**COLLEGE: CSS**

**DEPARTMENT: ENGLISH**

**COURSE: SEMINAR**

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**INTRODUCTION**

As far as I know, there is no supplementary material or module in our department to teach Seminar on Selected Topics (EnLa3112) course. Regarding the mode of delivery, this course is a block course. Therefore, trying to give this course bare hand might create unnecessary burden up on the teacher and the students as well. Furthermore, it would be hard for teachers to have successful daily lesson plans in the absence of reference material. It’s for this reason that I tried to compile this handout at least to minimize such burden. Students and teachers will focus on the delivery of the course instead of wasting time in search of related materials which are significant to cover contents available in the course guide book.

Basically, in line with the course guide book, this handout encompassed quite important topics like definition of research, steps in writing research report, writing research proposal, reviewing articles academic materials presentation and other related issues.

It is expected that DELL students need to develop research skills as well as academic material presentation skills. This would in turn help them to produce the thesis which is required to fulfill their first degree. This handout then would subsidize the skills necessary to present the academic materials after the accomplishment of the research report writing.

On top of this, one can find this handout important to continuously assess students’ knowledge in relation to the aforementioned topics available throughout the course. It is therefore prepared in line with English harmonized curriculum particularly Seminar on Selected Topics (EnLa3112) course. Hence, it serves as a resource for the teachers in delivering and the learners in taking this course respectively.

This handout is compiled from different sources taking in to account the organization and sequence of topics in Seminar on Selected Topics (EnLa3112) course guide book. In doing so, to make the topics parallel to the course, I tried to read thoroughly and select the contents from the sources I have already visited. In addition, due attention has been given to evaluate the content, difficulty level and relevance of each topic for the learners. Some examples and cumulative exercises are also incorporated in the handout to help learners conceptualize key issues and do self-assessment.

I can’t deduce that this handout is complete by itself, but undoubtedly students and teachers can use it as a quick reference for the course. It is also expected from teachers and students to further their knowledge through searching for other related materials beyond this handout.

In a nut shell, this hand out can then be overgrown to module for Seminar on Selected Topics (EnLa3112) course in the future if other colleagues collaboratively commit to do so.

**Sewalem M.**

**UNITONE: ANOVERVIEWONTHENATURE ANDCHARACTERISTICS**

**OF RESEARCH**

* 1. **DEFINITION OF RESEARCH**

The term research has different definitions by different scholars. Let us start with the origin of the term ‘**research**’. Research consists of two component parts: Research=Re + Search. ‘Re’ means again and again and ‘search’ means to find out something.

**\*The process of research can be shown as follows.**

Observing the phenomena again and again…Collecting data…..Analysing the data…Drawing conclusion. Therefore, research means to observe the phenomena again and again from different dimensions.For example, there are many theories of learning due to the observation from different dimensions. It is a process of which a person observes the phenomena again and again and collects the data and on the basis of data he/she draws some conclusions.

**It is also good to see other definitions of the term research.**

Research is oriented towards the discovery of relationship that exists among phenomena of the world in which we live. The fundamental assumption is that invariant relationship exists between certain antecedents and certain consequents so that under a specific set of conditions a certain consequents can be expected to follow the introduction of a given antecedent.

Research can also literally mean ‘to investigate thoroughly’. It refers to a systematic process of inquiry through scientific methods to discover, interpret, revise facts about a given subject or a problem and thereby create a new body of knowledge.

**Actually research is simply the process of arriving at dependable *solution to a problem* through *the planned* and *systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data*.** Research is the most important process for advancing knowledge, for promoting progress and to enable man to relate more effectively to his environment to accomplish his purpose and to resolve his conflicts.

**1.2. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH**

\*Though various educators define ‘research’ in their own perspectives using various wordings, it has the following characteristics:

* is directed toward the solution of a problem;
* is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence;
* demands accurate observation and description;
* involves gathering new data from primary or first-hand sources or using existing data for a new purpose;
* is characterized by carefully designed procedures, always applying rigorous analysis. However, it is sometimes somewhat random and unsystematic;
* requires expertise;
* is characterized by patient and unhurried activity;
* is carefully recorded and reported;
* sometimes requires courage;
* emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles, or theories that will be helpful in predicting future occurrences; and
* strives to be objective and logical, applying every possible test to validate the procedures employed, the data collected, and the conclusion reached.

**1.3.CLASSIFICATION OF RESEARCH**

In actual practice, research is conducted at different levels and for different purposes. The level at which a person operates in the field depends on the objectives he/she intends to accomplish.Research can be classified in many different ways on the basis of the methodology of research, the knowledge it creates, the user group, the research problem it investigates and so on.

**1.3.1.BASIC, APPLIED, AND EVALUATIVE RESEARCH**

Research is divided as *basic* (which is also called pure or fundamental research), *applied* research, and *evaluation* research based on **the objectives** of the research.

**1.3.1.1.Basic Research**

Basic research is designed to add an organized body of scientific knowledge and does not necessarily produce results of immediate practical value.The research which is done for knowledge enhancement, which does not have immediate commercial potential is said to be **basic research**. It is called basic, pure, or fundamental research. The main motivation is to expand man's knowledge, not to create or invent something new.

**1.3.1.2. Applied Research**

Applied research is undertaken to ***solve an immediate* practical problem** and the goal of adding to scientific knowledge is secondary. Action research is also one part of applied research. It is done to take measures (actions) on the problems encountered in one’s daily routines. For example, a teacher may do an action research on low performance of female students in English subject. The teacher will do the research and take actions to improve the problems those students encountered.

Applied research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge’s sake. The goal of applied research is to improve the human condition. It focuses on analysis and solving social and real life problems. This research is generally conducted on large scale basis, so it is expensive. As such, it often conducted with the support of some financing agency like government, public corporation, World Bank, UNICEF, and other funding agencies.

Applied research is an investigation for ways of using scientific knowledge to solve practical problems such as improving agriculture crop production, treating or curing a specific disease, improving the energy efficiency of homes and offices, improving the communication among workers in large companies. A common mistake is to assume that these levels differ according to complexity and that basic research tends to be more complex than applied research. Some applied researches are quite complex and some basic researches are rather simple.

**1.3.1.3.Evaluation Research**

\*This research is conducted to measure **the effectiveness of programs, policies, and newly opened factories or any organizations**, which helps the concerned bodies to take actions if it is found to be ineffective.

The researcher may conduct an evaluation research:

* To see the impact of the organizations in the development of the organization or the environment , and the country
* To widen the practices of that organization to other similar organizations
* To see the type and extent of the problems encountered in the organization or in the new way of practising
* To see the workers’ working skills and moral
* To know the cost of operation
* To know the resources needed during implementation, and so on

In general, evaluation research is conducted to see the strengths and weaknesses of an organization and to see whether the organization is in the right way to achieve the intended goal or not.

\* There are three compelling reasons to conduct evaluative research.

1. The need to start new programs and to improve policies which are under practise
2. To identify the strengths and weaknesses what has been already practising, and the need to start new systems of doing in the organization.
3. To determine the weakness, quality and acceptance of the already achieved results of an organization

Based on the process of data collection and on the types of data, evaluative research can be divided into two:**formative and summative evaluation**. The former is used **to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of an organization and to give remedies while the organization is under operation**. So it is used to improve the performance of an organization while it is in the process, but not to decide about the continuity or termination of the program/ polices which is in the process of implementation (not to give judgements).However, the latter is used to evaluate the program, policy, and so on **after it has been completely implemented**. For example, a curriculum can be evaluated after it has been implemented for five years. This could help the concerned bodies to improve, continue or to terminate the program all together. It means, summative evaluation is used to give decisions on a program that has been practised for some time.

**A.** On the basis of approach, research can be divided into two.

**1. Longitudinal research:** Historical research, case study, genetic comes under longitudinal

approach of research.

**2. Cross sectional research:** Experimental research, survey are the examples of cross sectional

research

**B. On the basis of precision in research findings**

1. **Experimental research**- This is precise.

2. **Non-experimental research**-This is not precise as compared to the experimental one.Experimental research is precise while non-experimental is not.

