CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the strategy that use to know students' English achievements between students join English course and students do not join in English course. To be more specific, this review of related literature discusses about the related study, the nature of English course, level of English course, the materials of English course, the English achivements, the English language course, the nature of vocabulary, and the nature of comparative study.

A. Related Study

Before do this research, the writer has known some results of research in past time that had a relation with this research. From some examples of the title of past research had relation of the problems was like looking for the comparison but the object is different. Next, M. Prayoga Pratama had researched this topic in 2006 by the title "a comparison in mastering vocabularies between the students who join tutorial lesson and the students who do not join tutorial lesson at seventh grade of SMP 4 Surabaya"[1], and the result is the students who join in tutorial lesson can get better score than the student who do not join in tutorial lesson.

Second, Nur Endah Puspita Arum researched similar with this topic in 2012 by the title "a comparative study of the result English achievement using

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[1] M Prayoga, "a comparison in mastering vocabularies between the students who join tutorial lesson and the students who do not join tutorial lesson at seventh grade of SMP 4 Surabaya", *Thesis of Strata I,* Surabaya: Universitas Negeri Surabaya, 2006, p. 1, t.d.

index card match and memorizing in MI Pengempongan"[2], and the result of her study is teaching using index card match and memorizing was significant difference.

Based on the explanation above, the researcher chooses the problem about the comparative study between the students who join in english course activities and those who do not join english course in vocabulary mastery at tenth grade of SMAN 1 Pangkalan bun.

B. The Nature of English Course

1. Definition

Based on Oxford Advanced Learner's dictionary, tutorial Course has some definition such as :[3]

a. Course is an activity concerning a tutor

b. Lesson is something which is learned or thought.

c. English course is an activity which is learned or thought by someone concerning to a tutor.

Based on these definitions the researcher can conclude that tutorial is the ways that we have to know for communicating and comprehension in EFL learning.

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[2] Nur Endah Puspita Arum, "a comparative study of the result English achievement using index card match and memorizing in MI Pengempongan", *Thesis of Strata I*, Palangka Raya: STAIN Palangka Raya, 2012, p. 1, t.d.

[3] A. S Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, England : Oxford University Press, 1955, p. 1331

2. English Course Essentials

Productive English course consists of a complex set of behaviors that can best be taught by *demonstrating* effective techniques, allowing *practice* in real tutoring situations, and giving opportunities for *reflection* and *discussion*. Over time, this guided training approach steadily closes the gap between actual and optimal tutoring performances.[4]

Based on that statement, the tutor of English course can use those techniques to teach the students and making the situation of English course can be effective. Practicing and giving opportunities to the students in discussion form are able to make the students more active in English learning and getting optimal tutoring performances.

3. Making English course Strategy

Strategy is a high level plan to achieve one or more goals under conditions of uncertainty. Strategy becomes ever necessary when it is known or suspected there are insufficient resources to achieve these goals. Strategy is also about attaining and maintaining a position of advantage over adversaries through the successive exploitation of known or emergent possibilities rather than committing to any specific fixed plan designed at the outset.[5]

Therefore, before the tutors give the lesson to the students, the tutors must have some strategies so that what they teached can be understood by the students with the following stratregies below, such as :

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[4] ESA 6 & 7, *Strategies to Build Student English Skills*, Rapid City : Plaza Blvd, p.28
[5] Carolina., *English Language and Composition,English Li terature and Composition,Course Description.,*College Board., 2010. P. 62.

a. First, ask the students what is the difficulty that they have gotten in school about English lesson.

b. Second, add more ideas as keywords sitting on main branches, and other ideas linked to them. Overtime and then add ideas and sketches to the branches.

c. Third, give the students explanation about the materials with example.

d. Last, ask the students if they got cleared explanation or nothing.

C. Levels of English Course

The Levels English Course was created in 2005 by the Curriculum Council of the SIUE Faculty Senate. This English course, comprising individuals from across the school and the course, was charged with describing and defining "the distinctions between academic scholarship, dispositions, and intellectual growth and development at lower and upper levels of education"[6].

