INGRIDA ŽINDŽIUVIENĖ

WRITING ON EFL METHODOLOGY

ESSAYS
TERM PAPERS
RESEARCH PAPERS
B. A./M. A. THESSES

Kaunas 2009
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PREFACE

The aim of this book is to satisfy the needs of those students majoring in English philology who must plan and carry out a research project on EFL methodology as part of their course or program requirements. This guidebook teaches students to organize and write their research papers on EFL methodology and provides basic information on research types and methods. According to the study program, students face the challenge of doing research in the field of EFL methodology – they write essay-type homework assignments, term papers, a Bachelor Thesis at the end of the B. A. program and research papers/projects in the graduate studies program. The main types of papers are briefly described in this guidebook, all of them sharing similar structure, principles and steps. However, the papers are different in the scope of the research.

The guidebook provides students with the basic information needed to understand the research process, from idea formulation through data analysis and interpretation, text organization and documentation of sources. Students will find the necessary information on how to plan, organize and document their research and how to structure the research paper. The book will be useful for those teachers of English who consider conducting action research or publishing a research paper.

Acknowledgments

The author is grateful for comments of the students and teachers at the Department of English Philology, Vytautas Magnus University. Without their inspiring help and support the process of working on this book would have been difficult.

Ingrida Žindžiuvienė
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CHAPTER 1
Where to start?

Scholarly research is a systematic and objective search for evidence that will substantiate, verify, or refute previous findings, interpretations, or explanations within a specified academic discipline. It has been recognized by scholars for its particular emphasis on style, method, and purpose – as in historiography or literary analysis. Scholarly research is often referred to disciplined inquiry as opposed to subjective or impressionistic analyses and interpretations that do not reflect scholarly traditions.

Two main aspects are particularly important in research: validity and reliability. In testing, validity represents claims to the trustworthiness or credibility of qualitative or quantitative data gathered for the purposes of making decisions or drawing inferences. For example, one of the methods of the research is a questionnaire, in which, according to Vida Škudienė (2002), a small number of the respondents may negatively influence the reliability and validity of the results (Škudienė 2002: 24). The evidence needed to establish validity has been associated with typological distinctions such as content (the match between the actual content of the test instrument and what it intends to measure), criterion-related (the match between scores on the test and other measures), and construct (the match between the test and the underlying construct or trait being measured).

Currently, construct validity is seen as the unifying concept for test validity. New approaches to establishing validity are being considered as assessment has expanded beyond strictly quantitative approaches to gathering information, embracing forms such as portfolio assessment where results are reported as qualitative profiles. In logic, validity refers to a quality or property of arguments. A valid argument is one that meets the following criterion: if the premises are true, so is the conclusion. In other words, in a valid argument the conclusion (whether true or false) follows in logical steps from the premises (again, independently of their truth value). Sometimes the term “valid” is applied to theses, as in the claim “you have a valid point”; that is, your thesis is reasonable, plausible, true, etc. (i.e., to be commended).

In testing, reliability is the extent to which a test is or is not consistent. Consistency of testing is an act of sceptical detective work: where might the test be inconsistent? For example, if the test is a face-to-face measure involving a human rater, one logical place of inconsistency is a given rater within himself or herself (e.g., due to fatigue). Similarly, it is logical that raters may disagree with each other. In multi-item, paper-and-pencil tests, a logical locus of inconsistency is disagreement between items. The outcome of a reliability analysis is typically some sort of index of agreement between the particular likely loci of inconsistency (e.g., statistical correlation
between raters, or summed inter-item consistency indices).

Development of highly reliable tests and testing systems allows great control of the statistical characteristics of resultant distribution of total scores. However, alternative decision philosophies – notably hermeneutics – may serve as philosophical alternatives to strong or even compulsory high reliability.

First, students have to consider the field of research (literature, linguistics or EFL methodology). Once the choice of EFL methodology has been made, students have to select the theme of the research – often the students consider their own learning/teaching experience of English or related issues. In case of a homework assignment or a term paper, the topic may be offered by a teacher. However, all of these papers (essays, term papers, research projects and theses) have distinct characteristics that will be briefly defined further.

**An essay-type homework assignment**

The length of the essay for the courses on EFL methodology is 3–6 pages (the title page does not count), considering the type of the course and the number of credits. The written variant should contain all the necessary parts of an essay, a title page and the Reference List. The title page is not numbered; the margins of the following pages is 2.5; double-space, font – 12, *Times New Roman*.

The introduction should include the definition of the problem, the aim and objectives of the paper. Theoretical issues constitute the following part of the paper, which ends with conclusions that summarize the main findings. The Reference List should be organized following the requirements (see Appendix 1 “Examples of the Reference List”).

Good organization of the paper, logical development of ideas, proper arguments, avoidance of plagiarism, correct reference system, proper quotes from the sources – these are the most important aspects of a good essay.

**A term paper and research project**

The term paper is written by the 3rd year students, who write two term papers during that academic year: one in the fall semester and the other in the spring semester. Usually, students have to write one term paper on literature and one on linguistics or EFL methodology. The process of working on the term papers helps the students to choose the field of study for their B.A. Thesis and prepares them to structure a research paper (e.g. a B. A. Thesis) during the 4th year of studies. A successful term paper can be further developed into a B. A. Thesis.

The term paper is based on an independent research into one of the themes suggested by the supervisor. In a term paper the student demonstrates his/her abilities to organize the
information on the topic, select the sources, gather data and analyze the information. The required length of the paper is 10–12 pages (1 page consists of approximately 200 words) without the appendices (their pages are not numbered); however, the length for the paper on EFL methodology can be up to 15–20 pages because of tables and figures that may be used as illustrations. The minimal amount of the items in the Reference List is about 10–12.

Graduate students may choose a research project on EFL methodology, which later will materialize into an M. A. Thesis. A research project is based on an independent research, either of quantitative or qualitative nature. The required length is 20–25 pages with appendices. The minimal amount of the items in the Reference List is 20. Students are encouraged to use contemporary scholarly Internet sources, databases/databanks or current documents.

The proportion of the theoretical part is one third of the paper. The practical part may be based on the data from interviews or questionnaires, interpretation and examples of teaching methods, data from the learners’ learning experience, analysis of errors or mistakes, learning assessment and other issues. Data demonstration in tables, charts, and graphs should be included in the practical part (Check the requirements on the Internet page of Vytautas Magnus University, the Department of English Philology (www.vdu.lt): Mokslas – Fakultetai ir institutai – Humanitarinių mokslų fakultetas – Anglų filologijos katedra – Metodinė medžiaga studentams).

**A Bachelor thesis**

A bachelor paper is written by the 4th year students during the 4th year of studies. Similar to the course paper, it is based on an independent research into the theme chosen by a student or suggested by the advisor. The student’s communication with the advisor is determined by the requirements and traditions of the department. Usually, student-advisor relationship is discussed at the beginning of the research project (see Table 1).

*Table 1 Students’ and supervisors’ expectations (after Phillips and Pugh (2000) in Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001))*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ expectations</th>
<th>Supervisors’ expectations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☺ To be supervised</td>
<td>☺ To be independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To read their work well in advance</td>
<td>☺ To produce written work that is not just a draft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To be available when needed</td>
<td>☺ To have regular meetings as scheduled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To be friendly, open and supportive</td>
<td>☺ To be industrious and dutiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To be constructively critical</td>
<td>☺ To be honest when reporting upon their progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To have a good knowledge of their research area</td>
<td>☺ To be motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☺ To have sufficient interest in the student’s success</td>
<td>☺ To follow the advice they give</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A bachelor paper on EFL methodology should contain some practical issues and an “element of novelty” (Sardiko 2004: 10). The required length of the paper is 30–35 pages without the appendices. The minimal number of items in the Reference List is 18–25. The proportion of the theoretical part is approximately one half of the paper. The practical part may be based on the following:

- processed and analyzed interviews or questionnaires
- historical development of teaching English
- interpretation and examples of teaching methods and teaching aids
- data from the learners’ learning experience
- analysis of errors or mistakes
- learning assessment
- description of action research or case studies
- lesson planning
- syllabus design and other issues.

Usually, at the end of the bachelor paper, the students list recommendations (for example, for teachers of English), based on the research findings. (Check the requirements on the Internet page of Vytautas Magnus University, the Department of English Philology (www.vdu.lt): Mokslas – Fakultetai ir institutai – Humanitarinių mokslų fakultetas – Anglų filologijos katedra – Metodinė medžiaga studentams).

**TASKS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK**

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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> Define the scope of your research paper.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong> What are your general expectations of the research process?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3.</strong> Project the possible sphere of the research.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 2
Research types and techniques

The aim of the educational research seeks “to generalize and contribute to the development of educational theory” (Bell 1997: 9). Different types of educational research have many similar qualities: they have to be systematically planned; the possible scope of the research carefully investigated and defined. Quantitative research may be used for testing theory or for exploring an area or generating hypotheses and theory; however, qualitative data often include quantification (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 65). Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) state that it is important to define research family, approach and techniques and the scope (the number of respondents/examples) at the initial stage of the research (see Table 2).

Table 2 Research families, approaches and techniques (After Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 63)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research families</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quantitative or qualitative</td>
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<td>Deskwork or field work</td>
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<table>
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<th>Research approaches</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Action research</td>
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<td>Case studies</td>
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<td>Experiments</td>
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<td>Surveys</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Research techniques</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Documents</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interviews</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Observation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Experimental research

Experimental research is the most conclusive of scientific methods. The researcher usually establishes different types of treatment and then studies their effects. Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) state that the results of this type of research may lead to clear interpretations (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 9). For example, experimental research may be carried out when there is a need to compare the effect of different teaching methods on student achievement or attitudes. In experimental research there is the independent variable (experimental or treatment variable) and the dependent variable (criterion or outcome variable) (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996:263). Independent variables may be methods, tasks, learning materials, or rewards given to students; while dependent variables include achievement, interest, attention span, motivation, attitudes, etc.

After the treatment has been administered to the treatment group for a certain time
period, researchers observe or measure the groups (the treatment group and the control group) receiving different treatments to see if they differ. If the results of the posttests differ, then a conclusion may be drawn that the treatment had an effect and is likely to cause the difference. Lin S. Norton (2009) defines the following experimental designs: independent groups design, matched participants design, and repeated measures design.

**Correlational research**

This type of research is done to determine relationships among two or three variables and is usually undertaken when there is a need to look for and describe relationships that may exist among naturally occurring phenomena, without changing these phenomena (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 10). Some scholars state that correlational research is not a research method but a statistical technique – it is used to show if there is a relationship between two independent behaviors or measures (Norton 2009: 109). Lin Norton gives the following examples of the expected positive relationship (lectures attended and examination marks; lectures attended and coursework marks; etc.) (Ibid.).

**Causal-comparative research**

Causal-comparative research determines the cause for or the consequences of differences between groups of people (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 341). However, interpretations of causal-comparative research may be limited. The group difference variable in a causal-comparative study is either a variable that cannot be manipulated (e.g. ethnicity) or one that might have been manipulated but for one reason or another has not been (e.g. teaching style) (Ibid.). Both causal-comparative and correlational studies are the examples of associational research – researchers conduct them to explore relationships among variables. Causal-comparative studies typically compare two or more groups of subjects; correlational studies require a score on each variable for each subject (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 343).

**Action research**

Lin S. Norton (2009: 51) states that “action research” is a broad umbrella term used to describe a wide range of research. Action research needs to be planned systematically; it is “directed towards greater understanding and improvement of practice over a period of time”; it has always a “practical, problem-solving emphasis” (Bell 1997: 8; italic in the original). The following criteria for distinguishing action research have been defined by Hart and Bond (1995): action research is educative; it deals with individuals as members of social groups; it is problem-focused, context-specific and future-orientated; it involves a change intervention; it aims at
improvement and involvement; it involves a cyclic process; it is founded on a research relationship in which those involved are participants in the change process (in Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001; 69). Lin S. Norton (2009) distinguishes two distinct traditions of action research: “a British tradition that links research to improvement of practice and is education oriented” and “an American tradition which links research to bringing about social change” (Norton 2009: 51.).

