects of mean, medium and mode.

The mean refers to the average.

Thus, M= ΣX/N

M=mean, X= scores, N= number

The median is the middle value. For an odd number, the median is the middle score.

For example: 10,9, 8, 11, 10 (the median=10).

For an even number, the median is the average of the two middle scores.

For example: 9, 10, 11, 8, 6, 10, 9, 12 (the median is 7).

The mode is the repeated number. For example: 10, 9, 11, 9, 8, 9 , 12 (the mode is 9)

- **Variance measures:** seek to know the differences between individuals in terms of ranking or scores.

For example, a group of participants is required to answer the following question:

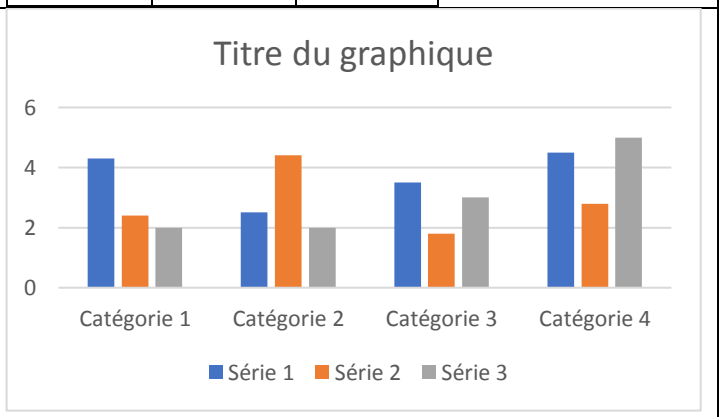
Learning English in primary schools is needed

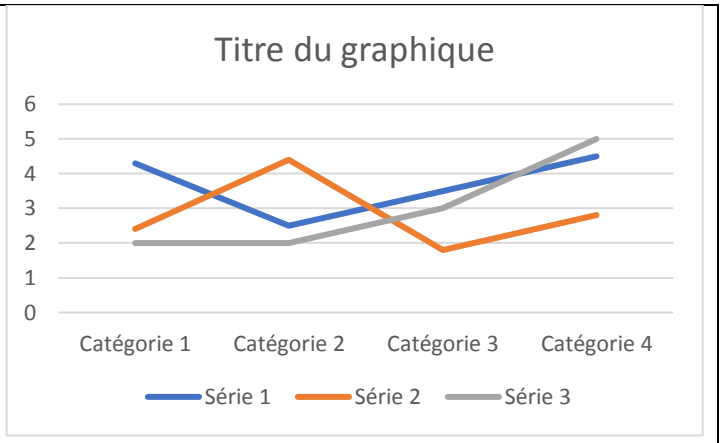
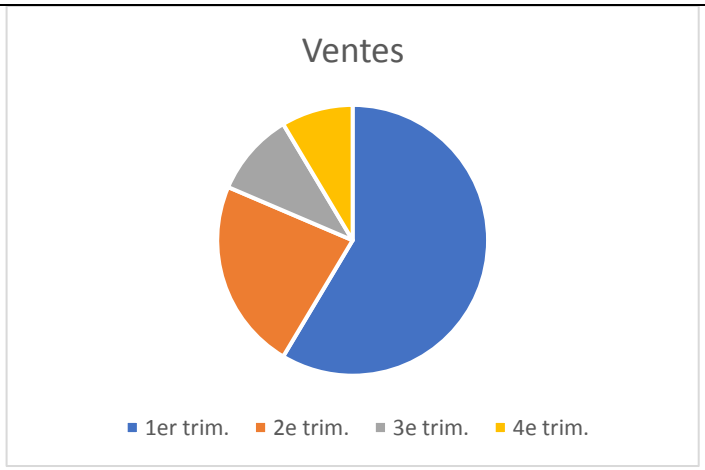
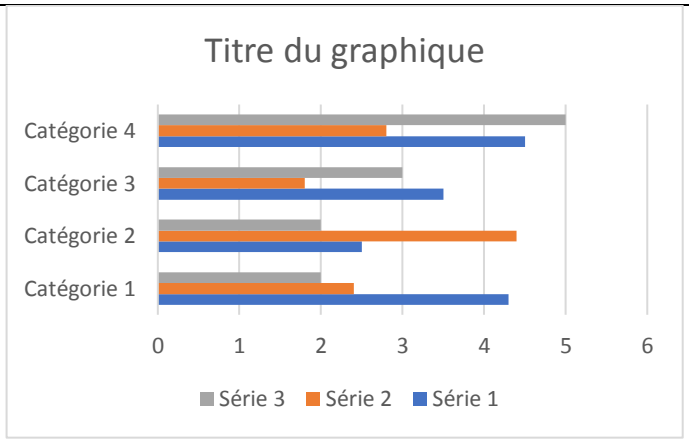
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
☐	☐	☐	☐