Based on the explanation above, the writer has choosen the levels of English course is according to the students' ability and their curriculum of school is about intermediate level.

D. The Materials of English Course

Material used by instructors, facilitators, and students in a English course. These materials store the information needed by the learner to perform

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[6] Ron Schaefer, *English Language and Literature, Graduate School*, CAS, p. 294.

tasks[7]. The writer takes the materials about noun, verb, and adjective of vocabulary.

E. Mastering Vocabulary

Mastering Vocabulary helps teachers show middle school students that words are made up of different parts. Students learn the meaning of new words to improve test scores, increase existing vocabulary, and enhance reading comprehension. Think about students' work achievements or even your life achievements - these are the successes that students have had so far. Perhaps students have just passed your driving test, or maybe after many years of trying, students have learnt to study. This is an achievement as it is something students have worked hard for, and in the end the results have been successful[8]. Students' achievement means grades average obtained from the English course in the first year of their study.

1. The Mastering Vocabulary of English Subject

The mastering vocabulary of English Subject is a way of their studying at class which the teacher had given the words then the teacher give the students some test or exercise to measure the students' ability on vocabulary[9].

Based on the statement above, when the students learn about English in class, they will be given the vocabularies by their English teacher so that they are able to understand everything about English, and

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[7] Mike Burke, *English Language and Literature*, CAS, p. 172.
[8] Ann Taylor, *Curriculum and Instruction*, *Education*, p. 75.
[9] ESA 6 & 7, *Strategies to Build Student English Skills*, Rapid City : Plaza Blvd, p.82

to measure the students's vocabulary mastery, the English teacher will give the test.

2. The Mastering Vocabulary of English Course

The mastering vocabulary of English course is a way of students' studying at the course. They are given the words and test by the tutors. The mastering vocabulary is to measure their ability in English.[10]

According to explanation above, it is not different with mastering vobulary of school, but in English course the students are able to more focus on mastering vocabulary, because the tutor will give them practicing and technique how to mastery vocabulary.

F. English Language Course

1. Definition

A course is a method of transferring knowledge and may be used as a part of a learning process. More interactive and specific than a book or a lecture; a tutorial seeks to teach by example and supply the information to complete a certain task.[11]

According to explanation above, a course is a method in giving knowledge to the students in learning process. A course is more interactive and specific than a book or lecturer, because when the students are in a course they will get new situation which they should use English in their conversation or their activities.

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[10] *Ibid.,* p. 89.
[11] Zoltan Dornyei, *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, (Cambridge University Press)p.49.

The term 'English language' is defined for the purposes of this strategy using the following broad definition of 'English language competence' from the draft of "*Good Practice Principles for English language competence for International students in Australian universities*": the ability of students to use the English language in spoken and written contexts while completing their university studies. Such uses may range from a simple task such as discussing work with fellow students, to complex tasks such as writing an academic paper or delivering a speech to a professional audience. This view of English language as the ability to organise language to carry out a variety of communication tasks distinguishes 'English language competence' from a narrow focus on language as a formal system concerned only with correct use of grammar and sentence structure.[12]

Based on the statement above, the writer conluded the definition of Englih language course is about a method in increasing abilty or skills in English with the tutorial that is given by the tutor. English language as the abilty to organise language and carry out a variety of communication between the people.

2. The Goal of English Course

There are some goals of tutorial lesson, they are like :

a. To increase the ability of students in English achivement.

b. To make the time of students be useful with positive activitiy.

c. To get understanding with the material that students got in school but they got confused with the materials.

3. Principles for English Language support and development

Effective English language support and development:

a. Is the responsibility of all teaching and teaching support, working individually or in teams.

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[12] Muriel Harris and Tony Silva, *English Language Course Strategies.* p.2.

b. Is embedded or strongly linked to a field of study or employment outcome and is assessed in the context of the field of study.

c. Aims to prepare students to communicate with confidence both professionally and socially in global and multicultural contexts.

d. Is relevant to both local and international students.

e. Includes teaching methods that are diverse, inclusive and explicit and that do not disadvantage any student.

f. Includes approaches to student selection that ensure that all students enrolled have the potential to succeed given the level of English language support and development provided in the course.

g. Does not create additional hurdles for students but recognises the need for time for development of English language alongside the development of other knowledge and skills.[13]

The explanation about principles of English support and development above shows that the English language course is able to help the students to learn foreign language (English) , making the potential of each students success with the method that had been diversed by the tutor, and give to the students many advantages when they learn about English language.