Often action research starts with observing some problems in the teaching/learning practice and deciding on the need for improvement; then a course of action is designed, which is implemented; finally, reflections are made to determine the change and modifications for future practice are implemented (Norton 2009: 69–70).

Survey research

This type of research determines specific characteristics of a group. Surveys can be cross-sectional and longitudinal (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 368). A cross-sectional survey collects information from a sample that has been drawn from a predetermined population; while in a longitudinal survey information is collected at different points of time in order to study changes over time (Ibid.). The usual format of a survey is processing a questionnaire. Lin S. Norton notices two main types of instrument to distinguish when considering survey research: the questionnaire to find out information about people’s habits, behaviors and demographics; the attitude or inventory to measure people’s attitudes, beliefs or behaviors (Norton 2009: 92).

A descriptive survey involves asking the same set of questions (a written questionnaire or ability test) of a large number of individuals. Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) observe the following difficulties in survey research: (1) ensuring clear not misleading questions; (2) getting respondents to answer questions thoroughly and honestly; and (3) getting a sufficient number of the questionnaires completed (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 11).

According to Lin S. Norton (2009), “questionnaire research covers both questionnaire and measurement or attitude scale design” (Norton 2009: 91). The general types of questions in surveys are the following: closed-ended questions, open-ended questions and attitude scales or measurement scales (see Appendix 2 “Types of Survey Questions”). Closed-ended (or closed) questions are used when it is necessary to have some measurable count of a respondent’s behaviors; these questions allow a respondent to select his/her answer from a number of proposed options. Open-ended questions are used when there is a need for finding out how the respondent thinks or feels about the topic; these questions allow for more individual responses, and, therefore, are sometimes difficult to interpret and to score.

Attitude scales or measurement scales look like questionnaires but are designed as series
of statements to produce a measurement of something. There are many forms of response set but
the most widely used are the following: the Thurstone scale (has two response sets: “True/false”;
“Yes/No”; “Agree/Disagree”); The Likert scale, which produces a differentiated scale of
responses (“Strongly agree; agree; unsure; disagree; strongly disagree; or “All the time; very
frequently; frequently; sometimes; infrequently; never”, etc.); the Osgood semantic differential
scale, similar to the Likert scale, with differentiated response options and with both ends of the
options. Another classification of survey questions is based on their nature (see Table 3).

Table 3 Types of survey questions (After Bell 1997: 77)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>List</td>
<td>A list of items is offered, any of which may be selected. For example, a question may ask about qualifications and the respondent may have several of the qualifications listed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>The response is only one of a given set of categories. For example, if age categories are provided (20–29, 30–39, etc.), the respondent can only fit into one category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranking</td>
<td>In ranking questions, the respondent is asked to place something in rank order. For example, the respondent might be asked to place qualities or characteristics in order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>There are various stages of scaling (nominal, ordinal, interval, ratio) which may be used in questionnaires, but they require careful handling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>The response is a number (exact or approximate), giving the amount of some characteristics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grid</td>
<td>A table or grid is provided to record answers to two or more questions at the same time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Common erroneous types of questions are the following:

Ambiguous (e.g. “Do you attend English and German classes?”)

Emotional (e.g. “Do you not agree that …?”)

Presuming (e.g. “Does the institution make adequate provision for teaching?”)

Hypothetical (e.g. “If you had … what would you do…?”)

Offensive or covering sensitive issues (e.g. questions on exact age; the arrangement into age categories is a better choice) (After Bell 1997: 81).

A questionnaire should be attractive to the recipients and it should match their age and
comprehension level. Recipients need to be encouraged to read and to answer the questions. All questionnaires for educational purposes administered in Lithuania (except for testing the level of English) should be printed in the Lithuanian language, even though the survey includes questions for the teachers of English on the methods of teaching English or students’ approach to the related issues in the sphere of EFL. A questionnaire should have a title and an introductory part,
in which the purpose of the questionnaire is explained and the possible educational benefits of
the questionnaire briefly described. Confidentiality and/or anonymity are usually promised. At
the end of the questionnaire young researchers usually include “thank-you” phrases and their
name, institution and main contacts, which may be useful in some after-survey activities or
processes.

It has been noticed that meeting groups of subjects face-to-face raises the quality of
distribution of the questionnaires. However, in large-scale research this is not always possible,
thus an accompanying letter is advisable. Instructions should be clear and inform the recipient on
the way of filling in the questionnaire. The starting questions should be easier to answer; more
difficult or sensitive questions usually follow the easier ones. Questionnaires aimed at young
learners may contain pictures or symbols instead of complicated answer formulas.

In almost all surveys, cases of nonresponse occur. According to Fraenkel and Wallen
(1996), “nonresponse can be divided into two categories: total nonresponse (when no
information at all is collected from one or more individuals) and item response (when some, but
not all, information is collected from one or more individuals)” (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 381).

Interviews
The survey interview is a conversation between an interviewer and a respondent with the
purpose of receiving certain information from the respondent. Although interviews are adaptable,
they are time-consuming and subject to bias. Judith Bell states that “a structured interview can
take the form of a questionnaire or checklist that is completed by the interviewer” (Bell 1997:
93). An interview may be recorded with a prior agreement with the interviewee.

Norton (2009: 100) sets out three types of interviews:

- structured interviews, which are like a spoken form of a questionnaire;
- semi-structured interviews that have predetermined questions but are more flexible
  than structured ones;
- unstructured interviews are intended to get insights about the respondents’ world and
  experience.

Observation
Careful planning and piloting are essential in constructing research based on an observation
method. There are two types of observation—participant and non-participant. Participant
observation may be also object to bias. On the other hand, non-participant and structured
observation can be more precise. A researcher should have a permission from the authorities of
the institution and the participants of the observable situation to carry out observation, informing
of the duration and instances of observation. The recording of the situations is advisable, as it helps the researcher further investigate the problem and aids in eliminating the bias factor. So-called field-notes during observation help the researcher to evaluate the situation more adequately.

**Content-analysis research**

Content analysis is a method that permits researchers to study human behavior unobtrusively – without being directly involved (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 11). This type of research may include the analysis of the content of the texts, drawings, pictures, etc. (Merkys 1995: 23). The method is applicable to any material that has not been prior organized for the researcher’s purpose. There are two types of content analysis (verbal and visual). The best example of this type of research is the content-analysis of students’ compositions or textbooks.

**Qualitative research**

This type of research allows the researcher obtain a more holistic picture of the situation or setting than quantitative research (see Table 4). In qualitative research the natural setting is the direct source of data that are collected in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The data might include interview transcripts, field-notes, photographs, recordings, personal comments, textbook passages, etc. Qualitative researchers are concerned with both the process and the product; they tend to analyze data inductively. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (1996), descriptions performed during this type of research “might depict social atmosphere of the classroom; the intellectual and emotional experiences of the students; the manner in which the teacher acts” and others. (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 12). If a qualitative research presents a detailed study of one or a few individuals, this is called “a case study”.

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) describe the following quantitative paradigms: this type of research seeks the facts/causes of social phenomena, it is aimed at obtrusive and controlled measurement, it is objective (the outsider’s perspective), it is verification-oriented and outcome-oriented, it is reliable (based on hard and replicable data), and it assumes a stable reality (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 65). Qualitative paradigms, according to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001), are different: the research is concerned with understanding the behavior from the actors’ own frames of reference, it is aimed at naturalistic and uncontrolled observation, it may contain a great degree of subjectivity, it is discovery-oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive, inductive, it is process-oriented, it presents real, rich, deep data, it may be ungeneralizable (single case studies), it is holistic and assumes a dynamic reality (Ibid.).
Table 4 Quantitative versus qualitative research in preferences (After Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 443)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative methodologies</th>
<th>Qualitative methodologies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preference for precise hypotheses stated at the outset</td>
<td>Preference for hypotheses that emerge as study develops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for precise definitions stated at the outset</td>
<td>Preference for definitions in context or as study progresses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data reduced to numerical scores</td>
<td>Preference for narrative description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much attention to assessing and improving reliability of scores obtained from instruments</td>
<td>Preference for assuming that reliability of inferences is adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of validity through a variety of procedures with reliance on statistical, indices</td>
<td>Assessment of validity through cross-checking sources of information (triangulation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for random techniques for obtaining meaningful samples</td>
<td>Preference for expert informant (purposive) samples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for precise descriptions of procedures</td>
<td>Preference for narrative/literary descriptions of procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for design or statistical control of extraneous variables</td>
<td>Preference for logical analysis in controlling or accounting for extraneous variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for specific design control for procedural bias</td>
<td>Primary reliance on researcher to deal with procedural bias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for statistical summary of results</td>
<td>Preference for narrative summary of results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preference for breaking down of complex phenomena into specific parts for analysis</td>
<td>Preference for holistic description of complex phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to manipulate aspects, situations or conditions in studying complex phenomena</td>
<td>Unwillingness to tamper with naturally occurring phenomena</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quantitative analysis is useful in action research where the method is an experiment, an attitude scale or questionnaire or an observation study which involves counting. Qualitative and quantitative research may be combined, as qualitative research facilitates quantitative research and vice versa. The two types of research may be combined to provide a general picture of the situation. As Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) observe, “quantitative research is usually driven by the researcher’s concerns, whereas qualitative research takes the subject’s perspective” (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 85).

Case study

Case study “gives and opportunity for one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited time scale” (Bell 1997: 8). As Judith Bell states, “observation and interviews are most frequently used in case study” (Ibid.). However, other research methods can be also successfully combined. The object of the case study can be the following: the introduction of a new syllabus, the new role of a school/teacher, or innovations in an institution/classroom (Bell 1997:9). Case studies have many advantages: they are initiated by people’s experiences and practices, and they can be collected for further research. However, the complexity of a case makes the analysis difficult and multi-folded. Case studies may be progressed in different ways:
for example, in terms of the number of cases – single or multiple; in terms of the purpose of the study – exploratory, descriptive or explanatory (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 74).

**Historical research**

Historical research may present a valuable study of the past: either by analyzing existing documents of the period or by interviewing people who lived during the particular time span. An example of a historical research could be based on the analysis of the process of teaching English or other foreign language in Lithuania in the twentieth century.

**General research types**

General research types are the following: descriptive, associational or intervention-type (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 13). Many scholars state that in educational research, the most common descriptive methodology is the survey. However, content analysis, qualitative and historical research methodologies are descriptive in their nature. Research that investigates relationship is associational research (e.g. correlational and causal-comparative methodologies). Still associational studies do not influence or change the outcomes – these are the prerogatives of intervention studies, during which a particular method or treatment is expected to influence one or more outcomes (e.g. assessment of the effectiveness of various teaching methods, curriculum, classroom arrangement) (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 14). There are types of educational research that combine these three general approaches.

**TASKS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK**

1. What is the possible type of your research?

2. Discuss the main features of qualitative and quantitative research.

3. What are the most popular types of research in EFL methodology? Define them.
CHAPTER 3
Stages of the research process

Writing a research paper is a part of the study program. During this process the student’s abilities of scientific research are developed; their autonomous learning skills are improved. Students are expected to develop the following skills:

- to present a thorough study of the selected topic;
- to choose and sort out scholarly sources;
- to logically arrange ideas and formulate arguments;
- to analyze documents and data;
- to plan and design research;
- to choose methods of the research;
- to carry out the research;
- to draw relevant conclusions.

Research is understood as a study or investigation, in an organized and thorough manner, to establish concepts, principles, and facts (see Figure 1).
Figure 1 Representations of the research process (After Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 7)
Basic research is designed to test a theory, but may have no immediate application. Applied research, on the other hand, is designed to solve problems rather than deal with theoretical assumptions. Pure research addresses the theoretical issues and is not expected to have any immediate benefit to society. The systematic study of a problem or issue may be undertaken in a variety of methods. For example, scientific methods include observation and experimentation, while market research includes surveys and focus groups. Research is an active part of the learning process. A researcher (a student) should be aware of the research ethics - standards of moral conduct as applied to research (e.g. not revealing the names of people that you have promised to keep confidential) or using the appropriate citation and reference system.

