

University of Hassiba Benbouali, Chlef

Faculty of Foreign Languages

Department of English



Module: Techniques de Recherche

(Méthodologie de la recherche universitaire 1: Canveva Updated)

Level: Thrid Year Licence

Coeficient: 02

Credits: 02

U E Méthodologique : Code : UEM 3.1 /Crédits : 9 /Coefficient : 5

Dr.Naimi Amara

2024-2025

Module: Techniques de Recherche

Lesson 1: Introduction to the Module and Its Assessment

Level: Third Year

1.Introduction:This module is delivered as follows: there will be 10 workshops taught face-to-face (roughly 30 hours). You will then have to dedicate more hours to independent study. There will be a variety of student-centred activities and exercises in which you will reflect on the way you learn and carry out both individual and group work to practise research skills.You will be given the opportunity to share your learning experience with your tutors and peers both face-to-face and online.

2.The intended learning outcomes are that on completion of this module you should be able to:

1. Discuss the key concepts involved in developing a project plan for a dissertation or for a portfolio of professional practice.

2. Retrieve literature relevant to the chosen subject or professional practice scenario and demonstrate the ability to undertake a critical review of such literature in order to frame the research question.
3. Critically compare alternative relevant research techniques and evaluate their uses and limitations.
4. Present a draft project plan, outlining its aims and objectives and demonstrating an understanding of validity, reliability and generalisability or relevant reflective practice considerations.

3. Module tutors

Module Leader	Reception Day	E-mail
Naimi AMARA	Monday	n.amara@univ-chlef.dz

4. Teaching guide and plan:

Session 1: Introduction to the module, and its assessment

What is research?

Investigating topics/Choosing topics

What are you aiming for? : as a dissertation (Just a as a proposal)

At home:

Think of the area and topic you would like to research. What is appropriate 'data'?

Flow chart in Richards et al 368-9. Read Sunderland 2010 'Research Questions in Linguistics'.

Session 2: Introduction to the APA (MLA?) Referencing System

Book+Article+Website+Theses

Session 3: a) The literature review

Understanding sources and line of reasoning.

Identifying main arguments and summarising secondary sources.

Read the journal article given out in class, do the exercise based upon it and be prepared to discuss it next class.

Using the library for research: lecture and in-class activities

Read Cottrell Ch 6 'Core research skills'

Find research articles in AL/ELT journals

Session 4: The literature review 2

Discussion of Sunderland, Richards et al and Dornyei readings.

Further reading: Bell Chs. 4-6.

Find 3 articles from your proposed dissertation topic area.

Session: Introduction to methodology

Identifying a suitable methodology for studies in applied linguistics/EFL

Read Bell, Ch 1 and 115-123

Session 5: Methodology 1

Quantitative and qualitative studies (Dornyei Ch. 2)

Session 6: Methodology 2 :Questionnaires

Read Dornyei, Ch 5, Nunan 1992, Ch 7 or Nunan and Bailey Ch 5.

Activity: critique/design a questionnaire

Session 7: Methodology 3 : Interviews

Read Richards 2009

Survey based studies – some issues with questionnaires and interviews

Read Nunan and Bailey, 148-155

Session 8: Methodology 4 : Mixed methods research

Types of mixed method design

Session 9 : Managing qualitative data

Types of qualitative data and examples of studies that analyse qualitative data

Read Holliday 2010, Dornyei Ch. 6

Carrying out research

Read Bell 2010 Ch 3.

Narrative studies: Benson and Nunan 2004

Session 10: Oral Presentation skills / b) Ethics guidelines

a) Presentation skills

Read Cottrell 265-8

b) Adhering to ethics guidelines

5. Module Assessment

TD(100%) = 5 (attendance) + 5(participation)+ 10 (test or project)

6.MODULE RESOURCES

The essential textbook(s) are:

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*.
Oxford: OUP. **(This book is available in our library)**

Bell, J. and Waters, S. (2011) 6th ed. *Doing your Research Project: A Guide for First-time Researchers*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Recommended Books

Brown, J. D. (1988) Understanding Research in Second Language Learning : a Teacher's Guide to Statistics and Research Design. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, J. D. and Rodgers, T. (2002) Doing Second Language Research. Oxford; Oxford University Press.

Burton, D.M and Bartlett, S. (2004) *Practitioner Research for Teachers. London: Sage.*

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2011) 7th Edition *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge.

Cottrell, S. (2013) 4th Edition *The Study Skills Handbook*. Basingstoke : Palgrave.

Cottrell, S. (2014) *Dissertations and Project Reports: A Step-by-step Guide*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cousin, G. (2009) *Researching Learning in Higher Education*. London: Routledge.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (2005) (eds) 3rd Edition. *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

Litosseliti, L. (2003) *Using Focus groups in Research*. London: Continuum.

Mackey A. and Gass, S.M. (2005) *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. London: Routledge.

Mackey, A. and Gass, S. (2012) *Research Methods in Second language Acquisition: A Practical Guide*. Chichester: Wiley Blackwell.

Moon, J. A. (2006) 2nd Edition. *Learning Journals: A Handbook for Reflective Practice and Professional Development*. Abingdon: Routledge

Nunan, D. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.

O'Keeffe, A. McCarthy, M. and Carter, R. 2007 *From Corpus to Classroom: Language Use and Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, K., Ross, S. and Seedhouse, P. (2012) *Research Methods for Applied Language Studies..*

Robson, C. (2002) 2nd Edition. *Real World Research*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Sealey, A. (2010) *Researching English Language : A Resource Book for Students*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Wray, A. & Bloomer A. (2011) 3rd Edition *Projects in Linguistics and language Studies*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Module: Techniques de Recherche

Lesson 2: Research Definition and Types

Level: Third Year

What is Research?

Our analysis takes an important notion from Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 21) who suggest that ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection. This view moves us beyond regarding research methods as simply a technical exercise and as concerned with understanding the world; this is informed by how we view our world(s), what we take understanding to be, and what we see as the purposes of understanding.

THE WORD RESEARCH IS COMPOSED OF TWO SYLLABLES, RE AND SEARCH. THE DICTIONARY DEFINES THE FORMER AS A PREFIX MEANING AGAIN, A NEW, OR OVER AGAIN AND THE LATTER AS A VERB MEANING TO EXAMINE

CLOSELY AND CAREFULLY, TO TEST AND TRY, OR TO PROBE. TOGETHER THEY FORM A NOUN DESCRIBING A CAREFUL, SYSTEMATIC, PATIENT STUDY AND INVESTIGATION IN SOME FIELD OF KNOWLEDGE, UNDERTAKEN TO ESTABLISH FACTS OR PRINCIPLES.

- SEARCH FOR KNOWLEDGE

IT IS A SYSTEMATIC AND SCIENTIFIC SEARCH FOR PERTINENT/RELEVANT INFORMATION ON A SPECIFIC TOPIC

A SYSTEMATISED EFFORT TO GAIN NEW KNOWLEDGE; A MOVEMENT FROM THE KNOWN TO THE UNKNOWN

- ***According to C.C. Crawford:***

He writes that “Research is simply a systematic and refined technique of thinking, employing specialised tools, instruments, and procedures in order to obtain a more adequate solution of a problem than would be possible under ordinary means. It starts with a problem, collects data or facts, analysis these critically and reaches decisions based on the actual evidence. It evolves original work

instead of mere exercise of personal. It evolves from a genuine desire to know rather than a desire to prove something.”

- When you say that you are undertaking a research study to find answers to a question, you are implying that the process;

1. is being undertaken within a framework of a set of philosophies (approaches);

2. uses procedures, methods and techniques that have been tested for their validity and reliability;

3. is designed to be unbiased and objective .

- **Philosophies** means approaches e.g. qualitative, quantitative and the academic discipline in which you have been trained.
- **Validity** means that correct procedures have been applied to find answers to a question.
- **Reliability** refers to the quality of a measurement procedure that provides repeatability and accuracy.
- **Unbiased and objective** means that you have taken each step in an unbiased manner and drawn each conclusion to the best of your

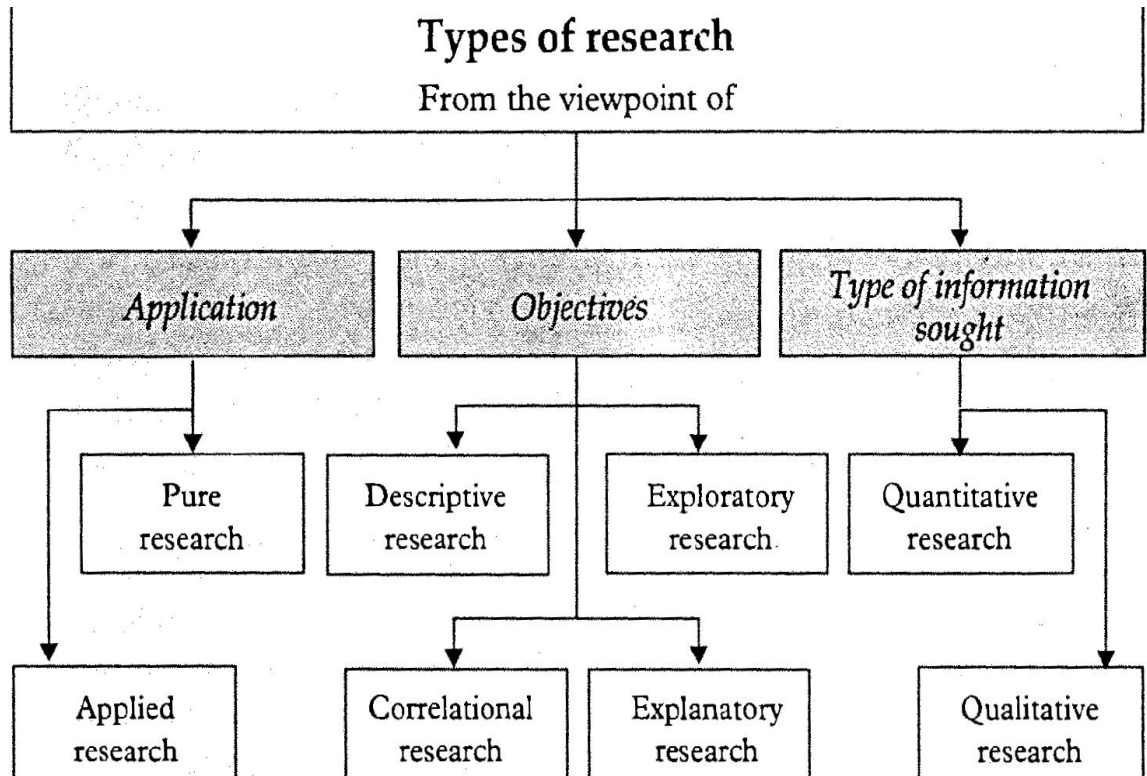
ability and without introducing your own vested interest.

(Bias is a deliberate attempt to either conceal or highlight something).

- Adherence to the three criteria mentioned above enables the process to be called 'research'. **However**, the degree to which these criteria are expected to be fulfilled varies from discipline to discipline and so the meaning of 'research' differs from one academic discipline to another.
- The difference between **research** and **non-research** activity is, in the way we find answers: the process must *meet certain requirements to be called research*. We can identify these requirements by examining some definitions of research.

