Online ISSN : 2249-460X
Print ISSN : 0975-587X
DOI : 10.17406/GJHSS

Global Journal

of Human Social Sciences: G

Linguistics & Education



Highlights

English Skills for the Students

English Foreign Language Students

On Persian Japanese Intonation

Students' Perceptions of the Teaching

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

VOLUME 18 ISSUE 12 VERSION 1.0

© 2001-2018 by Global Journal of Human Social Sciences, USA

Volume 18 Issue 47 was originally issued as G12

Global Journal of Human-Social Science: G
Linguistics & Education

Volume 18 Issue 47
Originally issued as G12

Global Journal of Human-Social Science: G
Linguistics & Education

Volume 18 Issue 12 (Ver. 1.0)

Open Association of Research Society

© Global Journal of Human Social Sciences. 2018.

All rights reserved.

This is a special issue published in version 1.0 of "Global Journal of Human Social Sciences." By Global Journals Inc.

All articles are open access articles distributed under "Global Journal of Human Social Sciences"

Reading License, which permits restricted use. Entire contents are copyright by of "Global Journal of Human Social Sciences" unless otherwise noted on specific articles.

No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without written permission.

The opinions and statements made in this book are those of the authors concerned. Ultraculture has not verified and neither confirms nor denies any of the foregoing and no warranty or fitness is implied.

Engage with the contents herein at your own risk.

The use of this journal, and the terms and conditions for our providing information, is governed by our Disclaimer, Terms and Conditions and Privacy Policy given on our website http://globaljournals.us/terms-and-condition/menu-id-1463/

By referring / using / reading / any type of association / referencing this journal, this signifies and you acknowledge that you have read them and that you accept and will be bound by the terms thereof.

All information, journals, this journal, activities undertaken, materials, services and our website, terms and conditions, privacy policy, and this journal is subject to change anytime without any prior notice.

Incorporation No.: 0423089
License No.: 42125/022010/1186
Registration No.: 430374
Import-Export Code: 1109007027
Employer Identification Number (EIN):
USA Tax ID: 98-0673427

Global Journals Inc.

*(A Delaware USA Incorporation with "Good Standing"; **Reg. Number: 0423089**)*

Sponsors: Open Association of Research Society
Open Scientific Standards

Publisher's Headquarters office

Global Journals® Headquarters
945th Concord Streets,
Framingham Massachusetts Pin: 01701,
United States of America
USA Toll Free: +001-888-839-7392
USA Toll Free Fax: +001-888-839-7392

Offset Typesetting

Global Journals Incorporated
2nd, Lansdowne, Lansdowne Rd., Croydon-Surrey,
Pin: CR9 2ER, United Kingdom

Packaging & Continental Dispatching

Global Journals Pvt Ltd
E-3130 Sudama Nagar, Near Gopur Square,
Indore, M.P., Pin:452009, India

Find a correspondence nodal officer near you

To find nodal officer of your country, please email us at *local@globaljournals.org*

eContacts

Press Inquiries: *press@globaljournals.org*
Investor Inquiries: *investors@globaljournals.org*
Technical Support: *technology@globaljournals.org*
Media & Releases: *media@globaljournals.org*

Pricing (Excluding Air Parcel Charges):

Yearly Subscription (Personal & Institutional)
250 USD (B/W) & 350 USD (Color)

Editorial Board

Global Journal of Human Social-Science

Dr. Prasad V Bidarkota

Ph.D.,
Department of Economics
Florida International University
USA

Dr. Giaime Berti

Ph.D.
School of Economics and Management
University of Florence, Italy

Dr. Gisela Steins

Ph.D. Psychology, University of Bielefeld, Germany
Professor, General and Social Psychology, University of Duisburg-Essen, Germany

Dr. Rita Mano

Ph.D. Rand Corporation and University of California, Los Angeles, USA
Dep. of Human Services,
University of Haifa

Dr. Heying Jenny Zhan

B.A., M.A., Ph.D. Sociology, University of Kansas, USA
Department of Sociology
Georgia State University, US

Dr. Adrian Armstrong

BSc Geography, LSE, 1970
Ph.D. Geography (Geomorphology)
Kings College London 1980
Ordained Priest, Church of England 1988
Taunton, Somerset,
United Kingdom

Dr. Periklis Gogas

Associate Professor
Department of Economics,
Democritus University of Thrace
Ph.D., Department of Economics,
University of Calgary, Canada

Dr. Stephen E. Haggerty

Ph.D. Geology & Geophysics,
University of London
Associate Professor
University of Massachusetts, USA

Dr. Edward C. Hoang,

Ph.D.,
Department of Economics,
University of Colorado USA

Dr. Valerie Zawilski

Associate Professor,
Ph.D. - University of Toronto
MA - Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

Dr. Bruce Cronin

B.A., M.A., Ph.D. in Political Science, Columbia University
Professor, City College of New York, US

Dr. Danielle Riverin-Simard

B.A., M.A., Ph.D., Cognitive training, University Laval, Canada
Professor Emeritus of Education and Educational Psychology,
Laval University, Canada

Dr. Arturo Diaz Suarez

Ed.D., Ph.D. in Physical Education
Professor at University of Murcia, Spain

Dr. Raymond K. H. Chan

Ph.D., Sociology, University of Essex, UK
Associate Professor City University of Hong Kong, China

Dr. Kaneko Mamoru

Ph.D., Tokyo Institute of Technology
Structural Engineering
Faculty of Political Science and Economics, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

Dr. Luisa dall'Acqua

Ph.D. in Sociology (Decisional Risk sector),
Master MU2, College Teacher in Philosophy (Italy),
Edu-Research Group, Zürich/Lugano

Dr. Hugo Nami

Ph.D.in Anthropological Sciences,
Universidad of Buenos Aires, Argentina,
University of Buenos Aires, Argentina

Dr. Helmut Digel

Ph.D. University of Tübingen, Germany
Honorary President of German Athletic Federation (DLV), Germany

Dr. Vesna Stanković Pejnović

Ph. D. Philospohy
Zagreb, Croatia
Rusveltova, Skopje Macedonia

Dr. Tao Yang

Ohio State University
M.S. Kansas State University
B.E. Zhejiang University

Dr. Alis Puteh

Ph.D. (Edu.Policy) UUM
Sintok, Kedah, Malaysia
M.Ed (Curr. & Inst.)
University of Houston, US

Dr. Asunción López-Varela

BA, MA (Hons), Ph.D. (Hons)
Facultad de Filología.
Universidad Complutense Madrid
29040 Madrid Spain

Dr. Thierry Feuillet

Géolittomer – LETG UMR 6554 CNRS
(Université de Nantes)
Institut de Géographie et d'Aménagement
Régional de l'Université de Nantes.
Chemin de la Censive du Tertre – BP
Rodez

Dr. Mohd Hairy

Mohd Hairy, PhD (Urban Climate), Masters
(Environmental Management)
(National University of Malaysia)
& Degree In Geography (Hons),
University Malaya, Malaysia.

Contents of the Issue

i. Copyright Notice
ii. Editorial Board Members
iii. Chief Author and Dean
iv. Contents of the Issue

1. External and Internal Factors Influencing University Transfer Students and College Life Satisfaction, with Consideration of the Population Problem in Japan. *1-10*
2. Environmental Analysis Tools used in the Strategic Plans of Some Egyptian Universities in the Light of Global Tool. *11-17*
3. On Persian Japanese Intonation. *19-27*
4. Designing a Course with Critical Thinking Focus: Developing basic English Skills for the Students of Computer Science and Engineering at a Private University of Bangladesh. *29-35*
5. Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Teaching Listening Skills to English Foreign Language Students at Three Ethiopian Universities. *39-47*

v. Fellows
vi. Auxiliary Memberships
vii. Preferred Author Guidelines
viii. Index

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 18 Issue 12 Version 1.0 Year 2018
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460x & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

External and Internal Factors Influencing University Transfer Students and College Life Satisfaction, with Consideration of the Population Problem in Japan

By Yuki Amaki
Meiji University

Abstract- Since many universities in Japan have tended to admit transfer students in recent years, this paper has discussed to support the design of support services for transfer students. The primary purpose of the study is to explore differences in background characteristics (i.e., parental education level) and examine to what degree internal and external factors affect transfer students' and non-transfer students' college decision-making process. The second purpose is to examine student satisfaction with the quality of campus life post-transfer, as compared to non-transfer students' campus life experiences. The target population was current transfer students in Japanese universities as compared with non-transfer students. 279 college students responded to this survey. Of the 279 students, 110 were transfer students from vocational colleges that teach foreign languages and general education, 83 were transfer students from technical colleges, and 86 were non-transfer students from private universities. My findings reveal that there is a significant difference in parental education among the three groups. The majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were first-generation college students, while most transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students were non-first generation college students.