Selecting the theme
Teaching of English as a foreign language is a branch of education. Thus, the gaps or needs in improving teaching are the issues that help the researcher to focus on the urgent topic (Stulpinas 1998: 5). For the research papers in the field of the EFL teaching/learning, EFL methodology and education students may choose different topics:

- general issues of language teaching and learning;
- historical development of EFL methodology;
- theories, approaches and methods of teaching and learning a foreign/second language;
- language learning skills;
- teaching different age learners;
- teaching different levels or ESP courses;
- analysis of learner competences;
- teacher/learner autonomy;
- evaluation and assessment theory and methods;
- new technologies in EFL learning;
- constructivist theory;
- humanistic approaches.

Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) enumerate the following steps for thinking of a research topic:

1. Ask your supervisor, colleagues or friends.
2. Look at previous research work.
3. Develop some of your previous research (e.g. a course paper), or your practice at work.
4. Relate it to your other interests.
5. Think of a title or variants of a title.
6. Just start anywhere
7. Be prepared to change direction.

(After Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 31)

For writing an essay, students should follow the requirements set in the course: they may have a choice to select a topic from the list of suggested topics. In case of a course paper, students may slightly change the topic from the suggested one; however, the change should be minimal and discussed with the supervisor/advisor. For a B. A. Thesis the student is free to choose a topic s/he is interested in or the topic may be suggested by the thesis advisor.

If the students have the freedom of choice, first, they have to review their own language learning experience (school/college and university). Secondly, talks with EFL teachers are often inspiring: during these talks students may decide on some urgent problem that needs investigation. Some students have immediate teaching experience, which may be helpful in deciding on the topic and design of research. Internet search, analysis of the European and local documents and periodicals/journals are suggested for the students, so that they could choose a relevant and urgent topic.

Narrowing the scope

Sometimes the topic or theme is very broad (e.g. “Teaching of English at a Secondary School”) and needs narrowing of the scope (e.g. “Assessment Techniques in an EFL Primary Classroom”). If the topic is too broad, then two major dangers appear: the research may become too long and, therefore, very difficult to design and organize.

Clarifying or defining the problem

Identification of a problem or a question is the first major step in a research project. During the process of working on/choosing the topic, the student should pose the following questions:
1) Why am I doing this research?
2) Is this research necessary?
3) Is the topic urgent?
Thus, a problem can be anything that a person finds unsatisfactory or a difficult situation that needs to be changed/improved (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 25).

Although research problems differ greatly, and although there is no one “right” way to state one, certain characteristics of problems and problem statements can be learned and used to good advantage. For example: What is the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem? (see Figure 2)
The research problem may be understood as a question. The sentence describing the research problem states the relation between two variables. Hence, a problem then is an interrogative sentence or statement that asks: What relation exists between two or more variables? The answer is what is being sought in the research.

There are three criteria of good problems and problem statements:

1) The problem should express a relation between two or more variables (e.g. Is A related to B? How are A and B related? How is A related to B under condition C? Is there a difference between A and B in terms of C?)

2) The problem should be clearly stated and unambiguous. The purpose of a study is not necessarily the same of the problem of the study. For example, the purpose of the study was to throw light on the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem. The problem was the question whether self-esteem was related to academic performance.

3) The problem and the problem statement should be such as to imply possibilities of empirical testing. A problem that does not contain implications for testing its relationship or relations is not a scientific problem. So, if you can measure the constructs of self-esteem and

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**Figure 2** Division chart for constructing a problem and deciding on appropriate research methods (After Norton 2009: 92)
academic performance, then the problem is considered a good problem.

Problem posing involves students taking up a problem or task and generating their own set of questions or tasks. Non routine problems or problems that have more than one solution provide more opportunities for students to become engaged in problem posing. Summarizing, five phases are involved in problem solving:

1. Defining the problem
2. Identifying possible solutions
3. Choosing an effective solution
4. Implementing the solution
5. Evaluating the outcome

In educational administration, problem solving involves identifying, constructing, and developing solutions to conceptual, organizational, and technical problems that influence administrative effectiveness in various situations and under particular conditions.

Setting the aim

In education, an aim is a statement of educational intentions or purposes of a more general nature than objectives. A particular aim may include several objectives. The aim of the research should be presented very clearly, using the declarative statement format (e.g. “The aim of the research is to analyze assessment methods used in EFL classes at Lithuanian primary schools.”). Often the word “aim” is in bold to make the text reader-friendly. Rowena Murray (2004) distinguishes the following characteristics of effective aims:

- Specific: detailed enough to be measurable and convincing
- Measurable
- Achievable
- Realistic: with no limiting factors
- Timescaled
- Simple: immediately understandable
- Meaningful: to the researcher, aligned to the researcher’s core values
- Responsible: for everyone involved
- Directed towards the researcher’s goal, not someone else’s goal

(Murray 2004: 21)

The process of constructing a successful aim consists of several steps: definition of the purpose, the choice of a writing verb (e.g. review/evaluate/summarize), definition of the scale and scope of the study and the choice of the methods.
Enumerating the objectives

Any research design starts with formulating the research objectives. This step needs to be taken before the decision whether or not to do experimental research, as the research objectives will determine what kind of research to do. Research objectives describe what is going to be studied and how. It is necessary to spell out clearly what the aims of the research are. Research objectives need to be realistic. For example, the researcher wants to look at the effects of different test conditions on examination performance. In fact, there are an almost unlimited number of conditions that could vary slightly and affect test performance such as lighting levels, seating arrangements, temperature and so on. To look at all these in one study would be impractical and almost impossible. It is necessary, therefore, to set a more limited goal by thinking about which aspects might really make a difference and choosing just one or a small number, for example, seating arrangements. The research objective would then be to look at whether or not seating arrangements affect examination performance.

Usually the objectives are enumerated; often infinitive form is used; however, sometimes students use nouns or noun phrases. Consistency is required in enumerating the objectives (if the chosen format is infinitive phrases, then all the objectives should consist of them. Here are two formats of the objectives (See Table 5):

Table 5 Two possible formats for the objectives (After Sardiko 2004: 13).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With infinitive forms</th>
<th>With nouns or noun phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The following objectives were set: 1. To study and analyze theoretical sources on the phenomenon of bilingualism and child development. 2. To observe and study bilingual families. 3. To present a summary of the positive experience of children’s bilingual development. 4. To study the favourable factors for the child’s bilingual development. 5. To devise recommendations for bilingual development of pre-school age children in a family.</td>
<td>The following objectives were set: 1. Study and analysis of theoretical sources on the phenomenon of bilingualism and child development; 2. Observation and study of bilingual families; 3. Summary of the positive experience of children’s bilingual development; 4. Study of the favourable factors for the child’s bilingual development; 5. Devising recommendations for bilingual development of pre-school age children in a family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of objectives depends on the scope of the research; however, the usual number for a B.A. Thesis is 4–7. The order of the enumerated objectives should be adequate to the structure of the whole paper: first, the objectives that demonstrate the theoretical part of the paper are enumerated and then the objectives of the empirical part of the research follow.
Formulating the research question

Having identified the research problem or area that you plan to investigate, the next step is to list research questions. In educational research you have to put forward hypotheses or research questions that show a relationship between the variables or constructs you are studying. The research questions guide the data collection techniques, the statistical analysis to be used and so forth (see Table 6). Thus, stipulating research questions or hypotheses clearly is essential and it is necessary to be prepared to defend or support your choice of research questions or hypotheses.

Table 6 Research questions and suggested methodology (After Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 25)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Suggested methodology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do interactive exercises raise the learner’s motivation higher than traditional tasks?</td>
<td>Experimental research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the descriptions of people in EFL textbooks biased?</td>
<td>Content analysis research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What goes on in a primary EFL classroom during an average week?</td>
<td>Qualitative/ethnographic research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do teachers behave differently toward students of different genders?</td>
<td>Causal-comparative research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can we predict which students might have trouble learning certain kinds of subject matter?</td>
<td>Correlational research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do parents feel about the EFL teaching program in primary classes?</td>
<td>Survey research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can an EFL teacher improve classroom climate?</td>
<td>Interview research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Characteristics of good research questions or hypotheses are the following:

1) The research question or hypothesis should state an expected relationship between two or more variables.

2) The research question or hypothesis should be testable.

3) The researcher should have definite reasons based on either theory or evidence for considering whether the research question is worth answering or the hypothesis worth testing.

4) The research question or hypothesis should be as brief as possible and clearly stated.

A research question focuses on one aspect of the topic (e.g. “What makes the development of pre-school children’s bilingualism most favorable?” (Sardiko 2004: 14). In discussing the qualities of successful research questions, Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) observe the following characteristics:

- *feasibility* (it can be investigated)
- *clarity* (special focus on key words in the question)
- *significance* (it is worth investigating because it will contribute important knowledge about the situation/phenomenon, etc.)
- *ethics* (it will not involve physical or psychological harm or damage)

(Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 27)
Definition of the key concepts, issues and contexts of the research project helps in focusing the project. As Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) observe, this primary focus defines the territory of the research, indicates the literature that is necessary to be consulted and may suggest the methods and theories that should be applied (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001: 36). Thus, during the initial stage, a researcher has to consider three major issues: the main concepts of the research, the key areas/issues of the research; the principal context of the research (theories, methods, perspectives).

**Raising the hypothesis/hypotheses**

According to Jack R. Fraenkel and Norman E. Wallen, “some researchers state a hypothesis right at the beginning of the research project” or “hypotheses may emerge as a study progresses, sometimes even when the information that has been collected is being analyzed and interpreted” (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996:7). A hypothesis is a possible answer to your research question. It is an explanation for a phenomenon that is presented in such a way that it can be tested using either qualitative or quantitative data to demonstrate its validity.

A hypothesis is a tentative explanation that accounts for a set of facts and can be tested by further investigation. For example, one hypothesis possible to test could be that the absence of parents’ interest in their child’s progress causes low achievement. Qualitative research allows testing this hypothesis by collecting the relevant data and using statistical techniques to decide whether or not to reject or provisionally accept the hypothesis. Accepting a hypothesis is always provisional because new data may emerge that causes it to be rejected later on. As Fraenkel and Wallen observe, “stating hypotheses has both advantages and disadvantages (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 57). First of all, stating a hypothesis helps to concentrate on the topic and to think more carefully. However, stating a hypothesis may lead to bias (conscious or unconscious) on the part of the researcher (Ibid.). Another disadvantage of stating hypotheses is that sometimes it may be unnecessary or inappropriate in some types of descriptive surveys (Fraenkel, Wallen 1996: 58). Sometimes focusing on a hypothesis might prevent a researcher from noticing other important phenomena (Ibid.).

**Considering the methods of the research**

Research methods in education (and other social sciences) are often divided into two main types: quantitative and qualitative methods. The term “qualitative research” became widely used in the late 1980s to describe a range of research methods and techniques, which were central to anthropology and qualitative sociology, and that had been covered by the more specific term ethnography. Since that time there has been a dramatic expansion of qualitative inquiry into
other research domains including education. This expansion has brought with it considerable controversy about the extent and meaning of qualitative research in terms of both its epistemological foundations and its methods and strategies.

Despite the controversy over the proper application of the term, qualitative research can best be defined as a form of social inquiry that takes reality as socially constructed rather than given and where the data are primarily textual rather than numerical. Qualitative research is conducted in naturalistic settings where the researcher, who is the instrument of research, pays close attention to the context and to the meanings participants attach to social behaviour. Qualitative research tends to be inductive and holistic, and analysis is interpretive rather than statistical.

Quantitative research is explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods in particular statistics. While it is important to use the right data analysis tools, it is even more important to use the right research design and data collection instruments. Nevertheless, most researchers do not have to be particularly expert in mathematics underlying the methods, because computer software nowadays allows doing the analysis quickly and relatively easily.