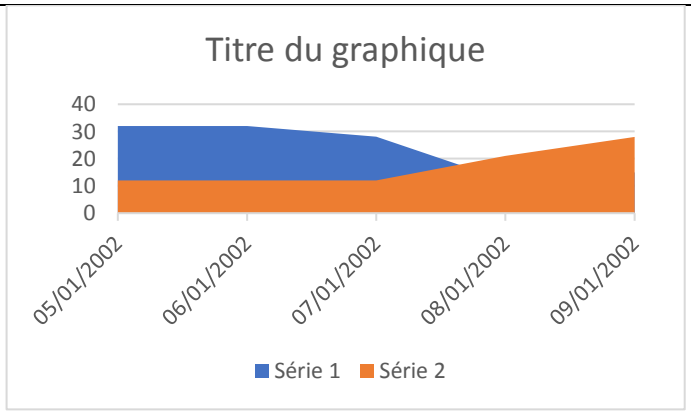
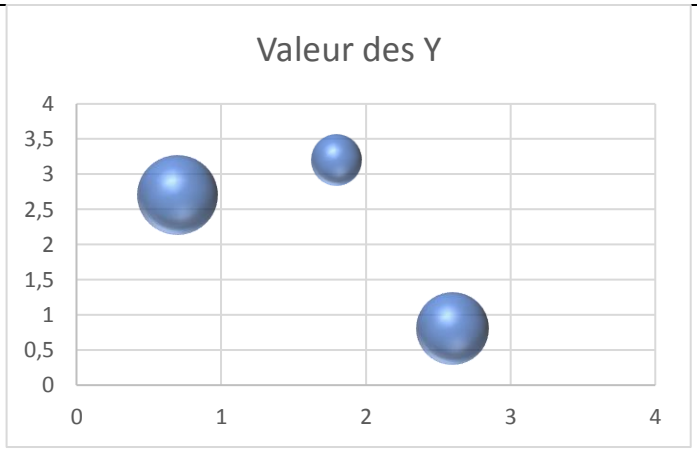
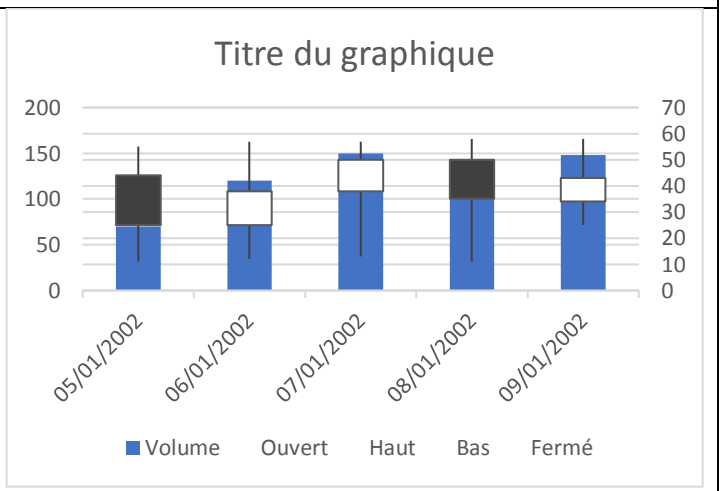
Answers will show a certain variability

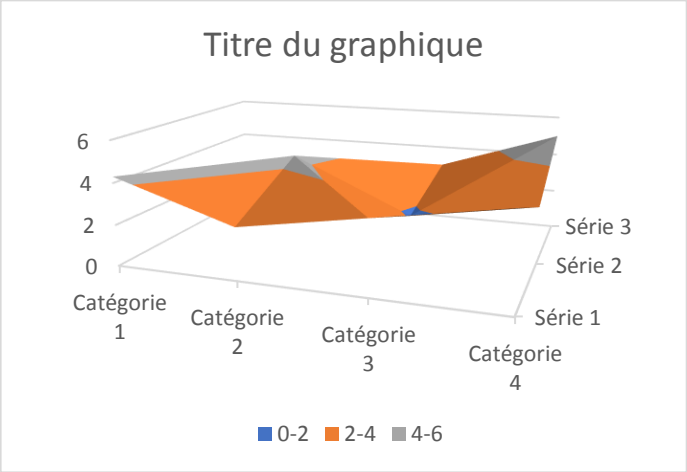
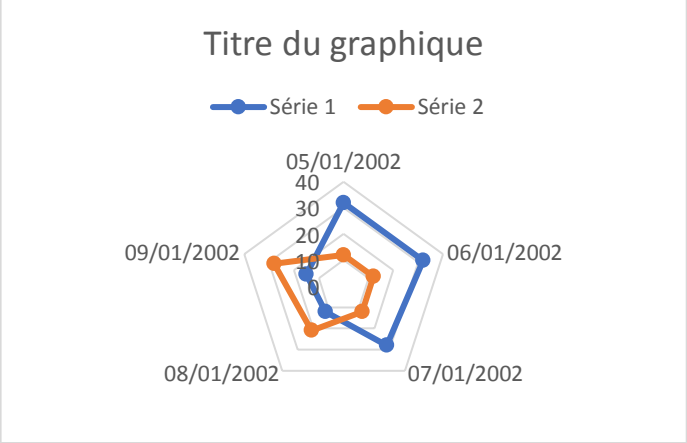
Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
15	☐	**20**	☐	**3**	☐	**0**	☐

The analysed data are often presented in tables, bar graphs and pie charts.

Numbers	15, 20, 3, 1…
Percentages	20% , 75% , 0.23% …
Equations	$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots , \quad -\infty < x < \infty$
Tables	<table><tr><td></td><td>Yes</td><td>No</td></tr><tr><td>Males</td><td>15</td><td>15</td></tr><tr><td>Females</td><td>26</td><td>4</td></tr><tr><td>Total</td><td>31</td><td>20</td></tr></table>
Histogramme	

Courbe	
Secteurs	
Bar-graph	

Aires	
Nuage de points	
Boursier (max-min cloture)	