Types of Research

- **Research can be classified from three perspectives:**
 - **I. Application of the research study**
 - **II. Objectives**
 - **III. Inquiry mode employed**



Another classification by Brown (2001)

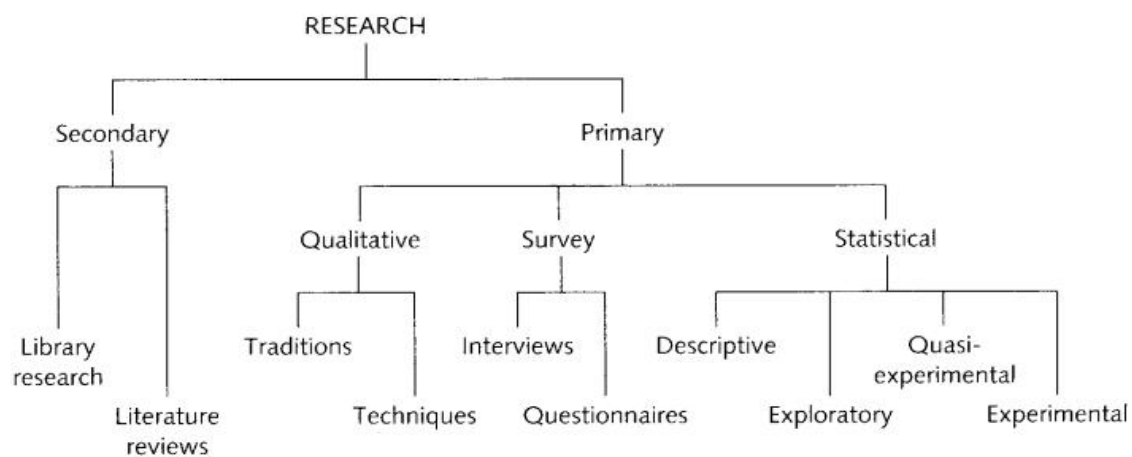


Figure 19.2 Broad categories of research (adapted from Brown, 2001)
© Cambridge University Press.

Module: Techniques de Recherche

Lesson 3: Research Topics and Research Questions

Level: Third Year

HOW TO SELECT A RESEARCH PROBLEM

An ‘angle’ for your research can come from insights stemming from:

- personal experience
- theory
- observations
- contemporary issues
- engagement with the literature

What is a research problem?!

A research problem, in general, refers to some difficulty which a researcher experiences in the context of either a **theoretical** or **practical** situation and wants to obtain a solution for the same. The research problem undertaken for study must be carefully selected. The task is a difficult one, although it may not appear to be so. Help may be taken from a research guide in this connection. Nevertheless, every researcher must find out his own salvation for research problems cannot be borrowed.

Where do Research Questions come from?

1.2 Where do research questions come from?

One broad answer to this question is 'the literature'. In the process of reading and of writing a literature review around your topic:

- you may come across a suggestion for an (unanswered) research question; however, do check that it has not, in fact, been addressed, and, indeed, that as a question it is both worthy of investigation (is it still interesting and original?) and operationalizable (see below)
- you may decide to replicate someone else's work, perhaps to challenge it, perhaps within a different or particularly interesting context, or perhaps to use a different form of analysis on the same or related data
- you may identify a 'niche' in the research literature, that is, something related to your topic has been asked, but something else has not.

Why do we need research questions?

1.1 Why do we need research questions?

Research questions are, I argue, the key to any empirical research project. Without research questions, you will flounder; with them, you will be guided in terms of data needed, data collection methods and data analysis. Ask yourself, 'What data do I need?' The answer is "That which best enables me to

answer my research question(s)'. 'How do I analyse it?' 'In a way which allows me to address my research question(s)'. And so on. This is because a piece of empirical research is normally *designed* to address one or more research questions – the answers to which should constitute a 'contribution to knowledge'.

In the social sciences, empirical research very often employs *explicit* research questions. If you are about to conduct empirical research, first ask yourself, 'What am I trying to find out in my research project?' If you can answer this, you have the basis for a research question.

Why are research questions important?

“Well-crafted questions guide the systematic planning of research. Formulating your questions precisely enables you to design a study with a good chance of answering them.”

-- Light, Singer, Willett, By Design (1990)

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

After selecting a problem, it should be stated carefully by the researcher to delimit his task and isolate a specific problem before he can proceed with active planning of the study. This type of decision is culminated in the problem statement.

Kerlinger (1964) has identified three criteria of good Problem Statements.

1. A problem should be concerned with relation between two or more variables. (eg, age, sexetc)
2. It should be stated “clearly and unambiguously in question form.

3. It should be amenable to empirical testing.

1.4 Types of research questions

To illustrate some possible 'types' of research questions, let us take the topic of 'beliefs of UK primary school teachers about foreign language teaching and acquisition'. Within this, your research question(s) might be one (or more) of the following:

- Do French teachers working in UK primary schools agree with the teaching of French to Year 6 primary school children?
- What reasons do French teachers working in UK primary schools give for including the teaching of French to Year 6 children in the curriculum?
- What reasons do French teachers working in UK primary schools give against the teaching of French to Year 6 primary school children?
- How do UK primary school teachers of French believe Year 6 children best learn French?
- What is the range and diversity of beliefs of UK primary school teachers of French in relation to the teaching of French to Year 6 children?
- Why do UK primary school teachers of French hold these beliefs?

Note that these research questions are formulated as *interrogatives*: *Do*, *What*, *How*, *Why*. Other research questions might start with *Is/Are*, *When*,

Where, *Who* or *To what extent*? These interrogatives suggest different sorts of research questions: whereas *How*, *When*, *Where*, *What*, *Is/Are*, *Do/Does* and *To what extent* may be descriptive,¹ *Why* is clearly explanatory.

Hypotheses

You may be used to the term *hypothesis* rather than *research question*. Hypotheses are more characteristic of the natural than the social sciences. While hypotheses and research questions are related, hypotheses tend to be more precise. A hypothesis is conventionally worded as a statement, which is to be investigated and proved or disproved through empirical study. An example would be 'In terms of school library use, boys in Year 6 of UK Primary Schools borrow (a) more works of non-fiction than fiction, and (b) more works of non-fiction than do girls.' Hypotheses are also perhaps more characteristic of quantitative than qualitative research (see Chapter 3). Research questions, accordingly, are characteristic of *qualitative* research, and are likely to be both broader and more exploratory than hypotheses, for example, 'What are the borrowing practices of UK Primary School Year 6 girls and boys in terms of fiction and non-fiction?'

Hypothesis Definition

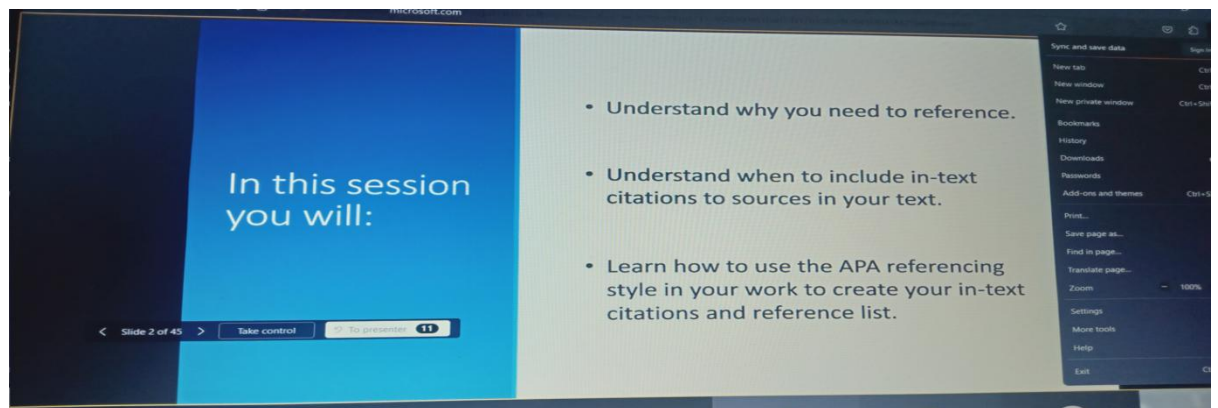
A tentative statement about the solution of the problem. Hypothesis offers a solution of the problem that is to be verified empirically and based on some rationale.

Module: Techniques de Recherche

Lesson 3: *Academic Writing: Introduction to the APA Referencing System*

Level: Third Year

Objectives of the lesson:



Academic Writing Quiz :

1 The main difference between academic writing and other writing is that academic writing:

a) uses longer words b) tries to be precise and unbiased c) is harder to understand

2 The difference between a project and an essay is: a) essays are longer b) projects are longer c) students choose projects' subjects

3 Teachers frequently complain about students: a) not answering the question given b) not writing enough c) writing in pencil

4 The best time to write an introduction is often:

a) first b) last c) after writing the main body

5 The purpose of an introduction is:

a) to give your aims and methods b) to excite the reader c) to summarise your ideas

6 Making careful notes is essential for:

a) writing essays b) revising for exams c) all academic work

7 An in-text citation looks like:

a) (Manton, 2008) b) (Richard Manton, 2008) c) (Manton, R. 2008)

8 Paraphrasing a text means:

a) making it shorter b) changing a lot of the vocabulary c) adding more detail

9 Paragraphs always contain:

a) six or more sentences b) an example c) a topic sentence

10 Proofreading means:

a) getting a friend to check your work b) checking for minor errors c) rewriting

11 Teachers expect students to adopt a critical approach to their sources:

a) sometimes b) only for Master's work c) always

12. This punctuation mark (') is called:

a) comma b) colon c) apostrophe

13 A suitable synonym for 'business' is:

a) firm b) organisation c) outfit

14 'Progress' and 'research' are both nouns. What kind of noun?

a) countable b) uncountable c) proper

15 An abstract is normally found:

a) on the back cover of books b) before journal articles c) in exam questions

Answer the question

What is the main difference between academic writing and other writing?

Use formal English

Aim for clarity

Learn how to use specialist vocabulary

be impersonal

Be cautious

Avoid apologies

Avoid addressing the reader

Be concise

Keep back up your claims with the literature/acknowledging sources

Why do think we need to refernce?

Supports your arguments with evidence and examples

Gives others credit and recognition for their work

Separates your ideas from the ideas of others

Informs the reader of the sources you have used

Helps you to avoid plagiarism and demonstrate good academic practice

Acknowledging Sources

If you borrow from, or refer to, the work of another person, you must show that you have done this by providing the correct acknowledgement.

Example:

Read this paragraph from a book called *Power and the State* by Martin Smith (2009):

The point is not that the state is in retreat but that it is developing new forms of power which change the way it operates, how it affects citizens, and how it delivers policy. The foundations of the modern state are still in place but states are operating in new and diverse ways which create complex relationships with civil society.

There are at least two ways to use this idea in your work and acknowledge the source:

1 Summary and citation

Smith (2009) claims that the modern state wields power in new ways.

2 Quotation and citation

According to Smith (2009): 'The point is not that the state is in retreat but that it is developing new forms of power. . .' (p.103).