The following research methods are suitable for research at university: study of scholarly sources/literature analysis, document analysis, case study, action research, experiment, survey, observation, self-observation and self-reflection, questionnaire, interview, evaluation, attitude inventories, tests, etc. (Sardiko 2004: 15). Raw data that comes from the questionnaires, interviews or observation and case study or action research needs to be recorded, analyzed and interpreted (See Table 7). Primary sources are “raw materials” of research such as artifacts, maps, pictures, original texts of books, plays, diaries, people, letters, journals, school records, oral testimony by an eyewitness, compositions, essays, etc. These sources are firsthand, independent, original, and form the foundation upon which research is constructed.

From exposure to primary sources, students are provided with the opportunity to experience the past more directly than otherwise possible. Recording of the data includes diaries, journals, field notes, reviews, reports that include presentation of the data in charts, graphs, tables and other modes. A quantitative study requires statistical procedures with computer software such as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abstract</strong></td>
<td>It is a brief version or summary of an article, talk, thesis, research paper, etc.; it should give an outline of the main issues and conclusions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analysis</strong></td>
<td>It is a process by which research data are examined and conclusions drawn from them and a report on this process is provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appraisal</strong></td>
<td>Generally, it is a judgment of the value, performance or nature of somebody or something. In education, it is a system for assessing the work of teachers, head teachers as well as teaching staff in universities. Staff appraisal includes a discussion with staff members of their strengths and weaknesses in their job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment</strong></td>
<td>This term includes a range of methods for evaluating student performance. It may be applied to any method used to better understand the current knowledge that a student possesses. Assessment may affect decisions about grades, advancement, placement, instructional needs, and curriculum. Information gathered may include social, educational, and psychological observations used to identify an individual’s strengths and weaknesses. Assessment may encompass the methods and procedures used in gathering and interpreting information about students, institutions, and programs for purposes of evaluation, appraisal, or accreditation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case study</strong></td>
<td>It is a detailed and usually longitudinal study of a single learner or group. It may be understood as a type of inquiry within qualitative research. A case is a single entity or a defined system, and may be an individual, an event, a process, or an organization. The researcher describes and analyzes the case holistically and in-depth, with particular attention to the context of the case. The researcher usually seeks multiple perspectives on the phenomenon, and uses diverse data collection methods and sources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Criterion</strong></td>
<td>It is a standard by which something or someone can be evaluated or judged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Data</strong></td>
<td>These are observations or information (e.g. facts, measurements) which can be used for research or which are available as the results of research. Data are facts or numbers that describe something. To analyze data means to make a judgment, synopsis, or conclusion based on the given data. Many times, data are organized in a table or graph. The term “hard data” is used to describe information which is completely factual and objective (e.g. measurement). “Soft data” refers to information which is derived from research that is subjective and/or not feasible to precise measurements. “Raw data” refers to factual information which has been collected but not yet organized or analyzed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diary</strong></td>
<td>Private account of the person’s actions, thoughts and feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experiment</strong></td>
<td>It is an operation carried out under controlled conditions in order to discover an unknown effect or law, to test or establish a hypothesis, or to illustrate a known law. It usually involves subjecting someone or something to some kind of treatment and measuring the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation</strong></td>
<td>Process of assessing the worth or value of something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview</strong></td>
<td>A formal meeting at which somebody is asked questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Field notes</strong></td>
<td>Written comments made in the course of professional action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal</strong></td>
<td>A written record of the things you do, see, etc. every day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Observation</strong></td>
<td>It is a social science methodology for gathering information about a subject by watching, noting, and describing the interaction of an individual or group within a given social context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance analysis</strong></td>
<td>It is determination of a learner’s knowledge, skills or capacities based on the collection of data concerning the acquisition of the learning content of one or many lessons.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pilot study</strong></td>
<td>This study involves trying out experimental materials in a small group of recipients.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td>Form on which there is a set of questions to be answered by a number of people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)</strong></td>
<td>The computer program SPSS was released in its first version in the 1960s, and is among the most widely used programs for statistical analysis in social sciences. It is also used by market researchers, health researchers, survey companies, government, education researchers, and others. SPSS is a software package used for conducting statistical analyses, manipulating data, and generating tables and graphs that summarize data. Statistical analyses range from basic descriptive statistics, such as averages and frequencies, to advanced inferential statistics, such as regression models, analysis of variance, and factor analysis. It is always necessary to have the SPSS Base System Data management (case selection, file reshaping, creating derived data and data documentation are the features of the base software). For more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
advanced analysis it is necessary to have additional modules. These techniques enable a researcher to compute new variables using arithmetic, cross-case, data and time, logical, missing-value, random-number, statistical, or string functions; to count occurrences of values across variables; to recode string or numeric value; to recode values into consecutive integers; to create conditional transformations using do if, else if, else, and end if statements; to use programming structures, such as do repeat-end repeat, loop-end loop, and vectors; to make transformations permanent or temporary; to execute transformations immediately, batched or on demand; to find and replace text strings in your data using the find/replace function; to use cumulative distribution, inverse cumulative distributions, and random number generator functions; to work with cumulative distribution and random number generator for discrete distribution functions; to use cumulative distribution for non-central distribution; to use density/probability functions for continuous and discrete distributions; to use non-central density/probability functions; to select two-tail probabilities. SPSS also contains several tools for manipulating data, including functions for recoding data and computing new variables as well as merging and aggregating datasets. SPSS also has a number of ways to summarize and display data in the form of tables and graphs. This program is a modular, tightly integrated, full-featured product line for the analytical process - planning, data collecting, data access, data management and preparation, data analysis, reporting, and deployment.

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analysis is a way of using mathematical formulas to make predictions. It refers to analyzing collected data for the purposes of summarizing information to make it more usable and/or making generalizations about a population based on a sample drawn from that population. Statistical analysis involves computing test scores, identifying the important scores for interpretation, and arranging scores on a profile.

**Summary**

A short statement that gives only the main points

**Survey**

The field of sample survey methods is concerned with effective ways of obtaining sample data. The three most common types of sample surveys are mail surveys, telephone surveys, and personal interview. Surveys take or present a general view or consideration of something. It may be an inspection or investigation.

**Tests/testing**

It is an exercise used to assess knowledge or skills. It is often a formal set of questions or tasks, intended to generate a quantitative representation used to determine if a student possesses certain abilities or comprehends given information. Tests can be used to compare individuals to groups or populations or can be used to assess individual development. In testing, reliability is the extent to which a test is or is not consistent. Consistency of testing is an act of sceptical detective work: where might the test be inconsistent? For example, if the test is a face-to-face measure involving a human rater, one logical place of inconsistency is a given rater within himself or herself (e.g., due to fatigue). Similarly, it is logical that raters may disagree with each other. In multi-item, paper-and-pencil tests, a logical locus of inconsistency is disagreement between items. The outcome of a reliability analysis is typically some sort of index of agreement between the particular likely loci of inconsistency (e.g., statistical correlation between raters, or summed inter-item consistency indices).

**Verbal report**

Account given by an individual of their thoughts/thought processes, feelings, ideas, etc.

Generally, the whole process of collecting information is called instrumentation. Organizing information for future use requires knowledge and decision making in the determination of meaningful classifications for easy retrieval and application. The computerized database allows for quick retrieval of only the information that meets particular criteria by enabling the user to delete, combine, broaden, or narrow a category of data at will. Databases are useful to educators in teaching logical thinking, problem solving, and information handling while students are taught to build their own databases or use the ones provided.
**TASKS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Discuss the stages of your research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Comment on the research ethics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>What is the topic/sphere of your research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>What is your support group and/or support material during the process of research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Define your research problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Construct the aim of your research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Name 3–4 research objectives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 4
On writing matters

On Language and Style

The use of academic style and formal language are important issues during the process of writing a research paper. Students should avoid colloquial expressions (*lots of, kind of, sort of, pretty big, a little bit*, etc.), contracted forms (*it’s, don’t, he’s*, etc.), clichés (*as far as I know, it goes without saying, of course, obviously*, etc.), emotional or suggestive language (*the issue is very interesting*, etc.), personal pronouns (*I, me, we*, etc.).

The use of neutral language and the consistency of terminology are required; same terms should be used throughout the paper. A glossary at the beginning of a longer paper helps the reader to get orientated in the topic. Sometimes a list of abbreviations is necessary, especially if they are used extensively throughout the paper. The text should be convincing of the originality, expertise and contribution.

On Text Organization

Thorough outlining is important during all stages of research. The research paper is usually organized into a theoretical and practical part. Each section of the theoretical and practical part is split into subsections. Division of the section should be arranged in the logical order. Each section should contain introductory and concluding paragraphs. The introduction of the chapter indicates the main points of the chapter, defines the purpose (in a verb) and defines the contents; the concluding paragraph summarizes the main issues (see Table 8).

Table 8 Example of outlining a chapter/part (After Murray 2004: 119)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The aim of this chapter is to give an overview of the various opinions and developments in trying to design a full model for ...</th>
<th>The main ideas behind what the process hopes to achieve are also discussed.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 1</strong> will discuss the need for ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 2</strong> tries to define the meaning of ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 3</strong> discusses what criteria are necessary ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 4</strong> deals with the type of ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 5</strong> covers the model of ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 6</strong> explains one of the models used by ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 7</strong> outlines ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 8</strong> discusses ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 9</strong> describes ...a number of ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section 10</strong> deals with ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The conclusion discusses</strong> the most important/urgent issues related to ...</td>
<td>The conclusion sets out the specific qualities of ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Requirements for the paragraph length should be always observed:

(1) Topic sentence
(2) Elaborate/define your terms
(3) Give an example/evidence/illustrate
(4) Say how your example makes the point

Before writing a paragraph, it is advisable to write a list of the points you want to cover and to check for the following: a relationship among them, the possibility to drop some issues and the order of the points.

On Referencing and Documenting the Sources

Citations from different sources demonstrates your ability to find the appropriate ones and to use them in the research paper. As Violeta Kalèdaitè observes, other people’s ideas can be incorporated in [the] research paper as summary, paraphrase or direct quotation (Kalèdaitè 2002: 31). However, the originality of the paper results in the student’s ability to organize quotations and personal comments in the logical way.

Avoidance of plagiarism is the student’s main responsibility: every time someone’s idea has been used, there should be an appropriate reference. Here is an example of this:

According to Jeremy Harmer, “the greatest difference between adults and younger ages is that the former come to lessons with a long history of learning experience” (Harmer 2004: 10).

Some commentary follows each quotation or paraphrased sentence.

Here are some options for writing on theoretical issues:

- Norton (2009) found that ...
- Murray (2004:11) defines the following problems:
- Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) challenge the traditional view that …
- Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) argue that/for ...
- Norton (2009) defines the functions of ...
- Sardiko (2004) explores the processes of ...
- Murray (2004) identifies this relationship as ...
- Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) produce a model of …

After copying the quote, always proofread to avoid mistakes.
**Other examples**

Short quote (pay attention to proper punctuation):

*Direct quote:*

a) As Jeremy Harmer observes, “The age of our students is a major factor in our decisions about how and what to teach” (Harmer 2005: 37).

b) Following Jeremy Harmer, “The age of […] students is a major factor” (Harmer 2005: 37).

c) According to Jeremy Harmer, “The age of our students is a major factor in our decisions about how and what to teach” (Harmer 2005: 37).

*Paraphrasing:*

Jeremy Harmer states that the age of the students is very important in choosing the methods and materials for teaching (Harmer 2005: 37). Usually a direct quote is more efficient than paraphrasing!

*Long quotation:*

Long quotation is a quotation longer than two or two and a half lines; it is always indented and properly introduced: it should be preceded by an introductory sentence and then a brief discussion should follow it.

__________________________________________________________________________

**Example of a long quote**

In describing the learner’s characteristics, Jeremy Harmer states that the learner’s age is one of the most important issues in choosing teaching methods and material:

> The age of our students is a major factor in our decisions about how and what to teach. People of different ages have different needs, competences, and cognitive skills; we might expect children of primary age to acquire much of a foreign language through play, for example, whereas for adults we can reasonably expect a greater use of abstract thought.