Surface	
Radar	

Qualitative Data Analysis

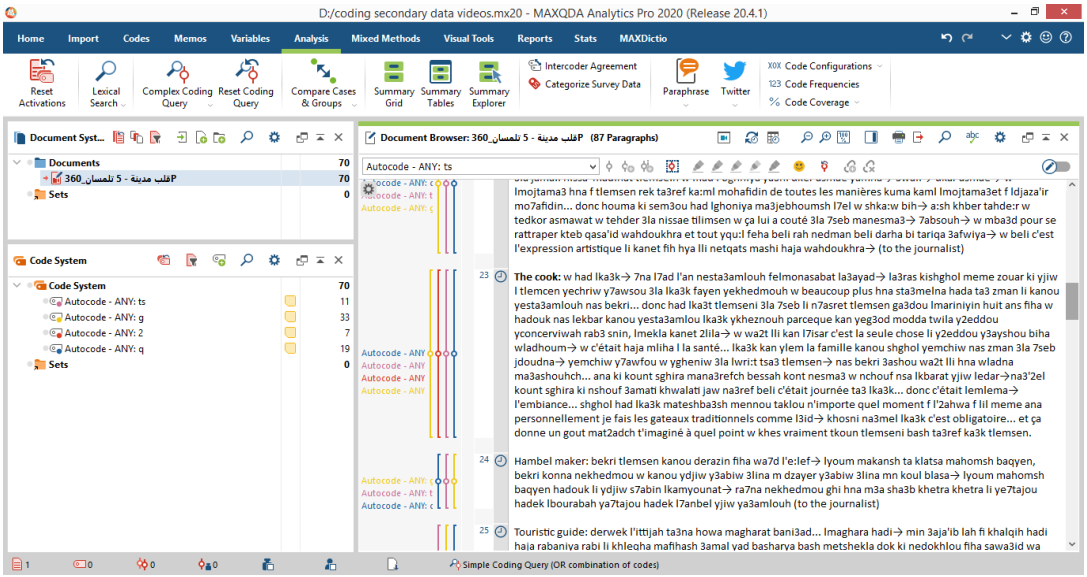
Qualitative data have also their way of being analysed; this occurs via qualitative data analysis. As said earlier, the qualitative data are obtained from open-ended questions wherein the responses are mainly differently changeable from one participant to another. Talking about attitudes, opinions, beliefs and experiences is certainly variable among participants.

The analysis of this type of data involves summarising the collected data and arranging them in a readable format which will make it easy for the researcher to be coded, thematised and therefore well described, explained and interpreted. Indeed, QLA relies heavily on eliciting codes (using symbols to organize similar answers as well as

the classification of data) and global themes combining the elaborated codes. The final step requires from the researcher to comment and explain on the findings.

Text	Code	Theme
OK, well, me first, before anything, I came here because of the poverty, do you understand me?	Poverty	Purpose for migration
And for a good quality of life, in my country not so much thinking about myself but about my smaller sisters so that they can have a better education considering that I did not have any	Family Life Better education	Purpose for migration/ family
and another reason was in my country there are no good jobs, and very little work.	Work	Purpose for migration

Excerpts from participants' speech can be transcribed and coded either traditionally (manually) or by the use of some softwares (e.g., the MAXQDA in the figure below) where frequencies of items are provided in order to obtain codes and therefore themes of the discussion, the conversation, the dialogue or any type of speech or response that is performed by the respondents.



The focus of qualitative research is on meanings behind the sayings and answers of the respondents or text (written or spoken) provided about different perspectives in different settings. The qualitative approach, according to Ravitch and Mittenfelner Carl (2015), is a paradigm that aids in analyzing how people perceive and experience their surroundings. So, any field that studies human behaviour, such as psychology, sociology, or any other, can benefit from using qualitative designs.

Lesson Plan

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Unit:3</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of the lecture: Writing a Thesis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Duration of the course: 1h 30min</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Pre-requisites: grasping all the previous lectures</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Objectives of the course:
What is a thesis/ dissertation
How to structure it</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Students’ thinking/ reflection skills (warming up/ Brainstorming):
Imagine yourself a master’s student asked to write a dissertation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Factual knowledge
(will know)
What a thesis is</td><td>Procedural knowledge
(will be able to)
How to write a thesis</td><td>Conceptual knowledge
(will understand)
The role of our lessons</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Course components:
Different parts of a thesis</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Differentiated practice
Elaborating each part of the lecture separately (e.g., abstract, general introduction…)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Assessment
Gathering all the parts together in order to form a dissertation</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Closing
Presenting the work</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Extensions
/</td></tr>
</table>

Writing a thesis

After knowing the different components of research and the methodological procedures in handling it correctly, now time for making things into practice is here. The extended essay, the dissertation, the thesis, the final project are all terms that we hear at the end of the year from our students. They all refer to the product of the candidate after tackling their research.

According to Kothari (2004, p.349), this product should follow "a comprehensive layout of the research report" including:

- **preliminary pages:** the front page, acknowledgements, abstract, table of contents, list of tables and figures
- **the main text:** the general introduction, the main chapters and the general conclusion.
- **the end matter:** the list of references, bibliography, webliography, and the appendices.

A concrete exemplification is given in the coming section.

Your Master's Dissertation Template

Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Abou Bakr Belkaid University- Tlemcen

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

Dissertation Title

Dissertation submitted to the Department of English as a partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in

PRESENTED BY: **SUPERVISED BY:**

Ms/Mr. …… **Dr/Prof. ……**

BOARD OF EXAMINERS

Mr.	**Prof**	**Chairperson**	**University of Tlemcen**
Mr.	**MCA**	**Supervisor**	**University of Tlemcen**
Ms.	**MCB**	**Co-supervisor**	**University of Tlemcen**
Ms.	**MAA**	**Examiner**	**University of Tlemcen**

Academic Year: 2020/2021

Commenté [H1]: This is the first page that should appear in the front of the research work; that's why it is called the 'front cover page' or 'title page'. It is not numbered.

Commenté [H2]: This is the front cover page of your work. Therefore, important details should be mentioned including: university and department affiliation, project title, candidate's name, advisor's name as well as names of the teachers taking part in the evaluation of the work (examiners). Examiners are divided into 'chairperson' who is usually the president of the viva and one examiner who is a teacher of the same specialty (as the topic of research).