C.On the basis of nature of findings, research is also divided into two

**1. Explanatory research:** Such researches are concerned with theories, laws and principles.

**2. Descriptive research:** These are more concerned with facts.

**1.3.2.QUANTITATIVE, QUALITATIVE AND MIXED RESEARCH**

On the basis of **the type of data and on the approach to analyze the collected data** research is also divided into **quantitative, qualitative and mixed research.**

**1.3.2.1.QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH**

This includes the true experiments and the less rigorous experiments called quasi-experiments and correlation studies, and specific single-subject experiments. This research is based on numeric figures or numbers. Quantitative researches aim to measure the quantity or amount and compare it with past records and tries to project for future period. In social sciences, “quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of quantitative properties and phenomena and their relationships”. The objective of quantitative research is to develop and employ mathematical models, theories or hypothesis pertaining to phenomena.

The process of measurement is central to quantitative research because it provides fundamental connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships. Statistics is the most widely used branch of mathematics in quantitative research. Statistical methods are used extensively with in fields such as economics and commerce.

Quantitative research involving the use of structured questions, where the response options have been pre-determined and large number of respondents is involved. For example, total sales of soap industry in terms of birr and/or quantity in terms of tones for particular year, say 2008 could be researched, compared with past 5 years and then projection for 2009 could be made.

**1.3.2.2.QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

Qualitative research presents non-quantitative type of analysis. **Qualitative research is collecting, analyzing and interpreting data by observing what people do and say**. Qualitative research refers to the meanings, definitions, characteristics, symbols, metaphors, and description of things. Qualitative research is much more **subjective** and uses very different methods of collecting information, mainly individual, in-depth interviews and focus groups.

Qualitative research method is used in the following types of settings or strategies:

**1.3.2.2.1Ethnographies**, in which the researcher studies an intact cultural group **in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time** by collecting, primarily, observational data. The research process is flexible and typically evolves contextually in response to the lived realties encountered in the field setting.

**1.3.2.2.2. Grounded theory**, in which the researcher attempts to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information. Two primary characteristics of this design are the constant comparison of data with emerging categories and theoretical sampling of different groups to maximize the similarities and the differences of information

**1.3.2.2.3. Case studies**, in which the researcher explores in depth a program, and event, and activity, a process, or one or more individuals. The case(s) are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.

**1.3.2.2.4. Phenomenological research**, in which the researcher identifies the "essence" of human experiences concerning a phenomenon, as described by participants in a study. Understanding the "lived experiences" marks phenomenology as a philosophy as well as a method, and the procedure involves studying a small number of subjects through extensive and prolonged engagement to develop patterns and relationships of meaning. In this process, the researcher "brackets" his or her own experiences in order to understand those of the participants in the study.

**1.3.2.2.5. Narrative research**, a form of inquiry in which the researcher studies the lives of individuals and asks one or more individuals to provide stories about their lives. This information is then retold by the researcher into a narrative chronology. In the end, the narrative combines views form the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative.

**1.3.2.3.MIXED METHODS APPROACH**

Mixed method is one in which the researcher tends to include knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds. It involves collecting or analyzing data using both forms of data (quantitative and qualitative) in a single study. Researchers have started to mix methods such as associated with field methods like observations and interviews (qualitative data) were combined with traditional surveys (quantitative data).

It involves strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problem. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information.

Recognizing that all methods have limitations, researchers felt that biases inherent in any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods. For triangulating data sources, a means for seeking convergence a cross qualitative and quantitative methods were born. From the original concept of triangulation emerged additional reasons for mixing different types of data.

The researchers base the inquiry on the assumption that collecting diverse types of data best provide on understanding of a research problem. The study may begin with a broad quantitative survey in order to generalize results to a population (data obtained from sources which can be quantified as in closed-ended questionnaire ) and then focuses, in a second phase, on detailed qualitative data(for example, data from open-ended questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, observations) to collect detailed views from participants.

**1.4.IDENTIFYING A RESEARCH PROBLEM/TOPIC/**

The identification and analysing a research problem is the first and most crucial step of research process. A problem cannot be solved effectively unless a researcher possesses the intellect and insight to isolate and understand the specific factors giving rise to the difficulty.

The present research scholars understand that identification of a problem means to select a topic of a research or statement of the problem. It is wrong to think this way. A topic or statement of the problem and research problem are not synonymous but they are inclusive. The problem concerns with the functioning of the broader area of field studied whereas a topic or title or statement of the problem is the verbal statement of the problem. The topic is the definition of the problem which delimits or pin points the task of a researcher.

It is the usual practice of the researches that they select the topic of the study from different sources especially from research abstracts. They do not identify the problem, but a problem is made on the basis of the topic. It results that the researcher has no involvement in his research activities. Whatever they do, do mechanically.

Since identifying the exact nature and dimensions of a problem is of major importance in research work, it is very essential that an investigator should learn how to recognize and define a problem. He should proceed step by step in locating the research problem. The following steps are to be followed in identifying a research problem:

* 1. Determining the field of research in which a researcher is keen to do the research work.
  2. The researcher should develop the mastery on the area or it should be the field of his/her specialization.
  3. He/she should review the research conducted in area to know the recent trend and studies in the area.
  4. On the basis of review, he/she should consider the priority field of the study.
  5. He/she should draw an analogy and insight in identifying a problem or employ his/her personal experience of the field in locating the problem. He/she may take help of supervisor or expertise of the field.
  6. He/she should pin-point specific aspect of the problem which is to be investigated.

For example, a woman wants to work in the field of teacher-education which is the field of her interest. She has the deep insight and mastery over the area. On the basis of review and her personal experience, she perceives a problem in the field of teacher-education programme that colleges of teacher education are not able to produce effective teachers although large number of such colleges has been opened after the fall of the Dergue Regime. This problem has several dimensions but these can be studied simultaneously. What are the dimensions of this problem?

* the curriculum
* the profile of college teachers
* resources needed in the training
* the methodology teachers use in training
* the assessment used and so on are possible dimensions the researcher should think of.

The researcher further visualizes that whether potential candidates are admitted or not in the programme. So, the question “Are the potential candidates admitted incolleges?” could be another question to be raised by the researcher.

**\*The following tasks have to be performed by the researcher in analysing a problem (situation) like the above:**

* 1. Accumulating the facts that might be related to the problem.
  2. Setting by observations whether the facts are relevant.
  3. Tracing any relationship between facts that might reveal the key to the difficulty.
  4. Proposing various explanations for the cause or the difficulty
  5. Ascertaining through observations and analysis whether these explanations are relevant to the problem.
  6. Tracing relationship between explanations that may give an insight into the problem solution.
  7. Tracing relationship between facts and explanations.
  8. Questioning assumptions underlying the analysis of the problem.
  9. Tracing the irrelevant facts which are not concerned with the problem.
  10. Locating the irrelevant explanations which are not related to the problem.

After going through these processes, the researcher will be able to define or state the problem.

**1.5. SOURCES OF PROBLEMS/TOPICS/**

\*The selection of a suitable problem is not an easy task. It is a serious responsibility to commit oneself to a problem that will inevitably require much time and energy and which is so academically significant. The following are the main sources to which one may proceed for a suitable research problem:

1. ***Personal experiences***of the investigator in the field of education are the main source for identifying suitable problem. Many of the problems confronted in the classroom, the school or the community lend themselves to investigation and they are perhaps more appropriate for the beginning researcher than are problems more remote from his/her own teaching experiences.
2. The other source of problem which is most frequently used by the investigator as suggested by the supervisors is the ***extensive study of available literature****-*research abstracts, journals, hand-books of research international abstracts etc. He/she can draw an analogy for selecting a research problem or can think parallel problem in the field studied.
3. In the choice of a suitable problem, the researcher has to decide his/her field of investigation. He/she should ***study the field intensively*** in the specific area; this may enable him/her to identify a problem from the specific field.
4. The ***new innovations, technological changes and curricular developments*** are constantly bringing new problems and new-opportunities for Social Studies.
5. The most practical source of problem is to ***consult supervisor, experts of the field and mostexperienced person of the field***. They may suggest most significant problem of the area. He/she can discuss certain issues of the area to emerge a problem.
6. It is a general practice that ***researchers suggest some problems in their research reports***. The researcher can pick up a suitable problem for his/her own study.