(Harmer 2005:37)

Thus, the age of the learners is the primary factor that a teacher has to consider before planning the teaching process.

Here a new paragraph follows. Mind the punctuation and formatting of the paragraphs above. If the whole text is double-spaced or has 1.5 lines spacing, then the long quote should be single-spaced, which makes it stand out from the whole text. Notice the indentation of a long quote and the place of the reference, which is “aligned right”. If an essay is short (2–3 pages), try to avoid long quotes, or include only one if it is absolutely necessary and important.
Including data in the research paper

Data in the text should be presented visually attractive (easily understandable and readable tables and diagrams, colour diagrams, charts and graphs). Each table or figure (picture, diagram, chart, and/or graph) has to be introduced or referred to and then commented on. Commenting on them, students only briefly explain main or significant/interesting to the reader points). Summary and brief interpretation of the data is necessary. Tables display columns and rows of numbers, percentage, scores or statistical test results. Students usually decide which tables are important for the discussion – these remain in the text, while other may be included in the appendices.

Caroline Coffin et al. (2003) enlist the following tips for using illustrative material:

- They supplement rather than duplicate text.
- They must be relevant and discussed in the text.
- Figures and tables should be located as close as possible to the point in the text at which they are discussed
- Illustrative material should be large, comprehensible and self-contained, legible, customized to your work (re-drawn if necessary). Correctly identified with sequential Arabic numerals, and correctly attributed if appropriate.
- Titles should specify the subject of the illustration.

(Coffin et al. 2003: 54)

Although consistency is required for the choice of different forms of diagrams (diagram, chart, graph, bar graph/chart, line graph/chart, pie graph/chart, column chart, doughnut chart, cylinder/cone chart, etc), very often they have separate aims: for example, line graphs may be applied for the demonstration of the change; pie graphs show the distribution of data; bar graphs present the overview of several kinds of information; cone charts show the general display of some data). Diagrams and tables should not be very large – normally they occupy one third of the page or even less. If they are very long, then they are included in appendices, and reference to them in the text is necessary (see Appendix 3 “Types of Diagrams”). Keep to the following requirements for diagrams and tables:

- Diagrams included in the appendices should be always referred to in the text.
- The font of the letters or numbers included inside the tables or diagrams is usually 10 or 12 pt.
- The text in the tables is single spaced.
- Diagrams and tables are numbered and have a title that summarizes them.
- The lists of diagrams and tables are included at the beginning of the paper.
- The title of a table precedes the table, while the title of a figure (diagram, chart, picture, graph, etc.) follows the figure (see Appendix 4 “Titles of Tables and Figures”).
- No punctuation mark is used after the title of a table or a figure.
The term “Figure” is used for all kinds of diagrams and pictures.

Thoughtful layout and reader-friendly tables and figures raise the overall quality of the paper.

**Technical requirements for the layout of the text**

Technical requirements for writing a research paper on EFL methodology are similar to the ones on linguistics. However, there are some other recommendations:

- Use A4 format (210×297 mm); margins are the following: top/bottom – 20 mm; left – 30 mm; right – 10 mm; 1.5 lines spacing (for a B. A. Thesis); double spacing (for a term paper); *Times New Roman*, 12 pt.
- The first line of the paragraph (except for the introductory paragraph of each chapter) is indented (15 mm), the paragraphs are justified.
- Arabic numbers are used in the text.
- The punctuation in percentage is a full stop/period (e.g. 10.6%).
- The first line of an introductory paragraph is not indented.
- The numbering of the pages starts after the title pages which are not numbered
- The pages of the appendices are not numbered
- Check the requirements on the Internet page of Vytautas Magnus University, the Department of English Philology (www.vdu.lt): Mokslas – Fakultetai ir institutai – Humanitarinių mokslų fakultetas – Anglų filologijos katedra – Metodinė medžiaga studentams).

**TASKS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK**

1. What are the reasons for including tables and diagrams in the research paper?

2. Comment on the position of the titles of tables and figures.

3. Name several form/types of diagrams.
CHAPTER 5
Comments on parts of the research project

Title pages
For a B. A. Thesis there are two title pages: the first title is in Lithuanian, the second one is in English. Check the requirements for the title page(s) on the Internet page of Vytautas Magnus University, the Department of English Philology (www.vdu.lt): Mokslas – Fakultetai ir institutai – Humanitarinių mokslų fakultetas – Anglų filologijos katedra – Metodinė medžiaga studentams).

Table of Contents
It is included in the course paper and a B.A. Thesis and always precedes the Introduction (in a course paper or Summaries (in a B. A. Thesis). It lists all the parts of the paper (except the title page and summaries). Careful use of the full stops after the numerals is recommended (see Appendix 5 “Examples of Table of Contents”)

Summary/Abstract
A summary is necessary for a course paper (in English) and a B. A. Thesis (the first one is in Lithuanian and the second one is in English). A summary for a course paper is in English; it is short – one or two paragraphs. It states the main focus of the paper, the aim and objectives and major findings/results. The two summaries for a B. A. Thesis (in Lithuanian and English) should be identical in the subject matter; the length of each is up to one page. The object, aim and objectives of the research are defined and the process of the research is briefly described in the summary (See recommendations for writing a summary in Appendix 5 “On Summary and Précis Writing”).

List of Abbreviations (optional)
If you have devised your own abbreviations and use them in your paper, then the list of abbreviations is necessary. If you use only commonly accepted abbreviation, then this list is not necessary. However, many scholars observe that a great number of abbreviations may irritate the readers or make it more difficult for them to interpret the ideas (Kardelis, Bagočiūnas 2000: 31).

Glossary (advisable)
If the paper contains many terms the interpretation of which is important, then a glossary is needed. A glossary is a list of word or phrases with explanations or definitions. Items in the
glossary are arranged in the alphabetical order. Usually a dash is used after it; however, a full stop or a colon may be used instead of it. The second line of the explanation is indented. A reference for the explanation of the term immediately follows:

e.g.

A **diagnostic test** – these tests can be used “to expose learner difficulties, gaps in their knowledge and skill deficiencies during a course” (Harmer 2005: 321)

**Introduction**

The first paragraph of Introduction considers the **problem** of the research, defines the present situation and informs the reader on the necessity of the research. Once the problem has been defined, the following paragraph introduces the aim of the research. Usually the aim is defined by one sentence: “The **aim** of the research is to examine the methods of assessment during EFL classes in Lithuanian primary schools”. Further, the **objectives** of the research are set. The number of the objectives for a course paper is 3 or 4; the number of the objectives for a B.A. Thesis is normally 5 – 7. In an essay, the introductory paragraph contains the problem and the aim with the objectives briefly stated.

**Hypotheses** follow the objectives: usually there is one or two of them. The form of a hypothesis is the one of a statement; it is precise and gives the information on what is going to be investigated. A raised hypothesis needs to be proved and thus the process includes the arguments for this proof; demonstration of the proof and main thesis of the proof (Merkys 1995: 14). Hypothesis can be considered as the assumed answer to the research question (Sardiko 2004: 38). Sometimes the author of the paper includes the research question, which presents some additional insight into the research; however, it is not obligatory. Judith Bell states that “in most experimental and survey studies a hypothesis is postulated, and the research is structured in such a way as to enable the hypothesis to be tested” (Bell 1997: 19). Small-scale research does not require the statistical testing of hypotheses; however, in large-scale research statistical testing is required. Thus, in some cases of small-scale research the set of objectives is sufficient.

The **methods** of the research are further named. For example, the methods of the research are the following: the study of scholarly sources, the analysis of national documents, interviewing, questionnaires, statistical data analysis (**SPSS 12.0**)

The **structure** of the paper informs the reader on the steps and the organization of the research. Usually, this is the last paragraph of the introductory chapter; however, sometimes the result of the research is briefly summarized: the author may state what has been investigated and found, what recommendations were constructed and consider the major research findings. The introduction presents a short overview of the paper; thus, usually no examples or quotations are used in it.
Theoretical Part

The theoretical part has a title and all constituting parts have subtitles. The aim of the theoretical part is to present the results of the analysis of scholarly sources and documents. Murray (2004: 106) defines the aims of the literature review as follows:

- to give an overview of the urgent issues;
- to select some of the issues important to the research;
- to summarize and evaluate other people’s work;
- to provide a context for the research; to identify gaps;
- to develop an understanding of theory and method.

During the final stage of writing the paper, it is recommended to proofread the titles and subtitles of the chapters to see whether they match the ones in the Table of Contents and check the page numbers. The theoretical part starts with an introductory paragraph that informs on the structure of this part. Each section of the paper must have an introductory paragraph (informs on the main points of the section) and a concluding paragraph (summarizes the main points of the section and leads to the following section). This helps the author of the paper focus on the process of writing; this structure is reader-friendly and helps the reader understand the structure of each section and follow the arguments and ideas.

The order of the issues considered in the theoretical part should match the aim and objectives of the paper. The last paragraph of this part is very important: it summarizes the main issues analyzed in the theoretical part and draws conclusions on the main issues. Use some ideas for vocabulary choice suggested in Appendix 7 “Suggested List of Verbs”. The literature/document survey or analysis has to be in direct relationship to the research design (See Table 9).

Table 9 Questions a literature review should ask and answer (After Murray 2004: 107)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions a literature review should ask</th>
<th>Questions a literature review should answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➢ What were the research (theoretical) aims and objectives?</td>
<td>➢ Why is this subject important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ What were the outcomes of the research?</td>
<td>➢ Who else thinks it is important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ What approaches/methods/strategies were used?</td>
<td>➢ Who has worked on this subject before?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ In what context was the research conducted?</td>
<td>➢ Who has done something similar to what I will be doing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ What was its contribution to the field?</td>
<td>➢ What can be adapted to my own study?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Does it have any connection to my research question?</td>
<td>➢ What are the gaps in the research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Who is going to use my material?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ What use will my project/research be?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ What specific questions will I answer?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The survey of different sources requires comprehensive coverage of the field: reasons of selecting certain material should be named and the relationship with the research problem should be made distinct.

**Practical Part**

According to Sardiko, “the practical part of the paper describes the procedure, the process and the methods of obtaining data” (Sardiko 2004: 41). It is recommended to enumerate the objectives and/or hypotheses of the research, related to the practical part. The form of the report is used in this part of the paper: the researcher reports what s/he did, lists the steps of the research, documents the analysis, showing what was carried out, and reports and analyses the findings. The scope (form, methods, time and respondents) of the research is described first. For example, the author of the paper states what schools/institutions, etc. participated in the research, what is the total number of the respondents or interviewed people or how long the case study or experiment lasted. Thus, the practical part starts with the general information on the research. Further, specific subsections follow: they are related to the steps of the research, are in harmony with the aim, objectives and hypotheses, and with the theoretical findings. Discussion of the findings includes interpretation, justification and synthesis of the results in tables, graphs, etc. Here are some examples for constructing sentences in this part:

This suggests that …

The findings show that …

Although there were limitations in …, there were significant …

The last paragraph or section of this part is the one summarizing the research results.

**Conclusions**

A starting sentence is used to introduce conclusions that are numerated in the paper. According to Murray (2009), the closure of the paper is very specific and includes the following: achieving the aims of the research, delivering the results, integrating new and existing research and theory (Murray 2004: 174). The conclusion also demonstrates or summarizes the limits of the achievement (e.g. the scope, location, etc.). The conclusions refer to the whole research; thus, some conclusions are drawn from the theoretical part and other from the research findings. The order of the conclusions is logical: first the ones referring to the theoretical part are enlisted; then the ones from the practical part follow. The conclusions should be consistent with the aim and the objectives of the research as named in the introduction. It is recommended to repeat the hypotheses and state whether they have been confirmed or rejected. Statistical data (findings in
percentage, etc.) are included in the conclusions to prove your statements. Statements without statistical proof can be interpreted as groundless. Here are some examples for the start of the sentences:

- This study was based on the approach of …
- This approach was chosen because …
- The steps in the research involved …
- Data/information/observations were gathered as …
- These were organized into …
- Analyses suggested that …
- This interpretation was based on …
- Taken together the analyses show …
- Research aims were achieved to the extent that …
- Further research is needed in order to …
- More information is needed on …

Recommendations
Recommendations demonstrate the usefulness of the paper; they should be applicable and precisely formulated. Usually, recommendations best disclose the researcher’s contribution (both theoretical and practical) to the field of study.