Commenté [H3]: The candidate should mention their field of study. For example, Language Sciences, Literature and Civilization, Didactics and English Language Assessment, and so forth.

Commenté [H4]: These abbreviations refer to the title of each member.
Prof. is an abbreviation for Professor
MCA. Is an abbreviation for Maître de Conférences/ Associate Professor (A)
MCB. is an abbreviation for Maître de Conférences/ Lecturer (B)
MAA. is an abbreviation for Maître Assistant/ Assistant Lecturer (A)

In order to fill in this column, the candidate needs to ask their supervisor who is supposed to have more knowledge about the ranking of university teachers.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this dissertation entitled "..... " is my own work. It contains no material that has been previously submitted, accepted or published, in whole or in part, for the qualification of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution. Except when otherwise indicated or cited, I certify that the present work contains no plagiarism and is the result of my own investigation.

Name of the candidate

Mis/ Mrs/ Mr …….

Date: ……/ ……/ ……..

Signature:

Commenté [H5]: Declaration of originality, also called Statement of Originality, is a text where the candidate has to highlight that the work is theirs. It should appear directly after the front page. It should include a personal declaration "I declare" that the project/research is a personal work that has not appeared in any other shapes as being submitted to a journal, accepted for publication, or even published online (as a complete or partial version). In addition, the student has to mention that the work is original, written by them and not plagiarized or taken from any other source except their own investigation.

Commenté [H6]: This text is an illustrative example that can be taken as a reference. Yet, it can appear in other forms (using other words and statements). What is important is to declare that the work is the result of the researcher's own efforts.

Commenté [H7]: It is the signature of the candidate that is meant to be here.

Commenté [H8]: This page carries the roman number (ii) because a reprinting of the title page normally carries the roman number (i)

DEDICATION

Commenté [H9]: Dedication is an optional title. It is a simple and short statement that the candidate mentions as an honor to one or some people to whom s/he want to dedicate the work (not to thank them).

To my mother

Commenté [H10]: The statement generally starts with 'to…'
The students have to cite a few number of people (not all their family members, friends, acquaintances since they are not doing a radio-dedication).

iii

Commenté [H12]: Dedication, if mentioned, takes the roman number (iii). If it isn't mentioned, the number automatically goas to the next title and appears on the next page.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor Dr.....who has always been a source of help and guidance along the journey of investigation.

I am also indebted to the examiners Dr. …… and Dr …… for the time they devoted to read and evaluate the work.

I share the credit of my work with my colleagues Mr ..... and Ms. …… whose comments on the work have been so enriching.

I owe my deepest gratitude to all the informants who have taken part in this research and provided the needed data for my research.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their understanding and endless support.

Commenté [H13]: Acknowledgements refer to any expression of gratitude to any person who has contributed to or helped in the realization of the research project.

Commenté [H14]: The supervisor is supposed to be the first one to be thanked in this section.

Commenté [H15]: It is also important to mention the members of the jury and thank them for the time devoted to read the work.

Commenté [H16]: The candidate can thank any other person who has contributed in the realization the work including: teachers, colleagues, mates, friends, participants, family members etc.

Commenté [H17]: Many thanking expressions can be used. What is given on this page is but some examples that can be of great help. Other acknowledgement phrases can be found on the internet in case the student is in need.

Commenté [H18]: It is also beneficial, as opposed to the dedication section, to mention the reason why the candidate is thankful to those people by highlighting their role or contribution in the work.

Commenté [H19]: This page should also be numbered with the roman number (iv).

ABSTRACT

This study is .....(field of research). It attempts at investigating the …….. (the problematics). In order to answer the research questions, two research methods have been implemented …….. (methods) . Data collection has been achieved through questionnaires …….. (tools). ……. distributed to …….. (number of respondents). After both qualitative and quantitative ……. (data analysis), results reveal that ……. (summary of findings). Therefore, ...(conclusions achieved).

Commenté [H20]: The abstract is one paragraph that summarizes the most important elements of the research work.

Commenté [H21]: The paragraph starts directly after the heading.
No indentation is required.
It includes a limited number of words that rages between 150 to 350 words.

Commenté [H22]: The field of research refers to the area of work that the current project will contribute to.

Commenté [H23]: The problematics refers to the issue that is supposed to be solved throughout the investigation (what will be developed in details as research questions in later procedures).

Commenté [H24]: The student should mention the methods that have been implemented in their investigation.

Commenté [H25]: Tools, techniques, and instruments are also welcomed to be stated at this level (briefly and concisely)

Commenté [H26]: The number of respondents/ participants/ subjects should also be revealed with the most relevant variables that are related to the research questions/ explanation of results. In the abstract, numbers are to be typed in digits (not words).

Commenté [H27]: Main findings and conclusions should be highlighted at the end of the paragraph so as to give an overview of the objectives and contributions of the study.

Commenté [H28]: The abstract page also takes a roman number (v).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Commenté [H29]: Two numbers should be included: the first refers to the number of the chapter wherein the table appears; the second refers to the number of the table according to its order within the chapter among others.

Commenté [H30]: Even if it might seem odd for students, it is completely fine and compulsory to mention the page where the table appears. They should be mentioned in their order.

LIST OF FIGURES

Commenté [H31]: The concept figure is an umbrella term that covers many items as: charts, pie charts, graphs, bar graphs, diagrams, shapes, etc. Therefore, if the student implements any kind of graphs, it is preferable to mention its name as a 'figure'

Commenté [H32]: Two numbers should be included: the first refers to the number of the chapter wherein the figure appears; the second refers to the number of the figure according to its order within the chapter among others.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Commenté [H33]: This title can also appear as "key to abbreviations"

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

UG: Universal Grammar

Commenté [H34]: It is important not to overload the work with abbreviations especially those that are 'invented' by the writer. It is appreciated if the candidate uses the common abbreviations or those that are well-known to the community of readers.