4. **Objectives of the English Language Strategy**

The English language strategy recognises the value of a diversity of approaches to English Language support and development within courses, in order to enable customisation to suit the wide range of programs offered by

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[13] Muriel Harris and Tony Silva, *English Language Course Strategies.* p.4.

the University and the differing needs of students. However, the purpose of the strategy is to achieve a principled and systemised approach and in order to achieve this, proposed interventions should be evaluated against a set of guiding principles which underpin the strategy. These principles centre on the notion of embedding, incorporating a focus on language into courses, resources and activities.[14]

This approach requires teaching and specialist English language staff to work intensively together on the development of course content, course materials and delivery strategies. It is hopefuly able to achive the principles of English language course that is given to the students and helping the students to increase their ability on English.

5. **Resourcing of English language support and development**

A major component of this Strategy will be the establishment of an appropriate mechanism for calculating adequate resourcing levels for VU Language and Learning Support and for Faculties involved in curriculum modification in line with this Strategy.

The achievement of the goals of the proposed English Language strategy will be dependent on the University finding ways in which to increase its language and learning support effort to reflect its ongoing commitment to social inclusion. The Strategy has implications for the

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[14] Muriel Harris and Tony Silva, *English Language Course Strategies.* p.5.

resourcing of courses and programs within Faculties including class sizes, class contact hours, curriculum design and professional development.[15]

G. The Nature of Vocabulary

1. Definition

Based on Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, vocabulary has some definition such as:[16] The total number of words in a language, all the words known to a person or used in a particular book, subject, etc, a list of words with their meanings, especially one that accompanies a textbook in a foreign language. Vocabulary is an important component of language use. Wilkins in Schmitt states that "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." One thing that all of the partners involved in the learning process (students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers) can agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language.[17] Based on Wilkins, we are not able to convey something without vocabularies, therefore we should have many vocabulary mastery so that we are able to use English in our conversation.

Alderson in Schmitt states that "what would appear to show is that the size of one's vocabulary is relevant to one's performance on any language

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[15] *Ibid.,* p.9.
[16] A.S Hornby, *Oxford Advanced,* p.1331.
[17] Norbert Schmitt, *Researching Vocabulary,* p.3-4.

test, in other words, that language ability is to quite a large extent a function of vocabulary size".[18]

Pieter argues that vocabulary is one of the components of language and that no language exists without words. Words are sign or symbols for ideas. They are the means by which people exchange their thought. The more words we learn, the more ideas we should have so we can communicate the ideas more effectively.[19] People use language to communicate, and so naturally one key issue in vocabulary studies is how much vocabulary is necessary to enable this communication. The short answer is a lot, but it depends on one's learning goals. If one wishes to achieve native-like proficiency, then presumably it is necessary to have a vocabulary size similar to native speakers.[20]

According to Pieter, vocabulary is one of the important components of language that we should have, because without words we can not exist on language and communicate with other people. Based on one key issue in vocabulary studies is how much vocabulary that had mastered, it just depends on the goals of learning English.

Rivers in Nunan also argues that the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because, without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for comprehensible communication[21]. It means the

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[18] *Ibid.,* p.5.
[19] Pieter A. Napa, *Vocabulary Development Skill,* Yogyakarta: Kanisius, 1991, p. 6-7.
[20] Norbert Schmitt, *Researching Vocabulary,* p. 6.
[21] David Nunan, *Language Teaching,* p. 117.

consensus of opinion seems to be that the development of a rich vocabulary is an important element in the acquisition of a second language.