References

- *The Harvard System* of referencing is used for writing a paper on TEFL/EFL methodology
- No numbers to the entries are used
- Single spacing is used for the entries
- The second/or other subsequent lines of the same item are not indented
- The sources are arranged alphabetically
- The sources of the same author are arranged chronologically, according to the year of publishing; not according to the title.
- For an Internet reference use left alignment, so that the spacing among the words is not distorted.

Reference for a book:

- The author’s last name and the initials for the first and second names (e.g. Harmer, J.)
- The year of publication in round brackets (e.g. (2005)) The full stop is NOT used
after it.

- The title of the book in italic followed by a full stop and all the meaningful words are written with a capital letter if the source is in English (e.g. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*); however, the newer version of the system allows no capitalization of the title (in this case only the first word is capitalized).
- The place – city – of publishing followed by a colon (e.g. Harlow: )
- The publisher followed by a full stop (e.g. Longman.)


or


**Reference for a journal article:**

- The author’s last name and the initials for the first and second names (e.g. Rinvolucri, M.)
- The year of publication in round brackets (e.g. (2009))
- Title of the article followed by a full stop; only the first word of the title is capitalized (e.g. True or false?). If the title already contains a question mark or an exclamation mark, then a full stop is not used.
- Title of the journal in italics, followed by a comma, and all the meaningful words are written with a capital letter if the source is in English (e.g. *English Teaching Professional*.)
- The volume/issue number followed by a comma (e.g. Issue 62,)
- Page numbers of the article (e.g. pp. 8–9)

**e.g.** Rinvolucri, M. (2009) True or false? *English Teaching Professional*, Issue 62, pp. 8–9

or


**Reference for an article/chapter in an edited book:**

- The author’s last name and the initials for the first and second names (e.g. Field, J.)
- The year of publication in round brackets (e.g. (2002))
- Title of the article followed by a comma, only the first word of the title is capitalized (e.g. The changing face of listening.)
- in (without any punctuation marks)
- The editor’s last name followed by a comma, and initials followed by full stops (Ed.) or (Eds.) (e.g. in Richards, J. C. and Renadya, W. A. (Eds.))
The title of the book in italic followed by a full stop and all the meaningful words are written with a capital letter if the source is in English (e.g. *Methodology in Language Teaching. An Anthology of Current Practice*.)

The place – city – of publishing followed by a colon (e.g. Cambridge: )

The publisher followed by a comma (e.g. Cambridge University Press,)

Page numbers followed by a full stop (pp. 242–247.)

e.g.


If a source has more than one author, all of them should be included:

e.g.


For more than three authors, the abbreviation “et al.” (and others) may be used.

Reference for an Internet article:

- The author’s last name and the initials for the first and second names (e.g. Onel, Z.)
- The year of publication in round brackets (e.g. (1996))
- Title of the article followed by a full stop; only the first word of the title is capitalized (e.g. Teacher initiated research). The title is followed by the word “Available:”
- Complete Internet address (normal/automatic font, not underlined)
- The date of access in square brackets

e.g.


For more examples on the references see Appendix 1 “Examples of the Reference List”

Appendices

Appendices contain important material that is “too space-consuming to be placed in the text of the paper” (Sardiko 2004: 54). Usually copies of questionnaires, examples, lists of exercises/tasks/methods/techniques/etc., photos, pictures, evaluation tables, observation notes, transcripts of interviews and other relevant material are included in the appendices. Very large and complicated tables and diagrams can be also included in the appendices. Appendices are numerated and have titles. The pages of Appendices are not numerated!
The Defense of the B.A. Thesis (on EFL Methodology)

For the defense the student has to prepare a 10–15 min. presentation using Microsoft Office PowerPoint (or any other version of it). The font of the text in the slides should be considerably large (24/26 or bigger). The text in the slides should be easy to read, it should be short (1–3 lines) – longer extracts of the text are difficult to follow. The use of animation of slides should be thoroughly thought of – very lively animation is too distracting. Think of a title slide: it should contain the title of the presentation, your name and the year (the name and the emblem of the university are optional). Carefully select the background and design of the slides. A piece of advice: Do NOT include “Thank you” slide at the end of the presentation! Just thank the audience for attention (without a slide). You may also tell the audience in what ways the process was beneficial to you. During the defense you are talking about work that you have completed, thus the use of the past tense is advisable. There should be a balance between the use of the passive voice and the personal pronoun “I”.

Some tips for a successful presentation

- Write down the text of the presentation
- Rehearse the presentation
- Check the pronunciation of the words that you doubt of
- Design the slides and adjust the slides to your speech
- Rehearse the presentation with the slides - invite your friend/s or family members to listen to it ☺☺☺☺☺

While making a presentation

- Speak naturally; do not speak too fast
- Keep eye contact with the audience
- Emphasize the most important points
- Use transitions to move from one point to another

For more information on making a speech see Appendix 8 “Making Effective Presentations”
### TASKS AND QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CHECK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>What are the objectives of a glossary?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Define the main points of an introduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>What are the aims of the theoretical part?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Finishing off

**11 good rules**

1. Check the university-approved format.
2. Check and double check the title page(s): the title(s), layout, your name, the teacher’s/ advisor’s name and titles and the date.
3. Check the numbering of the pages – it should be consecutive.
4. Crosscheck: find if the numbering of the pages matches the page numbers in the Table of Contents.
5. Check the List of Tables and the List of Figures for titles and page numbers.
6. Check spelling and grammar; check the consistency of the spelling system (quotation marks!).
7. Proofread for paragraph length and chapter structure.
8. Check the layout of the paper: the margins, spacing, etc. and follow the requirements.
9. Check that the dates and names of all references match those in the Reference list.
10. Read your reference list very attentively: consider the layout, punctuation, capitalization, etc.
11. Check the numbering and order of the appendices. Remember that each of the appendices should have been referred to in the text and they are included in the order of reference.
What can you add? Please include your tips for other students:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.
11.
References


APPENDICES

Appendix 1

EXAMPLES OF THE REFERENCE LIST

Examples of the Reference Lists

References

a) This list is mainly used for the Bibliographical List of References when you are in the process of working on your paper. Notice that full names are included in this stage. The inclusion of the first names in this “working” reference list helps you in proper referencing in the text.


b) This list is included in the FINAL version of the paper. Notice that only initials for the first and second names of the authors are used. Pay attention to the proper layout (the second/third line is not indented and round brackets are used to show that the paper is on methodology (education).


Important: Internet sources are included in the same list in the alphabetical order:

(a longer document; a book)
Eurovoc. (2005) Available:
http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/misc/glossary.htm [14 December 2008]

(an article without the author’s name)
Constructivism in EFL classroom. (2005) Available:
http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/misc/glossary.htm [14 December 2008]

(an article with the author)
http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/misc/glossary.htm [14 December 2008]

References


Appendix 2

TYPES OF SURVEY QUESTIONS
(After Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 2001:181)

1. **Quantity or information**
   1. In which year did you enrol on the part-time degree?

2. **Category**
   Have you ever been, or are you now, involved almost full-time in domestic duties (i.e. as a housewife / househusband)?
   - Yes (currently)  
   - Yes (in the past)  
   - Never

3. **List or multiple choice**
   Do you view the money spent on your higher education as any of the following?
   - a luxury
   - an investment
   - a necessity
   - a gamble
   - a burden
   - a right
   - a right
   - none of these

4. **Scale**
   How would you describe your parents attitude to higher education at that time? Please tick one of the options below:
   - very positive
   - positive
   - mixed / neutral
   - negative
   - very negative
   - not sure

5. **Ranking**
   What do you see as the main purpose(s) of your degree study? Please rank all those relevant in order from 1 downwards:
   - personal development
   - career advancement
   - subject interest
   - recreation
   - fulfill ambition
   - keeping stimulated
   - other (please write) ____________________________

6. **Complex grid or table**
   How would you rank the benefits of your degree study for each of the following? Please rank each item:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>for:</th>
<th>very positive</th>
<th>positive</th>
<th>neutral</th>
<th>negative</th>
<th>very negative</th>
<th>not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your employer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. **Open-ended**
   We would like to hear from you if you have any further comments.
Appendix 3

TYPES OF DIAGRAMS

bar graph – diagrama stulpeliais
It is a graph that displays data through the use of equally proportional rectangular figures called bars. The height of these bars indicates the amount of each set of data.

An example of a bar graph.

circle graph – skritulinė diagrama
It is a graph that shows how various categories of a set of data account for certain proportions of the whole. Circle graphs are many times referred to as pie graphs or pie charts.

An example of a circle graph.

coordinate graph – koordinačių diagrama
It is a graph that is formed using two number lines. These number lines contain both positive and negative numbers. They become the x-axis, which is displayed horizontally and the y-axis, which is displayed vertically. When put together, these axes form a coordinate system. Coordinates are the pairs of numbers formed when one number from the x-axis and one number from the y-axis coincide. Examples of a coordinate are demonstrated below in the graph. The dot indicates the ordered pair (2, 1).
An example of a coordinate graph.

**histogram - histograma (stulpelių grafikas, vaizduojantis dažnių skirstinį)**
It is a bar chart or bar graph that shows how the data are distributed throughout each interval.

![An example of a histogram.](image)

**line graph – linjinis grafikas/kreivē**
It is a graph that displays data using points or dots that are connected together with lines to indicate the amount of data.

![An example of a line graph.](image)
scatter plot – dviejų reikšmių diagrama
It is a graph that displays data using dots or points to indicate the amount of data. Depending on the amount of points, the data can look scattered, which indicates the name ‘scatter plot’.

An example of a scatter plot.

Exercise: Comment on the following diagrams from the students’ papers

Example 1 (Ž. P., 2009)

Figure 5 The type of assessment according to the form prevailing in EFL classes at Lithuanian primary schools.
Figure 6. The use of formative and summative types of assessment in EFL classes at Lithuanian primary schools.

Figure 8. The use of internal and external types of assessment in EFL classes at Lithuanian primary schools.
Example 2 (A. K., 2009)

Figure 6.5.1 The opinion of the respondents about the distribution of responsibility

Figure 6.7.2 The respondents’ evaluation of their own competence in teaching mainstreamed children
Example 3 (A. S., 2008)
It is important to practice various types of reading activities in “the reading stage” (See Appendix F). Figure 1 presents the following reading activities in *Upstream Upper Intermediate* textbook:

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1** The variety of reading activities in *Upstream Upper Intermediate*

The gapped texts and multiple choice activities take the largest parts of reading activities in the textbook *Upstream Upper Intermediate*. Multiple matching and matching headings to paragraphs equally covers 30% of reading activities in the textbook. All these activities should be done in the “reading stage.”
Appendix 4

TITLES OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Important:
The title of a table precedes the table, while the title of a figure (diagrams, pictures, etc.) follow the figure.