**1.6. CRITERIA FOR SELECTING A RESEARCH PROBLEM**

The criteria which should be considered in the selection of a research problem could be both external and personal. External criteria have to do with such matters as novelty and importance for the field availability of data and method, and institutional or administrative cooperation. Personal criteria involved such considerations as interest, training, cost and time, etc.

**A.Novelty and avoidance of unnecessary duplication**

The question of novelty or newness is not merely one of duplication of earlier investigations. It involves the urgency of the data summarized especially in the case of survey studies made during a period of great economic, educational and social change.

**B. Importance for the field represented and implementation**

This criterion of importance in choice of a problem involves such matters as significance for the field involved, timelines and practical value in terms of application and implementation of the results. Scientific researches in Education, psychology and social sciences in general have an especially urgent obligation to play a social role rendering service to society and humanity.

**C. Interest, intellectual curiosity and drive**

One of the personal motives of research most frequently mentioned by researchers themselves is pure curiosity, accompanied by genuine interest and a derived satisfaction and enjoyment.

**D. Availability of data and method**

The data under consideration must meet certain standards of accuracy, objectivity and verifiability. That is, the researchers have to be sure whether they can get valid and reliable data that can be available or not.

**E. Special equipment and working conditions**

The major purpose of equipment is to define the process of observation-to provide control of conditions and accuracy or permanence of recording. You should think what kinds of equipment the research needs in the process. For example, if the problem you selected needs laboratory equipment, you have to know the availability of those materials.

**F. Sponsorship and administrative cooperation**

It is a common practice for the thesis to be sponsored by a faculty adviser in whose area of specialization the problem lies. This is especially true for researches conducted for the fulfilment of degrees (1st, 2nd and 3rd degrees).

**G. Costs and returns**

The candidate must consider carefully his own financial resources in the light of such facilities and assistance as can be provided by the institution. So the cost the researcher needs to conduct the research and the returns the research will give for the beneficiaries is another factor in identifying the problem.

**H. Time factor**

The time given to complete the research is one factor to determine the problem. If you are given one year to complete your research for your thesis, you have to be sure whether you can finish on due time the problem you intend to conduct. On the other hand, for the Doctor’s degree, the student will not select the problem that an undergraduate student will choose.

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| **\* Summary**  Research has different definitions. But it is simply the process of arriving at dependable solution to a problem through the planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. This systematic nature of research lends itself to the criteria of validity and reliability of the research. On different criteria, research has different classifications. Based on the objectives, research can be categorized as basic, applied and evaluative whereas based on their approach, research can be divided as longitudinal and cross sectional studies. Moreover, research can be classified as explanatory and descriptive based on the nature of findings. On the basis of the type of data and also the approach to analyze the collected data, research is classified into quantitative, qualitative and mixed research. Therefore, you need to see research types based on the parameters you want to see. |

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*Dear students, that is the End of unit one.*

*I wish you to have good time in going through unit two.*

**UNITTWO:STEPS INWRITING RESEARCH PAPER**

**\*Steps in writingelementsofa research paper**

**2.1. WRITINGBACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The introduction is the part of the research report that provides readers with the background information for the research. Its purpose is to establish a framework for the research, so that readers can understand how it is related to other research. Be sure to include a hook at the beginning of the introduction. This is a statement of something sufficiently interesting to motivate your reader to read the rest of the research, it is an important/interesting scientific problem that your study either solves or addresses. The introduction should cite those who had the idea or ideas first, and should also cite those who have done the most recent and relevant work. You should then go on to explain why more work is necessary (your work, of course.) The introduction also should address the following points:

* Sufficient background information to allow the reader to understand the context and significance of the question you are trying to address.
* Proper acknowledgement of the previous work on which you are building.
* Sufficient references such that a reader could, by going to the library, achieve a sophisticated understanding of the context and significance of the question.
* The introduction should be focused on the research question(s).
* All cited work should be directly relevant to the goals of the research.
* Explain the scope of your work, what will and will not be included.
* A verbal "road map" or verbal "table of contents" guiding the reader to what lies ahead.

• Is it obvious where introductory material ("old stuff") ends and your planned contribution ("new stuff") begins?

**2.2.WRITINGSTATEMENT OFTHE PROBLEM**

Most researches, whether designed for master's theses or doctoral dissertations, may be considered as responses to aproblem. A problem might be defined as the issue that exists in the literature, theory, or practice that leads to a need for the study. The prospective researcher should think on what caused the need to do the research (problem identification). The question that he/she should ask him/herself is: Are there questions about this problem to which answers have not been found up to the present? The research problem should be stated in such a way that it would lead to analytical thinking on the part of the researcher with the aim of possibly concluding solutions to the stated problem. The problem statement describes the context for the study and it also identifies the general analysis approach. It is important in a proposal that the problem stand out—that the reader can easily recognize it.

Effectiveproblem statements answer the question *“****Why does this research need to be conducted****.”* If a researcher is unable to answer thisquestion clearly and succinctly, and without resorting to hyper-speak,then the statement of the problem will come off as ambiguous anddiffuse. The most frequent dilemma among graduate students is theirseemingly aimless search for a problem significant enough to pursueand discrete enough to handle. A well-articulated statement of theproblem establishes the foundation for everything to follow in theproposal and will render less problematic most of the conceptual,rhetorical and methodological obstacles typically encountered duringthe process of writing the research.This means that, insubsequent sections of the research, there should be no surprises,such as categories, questions, variables or data sources that comeout of nowhere: if it can't be found in the problem statement section,at least at the implicit level, then it either does not belong in the studyor the problem statement needs to be re-written.

**2.3.WRITING THE OBJECTIVE/AIM OF THE STUDY/**

The objectives of a research delineate the ends or aim which the inquirer seeks to bring about as a result of completing the research undertaken. An objective may be thought of as either a solution to a problem or a step along the way toward achieving a solution; an end state to be achieved in relation to the problem. The objectives of a research project summarize what is to be achieved by the study. Objectives should be closely related to the statement of the problem. After statement of the primary objective, secondary objectives may be mentioned.

**\* Objectives should be:**

• simple (not complex),

• specific (not vague),

• stated in advance (not after the research is done), and stated using “action verbs” that are specific enough to be measured. Commonly, research objectives are classified into **generalobjectives and specific objectives.** The general and specific objectives are logically connected to each other and the specific objectives are commonly considered as smaller portions of the general objectives. It is important to ascertain that the general objective is closely related to the statement of the problem.

• ***General objective***

\*What exactly will be studied?

\* General statements specifying the desired outcomes of the proposed project

• ***Specific objectives***

\*Specific statements summarizing the proposed activities and including description of the outcomes and their assessment in **measurable terms**

\*It identifies in greater detail the specific aims of the research project, often breaking down what is to be accomplished into smaller logical components.

\*Specific objectives should systematically address the various aspects of the problem as defined under ‘Statement of the Problem’ and the key factors that are assumed to influence or cause the problem. They should specify **what** you will do in your study, **where** and **for what purpose**

Why should research objectives be developed?

The formulation of objectives will help you to:

\***Focus** the study (narrowing it down to essentials);

\***Avoid** the collection of data which are not strictly necessary for understanding and solving the problem you have identified; and

\***Organize** the study in clearly defined parts or phases. Properly formulated objectives will facilitate the development of your research methodology and will help to orient the collection, analysis, interpretation and utilization of data.

**2.4.WRITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND/OR HYPOTHESES**

Hypotheses and questions are linked to the speculative proposition of the problem statement, can be inferred from the overall conceptual framework of a study, and are of critical importance to data analysis and interpretation. In research studies, the term hypotheses imply a derivation, within a hypothetic-deductive theoretical system, of a particular assertion or prediction. The hypothesis is subject to test, i.e., to confirmation or rejection on empirical grounds. The term question implies an interrogative statement that can be answered by data, which is logically related to the same conceptual framework, but which does not necessarily stem from that framework through logical deduction.

*Questions* are most often used in qualitative inquiry, although their use in quantitative inquiry is becoming more prominent. *Hypotheses* are relevant to theoretical research and are typically used only in quantitative inquiry. A research question poses a relationship between two or more variables but phrases the relationship as a question; a hypothesis represents a declarative statement of the relations between two or more variables. Deciding whether to use questions or hypotheses depends on factors such as the purpose of the study, the nature of the design and methodology of the research. Make a clear and careful distinction between the dependent and independent variables and be certain they are clear to the reader. Hypotheses are thus tentative statements that should either be acknowledged or rejected by means of research. Because hypotheses give structure and direction to research.