2. Kinds Of Vocabulary

Kinds of vocabulary in active and passive form have own function. They are usually named as word classification or parts of speech. These are the basic introduction of vocabulary. According to Frank, parts of speech are:

a. Nouns

The noun is of the most important parts of speech. Its arrangement with the verb helps to form the sentence core which is essential to every complete sentence. Types of noun are[22]:

1) Proper noun. It begins with the capita letter in writing. It includes personal names, names of geographic units (such as countries, cities, rivers, etc.), names of nationalities and religion, names of holidays, names of times units, words used for personification−a thing or abstraction treated as a person. Example: Mr. John, Saturday, nature, etc.

2) Concrete and Abstract Noun. Concrete noun is a word for physical object that can be perceived by the sense−we can see, touch, smell the object (e.g. flower, girl). An abstract noun is a word for a concept−it is an idea that exists in our minds only (beauty, justice).

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[22] Marcella Frank, *Modern English; A Practical Reference Guide*, New York: Prentice-Hall Inc, 1997, p. 6.

3) Countable or Noncountable Nouns. A countable noun can usually be made plural by the addition of –*s* (two girls). A noncountable noun is not used in the plural (e.g. water).

4) Collective nouns. It is a word for a group of people, animals, or objects considered as a single unit. Examples: family, crew, government.

b. Pronouns

Pronouns make up a small class of words of very high frequency. The traditional definition of a pronoun as " a word that takes the place of a noun". Types of pronoun are[23]:

1) Personal pronoun, it refers to; 1) the speaker person (I and we), 2) the second person (you), the third person (he, she, it, and they).

2) Relative pronoun refers to noun antecedents which immediately precede them. They are who, whom, whose, which, and that.

3) Demonstrative pronouns point of someone or something. They are, this, these, that, and those.

4) Indefinite pronouns, such pronoun refer to indefinite (usually unknown) *persons* or *thing* or to indefinite quantities. Indefinite quantities are; all, another, any, both, each, either, few, least, less, little, a lot (of), lots (of), many, more, most, much, neither, none, one, other(s), plenty (of), several and some.

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[23] *Ibid.* p. 27.

5) Reflective pronouns. It is a combination of –*self* with one of the personal pronouns or with the impersonal pronoun *one*, e.g. himself.

c. Verbs

The verb is the most complex part of speech. Its varying arrangements with nouns determine the different kinds of sentences statements, questions, commends, exclamations. Types of verb are[24]:

1) Predicting or linking verb. It is the chief word in the predicate that says something about the subject (e.g. I *remembe*r him). A linking verb is a verb of incomplete prediction. It merely announces that the real predicate follows. The more commons linking verbs are *appear, be, become, get (*in the sense of become), *look, remind, seem.*

2) Transitive or intransitive verb. A transitive verb takes a direct object (e.g. he is reading a book). Some transitive verb has develop transitive uses, especially in a causative sense (e.g. he always walks his dog at night).

3) Reflective verb. It requires one of the compounds with –self (reflective pronoun) asits object− *express onself, wash oneself, pride onself, avail oneself.*

4) Finite or non-Finite verbs. A finite verb is lexical verb with or without auxiliaries that acts as the full verb in the predicate. It is

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[24] *Ibid.* P.32.

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limited by the all grammatical properties a verb may have−person, number, tense, voice, etc. meanwhile, Non-Finite verbs are incomplete verb forms that *function as other parts of speech than verbs.* They consists of the infinite forms (to + the simple form of the verb) and participle *–ing* or *–ed form.*

5) Auxiliaries. Auxiliaries verb are the "helping" verbs that add structural meaning or a semantic coloring to verbs carrying the full burden of lexical meaning. Types of auxiliaries are:

6) Tense auxiliaries. It consists of *be, have, will, shall.* The tenses auxiliaries perform a structural function only.

7) Do auxiliaries. It is accompanied by simple form of the verb (the infinitive without *to).* It is used only in the *simple present tense* (*do* or *does* offer) and in the *simple past tense* (*did* offer).

8) Modal auxiliaries. It generally have no *–s* suffix for third person and infinitives or participle form. They have only formal tenses. They are *may, might, can, could, will, would.*

d. Adjectives

Adjective is a modifier that has the grammatical property of comparison. The types of adjectives are[25]:

1) Determiners. It consists of article (a, an, the), demonstrative adjectives (this, these, that, those), possessive adjectives (my, your, one's, john's, the girl's, etc.), numerical adjectives (one,

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[25] *Ibid*. p. 39.

two, fourth, etc), adjective of indefinite quantity (some, few, all, more, etc), relative and interrogative adjective (whose, what, which).