Exercise: Comment on the following diagrams from the students’ papers

Example 1 (A. S., 2008)
The main features of top-down and bottom-up reading are demonstrated in Table 3.2:

Table 3.2 The features of Top-down and Bottom-up reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top-down reading</th>
<th>Bottom-up reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• individual’s prior knowledge and expectations (Treinman 2)</td>
<td>• stimuli from the outside world (Treinman 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• general predictions and then seek for the input for the message (Saricoban 3)</td>
<td>• from most general at the top to most specific at the bottom (Saricoban 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• focus on issues of background knowledge, mental process (Tsai 7)</td>
<td>• rapid processing of text and word identification (Tsai 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• knowledge-based and conceptual-driven (Tsai 10)</td>
<td>• text-based and data-drive (Tsai 9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, it is obvious that both processes are important in reading comprehension and goes along together complementing one another.
Extensive and intensive reading is essential in foreign language learning. However, certain differences between these two types can be observed. Maria Dakowska provides the following characteristic differences between intensive and extensive reading:

**Table 4.1** Characteristic features of extensive and extensive reading by Maria Dakowska (2007: 206)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intensive reading</th>
<th>Extensive reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size of the material: shorter passage, often a segment of a larger whole, selected by the author of the programme.</td>
<td>Size of material: book, story, essay, novel, often self-selected by the student on the basis of interest and variety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pace of the task: rather slow with repetitions, intensive interaction between the teacher and the student</td>
<td>Pace of the task: fairly fast pace of reading, typical of communicative fluency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function: serves as learning experience for the development of reading comprehension</td>
<td>Function: serves as communicative experiences providing language input in the written form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits: helps the learner to practice reading strategies, learn vocabulary and discourse types, deliberately commit information to memory.</td>
<td>Benefits: significant source of cultural and factual knowledge and incidental vocabulary acquisition, performs motivational function, enhances communicative autonomy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main differences between intensive and extensive reading are in the following: the size of material, pace of the task, function and benefits of each type of reading.
Example 3 (A. K., 2009)

The research results prove that the majority of the respondents have higher university degree (79%), 9% of the respondents have finished college, 8% have higher non-university degree and 4% are presently studying in the university (Figure 6.2.1).

![Figure 6.2.1 The background of the respondents according to the educational degree](image)

The majority of the teachers’ work experience reaches more than twenty years (47%). 16% of the respondents have the job experience of five to ten years, 15% of the teachers are the beginners (1-5 years) and 9% of the respondents have worked from fifteen to twenty years.
Appendix 5

ON SUMMARY AND PRÉCIS WRITING

Summary
Summary is the expression in a condensed form of the principal content of any piece of writing. In other words the summarizer should briefly render the main idea in his own words. A summary is a good test of your ability to understand what you have read. If you can pick out essential points and then find your own ways of expressing them, you have really understood the passage.

The procedure for preparing a summary of any kind consists of four steps:
1) Reading ↔ 2) Selecting ↔ 3) Writing ↔ 4) Comparing.

First you must read the passage carefully to understand its meaning, then picking out the significant points, put the idea expressed in your own words. Having grasped the most important things, now you have to re-read the passage to see how well you have understood the details.

Another problem in summarizing is that you should omit examples when possible. The last step in writing a summary is comparing the written summary with the original passage to make sure that the essence of the original has been reproduced in a distinctly different language, that no idea which was not in the original has been introduced in the summary.

As to the length, the summary should be shorter than the original piece of writing. How much shorter is determined by the purpose of the summary. If it is to serve as a self-aid in reviewing, the summary probably needs to give only a general statement of the main idea of the original. If it is to serve as a note for possible use in a research paper, the summary should include the main supporting ideas.

The Process of Summary Writing
1. Read the passage that you will have to summarize until you understand it fully. Look up unfamiliar words, and find synonyms for them
2. Find the topic sentence of each paragraph. Write a list of points in note form. Do not include unnecessary facts.
3. Connect your points to write a rough draft of the summary in your words. Link all your sentences in a logical, progressive or chronological arrangement. Refer to the passage only when you want to make sure of some point. Try to write the summary from memory. Include important points and omit unnecessary details. Do not look at the original while you are writing.
4. Compare your summary with the original and cut out all non-essential points.
5. Write the final version of the summary and give your summary a title.
6. Put the source of the original passage in parentheses at the end of the summary.
Mind some of the ways used in cutting down the length of a passage (illustrative details or figures may often be omitted; ideas expressed in figurative language must be put more simply and directly; repetitions must be cut out; sentences must be re-phrased and re-arranged). Remember that your goal in writing a summary is to restate the main ideas in as few words as possible.

Précis

A summary of a passage from a book, report, newspaper, article, etc., which conveys the main idea of the original is called précis. The word “précis” which is French, and the English “precise” both come from the same Latin verb meaning “to cut short”. “To be precise” is to be accurate, definite, exact, brief and to the point.

Précis writing is of great importance to any student since it trains him/her to understand the meaning of what they read, to think clearly, to construct their writing in an orderly and logical way. The student will find, too, that the effort of making a précis will increase remembrance of a passage much more than many readings alone could. The précis is not only an end in itself but also a means to an end – to better mastery of passages of value and the development of the power of expressing ideas simply, clearly and concisely. A précis is normally made in about one third of the original. The writer is not supposed to introduce his own judgment or comments, nor can he/she use direct speech in précis writing.

The Process of Précis Writing

Writing an accurate précis is not easy. It requires careful and thoughtful reading in order to grasp the general idea and phrase it in a clear and brief way. Here are some suggestions, which should prove helpful:

1) Begin by reading through the passage carefully in order to discover the main line of thought and paragraph plan.

2) Read the passage through again, this time more slowly and carefully; as you read, note the topic dealt with in each paragraph. During the reading you will also have seen how the facts are connected, how one step follows on from the one before. In particular, you may have seen how closely connected the topic of a paragraph is with that of a preceding paragraph.

3) Now go through the passage again, this time sentence by sentence. Underline key sentences, words and important facts as you go along. Look out for any repetition, which must be avoided in your underlining.

4) Paraphrase conversations or dialogues if they are essential for your précis. Avoid verbs like “tell”, “say”, “ask”, or “answer” because they are typical of reported speech. Instead, you
may use such phrases as “to want (wish) to know that…”, “to wonder if (why, when, how, etc.)…”, “to think (believe, suppose) that…”, “to be sure (convinced) that…”, “to doubt (suspect) that…”, “to admit that…”, “to deny that…”, “to reproach sb.…” and so on.

5) Make a list of all the points you are going to use. Write them down using your own words as far as possible. These notes must contain all the essential facts. Nothing but what the writer tells you must appear. You must add no information of your own.

6) Write a draft précis of the passage, referring to the list of points only when you want to make sure of some point. This will help you greatly to reproduce the substance of the passage in your own words.

7) Keep to one tense form (past or present).

8) Revise, being sure that you have excluded personal judgement and you have accurately stated the main points of the original, omitted nothing important, and included nothing which is minor. Cut out unnecessary words and be sure you have linked the parts of your statement together with transitions, which will make the relationship clear to the reader who has not seen the original.

9) Remember that a précis is a condensation. It should be no longer than one third of the original.

A Summary and a Précis Compared

A summary and a précis have much in common because a summary also conveys the main idea of a passage, an article, etc. However, there are certain points of difference between them. They are the following:

1) A précis is a close summary of a paragraph in the proportion 1 to 3, while the length of a summary varies depending upon the amount of detail required in it. It may be a single sentence if that is enough to convey the general idea. The normal proportion of a summary, however, is about 1 to 10 of the original.

2) Since a summary requires a greater degree of generalization, the writer should use his/her own words.

3) A summary often has an introduction which clearly states the title, the author’s name, the source from which the text is taken and the subject the summary is concerned with.

4) The writer of a summary should avoid such phrases as “the author says”, “the article reports”, etc. Instead, he/she should simply say what the author says without specifying that. Remember that the success of condensing a text largely depends on the student’s ability to see through its paragraph structure and paragraph plan.
Review

The review is an informative account of the content and qualities of a book, play, article, etc. While writing a review, you should note the following:

1) Assume that your readers are not yet acquainted with the particular thing you are reviewing. On the basis of the information you provide in the review, they might form their own opinion.

2) Classify the subject of the review in the first paragraph (kind of writing, its purpose, etc.).

3) Bring out the main idea that will give the reader a clear and objective picture of the thing being reviewed, make every point in the review support the main idea.

4) Suggest the most important points by quoting brief significant passages.

5) Give a critical review. Bring specific evidence to support your critical judgement

Prewriting Hints for Critical Reviews:

- Identify and limit your subject
- Gather sufficient information on your topic
- Organize your information in a logical plan
- Give your audience an accurate representation of the work
- Describe any special features of the work
- Give your individual response to the work (moderate reaction)

Terms explained in Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000)

Précis – a short version of a speech or a piece of writing that gives the main points and ideas (syn. summary) (p. 992).

Review – (2) a report in a newspaper or magazine in which sb gives their opinion of a book, play, film, etc., (3) a report on a subject or on series of events (p. 1095–1096).

Summary – a short statement that gives only the main points of sth, not the details (p. 1302)

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Appendix 6

EXAMPLES OF TABLES OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise: Comment on the following Table of Contents from the students’ papers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Example 1 (by Živilė Povilaitytė, 2009):**

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| List of Figures | i |
| GLOSSARY | ii |

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### Appendix 7

**SUGGESTED LIST OF VERBS** (Adapted from Coffin et al. 2003: 90)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Account for/give an account of</td>
<td>“Account for” means to explain; “give an account of” means to describe and analyze a series of events or facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyze</td>
<td>To separate a question or idea into parts and discuss their relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply</td>
<td>To use of concepts, theories, or methods to consider a particular case, piece of data, problem or issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assess</td>
<td>To evaluate or estimate the importance of something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare</td>
<td>To look for similarities and differences and perhaps reach a conclusion about which is preferable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>To set in opposition in order to bring out differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticize</td>
<td>To give the judgment about the merit of theories and opinions, or about the truth of facts; support is necessary with a discussion of evidence or of the reasoning involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define</td>
<td>To set down the precise meaning of a word or phrase; in some cases, examine different possible or often-used definitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe</td>
<td>To give a detailed or graphic account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss</td>
<td>To investigate or examine by argument; to give reasons for and against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluate</td>
<td>To make an appraisal of the worth of something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examine</td>
<td>To look at something closely, questioning and exploring it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain</td>
<td>To make plain; to interpret and account for; to give reasons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explore</td>
<td>To consider causal factors, ideas, possibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on</td>
<td>To choose a particular aspect or strand of a problem or issue to consider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illustrate</td>
<td>To use a figure or diagram to explain or clarify, or make clear by the use of concrete examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpret</td>
<td>To expound the meaning of; to make clear and explicit, usually also giving your judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justify or prove</td>
<td>To build a case for an idea or perspective; to use supporting evidence or logical reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outline</td>
<td>To briefly discuss or sketch the main issues or arguments about a topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report on</td>
<td>To give an account of a series of events that have already occurred, usually with little judgment or evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>To provide the main points about a topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarize</td>
<td>To briefly put the main points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8
HINTS FOR MAKING EFFECTIVE PRESENTATIONS
(After Tuomaitė, Žindžiuviénė 2002: 89–104)

HINTS FOR SPEECH PREPARATION

- Organize your speech material
- Prepare presentational aids
- Think of rhetorical questions
- Use quotations from well-known sources
- Surprise the audience with something unusual
- Analyze the main aims of the topic
- Make a detailed outline of the speech
- Write down your whole speech
- Analyze and evaluate your audience
- While speaking, demonstrate good knowledge of the topic
- Rehearse your speech
- Explain to your listeners why the topic is important to them

CONSIDER THE TOPIC AND THE MOST APPROPRIATE TITLE
PRE-PRESENTATIONAL CHECKLIST

1. **Fears**
   Have I taken any steps to overcome my fears?

2. **Choosing a topic**
   Have I chosen a topic I feel comfortable with?

3. **Planning**
   - considered my audience’s needs?
   - provided a catching opening?
   - developed the ideas logically and clearly?
   - concluded appropriately?
   - prepared good activities / visuals / handouts?
   - prepared easy-to-follow personal notes?

4. **Title**
   Have I thought carefully about the title?

5. **Equipment**
   Have I thought about what equipment I will need?

6. **Delivery**
   - Have I practised enough?
   - Have I timed myself?
   - Have I thought about how to hold my audience’s attention?
   - Have I learned how to project my voice?
   - Have I mastered a natural image?