**2.5.WRITINGTHESIGNIFICANCEOF RESEARCH**

In this section you have to mention the importance of conducting your research like:

\*to create awareness about certain problem

\*to provide solution to a certain problem

\*toprovide other researchers a beginning so that they will make in-depth research in the future.

**2.6. LIMITATIONS DURINGTHERESEARCH**

However you may carefully design your research there would be some restrictions that would inhibit you from conducting the study the way you have already planned. For instance, lack of time, sufficient budget, reference materials and cooperation from concerned bodies etc.

**2.7. DELIMITATION OFTHE RESEARCH**

This is where you show the limit of your study. It is advisable to select a limited problem and treat it well than to attempt to study a broad general problem. For example, “An Investigation on the Common Sentence Errors Students usually Commit while Writing Paragraphs; DELL Third Year Students at Woldiya University in Focus,2010 E.C “ .This title has clear conceptual and geographical delimitation.

**2.8. REVIEWING THE RELATED LITERATURE**

Literature review is *not* a compilation of every work written about a topic. It is *not* simply a list of sources reviewed separately for their own merit. A literature review is a description of the literature relevant to a particular field or topic. It gives an overview of what has been said, who the key writers are, what are the prevailing theories and hypotheses, what questions are being asked, and what methods and methodologies are appropriate and useful. As such, it is not in itself primary research, but rather it reports on other findings. A literature review uses as its database reports of primary or original scholarship, and does not report new primary scholarship itself. The primary reports used in the literature may be +verbal, but in the vast majority of cases reports are written documents. The types of scholarship may be empirical, theoretical, critical/analytic, or methodological in nature. Second a literature review seeks to describe, summarize, evaluate, clarify and/or integrate the content of primary reports.

**2.8.1.PURPOSES OF LITERATURE REVIEW**

Literature reviews can be conducted to fulfill a number of purposes and a review can fulfill more than one purpose. There are four purposes of reviewing the literature.

* One purpose is summarizing new theories, findings, research methods, and data analysis techniques on a topic. For example, Annual Review of Psychology tries to update the state of knowledge in every major field of psychology every four to five years.
* A second purpose of literature reviews is identifying linkages between theories and developing new theories from the knowledge provided by existing theories and research. Sternberg (1986), for example, conducted a comprehensive review of theories and research on the topic of love and distilled the resulting large mass of sometimes conflicting information into a parsimonious three factor theory of love.
* A third purpose of literature reviewing is evaluating the validity of a theory by summarizing the research evidence for or against its propositions. Similarly, the validity of competing theories on a topic can be compared by analyzing the results of research conducted on the topic to see which theory the research best supports. For instance, one can collect results of various researches on the effectiveness of lecture method and active-learning methods and conclude which method of teaching is more applicable in the Ethiopian context.
* A final purpose of literature reviewing is summarizing the research evidence on a hypothesis or set of related hypotheses.

Such summaries have several goals. One goal is determining how well the hypothesis is supported. Every study has its problems; no study can be perfect and so by itself cannot provide a complete answer to a research question. The outcome of a single study could be the result of its problems (problem emanated from sampling, data collection instruments, analysis and conclusions made from the analysis) rather than of the effect of the independent variable. However, if several studies of a hypothesis, each with its own flaws but each also having strengths that compensate for the weaknesses of the others, all come to the same conclusion, then it is unlikely that the overall result is an artifact resulting from design flaws. The consensus of a number of studies as shown by a literature review therefore provides the best estimate of the effect of an independent variable.

**2.8.2. THE STAGES OF A LITERATURE REVIEW**

It is important to define the problem or area which you wish to address. Having a purpose for your literature review will narrow the topic.The literature review asks how similar and related questions have been answered before. Scope of what you need to look out for when you read. Carry out a search for relevant materials **\*Relevant materials will probably comprise a range of media:**

• books (monographsie,scholarly article or paper on a single topic),text books,

reference books);

• articles from journals, whether print or electronic (but make sure electronic journals have been subject to the peer review process);

• newspaper articles;

• historical records;

• commercial reports and statistical information;

• government reports and statistical information;

• theses and dissertations;

• other types of information which may be relevant to your particular discipline.

**2.8.3.HOW TO ORGANIZE A LITERATURE REVIEW**

There are a number of ways of organizing a literature review. Here is one suggestion:

**A. Introduction:** define the topic, together with your reason for selecting the topic. You could also point out overall trends, gaps, particular themes that emerge, *etc*.

**B**. **Body:** this is where you discuss your sources. Here are some ways in which you could organize your discussion:

* ***chronologically***: for example, if writers' views have tended to change over time. There is littlepoint in doing the review by order of publication.
* ***thematically***: take particular themes in the literature;
* ***methodologically***: here, the focus is on the methods

of the researcher, for example, qualitative versus quantitative approaches.

**C. Conclusion:** summarize the major contributions, evaluating the current position, and pointing out flaws in methodology, gaps in the research, contradictions, and areas for further study

**2.8.4 PRACTICAL STEPS IN REVIEWING THE LITERATURE**

Your title and basic questions are the basis for reviewing the literature

|  |
| --- |
| * First, read all the available literature in the area. This helps to understand the problem or the relationship between the variables from different perspectives. * The summary of the literature can be organized based on the nature of the basic questions. This is because the whole effort of reviewing the literature is to find theoretical and research evidences to answer the basic questions or hypotheses. * Collect the literature which you think is related to your problem and organize them in coherent form. |
| **To paraphrase the ideas of different authors;**   * First, identify and write the independent and the dependent variables * Second, identify how they are related, cause-effect or correlational. * Finally, write in your own words. |

**2.9.CITING SOURCES**

Departments have different guidelines as to how references are to be presented: you must check the preferred format, style of references and presentation requirements in your own department.

Only use secondary references (for example (Bloggs 1990, cited in Smith 1997) if the original source (in this example, Bloggs 1990) cannot be easily obtained.

**\* Reference Lists**, where you list only the authors, whom you have cited in your paper, are commonly required in disciplines that use in-text referencing.Many lecturers cross-check the in-text references and the reference list.

Any Referencing style is set up to give the reader immediate information about sources cited in the text. There are many Referencing Styles: Harvard, IEEE, ACM, Vancouver, APA, Chicago, and MLA. Choose one and apply it consistently.

* The American Psychological Association (APA) style is widely accepted in the social sciences and other fields, such as education, business, and nursing.
* The APA citation format requires parenthetical citations within the text rather than endnotes or footnotes. Citations in the text provide brief information, usually the name of the author and the date of publication, to lead the reader to the source of information in the reference list at the end of the paper.

**2.9.1. APA RULES FOR THE REFERENCE PAGE**

The following sections show some of the more commonly used **APA** citation rules.

**NOTE**: All citations must be in the Hanging Indent Format with the first line flush to the left margin and all other lines indented.

1. **JOURNALS, MAGAZINES, NEWSPAPERS IN PRINT FORMAT**

**General Form**

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., &Author, C. C. (Year).Title of Article/*Title of Journal, city or town and Publisher .*

* 1. **JOURNALS**

NOTE: The journal title and the volume number are in italics. Issue numbers are notrequired if the journal is continuously paged. If paged individually, the issue numberis required and is in regular type in parentheses adjacent to the volume number.

* **One Author**

Williams, J. H. (2008). *Employee engagement*: *Improving participation in safety*. *Professional Safety, 53(12), 40-45.*

* **Two to Seven Authors [List all authors]**

Keller, T. E., Cusick, G. R., & Courtney, M. E. (2007).*Approaching the Transition to Adulthood: Distinctive Profiles of Adolescents Aging out of the Child Welfare System*.*Social Services Review, 81*, 453-484.

* **Eight or More Authors [List the first six authors, … and the last author**]

Wolchik, S. A., West, S. G., Sandler, I. N., Tein, J.-Y., Coatsworth, D., Lengua, L.,...Griffin, W. A. (2000). *An experimental evaluation of theory-based mother and mother-child programs for children of divorce.Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 68, 843-856.*

**1.2 MAGAZINE ARTICLE**

Mathews, J., Berrett, D., &Brillman, D. (2005, May 16). Other winning equations.*Newsweek, 145*(20), 58-59.