Commenté [H35]: Before using the abbreviation along the text, it is compulsory to mention the phrase as a whole at least once. Then mention how that phrase is going to be abbreviated over the text (for example, Universal Grammar, henceforth UG).

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Commenté [H36]: The general introduction is the door for any research project. The topic of research should be mentioned as well as the problematics and the importance of the investigation.

Presenting the frame of research

Research problematics

Objectives of research

Research questions and hypotheses

Research design and methodology

Organization of chapters

Details on shaping the abstract

The abstract is the summative mirror of any written piece of research. For this reason, it should give a sufficient image of the whole research work. In fact, the abstract, as placed at the beginning of the thesis/ dissertation/ article, it should summarize all the important points tackled within the whole research. In this manner, it will enable the reader to comprehend what all the research is about. Generally speaking, the abstract involves some important aspects including:

1. What the study is about: this aspect must be found in any piece of research. It highlights the main topic of the study. By reading the two first sentences in the abstract, the reader will be able to find out to which field this study is categorized and which precise topic is particularly discussed. The author should not only introduce the topic but also the problematic that is faced within the broader field of study.

2. The purpose and objectives of the study: after introducing the field of research and the precise topic, it is of great importance to mention the purpose behind the study (be it an investigation, an experiment, or a theoretical reconsideration). Objectives will guide the reader to know to which precise angle the study is directed, in which way it is different from other research works, and in which way the author contributed to the whole field of research.

3. The methodology: reflects the way the research work has been tackled. It includes sampling (informants/ participants/ respondents), sources of data collection, and methods. The sample of research should be mentioned including their number, gender, from where they were chosen and any other different variables of selection. Additionally, the methods are to be highlighted by stating which method has been followed e.g., comparative method, survey method, experimental method, case study method, etc. More to the point, the instruments of data collection have to be shown. That is, the author has to state whether s/he has used a questionnaire, an interview, observations, or any other tool for primary data gathering.

4. Basic results: after dealing with all what is related to the building and structuring of the study, it is of crucial importance to show the findings and results of the research as a whole. In this way, the reader will know the final product of the piece at hand, whether the hypotheses are confirmed or not, and whether there is an original contribution to field through the results or not.

Let us consider the following abstract that is extracted from a thesis submitted by Hammoudi & Obeidat (2019) under the title: Men as leaders of Linguistic Change: Case of Tlemcen Speech Community. The information given within the abstract can be summarized in the table bellow which includes the most important ideas that must be discussed in an abstract of a given research paper.

> *Gender as a social variable has played a major role in the explanation of linguistic variation (Fischer 1958; Trudgill 1974; Macaulay 1977-1978; Milroy & Milroy 1985- 1992; Eckert 1991; Swaie 1994; Habib 2005, 2010; Dendane 2013). Most of Arabic data on gender distinction through language, like many other western studies, result in the fact that ``women adapt to prevailing prestigious forms more than men`` (Dittmar, 1976: 237) and that they initiate and are the leaders of linguistic change (Labov 2001; Eckert & McConnell-Ginet 2003). However, this generalization is not to be applicable along the Arab world for there can be some exceptions as is the case of Tlemcen speech community where males depart from social norms and are leaders of dialectal change towards the rural whereas females keep being conservative to the old-fashioned-urban native dialect though it is stigmatized. For the purpose of this study, a convenient sample of 122 informants aged between 5 and 85 years old of the two sexes living, studying, or working in Tlemcen City was selected and a triangulation of methods has been opted for to collect primary data. Our findings prove that Tlemcenian males (from adolescence on) initiate regional dialect change by adopting and accommodating to the supralocal rural vernacular characterized mainly by the studied variant [g] after shifting from and stigmatizing their local urban [ʔ].*

Essentials	**Content from the example**
What the study is about	**General idea:** linguistic variation and change in relation to gender
The purpose and objectives of the study	*this generalization* (that females are always leaders of linguistic change) *is not to be applicable along the Arab world for there can be some exceptions as is the case of Tlemcen speech community where males depart from*

	social norms and are leaders of dialectal change towards the rural whereas females keep being conservative to the old-fashioned-urban native dialect though it is stigmatized.
The methodology	*a convenient sample of 122 informants aged between 5 and 85 years old of the two sexes living, studying, or working in Tlemcen City was selected and a triangulation of methods has been opted for to collect primary data*
Basic results	*Our findings prove that Tlemcenian males (from adolescence on) initiate regional dialect change by adopting and accommodating to the supralocal rural vernacular characterized mainly by the studied variant [g] after shifting from and stigmatizing their local urban [ʔ].*

Table: analysis of an example abstract

As can be seen, this abstract has mentioned the needed information for a global understanding of the paper as a whole. This is to advocate the fact that through covering the basic points of the abstract, the reader will make sure whether the whole piece of research is worthy of reading or not, whether it is of interest or not, and whether it can be used as a reference for his/her own research or not.

Details on writing the general introduction

A common mistake that we generally commit in the process of writing our dissertation is to start with the introduction. However, a better way of constructing a correct work is to keep the introduction as a final step after dealing with the whole research. One might wonder why exactly this time. Actually, the only purpose behind it is that the introduction is about giving a preview about the whole research work.

As its name implies, the introduction deals with preluding the research work. It covers defining the topic of investigation and clarifying the reason why it is important to be

studied. It places the research in relation to a given theory that being under consideration. It also initiates the research questions, hypotheses and possible predictions made. What is more interesting is to clarify the direction of the study and its basic concepts being considered.