2) Descriptive adjectives. It usually indicates an inherent quality (beautiful, intelligent), or physical state such as age, size, color. It consists of proper adjectives (a French dish, etc), participle adjectives (an interesting book, a bored student, etc.), adjectives compounds (a good looking girl, ill-tempered, etc.).

e. Adverbs

Adverbs range in *meaning* from words having as strong lexical content (those that describe the action of the verb, or those that indicate such meaning as time and place) to those that are used merely for emphasis. Types of adverbs are[26]:

1) Manner, it has the most characteristic adverbial form (an –*ly* ending added to a descriptive adjective). E.g. Quickly, neatly, awkwardly.

2) Place and direction. Among the adverb of place and direction may be include some prepositional forms offering after the verb. (e.g. he come in, they walked down, etc).

3) Time. Definite time—they have fixed boundary in time(yesterday, today, tomorrow), indefinite time – it has no fixed boundary (recently, nowadays, always, often, etc.).

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[26] *Ibid*. p. 42.

4) Intensifying adverbs, such adverbs serve as quantifiers or emphasize. It consists of Adverb of degree (how much) and adverb of degree denoting (how complete, entirely, partially, etc.)

f. Articles

The two articles are **the** and **a. the** may be used with a singular or plural noun: **a** is generally used with singular a singular countable noun. Each of their articles undergoes a change before a word beginning with a vowel sound – the changes in pronunciation an spelling. The chief structural function of articles is as determiners that precede nouns.

However, they differ from other determiners in one important respect – they do not have the additional power of serving alone as pronouns. The chief semantic function of articles is to mark nouns as *definite* or *indefinite. The* signals a *particular* person or thing that has been singled out from others-*the, students sitting next to you. A* signals an specified one of others- *a student sitting in the front row*[27].

g. Preposition

The preposition is classified as a part of speech in traditional grammar. However preposition as well as conjunction differ from other part of speech in that (1) each is composed of a small class of words that have no formal characteristic ending; (2) each signal syntactic structures

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[27] *Ibid*. p. 46.

that *function as one of the other parts of speech.* Parts of preposition are[28]:

1) One point of time (on, at, in)

2) Extended time, starting at one point and ending at another (duration). They are, since, by, from, for, during, in *or* within.

3) Sequence of time. Events that follow one another (before, after)

4) Position− the point itself (inside), higher or lower than a point (over, above, under, underneath, beneath, below), neighboring the point (near, next to, alongside, beside, between, opposite)

5) Direction (movement in regard to a point). They are, to-from, toward,

6) Into-out of, up-down, around, through, pas (by), as far as).

h. Conjunction

Conjunctions are members of a small class that have no characteristic from. The function as nonmovable structures word that join such units as parts of speech, phrases, or clause. They are *and, or,* and *but*[29].

The kind of vocabulary that will be tested in this study consist of three parts, they are Noun, Verb and Adjective. It is caused these three kinds of vocabulary included as Three Main Forms of word. Three main Forms of Word consist of noun, verb, and adjective[30]. The writer took these kinds of

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[28] *Ibid*. p. 52.
[29] *Ibid*. p. 58.
[30] Norbert Schmitt, *Researching Vocabulary* , p. 21.

vocabulary because she adjusted the test with vocabulary level test (VLT) that was developed by Schmitt.

3. Academic Vocabulary

The English for Academic Purposes classroom focuses mostly on academic language. Stahl in Mukoroli stated that Academic language is the language used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge. In addition Cummins in Mukoroli also defined academic English as the English needed for reading, writing, speaking and listening in the content areas. Hence, if students in the English for Academic Purposes classroom need a language proficiency that will enable them to comprehend academic content and participate in activities and assignments, then it is even more important for the teacher to employ effective and dynamic teaching strategies that will empower the students to master the required tasks.