Keywords: transfer student, higher education, parental education, college access, campus life, Japanese education system.

GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 139999



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

© 2018. Yuki Amaki. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creative-commons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

External and Internal Factors Influencing University Transfer Students and College Life Satisfaction, with Consideration of the Population Problem in Japan

Yuki Amaki

Abstract- Since many universities in Japan have tended to admit transfer students in recent years, this paper has discussed to support the design of support services for transfer students. The primary purpose of the study is to explore differences in background characteristics (i.e., parental education level) and examine to what degree internal and external factors affect transfer students' and non-transfer students' college decision-making process. The second purpose is to examine student satisfaction with the quality of campus life post-transfer, as compared to non-transfer students' campus life experiences. The target population was current transfer students in Japanese universities as compared with non-transfer students. 279 college students responded to this survey. Of the 279 students, 110 were transfer students from vocational colleges that teach foreign languages and general education, 83 were transfer students from technical colleges, and 86 were non-transfer students from private universities. My findings reveal that there is a significant difference in parental education among the three groups. The majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were first-generation college students, while most transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students were non-first generation college students. Also, the findings in this study indicate that there are some differences in satisfaction with the quality of campus life among the three groups. The majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were not likely to get accustomed to the college environment, and they felt lonely after transferring to the university. Considering these factors related to the reasons for transferring to the university and the quality college life, it is clear that some external and internal factors influence transfer students. Japanese universities need to undertake more proactive educational reforms to accept and support more transfer students.

Keywords: transfer student, higher education, parental education, college access, campus life, Japanese education system.

I. Introduction

a) Background

Corresponding to an overall decline in the Japanese population, the number of young students in Japan has been decreasing dramatically, to the extent that the Japanese government has predicted a situation where the number of accepted students at many Japanese universities and colleges may become equal to the number of applicants. According to 2018 data on enrollment trends in Japan, approximately 58 percent of high school students across Japan chose to attend four-year universities or two-year colleges. Many universities and colleges are no longer strictly competing for the best students, but simply for bodies to fill their classrooms. Also, according to the 2018 data on enrollment trends (MEXT), 23 percent of high school students chose to attend two-year vocational colleges. Many two-year vocational colleges have established transfer programs for those who wish to transfer up to university.

In Japan, there are three ways to transfer to the university from a two-year junior college, a five-year technical college, or a two-year vocational college (see Figure 1). First, students who have completed their associate degree programs at two-year junior colleges or at five-year technical colleges are eligible to transfer to the university. The number of transfer students from junior colleges has increased since the 1990s, and the number of transfer students from technical colleges has increased since the late 1980s. Secondly, technical colleges offer practical and professional education, such as science and engineering, in five years, and approximately ten percent of students decide to transfer to the university as a junior. Most technical college students gain good jobs once graduating from their technical colleges, so not many students transfer to the university. Thirdly, since 1999, students who complete 62 units or 1,700 hours of study at vocational colleges have been eligible to transfer to the university. Among vocational colleges, there are both general education and specialized educational institutions, such as foreign language schools, nursing schools, and culinary schools. Vocational college students who study foreign languages, general education, or nursing education, transfer to the university.

A slight decrease in the number of transfer students to the university in Japan (see Figure.2, Figure.3, and Figure.4) has increased concern over the shrinking of the student population at higher education institutions. Prestigious institutions are immune, while the majority of colleges are becoming less selective and accepting more transfer students even though fewer are applying. This situation is related to a recent trend in which many vocational colleges offer transfer programs allowing students to transfer to the university as a

Author: Ph.D., Associate Professor, Meiji University, Tokyo, Japan. e-mail: amaki@meiji.ac.jp

© 2018 Global Journals

sophomore or junior. Some vocational colleges are doing well despite the declining population, and that large number of vocational students transferring to the university is changing the character of the applicant pool.

Taking these trends into consideration, this research examines the characteristics of transfer students and what factors particularly influence their educational aspirations compared to non-transfer students. It also explores their satisfaction with the quality of college life after transferring to the university. This research could benefit Japanese universities admitting transfer students by helping them to offer effective support systems, and could also help enhance access to college for transfer students.

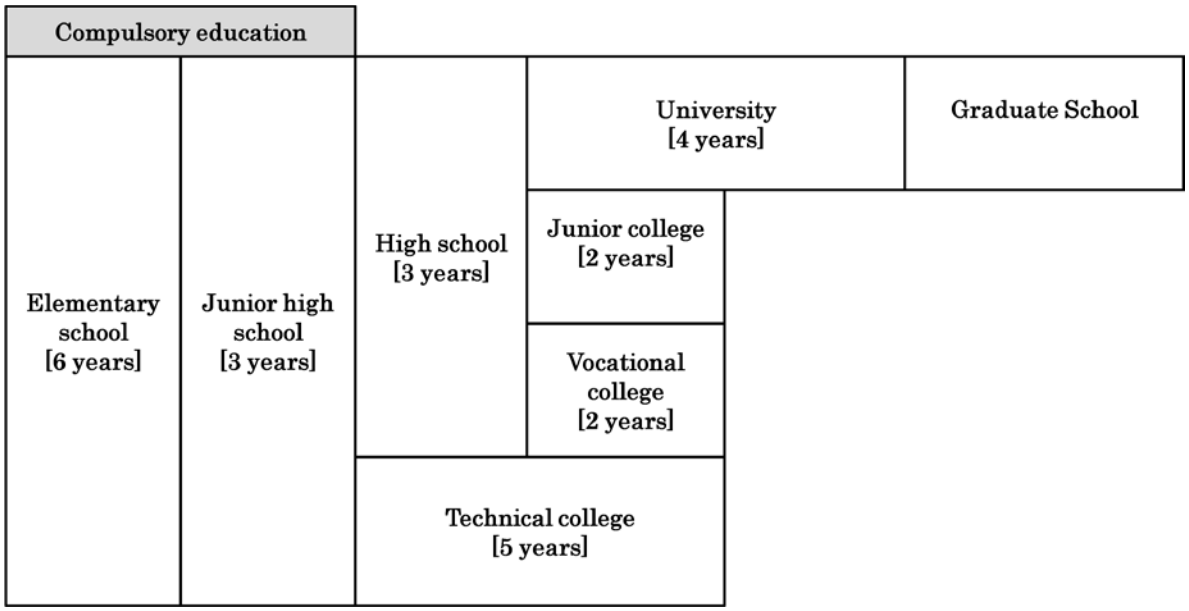
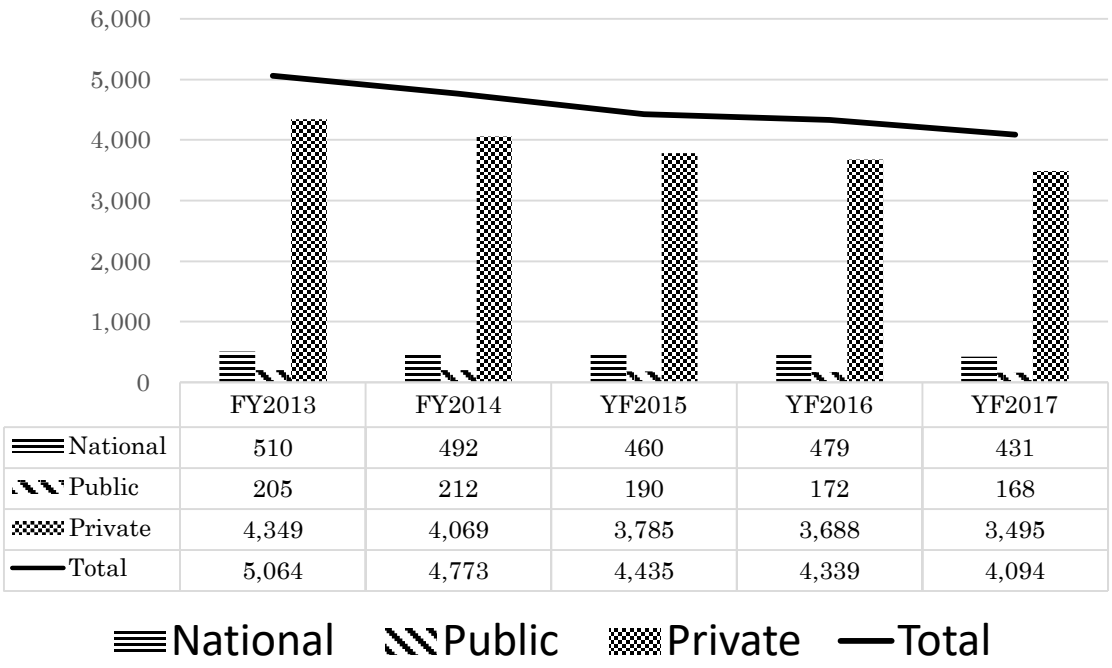