Sometimes, it is beneficial to give some hints to the literature. The aim is not of giving deeper consideration of what has been stated in previous studies (what is known as Review of Related Literature), but rather "a literature review within the introduction of a study is a highly orchestrated, logical argument consisting of a number of propositional statements to provide the reasoning behind the study" (Fred &Perry, 2011: 45). It is fine to mention what others have said in the same topic as yours so that to know where to place the hypotheses first and then to know how the current study is going to contribute to the literature.

1) Introducing the general topic
2) Clarify the considered theory
3) Place the current study in the literature
4) Show the difference through the questions and hypotheses

PART ONE (of the dissertation or the thesis)

This is a purely theoretical part. it should be divided into two distinct broad titles including theoretical consideration as well as review of literature

Introduction:

what will be discussed in this part.

For example, "this part is purely theoretical. It aims at defining the general concepts that are so important and relevant to the field of research. Additionally, we try to shed some light on the previous studies done on similar topic. For this reason, it is divided into two separate sections. The first ..... the second ..... the aim from that is to ....."

Theoretical Background:

The researcher should explain key concepts under which the research is built. Those definitions will help both the researcher and the reader to understand the basics of the study, i.e., there would be no ambiguity as far as the use of terms and concepts is concerned. The researcher will use the concepts defined in the theoretical background easily and in a frequent manner without being obliged to define or clarify them while analysing or discussing the ideas. Similarly, the reader will be able to understand what the main idea of the work is and in case they face those concepts within the work, they find no difficulty in understanding.

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Writing as a skill

1.2.1 Definition

1.2.2 Types

1.3 Vocabulary

1.3.1 Types

1.4 EFL Learning

Review of Related Literature:

The results of previous works done on a similar topic as the researcher's. This section should also include a kind of comparison between past research in the literature so that to find similarities, differences and therefore to place the research topic within the global frame in the field of study.

1.1. History of research into writing

1.2. An overview of research in L1 writing

1.2.1 Difficulties

1.2.2 Challenges

1.3. Methods of teaching the writing skill

Conclusion

synthesizes what has been said.

PART TWO

it is purely practical

Introduction

what is included in this part as main elements.

For example, you can say "this part is all about the methods used and steps followed by the researcher in order to collect data... the results are analysed and discussed... the findings will be placed in the general conclusion..."

Sample:

It includes a detailed explanation on the group of people selected to test one's hypotheses. The researcher should give the profile of the sample including the different variables that participated in the selection of this number of participants. Aspects like age, gender, residence, educational background, etc. should all appear within this title.

Research design and instruments:

The researcher should specify whether the study is an experiment, a survey, or a case study with a scientific justification of "why" he/ she has chosen this research method. Moreover, the researcher should mention all the research tools and instruments that s/he has employed including questionnaires, interviews, observations, tests, etc. If a software is used, it must be mentioned with its name/ site/ how it was used and all related information.

Data collection procedures:

The research should provide a good descriptive account of the different steps that s/he has followed while investigation.

For example, “I have used a binary or a triangulation of tools because... I have distributed the questionnaire to... with the help of a friend... in the department of... and then used observation... after asking the teacher's consent... I have prepared the check list or the interview questions... etc.”

Results analysis:

After collecting all the needed data, the researcher has to analyse it either qualitatively or quantitatively. While the latter is all about numbers and frequencies, the former involves reporting a detailed description of the respondents' answers. Put in simpler words, the data that take quantitative analysis are yes/ no questions and multiple-choice questions. At this level, the researcher has to count the number of similar answers and categorize them in statistical models. While reporting the results, the researcher can support the analysis by the use of tables, diagrams and charts. They may give better idea about the results. On the other hand, the data that need to be qualitatively analysed are related to WH-questions or open-ended questions that ask about opinions, attitudes, or suggestions. The analysis should appear in paragraphs and simple narrative descriptions which cannot be summarised or reported in numbers.

One of the noticeable remarks was not only the coexistence of the glottal stop and [g] but also the articulation of [q] in some instances. These examples provided in Table 4.2. include words that are generally directly borrowed from Standard Arabic.

Table 4.2. Examples where [q] is pronounced in Jordanian dialect

Occurrence in the word	Example	Gloss
Initial position	qa:ʔima	List
Middle position	taqa:li:d	traditions
Final position	ʃuru:q	

Yes/No questions can be easily summarized in **tables** as well as in **figures**. Titles of tables appear **above**, titles of figures appear **bellow**. Their numbering should also appear in the **text** that is supposed to **translate** the numbers and statistics included. These illustrations cannot stand alone.

- **The observation results**

Since they were indirectly observed and firstly asked about an irrelevant topic related to the traditions of Jordan then asked about what variety they speak, the participants were observed to speak the varieties shown in the Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3. The speech of the observed (and recorded) participants

Origins/ ancestry	Gender	Rural	Urban
Jordanian	Males	6	0
	Females	9	1
Palestinian	Males	4	5
	Females	1	10

Table 4.3 has been filled according to the data obtained in the observation process that was followed by an informal interview with the same participants. Hence, we notice that Jordanian speakers of both genders tend to use the rural variety with the

The following bar graph (Figure 4.3) explains the degree of the speakers' ability and readiness to switch from the Bedouin to the urban dialects. Interestingly, females show higher rate of readiness to shift from their home native speech, 100% of both J and P females show readiness to use the urban vernacular. They assert that it is not a difficult task to include the glottal stop in one's speech; it only feels shameful and embarrassing with the close family members. On the other hand, males claim that they feel no necessity to change their dialect (though they have the ability to switch) with a difference in the use of the glottal stop where M.P use it more than M.J.