* Newspaper Article with No Author and Discontinuous Pages

Generic Prozac debuts. (2001, August 3). *The Washington Post,* pp. E1, E4.

**1.3. BOOKS, CHAPTERS IN BOOKS, REPORTS, ETC.**

**General Form;**

**Author, A. A. (Year).*Title of work*. Location: Publisher.**

* **One Author**

Alexie, S. (1992).*The Business of Fancy Dancing: Stories and Poems.*Brooklyn, NY: Hang Loose Press.

* Corporate Author with an Edition and Published by the Corporate Author

American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

* Anonymous Author

*Dorland’s Illustrated Medical Dictionary* (31st Ed.). (2007). Philadelphia,PA: Saunders.

* Chapter in a Book

Booth-LaForce, C., & Kerns, K. A. (2009).Child-parent Attachment Relationships, Peer Relationships, and Peer-group Functioning. In K. H. Rubin, W. M. Bukowski, & B. Laursen (Eds.), *Handbook of Peer Interactions, Relationships, and Groups* (pp. 490-507). New York,NY: Guilford Press.

**1.4.ONLINE JOURNALS, MAGAZINES, NEWSPAPERS**

General Format - Databases

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (Year).Title of article.*Name of Journal, xx,* xxx-xxx.doi:xxxxxxxxxx

* Article Retrieved from an Online Database

NOTE: Use the article’s DOI (Digital Object Identifier), the unique code given by the publisher to a specific article.

Senior, B., &Swailes, S. (2007). Inside Management Teams: Developing a Teamwork Survey Instrument. *British Journal of Management, 18,* 138-153. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.2006.00507.x

NOTE: **Use the journal’s home page URL (or web address) if there is no DOI**.

This may require a web search to locate the journal’s home page. There is noperiod at the end of web address. Break a long URL before the punctuation.

Koo, D. J., Chitwoode, D. D., & Sanchez, J. (2008). Violent victimization and the routine activities/lifestyle of active drug users.*Journal of Drug Issues, 38,* 1105-1137. Retrieved from <http://www.criminology.fsu.edu/~jdi/>

* **Article from an Online Magazine**

Lodewijkx, H. F. M. (2001, May 23). Individual-group Continuity in Cooperation and Competition under varying communication conditions.*Current Issues in Social Psychology, 6*(12), 166-182. Retrieved from http://www.uiowa.edu/~grpproc/crisp/crisp.6.12.htm

**Activity**

\* Put the following sources in **APA** citation style.

|  |
| --- |
| **BOOKS**   1. Title: Learning strategies in second language acquisition   Date of publication: 1990  Place of publication: Cambridge  Publishing press: Cambridge university  Authors: J. Michael O’Malley, Anna UhiChamot   1. Title: Language Learning Strategies   Date of publication: 1990  Place of publication: New York  Publishing press: Newbury House  Author: Rebecca L. Oxford   1. Title: Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms   Integrating Form-Focused Instruction in Communicative Context.  Date of publication: 2011  Place of publication: New York  Publishing press: Routledge  Author: HosseinNassaji, Sandra S. Fotos  **JOURNAL ARTICLES**   1. **Title:** Language Learning Strategy Use of ESL Students in an Intensive English Learning Context.   Publication Date: 2006  Volume no.: 34 issue 2  Page no.: 339-415  Medium of publication: system  Authors: Kyungsim Hong-Nam, Alexandra G. Leavell   1. **Title:** Current Issues in the Teaching of Grammar. An SLA Perspective.   Publication Date: 2007  Volume no.: 40 issue 1  Page no.: 83-107  Medium of publication: *TESOL Quarterly*  Author : Rod Ellis |

**2.10. DESIGNINGTHERESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

**2.10.1.THE CONCEPT OF RESEARCH DESIGN**

Decisions regarding what, where, when, how much, by what means concerning an inquiry or a research study constitute a research design. A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.” In fact, the research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. As such the design includes an outline of what the researcher will do from writing the hypothesis and its operational implications to the final analysis of data.

Research design is needed because it facilitates the smooth sailing of the various research operations, thereby making research as efficient as possible yielding maximal information with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money. Just as for better, economical and attractive construction of a house, we need a blueprint (or what is commonly called the map of the house) well thought out and prepared by an expert architect, similarly we need a research design or a plan in advance of data collection and analysis for our research project. Preparation of the research design should be done with great care as any error in it may upset the entire project. Research design, in fact, has a great bearing on the reliability of the results arrived at and as such constitutes the firm foundation of the entire edifice of the research work.

\*The question of good design is related to the purpose or objective of the research problem and also with the nature of the problem to be studied. A design may be quite suitable in one case, but may be found wanting in one respect or the other in the context of some other research problem. One single design cannot serve the purpose of all types of research problems.

\*A research design appropriate for a particular research problem, usually involves the consideration of the following factors:

(i) the means of obtaining information

(ii) the availability and skills of the researcher

(iii) the objective of the problem to be studied

(iv) the nature of the problem to be studied; and

(v) the availability of time and money for the research work.

**2.10.2. POPULATION OFTHESTUDY**

The population of the study means all the subjects of your study at which the research focused on. For example, if the subjects of the study ( population) is 2000 you cannot take all of them as a sample rather you may select the manageable sample size using sampling techniques. Hence, the sample taken could be considered as the representative of a larger population.

**2.10.3.SAMPLINGTECHNIQUES**

Sampling strategies are divided into two main groups: **probability** and **non-probability sampling**

1. **Probability sampling methods for quantitative studies**

In quantitative studies we aim to measure variables and generalize findings obtained from a representative sample from the total population. In such studies, we will be confronted with the following questions:

• Which group of people (study population) do we want to draw a sample from?  
• How many people do we need in our sample?  
• How will these people be selected? Is there an administrative list of the (sampling frame) units of the population involved?

The study population has to be clearly defined, for example, according to age, sex and residence. Apart from people, a study population may consist of villages, institutions, records, etc. Each study population consists of study units. The way one defines the study population and the study unit depends on the problem to be investigated.

If researchers want to draw conclusions that are valid for the whole study population, they should take care to draw a sample in such a way that it is representative of that population.

**A representative sample is one that has all the important characteristics of the population from which it is drawn.**

If it is intended to interview 100 mothers to obtain a complete picture of drug use practices in District X these mothers would need to be selected from a representative sample of villages. It would be unwise to select them from only one or two villages, as this might give a distorted or biased picture. It would also be unwise to interview only mothers who attend the under-fives clinic, as those who do not attend this clinic may wean their children differently. An important issue influencing the choice of the most appropriate sampling method is whether a sampling frame is available, that is, a listing of all the units that compose the study population. If a sampling frame does exist or can be compiled, probability sampling methods can be used. With these methods, each study unit has an equal or at least a known probability of being selected in the sample. Four probability sampling methods are discussed below:

* Simple random sampling
* Systematic sampling
* Stratified sampling
* Cluster sampling

**A1.SIMPLE RANDOM SAMPLING**

This is the simplest form of probability sampling. A simple random sample is one in which each element of the population has an equal and independentchance of being included in the sample i.e. a sample selected by randomization method is known assimple-random sample and this technique is simple random-sampling.

To select a simple random sample you need to:

• make a numbered list of all the units in the population from which you want to draw a sample or use an already existing one (sampling frame)

• decide on the size of the sample

• select the required number of sampling units, using a ‘lottery’ method or a table of random numbers.

Randomization is a method andis done by using a number of techniques as:

(*a*) Tossing a coin.

(*b*) Throwing a dice.

(*c*) Lottery method

**A2. SYSTEMATIC SAMPLING**

In systematic sampling, individuals or households are chosen at regular intervals from the sampling frame. For this method we randomly select a number to tell us where to start selecting individuals from the list.

For example, a systematic sample is to be selected from 1,200 students at a school. The sample size selected is 100. The sampling fraction is 1200/100. The sampling interval is therefore 12. The number of the first student to be included in the sample is chosen randomly, for example, by blindly picking one out of 12 pieces of paper, numbered 1 to 12. If number 6 is picked, then every twelfth student will be included in the sample, starting with student number 6, until 100 students are selected. The numbers selected would be 6, 18, 30, 42, 54, 66, etc.