Figure 1: Japanese Education System

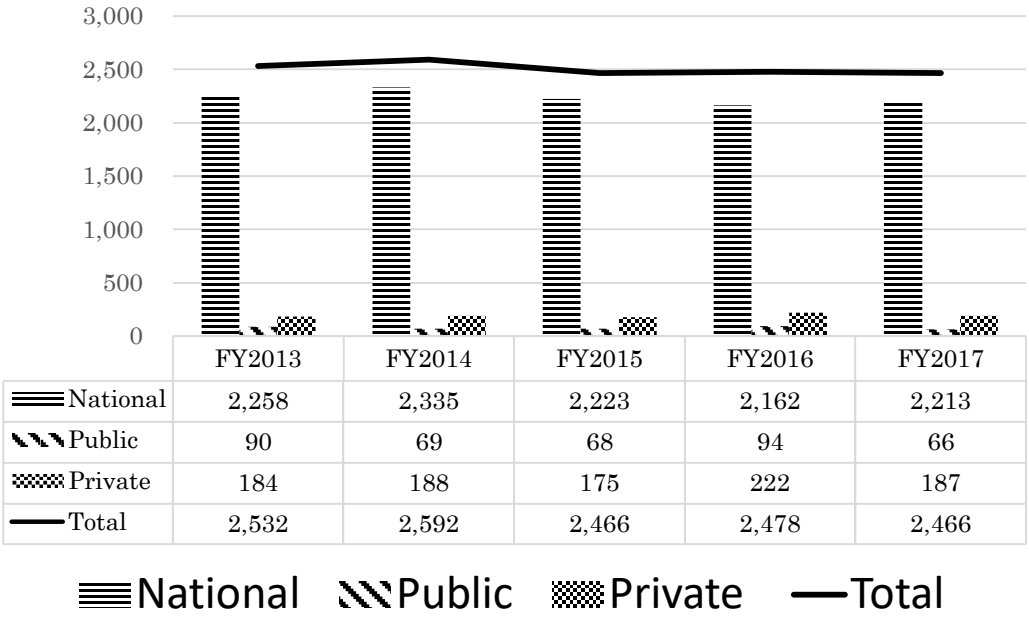


	FY2013	FY2014	YF2015	YF2016	YF2017
National	510	492	460	479	431
Public	205	212	190	172	168
Private	4,349	4,069	3,785	3,688	3,495
Total	5,064	4,773	4,435	4,339	4,094

Data from MEXT 2017

Figure 2: The Number of Transfer Students from 2-Year Junior Colleges

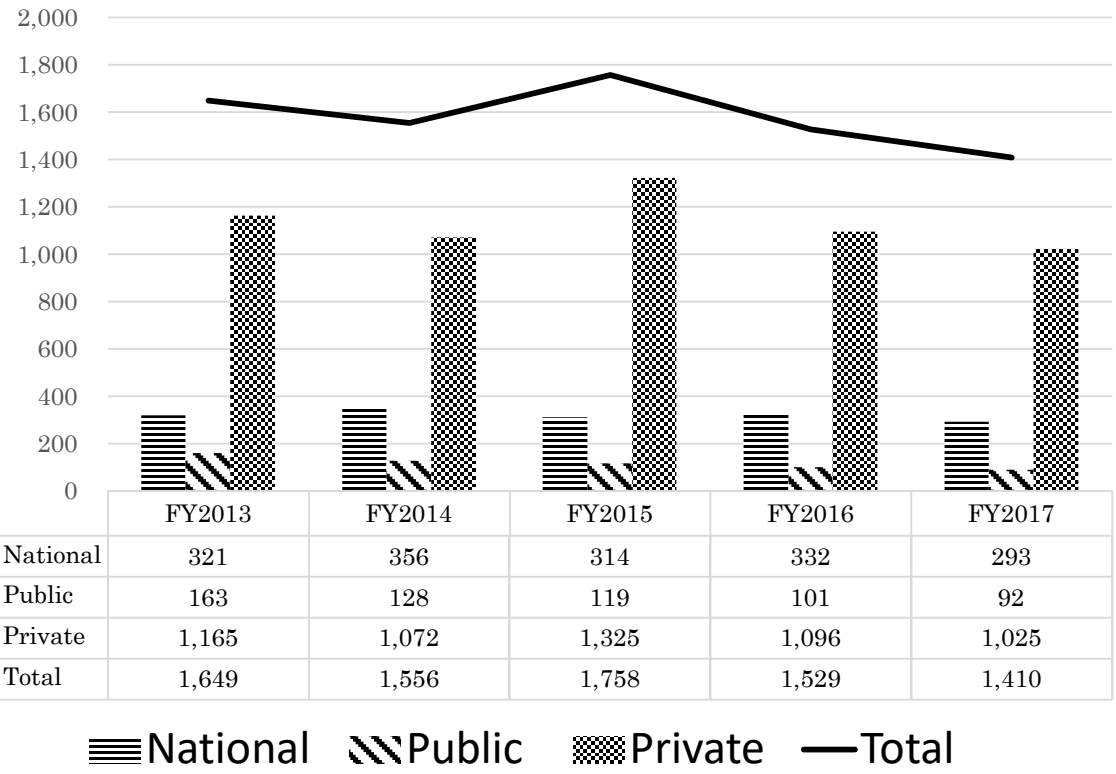
© 2018 Global Journals



	FY2013	FY2014	FY2015	FY2016	FY2017
National	2,258	2,335	2,223	2,162	2,213
Public	90	69	68	94	66
Private	184	188	175	222	187
Total	2,532	2,592	2,466	2,478	2,466

Data from MEXT 2017

Figure 3: The Number of Transfer Students from 5-Year Technical Colleges



	FY2013	FY2014	FY2015	FY2016	FY2017
National	321	356	314	332	293
Public	163	128	119	101	92
Private	1,165	1,072	1,325	1,096	1,025
Total	1,649	1,556	1,758	1,529	1,410

Data from MEXT 2017

Figure 4: The Number of Transfer Students from 2-Year Vocational Colleges

b) Theoretical Perspective

There are many factors which work together when a transfer student is deciding whether or not transfer to the university and whether or not to drop out of the university after having transferred. Also, the intensity of these external and internal forces may differ from transfer student to transfer student. Tinto's Model of Persistence addresses students' college decision-

© 2018 Global Journals

making factors and helps to understand many of the conditions that cause students to drop out (see Figure 5). Tinto's model will be helpful in researching transfer student's decision-making processes as well as what causes them to drop out of the university when they do. There would be a significant difference in the highest level of parents' education between transfer students and non-transfer students. Considering this, I have included parents' education level in this study.