In Academic vocabulary each lexical item is uniquely suited to its purpose. For example, *nice* is a very common modifier that can describe a wide variety of nouns, and no other word can replace it in all of those contexts with exactly the same meaning. Likewise, *scalpel* is a very particular type of medical knife, and its restricted meaning helps to ensure there is no confusion about which kind of cutting utensil a surgeon is asking for. *Have a nice day* is a frequent greeting, and its use identifies the speaker as a friendly North American. While each of these items have equal intrinsic merit within their own contexts of use, it is still obvious that they are different kinds of vocabulary. *Nice* is a high-frequency word, *scalpel* is a technical medical

term, and *Have a nice day* is a formulaic sequence which is used only in informal spoken discourse. In other words, it is possible to classify these diverse lexical items into different categories.

Academic texts contain high frequency vocabulary, and technical vocabulary pertinent to the field in question. However, they also contain a considerable amount of non-high-frequency vocabulary which is common across academic disciplines. This vocabulary is necessary to express ideas in various disciplines, such as *insert, orient, ratio,* and *technique*. This 'support' vocabulary is usually termed *academic vocabulary*. Typically these words make up about 9–10% of the running words in an academic text, and so are veryimportant for people learning or working in academic areas. Results from four early studies intoacademic vocabulary were combined into the *University Word List* (UWL). The AWL is the best list of academic vocabulary currently available, and is widely used in vocabulary research[31]. The writer adjust the form of vocabulary test with the level of vocabulary test for academic vocabulary.

H. The Nature of Comparative Study

1. Definition

Comparative research is a research methodology in the <u>social sciences</u> that aims to make comparisons across different <u>countries</u> or <u>cultures</u>. A major problem in comparative research is that the data sets in different countries may not use the same categories, or define categories differently

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[31] Norbert Schmitt, *Researching Vocabulary* , p. 78-79.

(for example by using different definitions of poverty)[32]. Comparative research or analysis is a broad term that includes both quantitative and qualitative comparison of social entities[33].

The underlying goal of comparative analysis is to search for similarity and variance. Those searching for similarity (i.e. the regression equation) often apply a more general theory and search for universals or underlying general processes across different contexts. The ontology of social patterns is often assumed as universal and independent from time and space. However, it remains difficult to determine these universal patterns in social research. For this reason, comparative research is used to separate patterns that are more general and isolate regularities from the contextladen environment. Following Weber's comparative sociology, the search for variance places more emphasis on context and difference in order to understand specificities. Comparisons not only uncover differences between social entities, but reveal unique aspects of a particular entity that would be virtually impossible to detect otherwise[34].

2. The Development of Comparative Study

When the practice of comparative research began is a matter of debate. Karl Deutsch has suggested we have been using this form of investigation for over 2,000 years. Comparing things is essential to basic

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[32] Dierkes, Meinolf; Hans Weiler and Ariane Antal (1987). *Comparative Policy Research*. Gower. p. 29.
[33] Melinda Mills. *Comparative Research*. 2003., p. 621.
[34] *Ibid.,* p. 623.

scientific and philosophic inquiry, which has been done for a long time[35] .
Most authors are more conservative in their estimate of how long
comparative research has been with us. It is largely an empty debate over the
definition of the tradition with those questioning whether comparing things
counts as comparative research.

Textbooks on this form of study were beginning to appear by the
1880s, but its rise to extreme popularity began after World War II[36]. There are
numerous reasons that comparative research has come to take a place of
honour in the toolbox of the social scientist. Globalization has been a major
factor, increasing the desire and possibility for educational exchanges and
intellectual curiosity about other cultures. Information technology has
enabled greater production of quantitative data for comparison, and
international communications technology has facilitated this information to
be easily spread[37].