**A3.STRATIFIED SAMPLING**

The simple random sampling method described above does not ensure that the proportion of some individuals with certain characteristics will be included. If it is important that the sample includes representative groups of study units with specific characteristics (for example, residents from urban and rural areas, or different age groups), then the sampling frame must be divided into groups, or strata, according to these characteristics. Random or systematic samples of a predetermined size will then have to be obtained from each group (stratum). This is called stratified sampling.

A survey is conducted on self-medication practices in a district comprising 20,000 households, of which 20% are urban and 80% rural. It is suspected that in urban areas self-medication is less common due to the vicinity of health centers. A decision is made to include 100 urban households (out of 4,000, which gives a 1 in 40 sample) and 200 rural households (out of 16,000, which gives a 1 in 80 sample). This allows for a good comparison between urban and rural self-medication practices. Because we know the sampling fraction for both strata, the rates for self-medication for all the district households can be calculated.

**A4.CLUSTER SAMPLING**

It may be difficult or impossible to take a simple random sample of the units of the study population, either because a complete sampling frame does not exist or because of other logistical difficulties (e.g., visiting people scattered over a large area may be too time-consuming). However, when a list of groupings of study units is available (for example, villages or schools) or can be easily compiled, a number of these groupings can be randomly selected. The selection of groups of study units (clusters) instead of the selection of study units individually is called cluster sampling.

Clusters are often geographic units (for example, districts, villages) or organizational units (e.g., clinics, training groups). In a study of the knowledge, attitudes and practices related to family planning in a region’s rural communities, a list is made of all the villages. Using this list, a random sample of villages is chosen and a defined number of adults in the selected villages are interviewed.

1. **NON PROBABILITY SAMPLING**

The difference between non probability and [probability sampling](http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/sampprob.php) is that non probability sampling does not involve *random* selection and probability sampling does. Does that mean that non probability samples aren't representative of the population? Not necessarily. But it does mean that non probability samples cannot depend upon the rationale of probability theory.

We can divide non-probability sampling methods into two broad types: ***accidental* or *purposive*.** Most sampling methods are purposive in nature because we usually approach the sampling problem with a specific plan in mind. The most important distinctions among these types of sampling methods are the ones between the different types of purposive sampling approaches.

**B1.CONVENIENCE SAMPLING**

One of the most common methods of sampling goes under the various titles listed here. It would include in this category the traditional "man on the street" (of course, now it's probably the "person on the street") interviews conducted frequently by television news programs to get a quick (although non representative) reading of public opinion. In clinical practice, we might use clients who are available to us as our sample. In many research contexts, we sample simply by asking for volunteers. Clearly, the problem with all of these types of samples is that we have no evidence that they are representative of the populations we're interested in generalizing to -- and in many cases we would clearly suspect that they are not.

**B2.PURPOSIVE SAMPLING**

In purposive sampling, we sample with **a *purpose*** in mind. We usually would have one or more specific predefined groups we are seeking. For instance, have you ever run into people in a mall or on the street who are carrying a clipboard and who are stopping various people and asking if they could interview them? Most likely they are conducting a purposive sample (and most likely they are engaged in market research). Purposive sampling can be very useful for situations where you need to reach a targeted sample quickly and where sampling for proportionality is not the primary concern. With a purposive sample, you are likely to get the opinions of your target population, but you are also likely to overweight subgroups in your population that are more readily accessible.

**B3.SUMMARY**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Probability sampling** | **Non-probability sampling** |
| Where the researcher has a **significant measure of control over who is selected** and on the selection methods for choosing them.  Sampling methods allow for **representative** cross-sections, or particular groups to be identified or targeted.  **Main Methods:**  **Simple Random Sampling:**  (selection at random by the searchers from a choice of subjects)  **Systematic Sampling:**  (selecting by the researchers at numbered intervals, e.g. everyone person in five in the target group)  **Stratified Sampling:**  (Sampling within particular sections of the target groups,e.g. you target a specific number of people based on the percentage of the total group that share the same characteristics.  So, for example, in a study of an organization that had 50supervisors & 800 laborers, a 10% representative sample of this population would target 5supervisors & 80 laborers to interview.  **Cluster Sampling:**(surveying a particular cluster ofthe subject group) | Where the researcher has little initial control over the choice of who is presented for selection, or where controlled selection of participants is not a critical factor.  **Main Methods:**  **Convenience Sampling:**  (sampling those most convenient; those immediately available)  **Voluntary Sampling:**  (the sample is self-selecting; they come forwardvoluntarily in response to an appeal)  **Purposive Sampling:** (Enables you to use your judgment to choose people that are presented or are available that best meet your objectives or your target groups).  **Snowball’ Sampling:**(Building up a sample through informants. You start with one person – who then suggests another & so on)  **Event Sampling-**(using the opportunity presented by a particular event, e.g. aconference, to make contacts)  **Time Sampling**-(Recognizing that different times or days of the week or year maybe significant and sampling at these times or days. |

**C. TOOLS OFDATA GATHERING/DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENTS**

**C1.QUESTIONNAIRE**

Questionnaires are a very popular form of data collection, especially when gathering information from large groups, where standardization is important. Surveys can be constructed in many ways, but they always consist of two components: questions and responses. While sometimes evaluators choose to keep responses “open ended,” i.e., allow respondents to answer in a free flowing narrative form; most often the “close-ended” approach in which respondents are asked to select from a range of predetermined answers is adopted. Open-ended responses may be difficult to code and require more time and resources to handle than close-ended choices. Responses may take the form of a rating on some scale (e.g., rate a given statement from 1 to 4 on a scale from “agree” to “disagree.

**\*Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires**

**Advantages:**

* Good for gathering descriptive data
* Can cover a wide range of topics
* Are relatively inexpensive to use
* Can be analyzed using a variety of existing software

**Disadvantages:**

* Self-report may lead to biased reporting
* Data may provide a general picture but lack depth
* May not provide adequate information on context administration.

**C2.INTERVIEWS**

The use of interviews as a data collection method begins with the assumption that the participants’ perspectives are meaningful, knowable, and can be made explicit, and that their perspectives affect the success of the project. An in-person or telephone interview, rather than a paper-and pencil survey, is selected when interpersonal contact is important and when opportunities for follow up of interesting comments are desired.

Two types of interviews are used in evaluation research: structured interviews, in which a carefully worded questionnaire is administered, and in depth interviews, in which the interviewer does not follow a rigid form. In the former, the emphasis is on obtaining answers to carefully phrased questions. Interviewers are trained to deviate only minimally from the question wording to ensure uniformity of interview

**\*Advantages and disadvantages of interviews**

**Advantages:**

* Usually yield richest data, details, new insights
* Permit face-to-face contact with respondents
* Provide opportunity to explore topics in depth
* Allow interviewer to experience the affective as well as cognitive aspects of responses
* Allow interviewer to explain or help clarify questions, increasing the likelihood of useful responses
* Allow interviewer to be flexible in administering interview to particular individuals or in particular circumstances

**Disadvantages**:

* Expensive and time-consuming
* Need well-qualified, highly trained interviewers
* Interviewee may distort information through recall error, selective perceptions, desire to please interviewer
* Flexibility can result in inconsistencies across interviews
* Volume of information very large; may be difficult to transcribe and reduce data

**C3.FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION**

Focus groups combine elements of both interviewing and participant observation. The focus group session is, indeed, an interview—not a discussion group, problem-solving session, or decision-making group. At the same time, focus groups capitalize on group dynamics. The hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to generate data and insights that would be unlikely to emerge otherwise. The technique inherently allows observation of group dynamics, discussion, and firsthand insights into the respondents’ behaviors, attitudes, language, etc.

Focus groups are a gathering of 8 to 12 people who share some characteristics relevant to the evaluation. Originally used as a market research tool to investigate the appeal of various products, the focus group technique has been adopted by other fields, such as education, as a tool for data gathering on a given topic. Initially, focus groups took place in a special facility that included recording apparatus (audio and/or visual) and an attached room with a one-way mirror for observation.

Although focus groups and in depth interviews share many characteristics, they should not be used interchangeably.