Also, Bean (1982) states that "in the academic system, goal commitment leads to higher grade performance and intellectual development, which leads in turn to academic integration such as tutoring and reduces the likelihood of dropping out." In this survey, I have included student's anxieties and worries in college life after having transferred to the university of their choice. Compared to non-transfer students, it would be expected that there should be a significant difference in experiences of depression and loneliness after transferring to the university. Bean (1982) also states that whether or not college students are likely to drop out of college can be predicted by their degree of social and academic integration. It is significant for universities and colleges to put support programs into place that help transfer students adjust to the new circumstance of their academic lives and succeed both academically and personally after they have transferred to the university. Vocational colleges and technical colleges need to provide opportunities that deliver appropriate information for transfer students. Transfer students need to be encouraged to develop their own goals as well as to adjust to the new college circumstance with their peers after having transferred to the university.

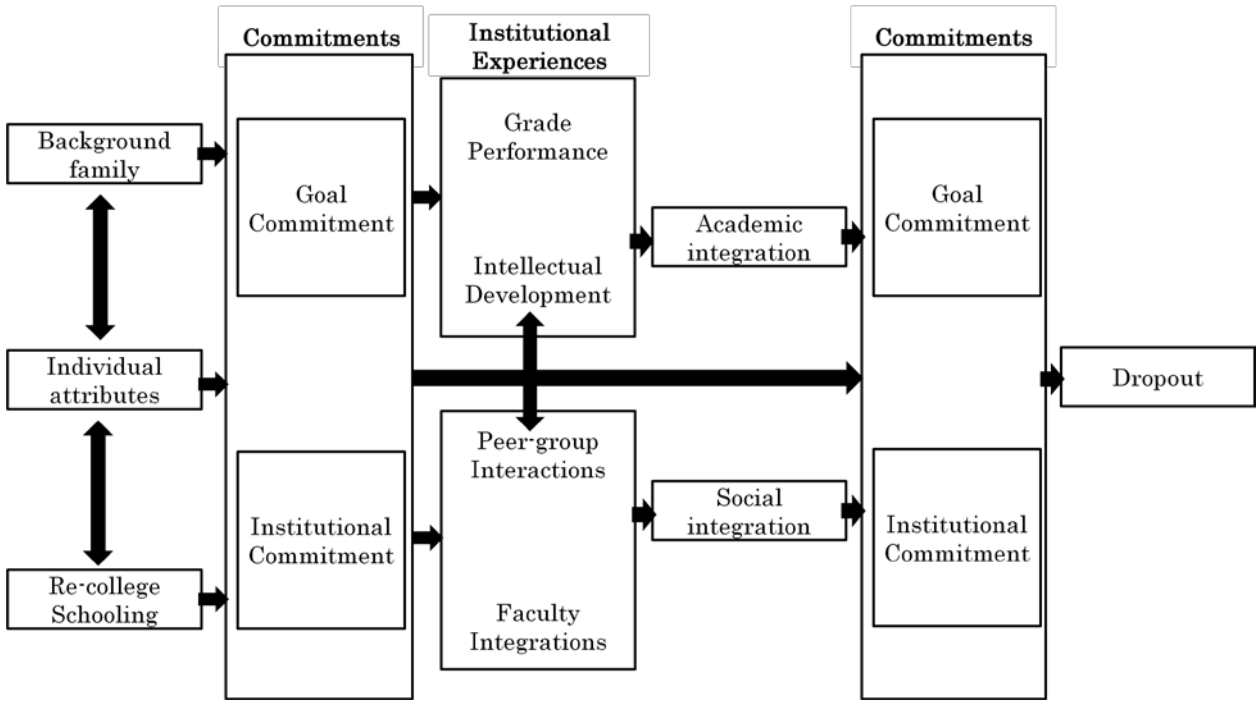


Figure 5: Tinto's Model of Persistence

c) Research Questions

The primary purpose of the study is to explore differences in background characteristics (i.e. parental education) and examine to what degree internal and external factors affect transfer students' and non-transfer students' college decision-making process. The second purpose is to examine student satisfaction with the quality of campus life post-transfer, as compared to non-transfer students' campus life experiences. Since many universities in Japan have tended to admit transfer students in recent years, this paper will discuss to support the design of effective support services for transfer students.

d) Literature Review

In the U.S., approximately forty percent of college-bound students go to two-year community colleges, and eighty percent of community college students transfer to the university as a junior. In Japan, the transfer process is more complicated than the community college system in the U.S. Previous Japanese research has provided little information about the characteristics of transfer students from vocational colleges and technical colleges. Researchers in the U.S. have found that the parental educational background of transfer students has a significant effect on children's academic achievement and aspirations. As parental

© 2018 Global Journals

education level increases, students are more likely to go to college (Hossler & Stage, 1992; Hossler, Schmit, & Vesper, 1999; Stage & Hossler, 1989). Hossler, Schmit, and Vesper (1999) also address the consideration that parents who have college degrees are likely to value education and to transmit their educational values to their children more than parents who have high school degrees or less. Japanese researchers have found that Japanese parents with college experience have influenced their children's college decisions through parental involvement and investment in education (Takeuchi & Fukuyama, 1996; Ogata & Tateishi, 2009). Amaki (2010) and Takeuchi (2003) also state that if parents have less than a high school degree, the expectation is lower, only an associate degree, than for children of college graduates. Considering these facts, Japanese parents' educational background appears significantly to influence children's educational motivation. In this study, it is expected that the majority of non-transfer students will have parents with college degrees, relative to transfer students.

In Japan, not much research has focused on transfer students because most students begin university as freshmen. In order to investigate transfer student's parental background and motivations for transferring to the university, the concept of the first-generation college student will be important. A first-generation college student is defined as a student whose parents did not graduate from a four-year university. Kawano (2003) notes that non-first generation college students and first-generation college students have different experiences in making decisions to go on to college. Considering Japanese and American research results, it is reasonable to expect that many transfer students in Japanese universities may be first-generation college students in need of various advising and support programs after transferring to the university. Developing transfer students' educational aspirations and academic achievement is important, and Japanese universities need to consider differences in background and aspirations between transfer students and non-transfer students.

II. Method

a) Procedures

The target population was current transfer students in Japanese universities as compared with non-transfer students. I conducted an online survey of undergraduate students who had transferred to the university and of non-transfer students in Japanese universities. The online survey was distributed through several social network services. The results provide insights into the need of the support systems for transfer students and reveal differences in expectations and campus life experiences between current transfer students and non-transfer students.

In the background section of this survey, I have included each student's year in university and major, public or private university status, the highest level of parents' education, and participation in extracurricular organizations after class. There would be a significant difference in the highest level of parents' education between transfer students and non-transfer students and that there would be another significant difference in the involvement in extracurricular activities after transferring to the university among transfer students versus non-transfer students. Also, Student's household income and parental education were two related factors influencing student aspirations to transfer (Cabrera, Burkum, & La Nasa, 2005; Dougherty & Kienzl, 2006; Dowd & Melguizo, 2008; Lee & Frank, 1990; Steffler, McCloy, & Decock, 2018). However, the information about student's gender, student's household income, and parents' occupations are not included because permission was not obtained to survey the background information from some student organizations and universities.

The next section of the survey measured the single-most influential person in students' decision to apply to university. There would be a significant difference here between transfer students and non-transfer students. Also, the survey measured transfer decision-making processes and the reasons for choosing particular universities. It is significant to better understand differences in the aspirations of transfer students and non-transfer students.

At the end of the survey, I asked about student's anxieties and worries in university. There would be a significant difference in the experience of depression and loneliness among transfer students. Student advising services are important for transfer students (Steffler, McColy, & Decock, 2018), and it might be not easy for transfer students to connect with non-transfer students after they have transferred to the university. These survey questions sought to measure differences in the needs of transfer and non-transfer students for assistance and support systems in Japan.

III. Data Analysis in the Quantitative Study

a) Description of the Sample

279 college students responded to this survey. Of the 279 students, 110 were transfer students from vocational colleges that teach foreign languages and general education, 83 were transfer students from technical colleges, and 86 were non-transfer students from private universities. Unfortunately, no transfer students from two-year junior colleges responded to this survey.