These in-text citations are linked to a list of references at the end of the main text which includes the following details:

Author	Date	Title	Publisher
Smith, M.	(2009).	<i>Power and the State.</i>	Palgrave Macmillan

You must reference in your assignments. If you do not, it is considered plagiarism. You can lose marks, and may fail the assignment. You must reference when you:

◀use a direct quote (you must also put the quote in“quotation marks”)

◀paraphrase something you have read by putting it into your own words

◀summarise what someone else has said about a topic

◀include data, images, diagrams etc. that you did not create yourself.

Accurate referencing can earn you marks, as citing the work of others shows that you are widening your understanding through reading,adds evidence to your assignment and strengthens your arguments.

How to reference :Hints and tips

APA referencing has two elements to it: the in-text citation, and the list of references.

In-text citations are short references which go in the body of your assignment. They include the author’s last name, or a company name, the year of publication, and the page number if relevant.

If you use the author’s name in your sentence, put the date directly after the name. For example, Ward (2016) claims that

a virtual learning environment can enhance your learning (p. 33).

For instance, it is argued that a virtual learning environment may also increase student collaboration (Zisu, 2017, p. 10).

The list of references goes at the end of your assignment.

It includes all of the additional information about a source such as the title and publisher. Your references should be in alphabetical order by author and in a single list

Authors:

One or two authors

If a source has one or two authors, you should use all of their names in

both the in-text citation and list of references. For example:

(McCall & Taylor, 2014, p. 98)

McCall, J., & Taylor, J. (2014). A guide to computers (2nd ed.). Palgrave.

Three or more authors

If a source has three or more authors, in the in-text citation, you should

use the first author's name followed by 'et al.,'. You must list all authors in

the list of references. For example:

(Wilson et al., 2017, p. 103)

Wilson, J., Mohammed, S., Quinn, J., & Amos, T. (2017). Guide to management (3rd ed.). Palgrave.

No named authors

If you cannot find a named author, use the company or organisation's name. For example:

(Health and Care Professions Council, 2018)

Health and Care Professions Council. (2018). Standards of proficiency. <https://www.hcpc-uk.org/standards/> standards-of-proficiency

NB: You should consider the accuracy, quality and relevance of information you use. If you have found information from the internet, this is particularly important as anyone can produce information online.

In-text citations:

In addition to a list of references at the end of your work, in-text citations go in the body of your work whenever you have taken information from somewhere else.

There are two acceptable ways to write an in-text citation and you will probably use both in your writing.

Parenthetical/information prominent

Include all of the information in brackets at the end of your sentence

(note that the citation should go before the full stop).

For example:

Students need to develop a range of time management related skills (Smith, 2020, p. 15).

Narrative/author prominent

Include the author's name in the structure of your sentence.

The year the source was produced should be in brackets just after the author's name.

If you are citing a source with page numbers, e.g. a book, you should put the page number at the end of the quotation or paraphrase.

For example:

Smith (2020) emphasises that students need to develop a range of time management skills (p. 15).

Hints and Tips:

There are good quality reference management software options

available. The library team can help you make an informed decision as to which is most suitable for you.

◀ However you create your references, it is your responsibility to ensure that they are correctly formatted to APA 7th edition style.

◀ Use 'n.d.' if you cannot find a date for a source. This stands for

'no date' and looks like this:

Hall, J. (n.d.). Customer service. Routledge.

◀ The library team is happy to assist with your referencing; please contact us for help.

An example of a piece of writing and a list of references

The example below is taken from a written assignment. In text citations are included throughout the paragraph, indicating when the author has used information from external sources, such as text books or websites. A list of references is provided at the end of the assignment. This lists all sources cited in the assignment in alphabetical order.

Writing at university is designed to be challenging and intellectually stimulating (Cottrell, 2019, p. 23). As a result, students may benefit from being able to book writing support. During the academic year 2019/2020, CU Coventry students engaged in over 150 appointments with academic writing staff (Quinn & Mohammed, 2020).

According to Wilson and Devi (2018) 'university students look to seek help from support services following either positive or negative feedback from academic staff' (p. 100).

Reference list

Cottrell, S. (2019). *The study skills handbook* (5th ed.). Red Globe Press.

Quinn, D., & Mohammed, N. (2020). *CU Coventry academic writing summary*. Coventry University.
<http://www.coventry.ac.uk/cuc/academic-writing>

Wilson, B., & Devi, F. (2018). Support services in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Services*, 5(4), 90-110.
<https://doi.org/10.9.181.9/974975957>

Citation of different sources

BOOK

Journal Article

Websites and Electronic Reports

Figures and Tables

Theses and dissertations

Book

In-text citation

(Kumar, 2015, p. 255)

Author Year Page

Reference list

Author (Year) Title in italics.

Kumar, S. (2015). *Social care: Developing excellent practice* (3rd ed.). Tiger Publications.

Edition. Publisher

Checklist:

- ☐ Author (surname, initials)
- ☐ Year of publication in round brackets, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Title in italics
- ☐ Edition, in round brackets, followed by ed. and a full stop (not required for first editions)
- ☐ Publisher, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Some books have a DOI. If you can see this, add it after the publisher. A DOI will look like this: <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118827352>

Journal article



In-text citation

(Quinn & Mohammed, 2016, p. 101)

Author

Year

Page

Reference list

Quinn, D. R., & Mohammed, B. (2016). Report writing. *Academic Writing Journal*, 14(3), 99-110.
<https://doi.org/10.1.2211/xnbghf71>

DOI

Volume and issue number

Checklist:

- ☐ Author (surname, initials)
- ☐ Year of publication in round brackets, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Title of article, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Title of journal in italics, followed by a comma
- ☐ Volume number in italics
- ☐ Issue number in brackets, followed by a comma
- ☐ Pages of the article, followed by a full stop
- ☐ If the article has a DOI, add this after the page range



If you cannot find the article's DOI and you have found the article on Locate or a library database (e.g. ProQuest), leave this bit out. If you have found the article on another website, put the URL in place of the DOI.

Webpages and electronic reports



Contents

Example 1: where there is a corporate author.
In-text citation

(Coventry University, 2017)

Author Year

Reference list

Coventry University. (2017). *Life at CU London*.
<http://www.coventry.ac.uk/cuc/life-at-cul>

Author (Year) Title in italics Web address



If the webpage is designed to be updated regularly, include a retrieval date. For more information, consult the long guide (Referencing in APA Style, 7th edition).

Webpages and electronic reports



Example 2: where there is a named author, rather than a corporate author.

In-text citation

(Harrison, 2017)

Author Year

Reference list

Author (Year) Title in italics Company name

Harrison, F. (2017). *CU Scarborough a snapshot*. Coventry University. <http://www.coventry.ac.uk/cuc/coventrysnapshot>

Web address

Checklist:

- ☐ Author (surname, initials, or company name)
- ☐ Date of publication in round brackets: be as specific as possible. This might be a year only; a year and month; or a year, month, and day, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Title in italics, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Company name if this is not the same as the author, followed by a full stop
- ☐ Web address

Figures and tables



This section explains how to format and reference images (which are called Figures in APA style) and tables.

Labels

Give each figure or table a number in bold above it. You should also include an appropriate title; this should be spaced below the figure or table number and should be in italics.

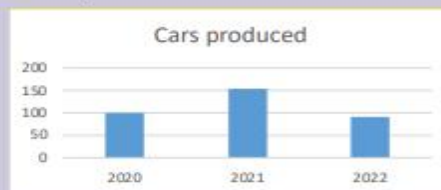
Citation

If you have copied or adapted information from another source, you must include an in-text citation underneath. To do this, follow the normal rules for in-text citations.

Example:

Figure 1

Cars produced 2020-22



From CU Automotive (2022)

*For tables, use table in the label.
E.g. Table 1

*If you have adapted an image or table from a source, in your in-text citation you should include adapted from rather than from. For example:
Adapted from Statista (2020)

Reference list

Include an entry in your list of references as normal.

CU Automotive. (2022). *Cars produced during 2020-2022*.
<https://cuautomotive.com/carproduction>



Postgraduate researchers, who are publishing work, will need to provide a copyright attribution. A copyright attribution follows a different format to the guidance shown here: please see LibGuides for more information.

Citing a dissertation published elsewhere

To cite a dissertation or thesis published in a university archive (often [in PDF form](#)) or on a personal website, the format differs in that no publication number is included, and you do list a URL.

APA format	Author last name, Initials. (Year). <i>Dissertation title</i> [Type of dissertation/thesis, University Name]. Archive Name. URL
APA reference entry	Behrens, B. (2020). <i>Linguistic markers of maternal focus within emotional conversations: The role of depressive symptoms and maltreatment</i> [Master's thesis, University of Notre Dame]. CurateND. https://curate.nd.edu/show/9k41zc80w8w
APA in-text citation	(Behrens, 2020)

Dissertation/Thesis 2

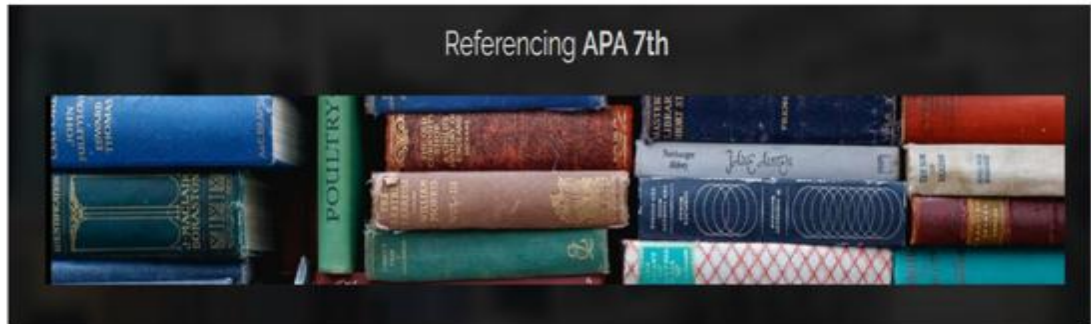
Citing an unpublished dissertation in APA Style

To cite an unpublished dissertation (one you got directly from the author or university in print form), add “Unpublished” to the bracketed description, and list the university at the end of the reference, outside the square brackets.

APA format	Author last name, Initials. (Year). <i>Dissertation title</i> [Unpublished type of dissertation/thesis]. University Name.
APA reference entry	Smith, J. (2020). <i>Effects of cognitive behavioral therapy on agoraphobic patients</i> [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Amsterdam.
APA in-text citation	(Smith, 2020)

Quiz

Do the following task:



Assignment 1: Exercise on referencing and arguing

- Form groups of 3 students , think about a topic of your interest and write a short essay of 5 paragraphs . You need to support your side and your claims by relying on experts and scholars and citing these sources properly.
- Use 4 to 5 different types of sources: Book, journal article, website, dissertations and Tables/Figures.
- Use one Quote (short); Narrative in-text citation(s); and Parenthetical in-text citation(s).
- Write the essay using the APA referencing system (7th edition) first and then the MLA one (9th edition)
- Provide the list of references/Works cited list at the end of the essay.