**C4.OBSERVATIONS**

Observational techniques are methods by which an individual or individuals gather firsthand data on programs, processes, or behaviors being studied. They provide evaluators with an opportunity to collect data on a wide range of behaviors, to capture a great variety of interactions, and to openly explore the evaluation topic. By directly observing operations and activities, the evaluator can develop a holistic perspective, i.e., an understanding of the context within which the project operates. This may be especially important where it is not the event that is of interest, but rather how that event may fit into, or be affected by, a sequence of events. Observational approaches also allow the evaluator to learn about issues the participants or staff may be unaware of or that they are unwilling or unable to discuss candidly in an interview or focus group.

\***Advantages and disadvantages of observations**

**Advantages:**

* Provide direct information about behavior of individuals and groups
* Permit evaluator to enter into and understand situation/context
* Provide good opportunities for identifying unanticipated outcomes
* Exist in natural, unstructured, and flexible setting

**Disadvantages:**

* Expensive and time consuming
* Need well-qualified, highly trained observers; may need to be content experts
* May affect behavior of participants
* Selective perception of observer may distort data

**C5.TESTS**

Tests provide a way to assess subjects’ knowledge and capacity to apply this knowledge to new situations. Tests take many forms. They may require respondents to choose among alternatives (select a correct answer, select an incorrect answer, select the best answer), to cluster choices into like groups, to produce short answers, or to write extended responses. A question may address a single outcome of interest or lead to questions involving a number of outcome areas.

Tests provide information that is measured against a variety of standards. The most popular test has traditionally been norm-referenced assessment.

\***Advantages and disadvantages of tests**

The advantages and disadvantage of tests depend largely on the type of test being considered and the personal opinion of the stakeholder.However, the following claims are made by proponents.

**Advantages:**

* Provide objective information on what the test taker knows and can do
* Can be constructed to match a given curriculum or set of skills
* Can be scored in a straightforward manner
* Are accepted by the public as a credible indicator of learning

**Disadvantages:**

* May be oversimplified and superficial
* May be very time consuming
* May be biased against some groups of test takers
* May be subject to corruption via coaching or cheating

**C6.DOCUMENT ANALYSIS**

Existing records often provide insights into a setting and/or group of people that cannot be observed or noted in another way. This information can be found in document form. Adocument is defined as “any written or recorded material” not prepared for the purposes of the evaluation or at the request of the inquirer. Documents can be divided into two major categories: **public records, and personal documents**.

Public records are materials created and kept for the purpose of attesting to an event or providing an accounting. Public records can be collected from outside (external) or within (internal) the setting in which the evaluation is taking place. Examples of external records are census and vital statistics reports, county office records, newspaper archives, and local business records that can assist an evaluator in gathering information about the larger community and relevant trends. Such materials can be helpful in better understanding the project participants and making comparisons among groups/ communities.

For the evaluation of educational innovations, internal records include documents such as student transcripts and records, historical accounts, institutional mission statements, annual reports, budgets, grade and standardized test reports, minutes of meetings, internal memoranda, policy manuals, institutional histories, college/university catalogs, faculty and student handbooks, official correspondence, demographic material, mass media reports and presentations, and descriptions of program development and evaluation. They are particularly useful in describing institutional characteristics, such as backgrounds and academic performance of students, and in identifying institutional strengths and weaknesses. They can help the evaluator understand the institution’s resources, values, processes, priorities, and concerns.

Furthermore, they provide a record or history that is not subject to recall bias. Personal documents are first-person accounts of events and experiences. These “documents of life” include diaries, portfolios, photographs, artwork, schedules, scrapbooks, poetry, letters to the paper, etc. Personal documents can help the evaluator understand how the participant sees the world and what she or he wants to communicate to an audience.

\***Advantages and disadvantages of document studies**

**Advantages:**

* Available locally
* Inexpensive
* Grounded in setting and language in which they occur
* Useful for determining value, interest, positions, political climate, public attitudes
* Provide information on historical trends or sequences
* Provide opportunity for study of trends over time

**Disadvantages:**

* May be incomplete
* May be inaccurate or of questionable authenticity
* Locating suitable documents may pose challenges
* Analysis may be time consuming and access may be difficult

**C7.KEY INFORMANT**

A key informant is a person (or group of persons) who has unique skills or professional background related to the issue/intervention being evaluated, is knowledgeable about the project participants, or has access to other information of interest to the evaluator. A key informant can also be someone who has a way of communicating that represents or captures the essence of what the participants say and do. Key informants can help the evaluation team better understand the issue being evaluated, as well as what the project participants say and do. They can offer expertise beyond the evaluation team. They are also very useful for assisting with the evaluation of curricula and other educational materials. Key informants can be surveyed or interviewed individually or through focus groups.

**\*Advantages and disadvantages of using key informants**

**Advantages:**

* Information concerning causes, reasons, and/or best approaches is gathered from an “insider” point of view
* Advice/feedback increases credibility of study pipeline to pivotal groups
* May have side benefit to solidify relationships among evaluators, clients, participants, and other stakeholders

**Disadvantages:**

* Time required to select and get commitment may be substantial
* Relationship between evaluator and informants may influence type of data obtained
* Informants may interject own biases and impressions
* Disagreements among individuals may be hard to resolve

**2.10.4. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

In your methodology part you have to clearly indicate the step by step procedure applied to collect data for the study.**The points to be addressed are:**

Who collected the data? The researcher or somebody else

Where was the data collected?In the school,at home etc.

Were the respondents informed the purpose of the study? Why?

What were the problems faced and how were they challenged?

How long did the data collection take? How was the timing arranged?

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***Dear students, this is the end of unit two. I wish you to enjoy reading unit three***

**UNITTHREE:WRITING A RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

**3.1.COMPONENTS OF A RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

**CHAPTER ONE :INTRODUCTION**

* 1. Background of the Study
  2. Statement of the Problem
  3. Objectives of the Study
     1. General Objectives
     2. Specific Objectives
  4. Research Questions
  5. Significance of the Study
  6. Delimitation of the Study
  7. Limitations of the Study
  8. Operational Definitions of terms

**CHAPTER TWO: Review of Related Literature**

**CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY**

* 1. Introduction
  2. Research Method
  3. Target Population
  4. Sampling Techniques
  5. Source of Data
  6. Data Gathering Instruments
     1. Questionnaire
     2. Interview
     3. Focus –Group Discussion etc.
  7. Process of Data Collection
  8. Method of Data Analysis

4. Work Schedule

5. Budget Breakdown

6. Annexes

**UNITFOUR:ACADEMICPRESENTATION**

**4.1. DEFINITION OF ACADEMIC PRESENTATION**

An oral presentation is a short talk on a set topic given to a small or large audience. In an oral presentation one (or more) students give a talk to an audience and present views on a topic based on their readings or research. The rest of the audience then joins in a discussion of the topic by posing questions and providing constructive comments to the presenter(s).

Academic material presentations are a great opportunity for you to practice a number of essential academic and professional skills, such as: discussing your subject with clarity; arguing logically and tactfully; listening to different points of view; making considered criticisms and comments; and, expressing your opinions and identifying the evidence upon which they are based. As such they offer a great environment for you to develop and hone skills that will be very valuable now and in the future.

**4.2.BASICREQUIREMENTS OF ACADEMIC PRESENTATION**

1. Languagefeatures

2. Verbal and non-verbal elements

3. Content

4. Idea flow

5. Audibility

6. Clarity

7. Brevity

8. Paralinguisticfeatures

**\*During oral presentation session you should follow the following tips:**

* Speak clearly and distinctly
* Talk at a natural, moderate rate of speech
* Vary your tone – a monotone is boring for the audience to listen to
* Don’t speak too fast and Don’t read the slides aloud
* Use an even slower pace to emphasize a point
* Speak up! Project your voice so everyone can hear
* Repeat critical information
* Don’t read your presentation word-for-word from a script or from PowerPoint slides - listening to someone read aloud is boring for an audience. Aim to talk instead.
* Written and spoken language are different. Use appropriate language; generally a formal but conversational tone is best (avoid slang or colloquial language).
* Speak clearly and at a moderate pace. Don’t rush; nervous speakers tend to speed up, so try to pace yourself.
* Slow down to emphasize key points.
* Don’t be afraid to pause. Short pauses can add emphasis to important points and give you a chance to collect your thoughts. Pause briefly on each new slide.
* Maintain a level of professionalism. Do not try to be too informal.