Of the 110 transfer students from vocational colleges, 92.9% were enrolled in private universities, and 7.1% were in public universities. Of the 83 transfer

© 2018 Global Journals

students from technical colleges, 1.2% were enrolled in private universities, and 98.8% were public universities. All non-transfer students were enrolled in private universities in this survey. The transfer students from vocational colleges were 88.4% juniors and 11.6% seniors. In the group of transfer students from technical colleges, the breakdown was 59.0% juniors and 41.0% seniors. Non-transfer students were 62.8% juniors and 37.2% seniors. Also, the majority of transfer students from vocational colleges (92.9%) were students who study at private universities, while only 7.1% were students enrolled in national universities. The majority of transfer students from technical colleges (98.8%) were students enrolled in national universities. The data indicated that they were more likely to choose a national university than transfer students from vocational colleges and non-transfer students. Among the transfer students from vocational colleges, 98.2% majored in arts and social sciences, and only 1.8% were majors in science and engineering. 95.2 percent of the transfer students from technical colleges were majoring in science and engineering. All non-transfer students in this study had majors in arts and social sciences.

The respondents were asked about the highest level of education obtained by their parents. Their highest level of formal education was coded as 1=junior high school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=vocational college graduate, 4=associate degree, 5=bachelor's degree, 6=graduate degree. This parental educational level was scored on a 6-point scale from 1 to 6. Table 1 demonstrates that most transfer students from vocational colleges were first-generation college students, while most transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students were non-first generation college students. Concerning the parental education level of the transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students, mothers tended to have earned an associate degree, while fathers had earned a bachelor's degree.

Table 1: The Highest Level of Parents' Education

	Transfer Students from Vocational Colleges			Transfer Students from Technical Colleges			Non-Transfer Students		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Father	110	2.83	1.42	83	4.27	1.69	86	4.22	1.34
Mother	110	2.80	0.99	83	3.23	1.27	86	3.77	1.33

*(*SD=Standard Deviation)*

b) The Single-Most Influential Person in Students' Decision-Making

Students were asked to identify the single most influential person affecting their decision to go to a 4-year university. In the group of transfer students from vocational colleges, 45.7% indicated that their high school teachers most influenced their decisions to transfer to the university. 20.0% indicated their friends, and 16.2% their elder friends. 11.4% responded that their mother influenced their decision to transfer to the university, while 1.9% indicated their fathers. High school teachers played a more significant role than other external factors, and they were moderately influential in the decision-making for transferring to the university. The data show that parents' encouragement was not a positive factor across this group.

On the other hand, the data indicate that peers and classmates influenced the decision-making among transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students. In the group of transfer students from technical colleges, 44.6% indicated their friends, and 35.7% elder friends. 10.7% indicated their fathers, while 5.4% indicated their mothers. In the group of non-transfer students, their friends (22.1%), their mothers (19.8%), their high school teachers (19.8%), their pre-college school teachers (18.6%), their fathers (11.6%), and their siblings (4.7%), respectively, were the single greatest influence. The data show that peer influence among transfer students from technical colleges is slightly higher than among non-transfer students. Peer influence is one of the significant external factors in the college decision making process among both transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students.

c) Decision-Making Factors for Transferring to The University

The following data are derived from a survey of 112 transfer students from vocational colleges and 83 transfer students from technical colleges. They responded on a 4-point scale to six questions regarding their decision making for transferring to the university. The responses were converted to a 1-4 scale (1=totally agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=somewhat disagree, and 4=totally disagree), with 4 representing "totally disagree." Lower scores indicated respondents strongly agreed about the reason to transfer to the university. Table 2 showed that there were no significant differences between transfer students from vocational colleges and transfer students from technical colleges in the mean score for each response. Compared with transfer students from technical colleges, the majority of transfer students from vocational colleges agreed that having at least a bachelor's degree is important to find a good job. Another important finding was that their

© 2018 Global Journals

classmates did not necessarily influence their decisions to transfer to the university, although 44.6% of transfer students from technical colleges did indicate their peers most influenced their decision. Also, the data show that transfer students did not think of changing their majors when they decided to transfer to the university. In Japanese universities, it is not easy to change majors after being accepted.

Most transfer students from vocational colleges indicated they wanted to transfer to the university in order to expand their knowledge, as did most transfer students from technical colleges. Also, the majority of transfer students from vocational and technical colleges indicated that it is necessary to have at least a bachelor's degree to find a good job.

Table 2: Reasons to Transfer to The University

	Transfer Student from Vocational Colleges				Transfer Student from Technical Colleges			
Reasons	N	Mean	SD	CV	N	Mean	SD	CV
1. I heard that it was possible to transfer to a four-year university from a vocational college or technical college.	112	1.62	0.67	41.36	83	2	1.27	63.50
2. I decided to transfer to the university because most of my classmates planned to transfer to the university.	112	2.66	1.06	39.85	83	2.82	1.06	37.59
3. I wanted to change my major after transferring to the university.	112	3.21	0.76	23.68	83	3.02	1.10	36.42
4. I wanted to expand my knowledge.	112	1.7	0.72	42.35	83	1.55	0.74	47.74
5. It is necessary to have at least a bachelor's . degree in order to find a good job.	111	1.55	0.77	49.68	83	1.69	0.88	52.07
6. I just had the desire to transfer to the university.	111	2.23	1.00	44.84	83	2.49	1.05	42.17

*(*CV=Coefficient of Variation)*

d) Decision Making Factors in Choosing a University

Students were asked to use a 4-point scale to indicate factors relating to their selection of a college. 281 students responded to 12 items stating potential reasons for choosing the universities they did (see Table 3). The choices were converted from 1 to 4 (1=totally agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=somewhat disagree, and 4=totally disagree), with four representing "disagree." There are some significant differences in the mean scores among the following three groups.

Most transfer students from vocational colleges were not likely to consider whether an institution was small or large, but transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students were likely to do so. The majority of transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students tended to select a large university. Also, transfer students from vocational schools were not likely to choose a university to which they could commute from their homes, as were non-transfer students. These three groups may not have been suffering from financial problems, as financial aid and scholarships were not an important factor for them. Compared to transfer students, the majority of non-transfer students were likely to choose a university based on whether its graduates secure good jobs. Also, compared to non-transfer students, the majority of transfer students from vocational and technical colleges indicated that the quality of college education and the educational environment were one of the external factors influencing their decisions.

Table 3: Reasons for Choosing the Desired University

	Transfer Students from Vocational Colleges				Transfer Students from Technical Colleges				Non-Transfer Student			
Reasons	N	Mean	SD	CV	N	Mean	SD	CV	N	Mean	SD	CV
1. I wanted to study at a small college.	112	2.91	0.83	28.52	83	3.77	0.53	14.06	86	3.45	0.71	20.58
2. I wanted to study at a large university.	112	3.04	0.89	29.28	83	1.65	0.92	55.76	86	1.9	0.75	39.47
3. I wanted to study in a small class.	112	2.16	0.83	38.43	83	3.75	0.46	12.27	86	3.07	0.84	27.36
4. I chose this university because of the reputation of its faculty members.	112	2.04	0.73	35.78	83	2.36	1.08	45.76	86	2.5	0.75	30.00
5. The quality of college education and the educational environment are much better than other universities' educational system.	112	1.89	0.65	34.39	82	1.96	0.97	49.49	86	2.14	0.72	33.64
6. My university offers various financial aid and scholarships for my college life.	111	3.18	0.78	24.53	81	3.56	0.71	19.94	86	3.1	0.83	26.77

© 2018 Global Journals

7. Its graduates gain a good job.	112	2.2	0.96	43.64	82	2.77	1	36.10	86	1.76	0.78	44.32
8. I wanted to join an extracurricular organization at my university.	112	3.37	0.68	20.18	83	3.61	0.7	19.39	86	3.13	0.87	27.80
9. The cost of tuition is lower than other universities.	112	3.55	0.72	20.28	83	3.11	0.92	29.58	86	3.38	0.62	18.34
10. I can live in an on-campus dormitory.	112	3.73	0.6	16.09	83	3.89	0.38	9.77	86	3.73	0.54	14.48
11. My university offers various study abroad programs.	111	2.49	0.92	36.95	83	3.37	0.95	28.19	86	2.31	0.91	39.39
12. I wanted to be able to commute from my home.	112	2.46	1.14	46.34	83	3.43	0.98	28.57	86	2.55	1.07	41.96

e) Satisfaction with College Life

The following data are derived from a survey of 281 college students who responded on a 4-point scale to ten questions regarding their college life. Their responses were converted to a 1-4 scale (1=totally agree, 2=somewhat agree, 3=somewhat disagree, and 4=totally disagree), with four representing "totally disagree." When I analyzed students' responses on an agree-disagree scale, significant differences emerged between these three groups (see Table 4).