7. **Evaluation**
   Have I asked a trusted colleague to come to the presentation and give me feedback?
EVALUATION FORM

You may be evaluated according to the following criteria. Look through them. This may help you to improve the speech you have prepared and pay attention to the most important points.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content / Organization / Preparation</th>
<th>Presentation / Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>________ Opening attracted listeners’ attention.</td>
<td>________ Eye contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>________ Background information was sufficient.</td>
<td>________ Vitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>________ Speaker’s point of view was clear.</td>
<td>________ Gestures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>________ Arguments were clear. List below:</td>
<td>________ Rapport with audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>________ Spoke convincingly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>________ Use of note cards or outline</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Voice control**

| ________ Volume |
| ________ Rate |
| ________ Fluency |
| ________ Comprehensibility |

| ________ References to source materials were adequate. |
| ________ Speech had a suitable conclusion. |
| ________ Visual aids were effective. |
| ________ Content fit time limit. |

**Comments and suggestions for improvement:**
### SOME EXPRESSIONS TO HELP YOU MAKE A GOOD PRESENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTRODUCTIONS</th>
<th>Fairly Formal</th>
<th>Informal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good morning, ladies and gentlemen!…</td>
<td>Morning everyone!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My name’s ….</td>
<td>Hello, everybody!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This morning I’d like to …</td>
<td>I’m …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you have any questions you’d like to ask, I’ll be happy to answer them later/at the end (of this lecture)…</td>
<td>What I want to do this morning…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to thank You for coming…</td>
<td>Feel free to ask any question, there’ll be plenty of time left at the end…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you for coming …</td>
<td>Thanks for coming…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May I take this opportunity to thank You for coming…</td>
<td>I’m glad You could all get here…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m delighted/pleased/gladd to be making this presentation…</td>
<td>Thank You for making every effort to come today…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATING YOUR PURPOSE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today/this morning I’m going to be showing you …</td>
<td>The subject of my presentation is …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talking to you about …</td>
<td>Today’s topic is …</td>
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<tr>
<td>taking a look at …</td>
<td>So I’ll begin by making a few observations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reporting on the results …</td>
<td>(Let me begin by) outlining the main points …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telling you about …</td>
<td>(I’d like to start with/off/by giving you an overview …</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>… and then I’ll (go on to) discuss the progress …</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>make suggestions …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>highlight the main facts …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>talk about …</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EFFECTIVE OPENINGS</th>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Amazing/shocking facts</th>
<th>Stories / jokes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How many of you think/believe …</td>
<td>Have you ever heard that …</td>
<td>I remember when …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppose …</td>
<td>According to the latest statistics/research …</td>
<td>This reminds me of …</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Have you ever thought …</td>
<td>Do you know that …</td>
<td>Let me tell you …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagine …</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fairly Formal</td>
<td>Informal</td>
<td></td>
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<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **USING VISUAL AIDS** | I’d like to draw your attention  
I’d like us to look at … which clearly show/indicate the importance of …  
If we look at this …  
You can see on this overhead (slide) (that) …  
The figures in blue indicate/show/stand for | Have a look at this (Br. E.)  
(Take a look at this) (Am. E.)  
As you can see …  
Let’s take a closer look (at)  
Here we can see … |
|                  | If you look at it more closely …, you’ll see/notice/understand  
The … represents … and the … represents …  
Just over/just under/well over/well under (e. g. 50%)…  
(explaining a diagram)  
about/approximately/roughly/more or less | |
| **EMPHATIC EXPRESSIONS** | I/We strongly suggest/recommend …  
I/We sincerely hope …  
I/We completely agree with …  
I/We firmly opposite …  
I/We categorically deny …  
I/We honestly believe  
It is extremely/absolutely (necessary) …  
The main thing is … | In particular, …  
What’s more, …  
In addition (to that) ..  
Plus, …  
Above all …  
What’s especially / more important …  
I’d like to emphasize …  
Use rhetorical questions |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>LINKING WORDS, PHRASES, TRANSITIONS</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express enumeration</strong></td>
<td>To express addition**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first, secondly, third, next, then, after that, finally, again</td>
<td>additionally, also, and, furthermore, in addition, in addition to this, moreover, too, besides, and then, what is more, apart from this/that,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express comparison</strong></td>
<td>To express concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likewise, similarly, in the same way (manner)</td>
<td>as you probably know, certainly, of course, naturally, no doubt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express contrast</strong></td>
<td>To express emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although, but, even so/though, however, nevertheless, on the other hand, yet, on the contrary, despite, nonetheless, regardless of the fact that, in spite of the fact that, despite the fact that, while</td>
<td>above all, especially, indeed, in fact, in particular, most importantly, without doubt, obviously, as a matter of fact, in any case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express similarity</strong></td>
<td>To express qualification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarly, likewise, in the same way</td>
<td>maybe, perhaps, possibly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To clarify/rephrase</strong></td>
<td>To express exception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In other words, to put it another way</td>
<td>But, apart from, except (for)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express balance (the other side of the argument)</strong></td>
<td>To state other people’s opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>However, but, on the other hand, although, yet, at the same time, in contrast</td>
<td>It is popularly believed that, people/scholars often claim that, it is often alleged that, some people/scholars/scientists argue that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express illustrations</strong></td>
<td>To express an alternative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as an example (illustration), for example, for instance, in particular, such as, that is, in the following manner, namely</td>
<td>On the other hand, alternatively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express effect</strong></td>
<td>To express cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thus, therefore, so, consequently, as a result, as a consequence, for this reason</td>
<td>Because, owing to the fact that, due to the fact that, on the grounds that, since, as, in view of, because of, owing to, for this reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To refer to other sources</strong></td>
<td>To list points in a specific sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with reference to, according to, following</td>
<td>Beginning – first, to start with, to begin with, first of all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To list advantages and disadvantages</strong></td>
<td>Continuing – secondly, after this/that, afterwards, then, next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One advantage of, another advantage of, a further advantage of, the main advantage of, one disadvantage of, another disadvantage of, the main disadvantage</td>
<td>Concluding – finally, lastly, last but not least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express reasons</strong></td>
<td>To express the consequence of a condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as, because, because of, for, since, a reason for this is</td>
<td>Consequently, then, so, in which case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To express repetition</strong></td>
<td>To express condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in brief, in short, as I have said, as I have noted</td>
<td>on the condition that, provided (that)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>To conclude</strong></td>
<td>For summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally, lastly, above all, all in all, taking everything into account, on the whole, all things considered, in conclusion, as was previously stated, to sum up</td>
<td>and so, in summary, in other words, in short, briefly, to summarize, to sum up, consequently, accordingly, as a result, in conclusion, hence, therefore, thus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 9

EXERCISES ON RESEARCH STEPS

Exercise 1. THE RESEARCH QUESTION
(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:35)

1. My (restated) research problem is: _______________________________________________  
   ____________________________________________________________________________

2. My research question is: _______________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

3. The following are the key terms in the problem or question that are not clear and which need 
   to be defined: ________________________________________________________________
   a. __________________________________ d. __________________________________
   b. __________________________________ e. __________________________________
   c. __________________________________ f. __________________________________

4. Here are my constitutive definitions of these terms: __________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

5. Here are my operational definitions of these terms: ________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

6. My justification for investigating this question / problem (why I would argue that it is an 
   important question to investigate) is as follows: __________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My strengths</th>
<th>My weaknesses</th>
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</table>
Exercise 2. ETHICS AND RESEARCH
(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:47)

1. My research question is: ______________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

2. The possibilities for harm to participants (if any) are as follows: ____________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   _________________________________________________________________________________
   I would handle these problems as follows: _________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

3. The possibilities of problems of confidentiality (if any) are as follows: ______________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   I would handle these problems as follows: _________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

4. The possibilities of problems of deception (if any) are as follows: ______________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   I would handle these problems as follows: _________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

5. If you think your proposed study would fit the guidelines for exempt status, state why here.
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

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<th>My strengths</th>
<th>My weaknesses</th>
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</table>
Exercise 3. THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:63)

1. The hypothesis I wish to investigate is: ____________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________________________

2. This hypothesis suggests a relationship between at least two variables. They are _________
   __________________________________________________________________________

3. More specifically, the variables in my study are:
   a. Dependent ________________________________________________________________
   b. Independent _______________________________________________________________

4. The dependent variable (check one) is __________ categorical __________ quantitative
   The independent variable (check one) is __________ categorical __________ quantitative

5. Possible extraneous variables that might affect my results include:
   a. __________________________________ d. __________________________________
   b. __________________________________ e. __________________________________
   c. __________________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My strengths</th>
<th>My weaknesses</th>
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Exercise 4. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE
(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:89)

1. The question or hypothesis in my study is: _______________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

2. The general reference(s) I consulted was (were): ________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________________

3. The search terms I used were:
   a. _________________________________________________________________________
   b. _________________________________________________________________________
   c. _________________________________________________________________________

4. The three journals I consulted were: (find journals from library):
   a. _________________________________________________________________________
   b. _________________________________________________________________________
   c. _________________________________________________________________________

5. The titles of the studies I read (note cards are attached) were:
   a. _________________________________________________________________________
   b. _________________________________________________________________________
   c. _________________________________________________________________________

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<th>My strengths</th>
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</table>
Exercise 5. SAMPLING PLAN
(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:113)

1. My intended sample (subjects who would participate in my study) consists of (tell who and how many):
   _________________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

2. Demographics (characteristics of the sample) are as follows:
   a. Age range _________________________________________________________
   b. Sex distribution ___________________________________________________
   c. Ethnic breakdown _________________________________________________
   d. Location (where are these subjects?) _________________________________
   e. Other (describe) characteristics not mentioned above that you deem important (use a sheet of paper if you need more space) ____________________________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

3. Type of sample: simple random _______ stratified random _______ cluster random _______
   random _______ two-stage _______ convenience _______ purposive _________

4. I will obtain my sample by: _____________________________________________
   ___________________________________________________________________

5. External validity (I will generalize to the following population):
   a. To what accessible population? _______________________________________
   b. To what target population? ___________________________________________
   c. If not generalizable, why not? _______________________________________

6. Ecological validity (I will generalize to the following settings / conditions):
   a. Generalizable to what setting(s)? ______________________________________
   b. Generalizable to what condition(s)? ____________________________________
   c. If not generalizable, why not? _______________________________________

<table>
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<tr>
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Exercise 6. INSTRUMENTATION

(After Fraenkel and Wallen 1996:151)

1. The instrument I plan to use to measure my dependent variable is:

___________________________________________________________________________

2. Other instruments I plan to use would be:

___________________________________________________________________________

3. If I need to develop an instrument, here are two examples of the kind of questions I would ask (or tasks I would have students perform) as a part of my instrument:
   a. __________________________________________________________________________
   b. __________________________________________________________________________

4. These are the existing instruments I plan to use:

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

5. I would describe each variable yielding numerical data as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable 1</th>
<th>Variable 2</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quantative or categorical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>nominal or ordinal or interval or ratio</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. For each variable above which yields numerical data, I will treat it as follows (check one in each column):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw score</th>
<th>Age / grade equivalents</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Standard score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</table>
Immediate questions that you would like to ask your teacher/advisor:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
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GOOD LUCK IN CREATIVE PROCESS!
Žindžiuvienė Ingrida


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Ši mokomoji knyga yra skirta Anglų filologijos programų studentams, kurie atlieka įvairaus pobūdžio tiriamuosius darbus (namų darbų užduotis, bakalauro ir magistro tezes, kursinius ir tiriamuosius darbus) anglų kalbos dėstymo metodikos srityje. Mokomojoje knygoje pateikiami tiriamojo darbo struktūros analizė, aiškinami tiriamojo darbo būdai ir metodai, analizuojamas skirtumas tarp įvairių apimties tiriamųjų darbų. Mokomojoje knygoje daug dėmesio skiriama darbo tikslų ir uždavinių formulavimui, tyrimo problemas aiškinimui, tiriamojo darbo rašymo anglų kalba procesui bei darbo atlikimo savianalizei. Mokomąją knygą sudaro penki skyriai ir devyni priedai, kuriuose pateikti pavyzdžiai ir pratimai skirti įvairiems tiriamojo darbo etapams atlikti.

UDK 802.0(075.8)

INGRIDA ŽINDŽIU VIENĖ

WRITING ON EFL METHODOLOGY

Mokomoji knyga

2009 11 19
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