1. **Eye Contact, Posture, and Body Language**

* Don’t keep your eyes fixed on material you are reading from (paper or PowerPoint) – maintain eye contact with the audience so that they feel involved
* Make use of notes as prompts only so that you engage with your audience – you should know your presentation well enough to be able to do this.
* Have a printed version of the presentation in front of you – including any notes etc. You then know which slide is coming next, and can lead into it.
* Stand up straight – it helps you to feel more confident
* Avoid folding your arms or using too many gestures when you speak such as finger pointing – it makes you look defensive and/or can appear aggressive. Use natural gestures.
* Don’t fidget with your hands, papers, pens on desk etc as it can be very distracting for your audience
* Try not to look worried and nervous – it undermines the confidence of the audience in your ability. You can show you take the task seriously but also relax your facial muscles and smile! You will feel less ‘stiff’ and perform better if you do not frown all the way through the presentation.
* Make eye contact with all sections of the audience. Don’t just look at your examiner or stare off into space. A good technique is to divide the room into three sections (left, middle and right) and sweep your eyes across the audience. If you don’t want to look anyone in the eye, look at a point in the middle of their foreheads.
* Look at the audience – not the screen. Scan and look at their faces, but do not dwell on any individual – that can make some people feel very uncomfortable.
* Try to place the PC screen in front of you, so that you can see what is on the screen without having to turn around and look at it, all the time – thereby turning your back on the audience. You may turn to the screen to use a pointer – better still is to incorporate an animated pointer on your slide.
* Keep your body turned toward the audience and your body language open and friendly.

**B.Dressing style***(Dress for success)*

Look and act **professional**. Develop a confident (but not arrogant) stage presence. Look at your audience and make **frequent eye contact** with them. This conveys an air of confidence and knowledgeability about the subject matter.

Avoid doing things that distract the audience such as nervous habits or noticeable repetitive hand motions. Don’t insult your audience or put them in a position of having to admit their ignorance. Don’t ask, “how many of you don’t know…?”; rather say, “some of you may not know…”

**Dress professionally**

** Know who audience will be**

**Men – ties should be darker than shirt**

**Women – go easy on jewelry**

**Shoes**

**Empty pockets**

**\*Ways of decreasing Performance anxiety or Nervousness**

Most people feel nervous about speaking in front of a group and that’s not a bad thing—a bit of adrenaline can help a performance. However, an oral presentation is a performance, so you need to act the part of a confident speaker. To make sure that ‘stage fright’ doesn’t become a problem, here are some strategies to try:

• Being well-prepared and organized reduces anxiety and makes presenting easier. Make sure you’ve prepared and rehearsed, that your notes are arranged in correct order and any visuals work without any problems.

• Take a few deep breaths. Breathing slowly and evenly will calm you down especially if you’re prone to ‘the shakes’ (in your hands or your voice) when you’re nervous.

• Stand in a balanced position, facing the audience, feet apart. Smile!

• If you feel nervous, tell the audience — they will understand. Remember that the audience consists of your instructors and friends. They want you to share your experiences and succeed.

• Before the presentation, try to familiarize yourself with the room, the computer system, laser pointers etc. Furthermore, do not make the slides too crowded. Make the first couple of slides fairly easy. It will help ease the early nervousness.

**\*Demeanor*(Don’t be boring)***

Enthusiasm is contagious. If the speaker shows excitement for the topic, the audience will listen attentively. Listeners can **absorb only a fewpoints** during a 20-30 minutes presentation. Concentrate on what is significant and avoid intricate mathematics that are not critical to the presentation.

**Show enthusiasm**

**Involve your audience**

**Don’t get distracted**

**Forgetting a minor point or two is okay**

**Lose your train of thought – recover by asking if audience has any questions**

**4.3. Reviewing Articles**

In this section you will review articles individually and in group and then present it to your classmates.

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***Congratulations you come up to the end of unit four!***

**Samples for the preliminary sections of the research report**

***Sample 1: Cover page***

**Woldia University**

**College of Social Sciences and Humanities**

**Department of English Language and Literature**

**An Investigation on EFL Teachers’ Perceptions, Challenges and**

**Practices of Action Research: With Particular Reference to Three**

**Government Secondary and Preparatory Schools of**

**Woldia Town,2010 E.C.**

**By:**

**HabtamuAyenew**

**A Senior Essay Submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature in Partial Fulfillments for the Degree of Arts in English Language and Literature**

**Advisor: SerkalemKassa**

**May, 2017**

**Woldia, Ethiopia**

***Sample 2: Abstract***

***ABSTRACT***

*The purpose of this study was to investigate EFL teachers’ perceptions, challenges & practices of action research with particular reference to five government Secondary & Preparatory schools of West Virginia town administration. Furthermore, the roles of principals, curriculum core process owners & English department heads to coordinate teachers’ involvement in action research have been explored.*

*The target population of the study were all EFL teachers, principals, curriculum core process owners and English department heads currently working in five Secondary & Preparatory school of West Virginia town.72 EFL teachers, 5 principals, 5 school curriculum core process owners and 5 English department heads were selected as subjects of the study through comprehensive sampling technique.*

*To achieve the objectives of the study, descriptive survey method was employed. In data collection questionnaire, interview and FGD were used. Questionnaires were distributed to 66 EFL teachers (90.4%). 49(74.2%) of EFL teachers participated in FGD. Interview was held with 5 (100 %) principals, 5(100%) curriculum core process owners and 5 (100%) English department heads. This was important to substantiate the data. Both quantitative & qualitative methods were used to analyze the data. The mean, standard deviation and one-sample t-test of each item was computed using SPSS.*

*Finally, the findings of the study revealed that EFL teachers of West Virginia town secondary & preparatory schools do not accept action research as professional responsibility and as an integral part of CPD, but they believe it should be integrated with English language teaching.Furthermore,they have positive attitude towards the role of action research in different dimensions. Challenges that affect EFL teachers’ involvement in action research were found to be:lack of research skills & experience, engagement in routine activities, absence of collaboration among colleagues, absence of training & experience exchange program on action research, lack of research advisors in schools, lack of access to books, journals and articles related to action research. The above challenges can be summarized as human barriers, school related challenges & resource constraints. The other practical constraints were found to be lack of action research knowledge, experience & skill, discomfort in writing skills, absence of trends of reading action research journals, articles and not taking relevant courses on action research etc. Members of the school leadership in most schools encourage teacher action-researchers by giving the necessary administrative, financial and psychological support. Based on the conclusions drawn, the recommendations along with suggestions for further study were made.*

***Sample 3 :Acknowledgements***

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, my heartfelt gratitude goes to my advisor BahiruAlemu who gave me friendly comments and suggestions from the conception till the accomplishment of this study. Once again, I want to express my sincere gratitude to him for his invaluable, clear & constructive feedback he gave me at each phase of this study. His humble, encouraging, genuine and friendly assistance helped me a lot to go further and to brighten the dim areas of this research that I couldn’t perceive clearly. In addition, his deep insights in framing the research using literature & creating consistent linkage among every sections of the research were significant compass for me to advance forward.

Next, I am grateful to AtoMeleseGetachew, English teacher at Mexico School for his assistance in organizing the data & giving other suggestions. My gratitude goes to Ato Belay Admassie, counselor at Mexico School and AtoAlayu a teacher in Freedom school who helped me on how to organize data using SPSS. I never forget AtoMesfinDawed, Amharic teacher at Mexico School for his brilliant suggestions & encouragements during questionnaire designing. I am also grateful to Ato Abraham Beyene, principal of Freedom Secondary School. He helped me in dispatching and collecting the questionnaires. I would like to thank again Mexico School for material assisiance, photocopy and printer access. Again my gratitude also goes to AtoKebedeEndris, English teacher at Freedom School,AtoYaredAsnake,English teacher at Admas School who helped me in dispatching questionnaire & convincing resepondents.Likewise,AtoEndrisYesuf from Admas assisted me a lot.

Then, I would like to thank all Secondary & Preparatory school EFL teachers of West Verginia town administration who serve as the back bone for this study. They gave me the necessary data by filling the questionnaire and by participating in FGD passing through stressful moments due to time table pressures. Last but not least, thank you all English department heads, principals & curriculum core process owners in all government secondary & Preparatory schools of West Verginia town for your participation during interview.

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