Compared to transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students, the data indicated that the majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were not likely to get accustomed to a new college environment and make new friends after transferring to the university. Non-transfer students, by contrast, have ample time to make new friends and get accustomed to the college environment from their freshman year. In this survey, the data also indicated that 45% of transfer students from vocational schools had participated in some extracurricular organizations after class, while 73% of transfer students from technical colleges and 76.7% of non-transfer students have participated in those organizations. Most transfer students from vocational colleges feel lonely on campus, and they need to get involved in campus activities after they transfer. Most transfer students from technical colleges were majoring in science and engineering and were required to take laboratory classes. Through those laboratory classes, they may have had a chance to make new friends.

Also, compared to transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students, the data indicated that many transfer students from vocational colleges were likely to feel the desire to drop out of college after transferring because they did not easily get accustomed to the college environment or make new friends on campus. Considering this, universities need to adopt dropout prevention approaches for these transfer students from vocational colleges.

Table 4: Satisfaction with College Life

	Transfer Student from Vocational Colleges				Transfer Student from Technical Colleges				Non-Transfer Student			
College Life	N	Mean	SD	CV	N	Mean	SD	CV	N	Mean	SD	CV
1. I was able to get accustomed to a new college environment.	112	3.33	0.68	20.42	83	2.04	0.82	40.20	86	2.16	0.68	31.48
2. My college life affords me the opportunity to make many friends.	112	3.12	0.73	23.40	83	2.28	0.95	41.67	86	2.16	0.77	35.65
3. My college life affords the opportunity to join extracurricular organizations.	112	3.10	0.97	31.29	83	2.05	1.06	51.71	86	2.13	0.85	39.91
4. I am satisfied with my college experience.	112	3.23	0.74	22.91	81	2.11	0.84	39.81	86	2.49	0.75	30.12
5. My professors and academic staff members helped guide my educational and career goals.	111	2.68	0.67	25.00	82	2.88	1.01	35.07	86	2.97	0.69	23.23
6. All of the lectures just feel impossible to follow.	112	2.49	0.98	39.36	82	2.85	0.86	30.18	86	2.56	0.81	31.64
7. Too much homework is assigned every day.	112	2.38	1.12	47.06	83	2.63	0.93	35.36	86	2.64	0.89	33.71
8. Balancing my part-time job and school is too difficult.	112	2.52	1.04	41.27	83	2.78	1.05	37.77	86	2.58	0.91	35.27
9. It is difficult to make new friends, and I sometimes feel lonely on campus.	112	1.87	0.89	47.59	82	2.87	0.95	33.10	86	2.98	0.84	28.19
10. I decided to apply to this university by myself, but I want to drop out of the university.	111	2.93	1.17	39.93	83	3.49	0.93	26.65	86	3.14	0.86	27.39

© 2018 Global Journals

IV. Conclusions and Recommendations

a) Conclusions

In this study, I have examined student's parental education and have explored how external and internal factors affect transfer students' and non-transfer students' college decision-making processes. My findings reveal that there is a significant difference in parental education among the three groups. The majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were first-generation college students, while most transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students were non-first generation college students. Compared to transfer students from vocational colleges, transfer students from technical colleges have similar characteristics to those of non-transfer students. In this survey result, non-transfer students indicated their mother was the significant force influencing their decision to go to college, while parental influence did not have an important influence for transfer students from vocational colleges. The insights and perspectives of high school teachers as influences on college decision-making among transfer students from vocational colleges became an important dimension, compared to transfer students from technical colleges and non-transfer students. Kawano (2003) finds that most first-generation college students tended to seek a teacher's advice. In this study, transfer students from vocational colleges did seek advice from high school teachers when they decided to transfer to the university. Parental involvement did not emerge as a positive external factor in determining whether transfer students would go to the university.

Also, the findings in this study indicate that there are some differences in satisfaction with the quality of campus life among the three groups. The majority of transfer students from vocational colleges were not likely to get accustomed to the college environment, and they felt lonely after transferring to the university. Some of them thought that they wanted to drop out of college after transferring. According to Tinto's model of persistence, whether students will drop out or not can be predicted by their degree of academic and social integration. Without any academic or personal advice, or high quality support programs for transfer students, it might be difficult for transfer students who enter in a sophomore or junior year because most non-transfer students have already made their friends in their freshmen year and have already developed effective college skills. The lack of social integration and academic integration may lead transfer students to drop out of the university.

Also, this data indicated that financial factors were not the most important determinant amongst those three groups when deciding whether to go to college at a four-year university. Many Japanese parents are likely to cover their children's college expenses without educational loans because they believe that paying for the college education is one of their parental responsibilities (Amaki, 2010; Kobayashi, 2008). Most 2-year vocational colleges are private institutions, and these students spend $10,000US for tuition per year. Most 5-year technical colleges are public institutions, and these students spend $2,500US for tuition per year. Perhaps, parents of first-generation students understand how much they need to spend to cover their children's college expenses. National university students spend $7,000US for tuition per year, while private university students spend $12,000US for tuition per year. Transfer students from technical colleges tend to choose the cheapest educational plan, so this survey result indicates that they are likely to choose a national university for transferring.

Considering those factors related to the reasons for transferring to the university and the college life satisfaction, it is clear that transfer students are influenced by some external and internal factors. Japanese universities need to undertake more proactive educational reforms to accept and support more transfer students.

b) Limitations

More research is needed to understand the characteristics of transfer students and their parents. Because of Japan's personal information protection law, I was not allowed to ask college students about their parents' income and occupations, but I was able to collect other data on their parents' highest levels of education. In this study, Socio-Economic Status (SES) was not determined. If I could have asked them about their parents' annual income and occupations through the survey, I could have provided more precise data on the SES classification of transfer students' and non-transfer students' family backgrounds.

c) Implications

The patterns of students who transfer to the university should be important indicators for Japanese universities as they seek to provide effective support programs to increase the transfer admission rates. The data show that high school teachers are the most influential factor among transfer students from vocational colleges. High school teachers need to provide more support programs for transfer students and their parents.

Furthermore, Japanese universities need to establish transfer student support centers on campus. In the U.S., there are transfer student centers on campus in order to help students get involved and feel plugged into university life, but there are few transfer student centers in Japanese universities and colleges. Various advising support services at an early stage after students have transferred to the university are needed. Japanese universities need to investigate protectively

© 2018 Global Journals

and identify risk factors related to retention among transfer students. It would help prospective transfer students take steps toward university education, and would help increase the number of students who transfer to the university. Based on my findings, I believe longitudinal research is needed about how transfer students in Japan make college decisions and how they spend their campus life until graduation.