3. The Defined of Comparative Study

Comparative research, simply put, is the act of comparing two or
more things with a view to discovering something about one or all of the
things being compared. This technique often utilizes multiple disciplines in
one study. When it comes to method, the majority agreement is that there is

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[35] Deutsch, Karl (1987). *"Prologue: Achievements and Challenges in 2000 Years of Comparative Research," in Comparative Policy Research"*. p. 164.
[36] Clasen, Jochen (2004). *"Defining comparative social policy". A Handbook of Comparative Social Policy*. Edward Elgar Publishing. p. 275.
[37] Heidenheimer, Arnold J.; Hugh Heclo, Carolyn Teich Adams (1983). *Comparative Public Policy*. St. Martin's Press. p. 183.

no methodology peculiar to comparative research[38]. The multidisciplinary approach is good for the flexibility it offers, yet comparative programs do have a case to answer against the call that their research lacks a "seamless whole"[39].

There are certainly methods far more common than others in comparative studies, however. Quantitative analysis is much more frequently pursued than qualitative, and this is seen in the majority of comparative studies which use quantitative data[40]. The general method of comparing things is the same for comparative research as it is in our everyday practice of comparison. Like cases are treated alike, and different cases are treated differently; the extent of difference determines how differently cases are to be treated. If one is able to sufficiently distinguish two cases, comparative research conclusions will not be very helpful.

Secondary analysis of quantitative data is relatively widespread in comparative research, undoubtedly in part because of the cost of obtaining primary data for such large things as a country's policy environment. This study is generally aggregate data analysis. Comparing large quantities of data (especially government sourced) is prevalent. A typical method of comparing welfare states is to take balance of their levels of spending on social welfare[41].

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[38] *Ibid.,* p. 83.
[39] Jones, Catherine (1985). *Patterns of Social Policy*. Taylor & Francis. p. 158.
[40] Deacon, Bob (1983). *Social Policy and Socialism*. Pluto Press. p. 97.
[41] Dierkes, Meinolf; Hans Weiler and Ariane Antal (1987). *Comparative Policy Research*. Gower. p. 87.

Comparative research can take many forms. Two key factors are space and time. Spatially, cross-national comparisons are by far the most common, although comparisons within countries, contrasting different areas, cultures or governments also subsist and are very constructive, especially in a country like New Zealand, where policy often changes depending on which race it pertains to[42]. Recurrent interregional studies include comparing similar or different countries or sets of countries, comparing one's own country to others or to the whole world.

The historical comparative research involves comparing different time-frames. The two main choices within this model are comparing two stages in time (either snapshots or time-series), or just comparing the same thing over time, to see if a policy's effects differ over a stretch of time[43].

When it comes to subject matter of comparative inquiries, many contend there is none unique to it. This may indeed be true, but a brief perusal of comparative endeavours reveals there are some topics more recurrent than others. Determining whether socioeconomic or political factors are more important in explaining government action is a familiar theme. In general, however, the only thing that is certain in comparative research issues is the existence of differences to be analyzed.

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[42] Heidenheimer, Arnold J.; Hugh Heclo, Carolyn Teich Adams (1983). *Comparative Public Policy*. St. Martin's Press. p. 93.

[43] Deacon, Bob (1983). *Social Policy and Socialism*. Pluto Press. p. 101.

4. Case Selection, Unit, Level and Scale of Analysis

In cross-national comparative research, cases have been preselected due to historical and political processes. In small-*N* case studies, the selection of cases is often deliberate and theory-driven. In a detailed discussion of this problem, Ragin (this issue) categorizes this as the difference between a 'given' and 'constructed' population. Since the constructed population is more theorydriven, it is likewise more driven by the researcher and may be open to favouring the findings of a particular research question. As Ragin maintains in this issue, this can be a large problem: 'if these irrelevant cases all exhibit zero or very low scores on both the hypothesized causal conditions and the outcome, they are automatically theory confirming'. This is not the aim or desire of the social sciences.

In addition, researchers have to decide on the scale of the analysis. The choice lies between a small and a relatively large *N* (i.e. sample size), which each pose specific problems. In the case where the researcher chooses to include a large number of units (e.g. countries) with only scant, more general comparative variables she or he runs the risk of producing superficial, though potentially statistically sound results. On the other hand, if the researcher chooses to include only a few units of analysis with numerous variables she or he takes the risk of having too many variables and too few cases to effectively test causal models[44].

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[44] Melinda Mills. *Comparative Research*. 2003., p. 625.