Exercise 2 on referencing and arguing

Extract from a research project

- 1.Look at the extract below, then look at the references. What is the title of Moon's book?
- 2.Have all the references been reported in the 'References List'?
- 3.Are there any referencing ambiguities?
- 4.Are all the references at the end correct?
- 5.Who is the writer writing in favour of/arguing in favour of?
- 6.How can you tell?

Relationships between reflection and learning are complex and multifaceted (Moon, 2004, p.85). There is however evidence that reflection on what is being learnt and on the processes involved in learning can enhance learning and foster understanding (e.g.: Bransford et al.,2000). Citing research from the 1980s and 90s, Moon makes a connection between reflection and metacognition:

Reflection also encourages metacognition that supports learning. Learners who achieve well are more often those who are aware of, and able to reflect on, their own learning processes, their weaknesses and strengths (Moon, 2004:86).

The role of metacognition features as a (contested) topic in the field of grammar learning. It is generally acknowledged that there is a

difference between ‘tacit’ grammar knowledge and ‘active’ application of that knowledge (this relates to Chomsky 1968). There is an ongoing debate relating to whether or not engaging in metacognitive grammatical activities can enhance language learning and whether or not a focus on linguistic form can benefit learning. The debate is well summarised by Klapper (2006:396-405) who has published widely on the subject of formal grammar teaching. Klapper criticises the pervasive ‘communicative language teaching approach’ (Widdowson, 1979; Breen & Candlin, 1980) arguing in favour of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) that values grammatical accuracy (1997; 1998 and 2003:35). The benefits of stimulating the language learner’s proficiency via metacognition at university level have been highlighted by many linguists (e.g. Klapper, 2006).

List of references

Bransford, J.D., Brown, A.L. & Cocking, R.R. (2000) *How People Learn: Brain, Mind, Experience and School*. Washington: National Academy Press.

Breen, M., and Candlin, C. (1980) The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 89-112.

Chomsky, N. (1968) *Language and Mind*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Klapper, J. (2006) *Understanding and developing good practice: Language teaching in higher education*. London: CILT.

Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon.

Moon, J. (2004) *A Handbook of Reflective and Experiential Learning: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge/Falmer

Example Essay – What is the point of referencing?

(adapted from www.learnhigher.ac.uk)

The following essay was written by a student and their tutor has made comments to the left. Read the essay and the comments and decide which comment (a-i) goes with which section (1-9).

What is the point of referencing?

The introduction to an essay is very important. Here the student immediately addresses the question.

MISSING COMMENT 1

The student summarises the structure of the essay.

Engages with the first of the reasons for referencing: construction of arguments. The student draws on the work of a published writer (Becker) in support of the four points made.

MISSING COMMENT 2

The writing is descriptive at this point in the essay.

The word 'However', signals a change of direction: the writing becomes more analytical. It goes beyond the four points described in the previous paragraph to make a new contribution to the discussion.

The student illustrates

The reasons why accurate referencing is essential for academic work are not immediately apparent, particularly for students new to higher education. This essay will, therefore, examine why referencing is an essential part of academic writing and in the process address the question: "what is the point of referencing?"

There are three main reasons for referencing. Firstly, referencing helps student writers to construct, structure, support and communicate arguments. Secondly, references link the writer's work to the existing body of knowledge. Thirdly, only through referencing can academic work gain credibility. This essay will discuss these three aspects of referencing in detail, examine their validity, identify how referencing affects a writer's writing style, and show how referencing helps students to present their own ideas and opinions in assignments.

Becker (1986) believes the construction of arguments is the most important function of referencing systems. There are four dimensions to this. Firstly, drawing on existing literature, academic writers can construct their own arguments - and adopting a referencing system supports this process. Secondly, it helps to structure the existing information and arguments by linking published authors to their respective works. Thirdly, referencing helps academic writers identify sources, gather evidence, as well as show the relationships between existing knowledge. Finally, referencing also provides a framework to enable writers to structure their arguments effectively by assessing, comparing, contrasting or evaluating different sources.

However, merely describing existing research, rather than producing their own contributions to the discussion, is inadequate for most academic writers. It is important for every academic writer to avoid this narrow-minded argumentation trap; academic writing is not just about compiling existing arguments, but adding new perspectives, finding new arguments, or new ways of combining existing knowledge. For example, Barrow and Mosley (2005) combined the fields of

the point made with a practical example (Barrow & Mosley).

Develops the points made in the previous paragraph, and focuses on the importance of supporting arguments with valid evidence.

MISSING COMMENT 3

The student reinforces and supports the point made by citing the work of a published author (Neville).

MISSING COMMENT 4

Uses a quotation to reinforce the main point in this paragraph.

Explains why linking into existing knowledge is important for academic writers.

MISSING COMMENT 5

Human Resources and Brand Management to develop the "Employer Brand" concept.

When the argument has been constructed, it needs academic support – and only references can provide this required support. Academic works are not about stating opinions – as that would be akin to journalistic comment – but arguments are supported by evidence, and only arguments presented with sufficient and valid support are credible. Hence arguments are only as strong as the underlying evidence: arguments relying on questionable sources are themselves questionable.

Referencing also enables writers to communicate their arguments efficiently. The referencing framework allows them to produce a holistic work with different perspectives, whilst still emphasising their own positions; quotations, for example, help the reader to differentiate the writer's opinions from others. Again, if arguments are badly referenced, readers may not be able to distinguish the writers' own opinions from their sources. Especially for academic beginners, referencing helps them to adapt to the precise and accurate academic writing style required for degree level study. Neville (2007:10) emphasises this issue of writing style, and identifies the quest to 'find your own voice' as one of the main reasons for referencing. In academic writing, this requires developing an individual style that is neither convoluted nor convivial in tone, but which is clear, open but measured, and is about identifying and using evidence selectively to build and support one's own arguments.

Immanuel Kant said 'Science is organized knowledge.' This short quote aptly captures the point that the primary mission of science and other disciplines is not to promote individual achievements, but to establish a connected, collective, and recognised body of knowledge. This is the most fundamental reason for referencing from a theoretical point of view. Hence some authors identify this as the principal reason for referencing: '...it encourages and supports the collective construction of academic knowledge' (Walker & Taylor 2006: 30).

The writer's references are links to this network of knowledge. Without these links an academic work would operate within an academic vacuum, unrelated to existing academic knowledge. A writer needs to show how his or her work relates to current research and debates in their chosen subject area.

Referencing not only connects a student writer's work to existing research, but clearly distinguishes the writer's own ideas from established arguments – and failing to indicate that ideas are taken from the existing body of knowledge would

Cites and quotes from a published source to support the points made in this paragraph. Note how the student makes a writing bridge from this paragraph to the next.

MISSING COMMENT 6

Note the way the student makes a writing 'bridge' to the next paragraph

MISSING COMMENT 7

Also uses quotes from published authors to lend support to the points made.

Note the way a point is introduced and then emphasised with a practical illustration: "Some readers, for example, ..."

The word 'therefore' introduces a summary of the main point in this paragraph.

'Finally': the student signals that the essay is reaching its conclusion.

be plagiarism. This is one of the five principles of referencing identified by Walker and Taylor (2006). Neville (2007:9) also identifies the link to existing knowledge as one of the main reasons for adopting a referencing style; he highlights 'tracing the origin of ideas', 'spreading knowledge' and 'indicating appreciation', which leads to the next point.

Referencing a work indicates that the writer finds the referenced material important: hence references create "academic clout" in an assignment. In the global academic community a more-cited article will find more recognition. However, this practice is not without its critics. Thody (2006:186), for example, calls this the 'sycophantic' use of referencing - and it can certainly be used to 'flatter your mentors'. Thompson (2003:27) calls this 'ritualized obedience to the reigning authorities'. So the important issue here is not about selecting references for their expediency value, but for their quality. This brings us to the next point: credibility.

Martin Joseph Routh said in 1878: 'You will find it a very good practice always to verify your references, sir!' Correct referencing enables the reader to check sources and verify conclusions. The issue of credibility is identified by commentators as a key issue in referencing. Nygaard (2008:177), for example, identifies credibility as the main reason for referencing: 'The goal of referencing is to enhance [...] your credibility as an author'. Neville (2007:10) came to the same conclusion that 'to be taken seriously, [a writer] needs to make a transparent presentation of valid evidence'.

References allow the reader to trace the source of the writer's arguments, consult the original independently and verify whether the writer's usage of the sources is valid. Some readers, for example, interested in a point in question, might want to verify the writer's interpretation of a referenced work. The quality of references is, therefore, extremely important for the credibility of an academic work. Arguments are only as good as the underlying references - untrustworthy and unreliable sources can even invalidate an argument, while reliable and dependable sources strengthen the writer's argument.

Finally, the writer's selection of sources also demonstrates whether the writer has evaluated all important arguments and has a thorough understanding of the subject. Only a credible work that takes all important arguments into account will find acceptance in the academic world.

MISSING COMMENT 8

We are left with a sense that the student has answered the question.

MISSING COMMENT 9

To sum up, this essay has presented three main arguments why academic writers have to adopt a referencing system: Firstly, it helps to structure, support and communicate arguments. Secondly, it links the work to the existing body of knowledge, although it is also important for writers not merely to present the ideas of others, but to contribute where possible with innovative ideas of their own. Thirdly, only referencing can give the argument credibility – and this is a particularly significant element for success in the academic world.

References:

- Barrow, S., and Mosley, R. (2005) *The employer brand*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons
- Becker, H. (1986) *Writing for social scientists*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Neville, C. (2007) *The complete guide to referencing and avoiding plagiarism*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill/Open University Press.
- Nygaard, L. (2008) *Writing for scholars*. Universitetsforlaget.
- Thody, A. (2006) *Writing and presenting research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Thompson, A. (2003) Tiffany, friend of people of colour. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education* 16(1), 7-30.
- Walker, J. and Taylor, T. (2006) *The Columbia guide to online style*. 2nd edn. New York: Columbia University Press.

Task: Match the tutor's comments below to the correct section of the essay.

- a) The student uses a quotation to give interest to the writing and as a lead-in to the second of the four reasons for referencing: about linking to established bodies of knowledge.
- b) The concluding paragraph reminds the reader of the essay question and of the main points made in the essay.
- c) The student uses a quotation as a way into the discussion about credibility.
- d) The student is still developing the issue about construction of arguments, but moves on to an important point about referencing: that it provides a framework to distinguish the student's ideas from those of other writers.
- e) The student presents all the sources cited in the essay in the author-date (Harvard) style of referencing.
- f) The student returns to a point made earlier (about separating out own ideas from those of others) but links it this time with the issue of plagiarism.
- g)) The student introduces three main reasons for referencing.
- h) The previous paragraph was largely descriptive. But the word 'however' again signals a change to more analysis. The student brings in a criticism of referencing made by two commentators, Thody (2006) and Thompson (2003).
- i) Note the systematic way the ideas are presented: 'Firstly...; Secondly...; Thirdly...; Finally...'. This logically organizes the different points about the construction of arguments.

Lesson4: Introduction to Student's Guide to MLA Style (2021)

Objectives :

- 1 .Introducing MLA referencing style
3. Learn how cite under MLA style
4. 3.Learn how to refernce in MLA

What is MLA Style?