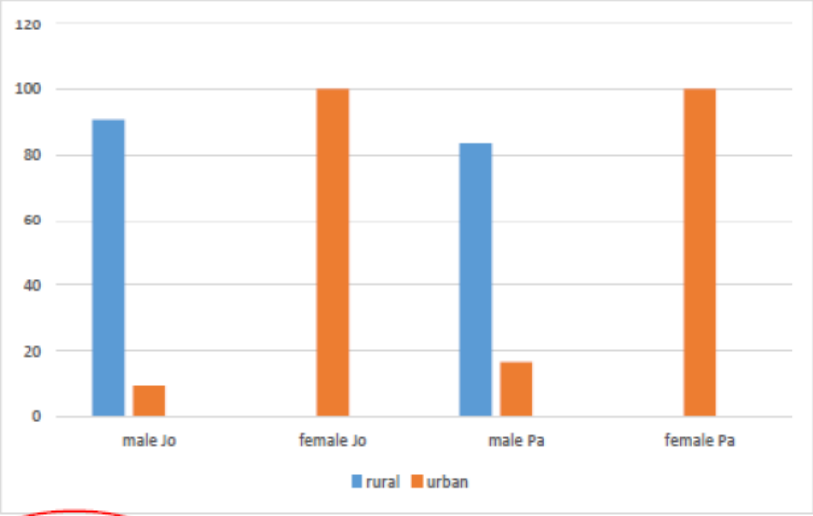


*Figure 4.3.*Subjects' readiness of shifting

After that, the analysis and interpretation of results should not only include answers of the questions included within questionnaires or interviews or any other research instrument. Rather, it should closely follow the research questions and hypotheses. That is, the researcher should state the findings directly related and relevant to the objectives of research. The researcher might wonder about the titles that should be included within this section. In fact, there is no standard way of structuring this area. For example, if the researcher has used a triangulation od methods, it will be adequate to structure the titles

as follows: Yes/No questions can be easily summarized in tables as well as in figures. Titles of tables appear above, titles of figures appear bellow. Their numbering should also appear in the text that is supposed to translate the numbers and statistics included. These illustrations cannot stand alone.

- **Results of the questionnaire**
- **Results of the observation**
- **Results of the interview**

Those headings can include subtitles. To facilitate the choice of the title, it is beneficial to either write "Answers to the 1st question: ..... (write the question as it appears in the questionnaire)" or, reformulate the interrogative form to a declarative statement which constructs a good title.

This is a **qualitative** interpretation of an open-ended question (Q. Why do you switch from your home variety to another one?) . The title is not put in an interrogative form but rather it is reformulated to the reasons behind linguistic switching. The answers are qualitatively summarised by the researcher (in points and paragraphs)

4.2.2. The reasons behind linguistic switching

After the observations done as well as the responses supplied by the informants, the researcher attempts to put forward a certain classification for the reasons that lead participants to switch towards the urban variety. These are divided into social as well as psychological factors.

A: social factors

Feminity vs. Masculinity: this dichotomy was the first one to be mentioned by most of the informants. Most, if not all, claim that the glottal stop is generally associate with the feminine behavior. Males ought to speak in the rural variety because it is tougher and reflects masculinity. Girls, originally Bedouin or fallahi, switch in many context to the urban variety as it is more girly and soft. Men, even if they are Madani Palestinian, tend also to switch to use [g] just to feel masculine.

Education, schools and new generations: this was one of the most vital points mentioned especially by elderly and old people and was also proved by the results observed in the pupils' behavior. The former, i.e., old people who are grandparents, claim that they use the urban variety with their little kids and grandsons. The reason

Discussion:

In fact, discussion of the findings is the most important step of the work because the researcher will have to provide his/ her contribution to the field of research. There must be a scientific explanation of the findings. At this level, the researcher should state where his/ her study is different from the others found in the literature. The discussion should be directly related to the research question placed at the beginning of the study.

The discussion of results is a global translation of all the numbers described earlier. The researcher doesn't have to restate the numbers but rather what can be induced and concluded/ generalized from those numbers. One can also refer to previous studies and compare between what has been theoretically said and what is practically shown by the findings at hand.

5.2.1. The nature of accommodation

Trudgill (1989) claims that "speakers accommodate to each other linguistically by reducing dissimilarities between their speech patterns and adopting features from each other's speech" (p. 39). Following this statement, our participants tend to adopt features of other dialects regarding the use or nonuse of the glottal stop. After certain quantitative and qualitative analyses, we came to the conclusion that both social and psychological factors are reasons for the type of accommodation that is taking place (furtherly discussed). The direction of accommodation followed by Amman inhabitants shows that most of the participants especially females tend to switch to and adopt the urban variety characterized by the use of [ʔ] as a variant. In other words, younger female participants shift from their native rural variant [g] to the urban [ʔ]. On the other hand, male speakers attempt to keep using the native Jordanian variant [g] in almost all conversational situations. Females- originally