References Références Referencias

1. Amaki, Y. (2010). *Postsecondary Educational Decision-Making among First-Generation College-Bound Students in Okinawa Prefecture, with Consideration of the Population Problem in Japan*. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles) Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database.
2. Bean, J. P. (1982). Conceptual Models of Student Attrition: How Theory Can Help the Institutional Researcher. In E. Pascarella, eds., *New Directions for Institutional Research.* (pp.17-33). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
3. Cabrera, A.F., Burkum, K.R., & La Nasa, S.M. (2005). Pathways to a four year degree: Determinants of transfer and degree completion. In A. Seidman (Ed.). *College Student Retention: A Formula for Student Success* (pp. 155-209). ACE/ Praeger series on Higher Education.
4. Dougherty, K.J. & Kienzl, G.S. (2006). It's not enough to get through the open door: Inequalities by social background in transfer from community colleges to four-year colleges. *Teachers College Records*. 108 (3). 452-487.
5. Dowd, A.C.& Melguizo, T. (2008). Socioeconomic Stratification of Community College Transfer Access in the 1980s and 1990s: Evidence from HS & B and NELS. *The Review of Higher Education*. 31 (4). 377-400.
6. Hossler, D., & Schmit, J., & Vesper, N. (1999). *Going to college: How social, economic, and educational factors influence the decisions students make*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
7. Hossler, D., & Stage, F.K. (1992). Family and high school experience influences on the postsecondary plans of ninth-grade students. *American Education Research Journal*, 29, 425- 451.
8. Kobayashi, M. (2008). *Shingaku-kakusa- Financial Concerns for Students* (in Japanese). Tokyo: Chikuma Shobo Press.
9. Kawano, G. (2003). First-Generation Students in the Japanese University. (in Japanese). *Bulletin of Yamagata University. Education Science*. 13 (2). 33-48.
10. Lee, V. E. & Frank, K.E. (1990). Students' characteristics that facilitate transfer from two-year to four-year colleges. *Sociology of Education*. 63 (3). 178-193.
11. Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2017) Future of Japanese Higher Education (Published in Japanese) http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/gijiroku/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2017/10/27/1397784_14.pdf (Accessed October 12, 2018)
12. Minister of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2018). Data on Enrollment Trends in 2018 (published in Japanese) http://www.mext.go.jp/component/b_menu/other/icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/08/02/1407449_1.pdf(Accessed October 6, 2018)
13. Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Data on Enrollment Trends in 2017 (published in Japanese) https://www.e-stat.go. jp/statsearch/files?page=1&toukei=00400001&tstat=000001011528 (Accessed August 15, 2018)
14. Ogata, N. & Tateishi, S. (2009). The Structure of Decision-making of Students for Transfer in Shortcycle Higher Education. (in Japanese). Hiroshima University Graduate School of Education Studies. 3 (58). 293-300.
15. Takeuchi, K. & Fukuyama, N. (1996) A Study on Educational Effects of Parents on Their Children and Relation to Parents Academic Background (in Japanese). Sophia University Studies in Education. 31. 50-69.
16. Takeuchi, K. (2003). Student Culture Survey. (in Japanese). *Campus Life*. (pp.167-181) Tokyo: Tamagawa University Press.
17. Stage, F.K., & Hossler, D. (1989). Differences in family influences on college attendance plans for male and female ninth graders. *Research in Higher Education*, 30, 301-315.
18. Steffler, M., McColy, U., & Decock, H. (2018). *Which College Students Transfer to University? The role of parental education and income*. Centre for Research in Student Mobility, Seneca College.1-40.

© 2018 Global Journals

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 18 Issue 12 Version 1.0 Year 2018
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Environmental Analysis Tools used in the Strategic Plans of Some Egyptian Universities in the Light of Global Tool

By Dr. Antar Mohamed Ahmed
Sohag University

Summary- The present study aims to identify the most important tools used in the environmental analysis of strategic plans in the light of contemporary management trends. With a suggested conception of those tools that can be used when strategic planning, the study has yielded some results that confirm that Success of the strategic analysis process depends on the selection of the tools used to extract realistic results of the strategic analysis process. There is no better tool than others, but it varies depending on the nature and circumstances of the Organization, as each of these tools can be used according For the purpose of the organization you want to achieve.

Keywords: tool, analysis, environmental, strategy.

GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 130399



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



© 2018. Dr. Antar Mohamed Ahmed. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creative-commons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Environmental Analysis Tools used in the Strategic Plans of Some Egyptian Universities in the Light of Global Tool

Dr. Antar Mohamed Ahmed

Summary- The present study aims to identify the most important tools used in the environmental analysis of strategic plans in the light of contemporary management trends. With a suggested conception of those tools that can be used when strategic planning, the study has yielded some results that confirm that Success of the strategic analysis process depends on the selection of the tools used to extract realistic results of the strategic analysis process. There is no better tool than others, but it varies depending on the nature and circumstances of the Organization, as each of these tools can be used according For the purpose of the organization you want to achieve.

Keywords: tool, analysis, environmental, strategy.

If your only tool is a hammer, the whole world will look like nails to you.

I. Introduction

Global management systems have faced many challenges in recent years, such as globalization (trade union Formation and economic treaties), changes in technology (production technology, information and technology, Internet and e-commerce), and increased Competition, customer focus, social, political and cultural changes all led to a change in the business environment and made it in a dynamic state. The strategic decision of the various institutions has become more important than ever (Bagher Asgarnezhad 2017).

These profound and rapid changes in the internal and external environment of institutions of higher and tertiary education have necessitated fundamental changes in traditional planning methods, it is no longer acceptable to rely mainly on the analysis and extrapolation of past events, and to assume that the future is an extension Looking at change as a threat to universities and not as a factor of it, strategic management, strategic planning and environmental analysis have thus emerged with its multiple components and steps.

The process of environmental analysis is the most important element of strategic management on which strategic plans are based in theirown and their realities. Depending on the realism of the environmental analysis, the success or failure of the strategic plan, as well as the success of the strategic analysis process depends on the selection of the tools The methods used to derive realistic results from the strategic analysis process are confirmed by Kotler and others by saying if the institutions want to achieve success of the strategy plan it is necessary not to focus on a single tool but to apply a variety of environmental analysis tools (Kotler, P, Roland B and Nils B, 2015, 24), and otherwise the Elbanna (2007) confirms that some companies may use some strategic planning tools without having written strategic plans (Elbanna, S, 2007).

Egyptian universities ' lack of awareness of their environment may directly affect their relationship with this environment; so it is imperative that universities recognize and understand influential forces, using tools that enable them to analyze their environment realistically and are suited to the potential and size of the university. Universities that are unable to Underst and the forces influencing the environment and its trends in its proper functioning, you may have to choose inappropriate strategies that are incompatible with the nature and requirements of the environment.

From this standpoint, the idea of the present study is to identify the most important tools used in the environmental analysis of strategic plans in the light of contemporary management trends. Since many of the strategic plans of some universities may stumble and fail due to multiple factors, one of the most important of those factors is not Conduct the extensive study and analysis necessary for the environment of these universities using an appropriate and realistic analysis tool. Therefore, these strategic plans become mere paper documents that are only updated regardless of the actual application, and in many universities they become a mere scientific merit that is placed on the sites The university in the spider network only without actual application on the ground.

Study problem

Egyptian universities face increasing challenges as a result of changes and developments in their internal and external environment, and the response to these

Author: Comparative Education and Educational Management Department Faculty of Education -Sohag University.
e-mail: dantar68@gmail.com

© 2018 Global Journals

variables is reflected and developments in Egyptian universities' strategic plans in terms of the ability of Egyptian universities to play their part in coping with these changes in The internal and external level, which directly affects universities' perception that their strategic choices are rooted in realistic environmental factors.

At the same time, the political and economic conditions that the Arab Republic of Egypt has been undergoing since the events of the revolution of 25 January 2011, and the 30 June 2013 revolution have imposed some restrictions on the financial resources available to Egyptian government universities and then there is another challenge for these universities, which is that they need to seek To develop their own self-help from different sources.

As the management scientists at the end of the twentieth century emphasize, it is necessary to take into account those changes that have occurred in all areas. With the assurance that strategic planning officials of different institutions must be knowledgeable, understanding and knowledgeable about those changes in the business environment, as One of the emerging areas in the area of management science, and therefore the need to provide managers with effective tools to deal with those variables, which are becoming more and more complex. This has led to the emergence of modern strategic management tools and techniques suited to the new environment.

As a corollary to the emergence of these modern and multiple strategic tools, the officials of different institutions have been puzzled about the best tools they will use in the future planning of their institutions. The administrators answered their questions that each of these tools fits The internal and external environment of the institution and therefore there is no better tool than others but varies depending on the nature and circumstances of the Organization. Managers should therefore have the knowledge and the ability to categorize those different tools and choose the appropriate tool for their company as Rigby (2015) asserts that The issue of selecting strategic management tools is important and complex issues where it depends on the success or failure of the administrative method (Rigby, D. K, 2015) Thus, the proper use of these tools requires that strategic planning officials in the organizations recognize the strengths and weaknesses of each tool with the ability To integrate and apply appropriate tools creatively, conveniently and in a timely manner (Bagher Asgarnezhad 2017)

Afonina and Chalupský also stressed that strategic management tools and techniques are among the most important elements of strategic management not only for environmental analysis but also in formulating and drawing up the overall strategy of the foundation and maintaining a competitive advantage (Afonina, A & Chalupský, V, 2012).. Hussey (1997) agrees with the previous statement that "techniques alone do not create a strategy for the institution but an important and necessary factor, while the formulation of the strategy is the responsibility of managers and strategic planning officers (Hussey, D, 1997).