MLA = Modern Language Association

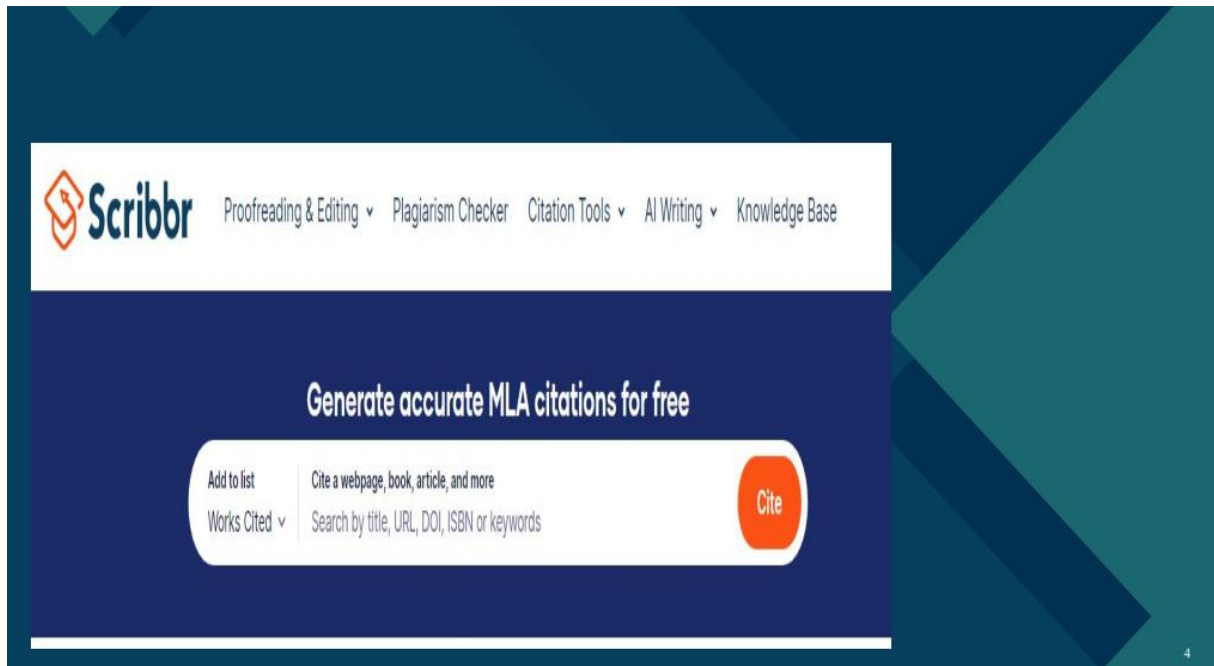
Citation style used in the humanities

Handbook currently in its 9th edition

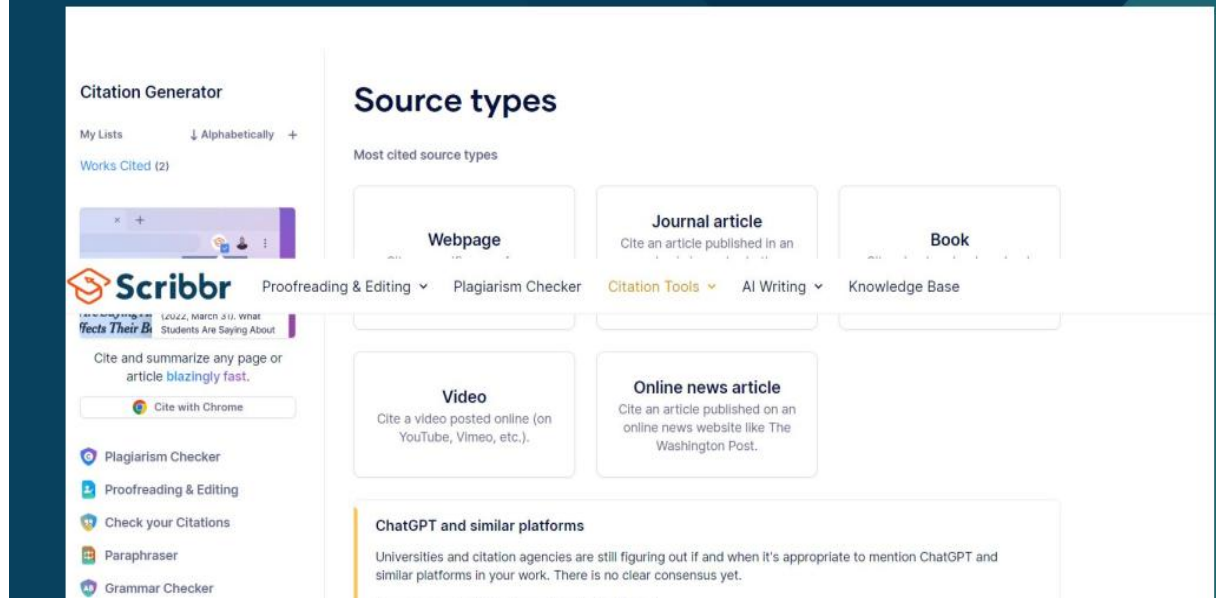
Introdcution

MLA style citations are commonly used by students and academics in the humanities. This guide follows the 9th edition (the most recent) of the MLA Handbook, published by the Modern Language Association in 2021. To cite sources in MLA style, you need 1.In-text citations that give the author's last name and a page number. 2.A list of Works Cited that gives full details of every source.

Notice: You can create citations automatically (or even manually) with free MLA Citation Generator. Enter a URL, DOI, or ISBN, and the generator will retrieve the necessary information. Eg: go to Scribbr



Manually



MLA in-text citations:

In-text citation format

Parenthetical citation

One critic convincingly argues that Frankenstein's horror at the monster's appearance mirrors the reader's horrified reaction to the novel itself (Cottom 60).

Narrative citation

Cottom argues that the monster can be taken to represent the novel itself, Frankenstein's horror upon seeing him mirroring the reader's own horror (60)

Quoting

Frankenstein's description of the monster emphasizes his grotesque appearance: his "watery eyes . . . seemed almost of the same colour as the dun white sockets in which they were set" (Shelley 39).

Block quoting

The monster's grotesque appearance is emphasized:

His yellow skin scarcely covered the work of arteries beneath; his hair was of a lustrous black, and flowing; his teeth of a pearly whiteness; but these luxuriances only formed a more horrid contrast with his watery eyes, that seemed almost of the same colour as the dun white sockets in which they were set, his shrivelled complexion, and straight black lips. (Shelley 39)

Multiple authors

Parenthetical

citation

Narrative citation

1 author (Smith 15) Smith (15)

2 authors (Smith and Jones 211) Smith and Jones (211)

3+ authors (Smith et al. 65) Smith and colleagues (65)

Combining citations

X (Smith 15) (Jones 23) (McCombes et al. 38)

✓ (Smith 15; Jones 23; McCombes et al. 38)

1. How to cite a Book, One Author

Book	Works Cited entry
No edition	Author's Last Name, First Name. Title of Book. Publisher, Year of publication.
1 author	In-text citation ⓘ Parenthetical: (Author's Last Name Page) Narrative: Author's Last Name (Page)
Book	Works Cited entry
No edition	Smith, Thomas. The Citation Manual for Students: A Quick Guide. Wiley, 2020.
1 author	In-text citation ⓘ Parenthetical: (Smith 13) Narrative: Smith (13)

Book, Two Authors

Book	Works Cited entry
2nd edition	Smith, Thomas, and Barbara Michelle Williams. <i>The Citation Manual for Students: A Quick Guide</i> . 2nd ed., Wiley, 2020.
2 authors	In-text citation ⓘ Parenthetical: (Smith and Williams 13) Narrative: Smith and Williams (13)

Book, more than 3 Authors

Book	Works Cited entry
2nd edition	Smith, Thomas, et al. <i>The Citation Manual for Students: A Quick Guide</i> . 2nd ed., Wiley, 2020.
3+ authors	In-text citation ⓘ Parenthetical: (Smith et al. 13) Narrative: Smith and others (13)

Book (Author : Organization)

Book

No edition

Organization

Works Cited entry

Academic Writing Association. *The Citation Manual for Students: A Quick Guide*. Wiley, 2020.

In-text citation ⓘ

Parenthetical: (Academic Writing Association 13)

Narrative: Academic Writing Association (13)

About Authors

When a source has two authors, the second author's name is shown in the normal order (First name Last name).

For sources with three or more authors, state only the first author's name, followed by "et al."

1 author	Johnson, David.
2 authors	Johnson, David, and Valerie Smith
3+ authors	Johnson, David, et al.

The author of a source is not necessarily a person; it can also be an organization. If so, simply use the name of the organization.

However, if the organization is both the author and publisher, start with the title of the source instead.

No Author

No author

If a source does not state a specific author, the in-text citation should match the first word(s) of the Works Cited entry, whether that's an organization name or the source title.

Format titles the same as they appear in the Works Cited, with italics or quotation marks. Use the full title if mentioned in the text itself, but an abbreviated title if included in parentheses.

The article "New Ways to Slow Down Global Warming" claims that . . . (4).

Reducing carbon emissions slows down climate change ("New Ways" 4).

No page number

No page number

If a source has no page numbers, but is divided into numbered sections (e.g. chapters or numbered paragraphs), use these instead:

Morrison has shown that there is a great need for . . . (par. 38).

Reynolds devotes a chapter to the rise of poverty in some states in the US (ch. 6).

How to cite a journal article in MLA: Format and Examples

Journal article	Works Cited entry
1 author	Author's Last Name, First Name. "Title of Article." <i>Title of Journal</i> , vol. Volume, no. Issue, Year of publication, pp. Pages, https://doi.org/DOI .
Year	In-text citation ⓘ
DOI	Parentetical: (Author's Last Name Page) Narrative: Author's Last Name (Page)

Journal article	Works Cited entry
1 author	Andreff, Wladimir. "The Evolving European Model of Professional Sports Finance." <i>Journal of Sports Economics</i> , vol. 1, no. 3, 2000, pp. 257–76, https://doi.org/10.1177/152700250000100304 .
Year	In-text citation ⓘ
DOI	Parentetical: (Andreff 260) Narrative: Andreff (260)

3. How do I cite a dissertation in MLA style?

To cite a dissertation, include in the entry: **the author, title, and date of publication** as core elements. **As an optional element**, list **the institution granting the degree** and **a description of the work**

Njus, Jesse. *Performing the Passion: A Study on the Nature of Medieval Acting*. 2010. Northwestern U, PhD dissertation.

If you accessed the dissertation through an online repository, include this fact as the title of the second container:

Njus, Jesse. *Performing the Passion: A Study on the Nature of*

Medieval Acting. 2010. Northwestern U, PhD dissertation. *ProQuest*, search.proquest.com/docview/305212264?accountid=7432.

4. How to Cite an Image in MLA | Format & Examples:

The format in which you cite an image in [MLA style](#) depends on where you viewed the image. Images are often found by searching online; in this case, you'll [cite the website](#) where the image is hosted, in the following format.

MLA format	Creator last name, First name. "Image Title." or Description of image. Website Name, Day Month Year, URL.
MLA Works Cited entry	Quinn, Pete. "European Grey Wolf Portrait." <i>Flickr</i> , 21 Dec. 2019, flic.kr/p/2k6vq7V .
MLA in-text citation	(Quinn)

Tables and Figures

Example

- Tables and other illustrations (referred to as “figures”) should be placed as close to the relevant part of text as possible. MLA also provides guidelines for presenting them.