Conclusion

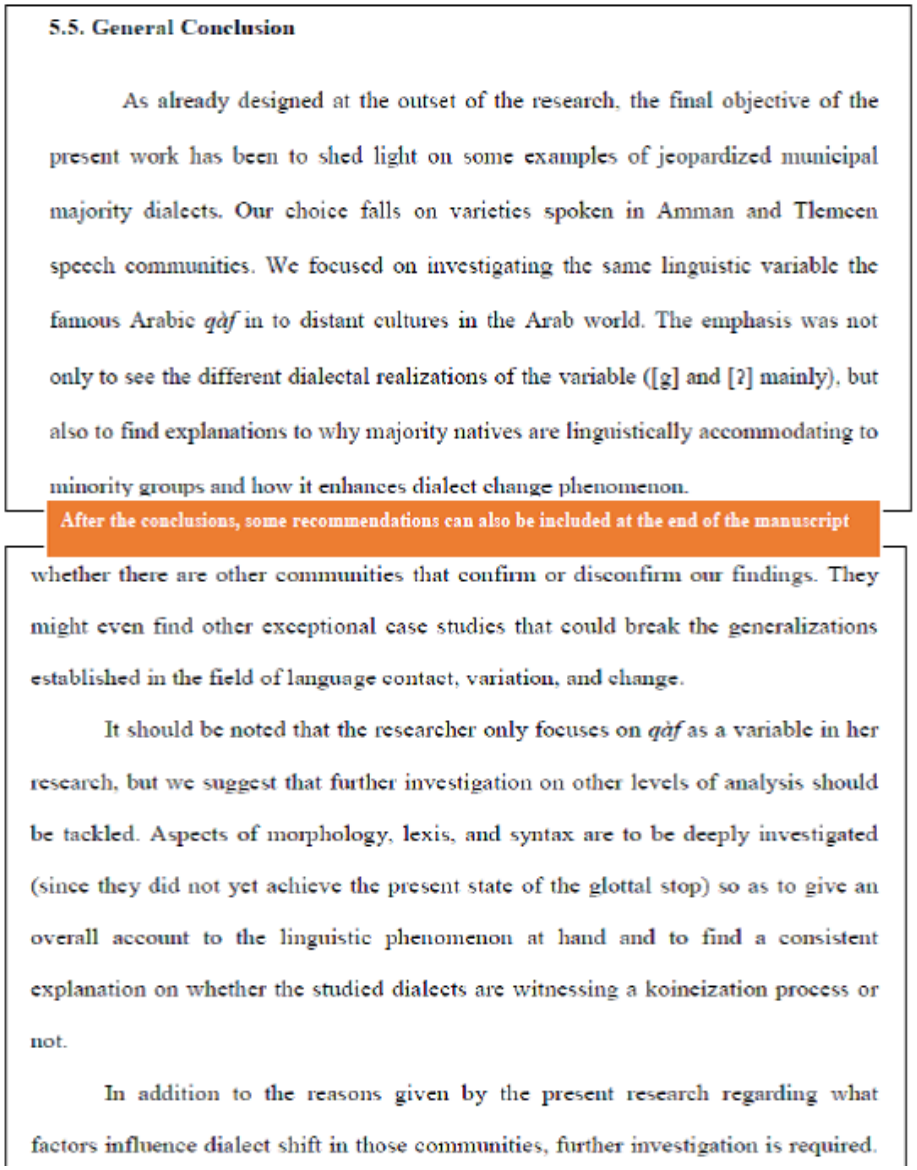
is not necessarily a summary but rather an answer to what has been stated before in the introduction of this part only (not the whole work).

PART THREE

The confirmation or disconfirmation of the already established hypotheses should appear in relation to the findings. Besides, these results can pave the way for recommendations to future research, i.e., propositions to begin new research.

General Conclusion:

The conclusion is the last part of the work. The researcher has to provide a summary of all the necessary information that he/she has found after the investigation and analysis. It should restate the research problematic, questions, hypotheses, and what has been tackled in the other parts of the work. The confirmation or disconfirmation of the already established hypotheses should appear in relation to the findings. Besides, these results can pave the way for recommendations to future research, i.e., propositions to begin new research.



5.5. General Conclusion

As already designed at the outset of the research, the final objective of the present work has been to shed light on some examples of jeopardized municipal majority dialects. Our choice falls on varieties spoken in Amman and Tlemcen speech communities. We focused on investigating the same linguistic variable the famous Arabic *qàf* in to distant cultures in the Arab world. The emphasis was not only to see the different dialectal realizations of the variable ([g] and [ʔ] mainly), but also to find explanations to why majority natives are linguistically accommodating to minority groups and how it enhances dialect change phenomenon.

After the conclusions, some recommendations can also be included at the end of the manuscript

whether there are other communities that confirm or disconfirm our findings. They might even find other exceptional case studies that could break the generalizations established in the field of language contact, variation, and change.

It should be noted that the researcher only focuses on *qàf* as a variable in her research, but we suggest that further investigation on other levels of analysis should be tackled. Aspects of morphology, lexis, and syntax are to be deeply investigated (since they did not yet achieve the present state of the glottal stop) so as to give an overall account to the linguistic phenomenon at hand and to find a consistent explanation on whether the studied dialects are witnessing a koineization process or not.

In addition to the reasons given by the present research regarding what factors influence dialect shift in those communities, further investigation is required.

References:

The list of references should include all the books, articles, journals, dissertations, or any other reference that has been used during research.

Book, edition is stated	↓ author ↓ year published ↓ book edition ↓ publisher McWhorter, K. (2010). *Academic reading* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Longman. ↑ book title ↑ place published
Journal article	↓ author ↓ year published ↓ article title ↓ journal name ↓ volu Perrey, S. (2017). Do we perform better when we increase red blood cells? *The Lancet Haematology, 17,* 23. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2352-3026(17)30123-0 ↑ DOI
Chapter in an edited book	↓ chapter authors ↓ year published ↓ chapter title ↓ book editors ↓ book title Smith, F. M., & Jones, W. (2004). The college student. In C. Wood, & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Cross-cultural edu* (pp. 75-105). London, Canada: MacMillan. ↑ chapter page range ↑ place published ↑ publisher
Webpage on website	↓ author ↓ year published ↓ webpage title ↓ date you viewed the webpage Sah, P. (2018). Study habits for success: Tips for students. Retrieved August 23, 2018, from http://theconversation.com/study-habits-for-success-tips-for-students-89147 ↑ URL for the webpage

Appendices:

This space must include all the material used in data collection especially the instruments. They should be numbered as appendix A, appendix B, and so on. If they were written in Arabic, there must be a translated copy of the questionnaire or any other material used. Additionally, if some transcribed items are included within the written text, you can make reference to the whole speech in the appendix (for example, speech of participants; generally, it is used when the topic is about phonetic issues).

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