- *MLA format for tables*

- Tables are labeled and numbered, along with a descriptive title. The label and title are placed above the table on separate lines; the label and number appear in bold.

- A caption providing information about the source appears below the table;

- you don’t need one if the table is your own work

Example

Table 1 ← Label & number

← Title
Percentage of EU Population Capable of Conversation in a Foreign Language*

Age	One Language	Two Languages	Three Languages
15–24	74%	37%	12%
25–39	64%	31%	12%
40–54	55%	25%	10%
55+	38%	17%	7%

Adapted from: Raimo Streefkerk. “MLA Format for Academic Papers and Essays.” *Scribbr*. 18 Jun. 2021, www.scribbr.com/mla/formatting/. ← Caption

a. Research based on 1,500 participants from 15 countries. ← Note

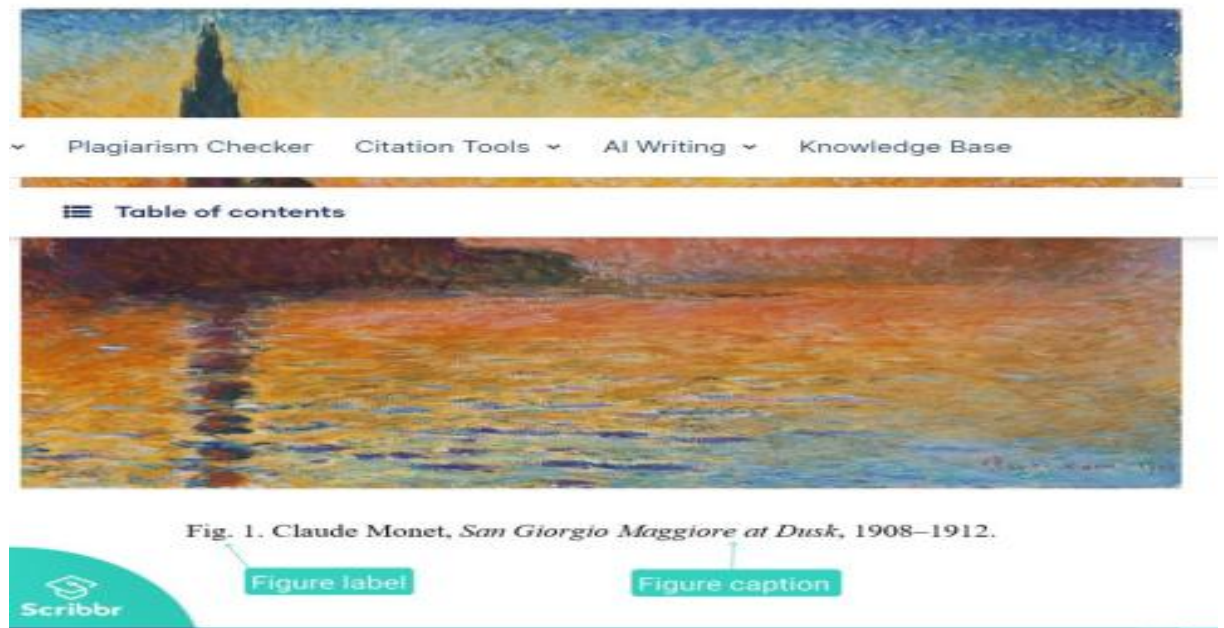
Tables and Figures

- MLA format for figures
- Figures (any image included in your paper that isn't a table) are also labeled and numbered, but here, this is integrated into the caption below the image.

The caption in this case is also centered.

- The label “Figure” is abbreviated to “Fig.” and followed by the figure number and a period. The rest of the caption gives either full source information, or (as in the example here) just basic descriptive information about the image (author, title, publication year).

Example:



5. How to Cite a Website in MLA

Format	Example
<p>MLA (9th ed.) Works Cited entry</p> <p>Webpage Author's Last Name, First Name. "Title of Work." Website, Day Month Year of publication, URL.</p> <p>1 author</p> <p>Full date</p> <p>In-text citation</p> <p>Paraphrased: (Author's Last Name)</p> <p>Narrative: Author's Last Name</p>	<p>MLA (9th ed.) Works Cited entry</p> <p>Webpage Slat, Boyan. "Whales Likely Impacted by Great Pacific Garbage Patch." <i>The Ocean Cleanup</i>, 10 Apr. 2019.</p> <p>1 author www.theoceancleanup.com/updates/whales-likely-impacted-by-great-pacific-garbage-patch.</p> <p>Full date</p> <p>In-text citation</p> <p>Paraphrased: (Slat)</p> <p>Narrative: Slat</p>

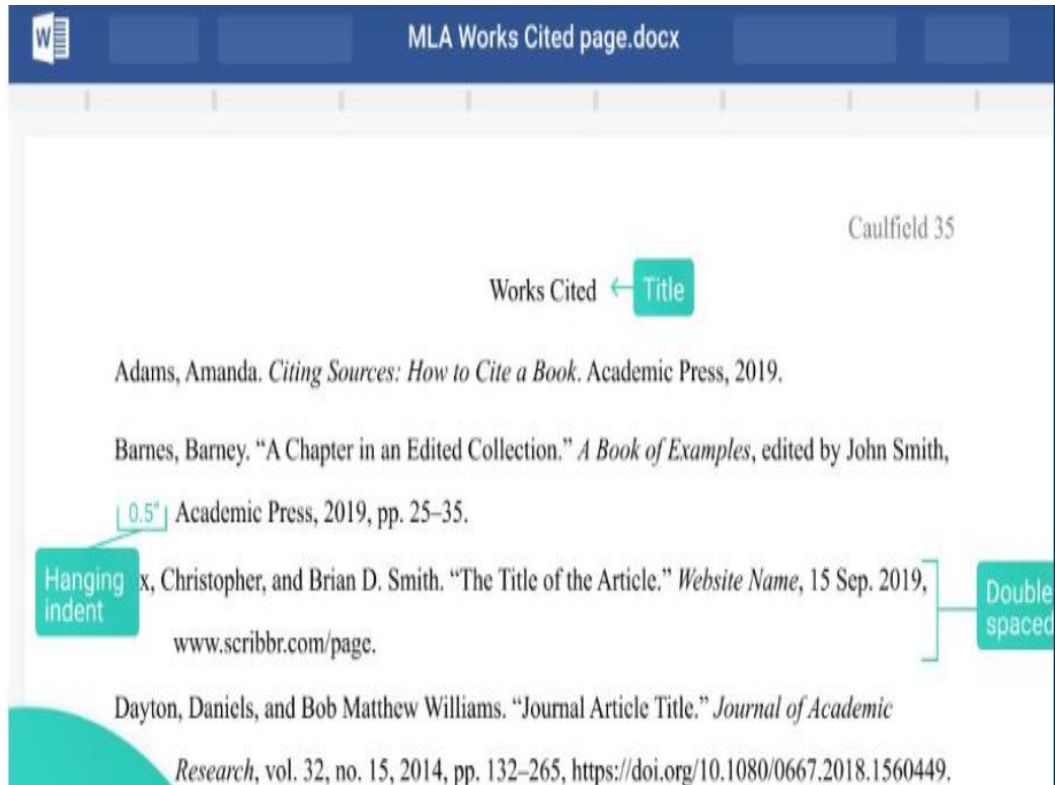
The full Works Cited entry

Anderson, Benedict. *Imagined Communities: Reflections on the Origins and Spread of Nationalism*. Verso, 1983.

Gilbert, Sandra M. "Horror's Twin: Mary Shelley's Monstrous Eve." *Feminist Studies*, vol. 4, no. 2, Sept. 2000, pp. 257–276, <https://doi.org/10.2307/3177447>.

Sheffield, Rob. "Why Bob Dylan Deserves His Nobel Prize." *Rolling Stone*, 13 Oct. 2016, www.rollingstone.com/music/music-features/why-bob-dylan-deserves-his-nobel-prize-127381/

MLA Works Cited



MLA Format Guidelines

Formatting a paper

- Times New Roman 12
- 1" page margins
- Double line spacing
- ½" indent for new paragraphs
- Title case capitalization for headings

Reference: <https://www.scribbr.com/mla>

Lesson 4: 1.What is Plagiarism? / 2.How to avoid Plagiarism

Level: First Year

Objectives of the lesson:

1. Learn how to void plagiarsim
2. Learn how to paraphrase
- 3.Learn how to summarize

The issue of plagiarism

Plagiarism is a concern for both teachers and students, but it can be avoided by clearly understanding the issues involved. In the academic world it is essential to use a wide range of sources for your writing and to acknowledge these sources correctly – otherwise there is a risk of plagiarism. **1**

What is plagiarism? Basically plagiarism means taking ideas or words from a source (e.g. a book or journal article) without giving credit (acknowledgement) to the author. It is seen as a kind of theft and is considered to be an academic crime. In academic work, ideas and words are seen as private property belonging to the person who first thought or wrote them. Therefore it is important for all students to understand the meaning of plagiarism and learn how to prevent it in their work.

This situation may appear confusing, since students are expected:

a) to show that they have read the relevant sources on a subject
(by giving citations)

BUT

b) to explain these ideas in their own words and come to their own conclusions

However, mastering this requirement is vital to achieve success in the academic community.

Defining plagiarism.

Read the definition of plagiarism and complete the sentences with the missing words from the box.

‘Plagiarism is the use of the work of a_____ without acknowledgement of your b_____ of information or c_____. This includes: using words more or less d_____ as they have been used in articles, e_____, television programmes, books or f_____ else using other people’s ideas or g_____ without saying whose ideas they are

· h_____ what you read or hear without stating where it comes from.’

(i_____ 2013:177)

Words:

inspiration source exactly others lectures
anywhere Cottrell theories paraphrasing

Reasons of plagiarism

Activity : With a partner discuss what reasons are behind students' attempt to plagiarise in doing assignments or writing reports and dissertations.

Compare your answers with the following:

Reasons of plagiarism

Consider the reasons that are often given when students plagiarise, such as:

time restraints, different cultural experience, don't understand referencing rules, text was difficult, and couldn't write it any better than the original. Not mastering academic writing ..etc

Reasons why students must avoid plagiarism

This may include:

- copying the work of others will not help them develop their own understanding
- plagiarism is easily detected by teachers and computer software
- plagiarism may lead to failing a course or even having to leave college/university

How to avoid plagiarism?

Activity : With a partner discuss what advice you would give to students on how to avoid plagiarism.

Compare your answers with the following :

1. Acknowledging Sources

If you borrow from, or refer to, the work of another person, you must show that you have done this by providing the correct acknowledgement.

Example:

Read this paragraph from a book called Power and the State by **Martin Smith (2009):**

The point is not that the state is in retreat but that it is developing new forms of power which change the way it operates, how it affects citizens, and how it delivers policy. The foundations of the modern state are still in place but states are operating in new and diverse ways which create complex relationships with civil society.

There are at least two ways to use this idea in your work and acknowledge the source:

1 Summary and citation

Smith (2009) claims that the modern state wields power in new ways.

2 Quotation and citation

According to Smith: 'The point is not that the state is in retreat but that it is developing new forms of power. . .' (Smith, 2009:103).

These in-text citations are linked to a list of references at the end of the main text which includes the following details:

Author	Year	Title	Place Publication	Publishers
Smith, M.	(2009)	Power and the State	Basingstoke :	Palgrave Macmillan

The citation makes it clear to readers that you have read Smith and borrowed this idea from him. This reference gives readers the necessary information to find the source if they want to study the original.

2. Avoiding plagiarism by summarising and paraphrasing

Quotations should not be overused, so you must learn to paraphrase and summarise in order to include other writers' ideas in your work. This will demonstrate your understanding of a text to your teachers.

- Paraphrasing involves rewriting a text so that the language is significantly different while the content stays the same.
- Summarising means reducing the length of a text but retaining the main points.

3. Avoiding plagiarism by developing good study habits

Few students deliberately try to cheat by plagiarising, but some develop poor study habits which result in the risk of plagiarism.

Add to the list of positive habits.

- Plan your work carefully so you don't have to write the essay at the last minute.

- Take care to make notes in your own words, not copying from the source.
- Keep a full record of all the sources you use (e.g. author, date, title, page numbers, place of publication, publisher).

Degrees of plagiarism

Although plagiarism essentially means copying somebody else's work, in some situations it can be difficult to decide if plagiarism is involved.

****Working with a partner, consider the following academic situations and decide if they are plagiarism or not.**

Situation Plagiarism?

1. Copying a paragraph but changing a few words, not giving a citation. Yes
2. Cutting and pasting a short article from a website, with no citation.
3. Taking two paragraphs from a classmate's essay, without citation.
4. Taking a graph from a textbook, giving the source.
5. Taking a quotation from a source, giving a citation but not using quotation marks.

6.Using something that you think of as general knowledge (e.g. Earth's climate is getting warmer).

7.Using a paragraph from an essay you wrote and had marked the previous semester, without citation.

8.Using the results of your own unpublished research (e.g. from a survey you did) without citation.

9.Discussing an essay topic with a group of classmates and using some of their ideas in your own work.

10.Giving a citation for some information but misspelling the author's name.

This exercise shows that plagiarism can be accidental. For example, situation (10), when the author's name is misspelt, is technically plagiarism but really carelessness. In situation (9) your teacher may have told you to discuss the topic in groups and then write an essay on your own, in which case it would not be plagiarism. Self-plagiarism is also possible, as in situation (7). It can be difficult to decide what is general or common knowledge (situation 6), but you can always try asking colleagues.

However, it is not a good excuse to say that you didn't know the rules of plagiarism or that you didn't have time to write in your own words. Nor is it adequate to say that the rules are different in

your own country. In general, anything that is not common knowledge or your own ideas and research (published or not) must be cited and referenced.

Lesson5: Qualitative and Quantitative research methods Identifying a suitable methodology

Today's Objectives:

By the end of the session you should have:

- Achieved an overall understanding of many of the various research methods available to you;
- Identified the characteristics of qualitative and quantitative research methods via engaging in tailor-made exercises;
- Started to evaluate the suitability of the methods discussed for your chosen topic;
- Started to think about the particular type of methodology you are intending to discuss/use for your plan.

Looking back: Mackey and Gass Ch. 1, Q8.

How can the following research topics be turned into researchable questions?

Example:

- Gender differences in language classes
- Do males perform differently than females on a grammar test following treatment in which negative feedback is given?
 - a. Motivation
 - b. Task effectiveness
 - c. Novice teacher performance
 - d. Attention
 - e. Final grades

Recognising Good Research Questions

Clear

Specific

Answerable

Interconnected

Substantially relevant

(Robson, 1993 p.59)

Qualitative Vs Quantitative

In groups create a definition for

Qualitative research

Quantitative research

In groups create a definition for:

Quantitative research

“involves data collection procedures that result primarily

in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by

statistical methods”.

Qualitative research

“involves data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods”.

(Dörnyei 2007, p.24)

Qualitative Vs Quantitative

In groups discuss the main characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research.

EX1: Categorise these characteristics under Quantitative or

Qualitative

- Naturalistic and controlled observation/ Obtrusive, involving controlled measurements
- Objective and removed from the data/ Subjective
- Discovery oriented/ Verification oriented, confirmatory
- Outcome oriented/ Process oriented
- “Soft Data”/Involving ‘hard’ and replicable data

- Generalizable/ Single case study, ungeneralizable
- Assuming a dynamic reality /Assuming a stable reality
- Close to the data

TABLE 1.1
Characteristics of Quantitative and Qualitative Research

<i>Quantitative Research</i>	<i>Qualitative Research</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obtrusive, involving controlled measurement • Objective and removed from the data • Verification oriented, confirmatory • Outcome-oriented • Reliable, involving “hard” and replicable data • Generalizable • Assuming a stable reality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Naturalistic and controlled observation • Subjective • Discovery oriented • Process oriented • “Soft” data • Ungeneralizable, single case studies • Assuming a dynamic reality • Close to the data

QUAL/QUANT continuum Ex. 2

Read the two research abstracts and decide which is qualitative and which is quantitative.

Pick up different features

Any comments?

What makes one QUANT R. and why?

What makes the other one QUAL R. and why?

Abstract1

This ethnographic report “thickly describes” (Geertz, 1973) the participation of ESL children in the daily classroom events of a mainstream first-grade classroom. Data for this paper come from a year-long study of one classroom in an international school on a college campus in the U.S. Using a language socialization and micropolitical orientation, the report describes how, through socially significant interactional routines, the children and other members of the classroom jointly constructed the ESL children’s identities, social relations, and ideologies as well as their communicative competence in that setting. The sociocultural ecology of the community, school, and classroom shaped the kinds of microinteractions that occurred and thus the nature of their language learning over the course of the year. (Willett, 1995, p. 473)

Abstract 2

Interaction has been argued to promote noticing of L2 form in a context crucial to learning—when there is a mismatch between the input and the learner’s interlanguage (IL) grammar (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1996; Pica, 1994). This paper investigates the extent to which learners may notice native speakers’ reformulations of their IL grammar in the context of dyadic interaction. Thirty-three adult ESL learners worked on oral communication tasks in NS–NNS pairs. During each of the five sessions of dyadic task-based interaction, learners received recasts of their nontargetlike question forms. Accurate immediate recall of recasts was taken as evidence of noticing of recasts by learners. Results indicate that learners noticed over 60–70% of recasts. However, accurate recall was constrained by the level of the learner and by the length and number of changes in the recast. The effect of these variables on noticing is discussed in terms of processing biases. It is suggested that attentional resources and processing biases of the learner may modulate the extent to which learners “notice the gap” between their nontargetlike utterances and recasts. (Philp, 2003, p. 99)

Activity

Read the two research abstracts and decide which is qualitative and which is quantitative.

Abstract 1 = quantitative data, analyses the data and provides results based on statistics

Abstract 2 = qualitative data, uses naturalistic data and provides an interpretation

Qualitative Research: what is it?

- Associated with a range of different methods, perspectives and approaches
- Research that is based on data that does not normally make use of statistical procedures – descriptions, not numbers (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.162)
- Linked to two basic sources of variation: individual respondents and individual researcher (Dörnyei, 2007, p.28)

Researchers adopting a qualitative perspective are more concerned to understand individuals' perceptions of the

world – they seek insight rather than focus on statistical data analysis

Qualitative data is sexy (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.1 in Dörnyei, 2007, p.124)

The attractiveness of qualitative data is widely recognised:

Words are a speciality of humans and their organisations

Described as “rich”, “full” and “real” when compared to the thin abstractions of numbers

Collection is straightforward

Particularly suitable for linguistics as it deals with transcribed texts/words

The lantern: illuminative

Interpretive approach - Qualitative

Interpretive/

hermeneutic

Search for meanings

Situated

All perspectives partial

BUT: messy field

The lantern: illuminative Interpretive approach - Qualitative

Interpretive/hermeneutic

Search for meanings

Situated

All perspectives partial

Some types of primary data for QUAL research:

Ethnographies

Interviews

Diaries/Journals/Narrative enquiries

Case studies

Observational techniques

Ethnography

To describe and interpret the cultural behaviour, including communicative behaviour, of a group from the participants' point of view

- *e.g. Second language writing in different cultural contexts*

Interviews

To investigate phenomena that are not directly observable/to elicit data from learners that are not comfortable in other modes

Can you think of an example?

Diaries/Journals/Narrative enq.

To record autobiographical impressions or perceptions about an area of interest (or about learning)

Examples?

Case study

To describe and interpret the cultural behaviour, including communicative behaviour, of an individual or a few individuals. It can be 'longitudinal' (over a period of time).

E.g. Study of first language acquisition or second language learning for one individual over one year

Observations (including classroom obs.)

To immerse oneself in a research setting and systematically observe dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions within it.

Can you think of any drawbacks?

Quantitative: what is it?

(D. 2007:31)

Developed in the 19th century but going back to the

mid-16th (Enlightenment: Copernicus, Bacon, Galilei,
Kepler, Newton, Descartes, Hume, Comte and Pierce)

Derived from science: 'scientific method

Key stages - scientific approach

1. Observing a phenomenon or identifying a problem;
2. Generating an initial hypothesis;
3. Testing the hypothesis by collecting and analysing empirical data using standardized procedures.

Once the hypothesis has been successfully tested and further validated through replication, it becomes accepted as scientific theory or law

4 main concerns in quantitative research

(Bryman 2004:75-79)

Measurement (including issues relating to validity and reliability)

Causality: why are things the way they are? (not just a description of things as they are)

Generalization: findings can be generalized beyond the confines of the particular context in which the research was conducted

Replication: this proves that there was no bias. Other researchers can replicate the experiment and obtain similar data. This does not mean it will be replicated, but that it would be possible to replicate it (same pre-conditions/research question/parameters)

Researchers adopting a quantitative perspective want to test their hypothesis(es) to prove (or disprove) its/their truth. They focus on statistical data analysis and other numerical data. The researcher explores questions in an 'objective' manner.

Quant. research: how to obtain data :

(Dornyei, 2007, p. 95)

Test (e.g. language test)

Controlled experiment (e.g. assessing response time)

Survey with questionnaire

Tests and questionnaires = commonest data collection

instruments in applied linguistics

**Importance of sampling in Quant. research: basic
terms (Bryman, 2004, p.87)**

Population: universe of 'units' from which the sample is to be selected ('units' as it is not necessarily people quant. r. deals with)

Sample: the segment of the population that is selected for investigation (subset of population)

Representative sample: the sampling procedure is carefully designed so that the relevant characteristics of the sample that is selected reflect the variation in the population.

How large should a sample be?

It depends on what you want to do.

Normally 10-15 people ('units') minimum recommended for small scale projects

'Paradigm Wars' Dörnyei 2007, p.29

Categorizing the world (QUAN: predetermined numerical category system; QUAL: emergent, flexible verbal coding)

Perceiving individual diversity (QUAN: using large samples to iron out any individual idiosyncrasies; QUAL: focusing on the unique meaning carried by individual organisms)

Analysing data (QUAN: relying on the formalized system of statistics; QUAL: relying on the researcher's individual sensitivity)

Against polarization

Some authors argue against a strict qualitative /quantitative dichotomy.

The terms should be replaced by 'confirmatory and

exploratory research'

We should become 'methodological pragmatists'.

What works to answer the RQs is what is most useful.

Cohen, Mannion and Morrison (2011) 7th edition: 23

See also Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005)

'Mixed method research' (Dornyei 2.4)

- MMR draws on both positivist and interpretivist epistemologies and regards reality as both objective and socially constructed.
- MMR enables meanings to be probed more fully, it involves either corroboration or new modes of thinking to resolve conflicting findings, and achieves greater validity of interpretations through 'triangulation'

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Lesson: Data Collection Tools

Lesson Objectives:

By the end of this session you should be able to:

- ☐ Identify the features of qualitative and quantitative data collection tools
- ☐ Discuss the merits and drawbacks of a range of data collection tools
- ☐ Create a survey following Dörnyei's guiding principles

Quantitative vs Qualitative:

Look at the 2 different data collection tools.

ABC School Needs Analysis Form

Date:

Name:

Company:

Department:

Telephone number:

Email:

Previous language learning experience:

Brief job description:

1 I need to improve my English in order to better:

	Urgent	Not urgent
deal with visitors		
understand presentations		
give presentations		
take part in meetings		
chair meetings		
read reports		
write reports		
deal with emails		
speak on the telephone		
socialize with business partners and/or customers		
deal with suppliers		
deal with customers		

2 My main priority is to:

Sample 2

- Why haven't you gotten your Bachelor's Degree/Master's Degree/Ph.D.?
- Why have you switched jobs so many times?
- Why did you change your career path?
- Why did you decide to leave your previous/current job?
- Why is there a gap in your work experience?
- Why were you fired?
- How do you feel about working weekends or late hours?
- How would your boss describe you?
- Do you have any serious medical conditions?
- What would your first 30, 60, or 90 days look like in this role?
- Are you a team player?
- Are you a risk-taker?
- How do you deal with pressure or stressful situation?
- Do you think there is a difference between hard work and smart work?
- How quickly do you adapt to new technology?
- Do you have any interests outside of work?
- What do you think our company/organization could do better?

Task

Which is qualitative and which is quantitative?

What are the differences between the 2 experiences.

Key

Main difference includes:

Degree of standardization of the procedure

In groups:

Identify as many quantitative data collection tools

as you can

Language tests

Psychological tests (aptitude or personality
batteries)

Controlled measurement

Survey - questionnaire

Sampling

Population = the group of people whom the survey

is about

Sample = (i) the group of people whom you will
actually examine

(ii) very similar to the target population in
its most important characteristics.

The sample is representative of the population
(Dörnyei, 2003, p. 71)

Task: Match the sample with its definition.

Sample type	Definition
Random sampling	This involves selecting members of the population to be included in a sample on a completely random basis. The assumption underlying this procedure is that it minimizes the effects of any extraneous or subjective variables that might affect the outcome of the survey study.
Stratified random sampling	Combining random sampling with some form of rational grouping is a particularly effective method for a research with a specific focus. The population is divided into groups, or 'strata', and a random sample of a proportionate size is selected from each group
Systematic sampling	Involves selecting every n th member of the target group.
Cluster sampling	One way of making random sampling more practical especially when the target population is widely dispersed, is to randomly select some larger groupings or units of the population and then examine all the students in those selected groups/units.

Non-probability sampling:

Sample type	Definition
Quota sampling	The researcher defines certain distinct subgroups and determines the proportion of the population that belongs to each of these subgroups. The actual sample is selected in a way to reflect these proportions.
Snowball sampling	Involves a 'chain reaction' whereby the researcher identifies a few people who meet the criteria of the particular study and then asks these participants to identify further members of the population.
Convenience or opportunity sampling	The most common sample type. Members of the target population will be selected for the purpose of the study if they met certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time or ease of accessibility.

How large should the sample be?

It depends on what you want to do.

Normally 10-15 people ('units') minimum recommended for small scale projects

1.The questionnaire:

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Questionnaires can be thought of as a kind of written interview. They can be carried out face to face, by telephone, computer or post.

Questionnaires provide a relatively cheap, quick and efficient way of obtaining large amounts of information from a large sample of people.

Questionnaire administration

Paper or online

Cover letter includes:

☐ Participation Information Sheet

☐ Consent Form

(Ethics considered)

Respondents are normally willing to spend time and effort on a questionnaire if they believe that they are contributing to a serious investigation.

Check English grammar, spelling, punctuation.

However, a problem with questionnaires is that respondents may lie due to social desirability. Most people want to present a positive image of themselves and so may lie or bend the truth to look good, e.g., pupils would exaggerate revision duration.

Often a questionnaire uses both open and closed questions to collect data.

This is beneficial as it means both quantitative and qualitative data can be obtained

What 3 types of data do questionnaires usually measure?

☐ Factual questions: used to find out certain facts , such as demographic characteristics, location, language learning history etc.

☐ Behavioural questions: used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past.

☐ Attitudinal questions: used to find out what people think, covering attitudes, opinions, beliefs,

interests, and values.

Constructing the questionnaire:

■ Length

☐ Space economy

☐ Mixing up scales

☐ Factual questions

Question types in the questionnaire:

Rating Scales

Likert Scales

A series of statements all of which are related to a particular target; respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree.

Eg: Algerian people are friendly

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Semantical Differential scales

Respondents indicate their answer by marking a continuum between two bipolar adjectives on the extremes.

e.g.

Listening comprehension tasks are

difficult __ X __ easy

Useless __ __ X _ Useful

(Dörnyei 2003:39)

Other types of Questions:

Dichotomous questions:

e.g. Do you like the products of X company?

yes

no

Importance questions:

e.g. Cost effective services are:

a. extremely important b. very important.

c. somewhat important d. not very important

Question types:

More Rating Scales

☐ Numerical rating scales

☐ True or False Items

☐ Multiple choice

☐ Rank order items

Open Ended Questions

☐ Clarification questions

☐ Sentence completion items

☐ Short-answer questions

(For more details read Dörnyei (2003))

How to write a good item:

Use simple and natural language

Avoid ambiguous or loaded words

Avoid negative constructions

Avoid double-barrelled questions

Do not ask leading questions

Avoid items that are likely to be answered the same way by everyone

Include both positively and negatively worded items

There are three basic types of questionnaires,

they are classified according to the kind of questions they include:

1. Closed-ended
2. Combination of both .Closed ended and Open ended

Test your survey before you give it out.

Try to test on people similar to your participants.

Ask:

- 1) How long did it take you to complete?
- 2) Were the instructions clear?

- 3) Were any of the questions unclear or ambiguous?
- 4) Did you object to answering any of the questions?
- 5) In your opinion, has any major question been omitted?
- 6) Was the layout clear/attractive?
- 7) Any comments

(Bell, 2014, p.167)

Qualitative Data Collection

In groups discuss

What types of qualitative data collection tools are there?

Interviews

Focus Groups (Interview)

Diaries

Logs

Critical Incidents

Blogs

Observation

Ethnography

Case study

Action research

What is an interview ?

Oxford Dictionary definition : a meeting at which a journalist / interviewer asks somebody questions to find out his/her opinion ,etc (often shown on television or printed in newspaper).

Focus group interviews involve a group format whereby an interviewer records the responses of a small group.

Group format

Size usually between 6 – 10 people

Various degrees of structure

Interviewer (yourself or impartial outsider)

Ethnography:

Aims to describe and analyse the practices and beliefs of cultures.

Can be organisations, programmes or communities.

Main goal is to provide a rich and detailed narrative of the target group.

Participant observation

Features that define ethnographic data collection:

- Focus on participant meaning
- Prolonged engagement in the natural setting
- Emergent nature

Case study:

To describe and interpret the cultural behaviour, including communicative behaviour, of an individual or a few individuals. It can be 'longitudinal' (over a period of time).

E.g. Study of first language acquisition or second language learning for one individual over one year

Diaries, Research Journals

Research participants keep a diary

Researchers keep a journal

- ☐ What you did, and where, how, when, and why you do it.
- ☐ What you read.
- ☐ What data you collect and how you process it.

- ☐ Any outcomes of the data analysis.
- ☐ Particular achievements, dead ends, surprises.
- ☐ Your feelings, what you are thinking.
- ☐ Anything that influences you and your research.

Observation

Consider ‘ethics’

What do you want to observe?

Why will observations produce the information you need?

Will the observation validate other evidence?

Observation can be useful in discovering whether people do what they say they do or behave how they claim to.

However, dependent on the way people perceive what is being said or done.

(Bell 2014 Ch.12; Classroom Observations Dörnyei 2007 Ch. 8)

Interviews

A structured set of questions designed to obtain information from a sample often done face to face. A research tool which most often utilizes open-ended questions to get qualitative data

Types of Interviews

A. Structured interview

Researcher follows a pre-prepared interview schedule with full list of questions

B. Unstructured interview

Researcher takes a relaxed approach, no interruptions, no pre-prepared questions

What are the advantages and disadvantages of each approach?

But, most applied linguistics research includes:

C. Semi-structured interviews

A set of pre-prepared questions but format is open ended and participant is encouraged to elaborate

Read Chapter 6 Dörnyei (2007) for more details.

What might be the advantage of holding, say, three interviews instead of a single interview?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of structured interviews (in a standardized format)?

What are the potentialities and risks of unstructured interviews (no interview guide)?

What are the strengths of semi-structured interviews?

Why is it important?

It is very useful for getting the story behind a participant's experience. The interviewer can follow in-depth information around a topic.

Interviews usually follow up certain respondents' questionnaires to further investigate their responses. Usually openended questions are asked during interviews.

Preparing for the interview sessions:

Decide on overall aim and topics

- Think of how the topics can be ordered to provide a natural flow
 - Draft questions, grouped under topics
 - going from general to more specific
 - Trial the interview (Cf. piloting a questionnaire)
- Discard, replace, reformulateevent and perspective questions

Setting up the interview:

Arrange who you will interview –you should base your sample of interviewees on certain criteria (if possible)

- Arrange when interviews will be held and the length
- Allow time to take notes after each interview
- Arrange recording conditions

Questioning techniques:

You can use what the interviewee has said as a starting point to go further

- Probes: asking for details
- Using objects, e.g. photos
- Asking for clarification, e.g. of what a word means to X
- ‘Reflecting’ interviewees’ statements back to them:

‘so you’re saying that ...’
- Asking how one particular value or feeling or experience contrasts with another
- Asking ‘what if’ questions: ‘if you were in ... situation, what would you do?’

General advice for interviewers (Robson, 2002):

Listen more than you speak

- Put questions in a straightforward, clear and non-threatening way
- Appear to be neutral
- Eliminate cues which lead interviewees to respond in a particular way (biased or leading questions')
- Enjoy it (or at least look as if you do!)

2.3 Some guidelines for conducting interviews:

Before starting to design the interview questions

and process, the researcher should clearly

articulate to himself what problem or need is to

be addressed using the information to be

gathered by the interviews. This helps him to

keep clear focus on the aim of each question.

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