By extrapolating some strategic plans to Egyptian universities and available to the researcher, the tools used in the environmental analysis of these plans can be identified. It is the strategy of Sohag University, Alexandria University, Cairo University, Mansoura University and other Egyptian universities that they are Used in the environmental analysis phase one tool is the analysis of *SWOT*

Although there are many other tools that can be used, the current study problem can therefore be identified in the next president's question."
What tools and techniques are used in strategic analysis in the strategic plans of Egyptian universities in the light of contemporary management literature?

To answer this question, it is worth studying to answer the following questions:

1. What is the philosophy of environmental analysis and its strategic planning role?
2. What are the reality of the tools and techniques used in environmental analysis in the light of modern management literature?
3. What are the recommendations and suggestions that would operationalize strategic analysis tools with the strategic plans of higher education institutions in Egypt?

a) Objectives of the study

The present study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- Learn about Strategic analysis philosophy and strategic planning role
- Detection of tools and techniques used in environmental analysis in the light of modern management literature
- Arriving at recommendations and proposals for environmental analysis tools used in strategic planning at Egyptian universities.

b) Importance of the study

The importance of the present study derives from the following justifications:

Highlights the importance of the present study through limited studies on environmental analysis in general and environmental analysis tools in particular at Egyptian universities, which was one of the catalysts that prompted the researcher to conduct this study; to bridge the gap in the literature tools of environmental analysis universities and its impact on the choice of strategies suited to the circumstances of each university.

© 2018 Global Journals

The importance of the study also stems from the linking and interviewing of different types of environmental analysis tools.

The importance of the study is also demonstrated by the need for senior management of tertiary institutions to select tools for rigorous environmental analysis, which will contribute to the presentation of theoretical scientific material on environmental analysis tools. To help the decision maker get the tool and method Appropriate for the selection and formulation of an appropriate strategy to enhance the university's niche in its environment in the light of the dramatic developments in the global environment.

II. Methodology

In this study, the researcher uses the descriptive approach of being an appropriate method of studying social and human phenomena, through the steps of the descriptive approach, the researcher examines the concept and location of environmental analysis in the strategic planning process. It also examines the types of analysis tools of the environment by collecting data from previous literature and studies associated with environmental analysis tools and its relationship to strategic planning with a view to creating an adequate theoretical background on those instruments and their nature.

In order to achieve this, the present study is progressing according to the following steps:

Analysis of the core strategic analysis and strategic planning role.
Analysis of the reality of tools used in environmental analysis in the light of contemporary management literature
Proposed visualization of environmental analysis tools used in strategic planning at Egyptian universities

III. Importance of Environmental Analysis

Khafaji (Khafaji, 2004, p. 113) refers to strategic analysis as the first step of strategic management to monitor the organization's environment across two angles the former identifies current and future opportunities and threats, the second estimates the organization's own strengths and weaknesses, and should be the purpose Managers from analysis is the diagnosis of multiple environments in which the organization performs its operations, as well as the need for the results of the analysis to enable the strengths and preparations of the unit to secure what needs to be done and to enable it to see any future problems.

Environmental analysis also assists different institutions in the following aspects (Hitesh S. viramgami, 2007, pp. 54-55):

1. Knowledge of environmental factors in the performance of the organization.
2. Assist in the decision-making process.
3. Assist in evaluating the policy and strategy of the Organization.
4. Contribute to the continuity in the competition.
5. Implementation of strategic planning.
6. Increase the efficiency of the Organization.
7. Optimizing investment for productive capacity.
8. Assessing the success of the work within the organization

IV. Importance of using Environmental Analysis tools

As for the importance of strategic management tools, they provide many advantages that help administrators to understand fully the different tools and techniques available. where Afonina and Chalupský (2012) pointed out that strategic management tools and techniques are different tools that support Managers at all stages of strategic management-from strategic analysis to the selection and implementation of the strategy-Help to address organizational inefficiencies and achieve best performance. Afonina, A &chalupský, V, 2012).

Frost 2003 also noted that these tools promote awareness of the business environment, strategic issues, opportunities and threats, and reduce risks, assist in decision-making, prioritize companies and provide a general framework for assessing the relative importance of different areas and objectives of the enterprise, as It helps to understand clearly the complex issues surrounding the enterprise (Frost, F. A, 2003).

Pasanen (2011) highlights the role of strategic management tools and techniques, it indicates that it facilitates strategic action, a reflection guide and a starting point for structuring strategic management activities, and that efficiency is the most important advantage of the use of strategic management tools and techniques (Pasanen, Mika, 2011)

While Bagher (2017) indicated that the understanding of strategic tools is important for the following reasons (Bagher Asgarnezhad 2017).:

- Clarification of the operations of managers when using strategic tools.
- Clarification of the generalization processes on which the application of the tools is based.
- Help academics and practitioners to learn and understand the effective tool in real practice
- The use of strategic analysis tools in institutions depends on actual practice and not on the theoretical side
- Environmental analysis tools are used in both environmental and enterprise analysis
- Improves the communication, coordination and oversight processes of the Organization

© 2018 Global Journals

Although there is a gap between the theoretical side of strategic management tools and techniques and their actual use (how managers use them), so many authors recently introduced into the administrative literature a new approach known as "strategy as Practice" (Berisha Qehaja, alban, Enver Kutllovci and Justina Shiroka pul, 2017)

V. Considerations When using Tools

There are a number of important considerations that environmental analysis officials should consider when using analytical tools as follows (Jim D, 2015):

1. The tool must help answer the question posed by the organization.
2. The expected benefit of using the tool must be determined and must be effective. The more clearly the tool is defined, the more likely that analysis will be.
3. Many tools benefit from input and collaboration with others, functions or even organizations. There should be sufficient time for cooperation and advance warning so that people can absorb the analysis.
4. The proper use of analytical tools may be a waste of time, so it is necessary to ensure that key stakeholders, for example the governing board, are senior managers and corporate departments aware of this. Otherwise, they may not be able to provide the necessary commitment to complete the analysis.

VI. Tools and Techniques used in Environmental Analysis in the Light of Management Literature

Bozkurt (2013), Afonina and Chalupský 2012 emphasized the importance of identifying different management tools and techniques and the benefits of their application in improving the environmental assessment process of enterprises (Afonina, a &chalupský, V, 2012) (kal, A. and Bozkurt, O. C, 2013) while a study indicated a Fonina (2015) to the multiplicity and diversity of such tools at the enterprise level depending on their size and area of work, as noted by the study (Pasanen, M, 2011) to the problems that many organizations have encountered as a result of the failure to use the appropriate tools in the strategic planning process of some companies, resulting in the exposure of those Significant losses due to the lack of success in selecting the appropriate strategic tool in the environmental analysis process of those institutions.

Some recent management literature has given attention to the study of the various types of strategic management tools field and survey studies. Where Bagher 2017 refers to the most important strategic management tools and techniques widely used among Iranian company managers respectively: Mission and Vision statements are ranked first; followed by OT analysis, Balanced scorecard, Cost-benefit analysis, Core booklet, Financial analysis, Critical success factors, Total quality Management, Price analysis Market Shar E analysis. and. Benchmarking

ALBANB & Enver K & jus tina S, 2017 have conducted a comparative study of management literature on environmental analysis tools in different institutions around the world. Studies carried out by the study analysed 27 studies in different parts of the world, and the final results of Tal Your study on the following tools: Reference Benchmarking, OT, Vision and mission, statements, Value chain analysis, Bcmatrix, Porter's five Forces analysis, PEST analysis, Employee engagement surveys, Strategic planning, Outsourcing, Cost-benefit analysis, Risk analysis, Business Financial analysis. Project management, brainstorming, Ansoff.

While Rigby (2015) conducted an analytical study of management literature on strategic and published management tools in various parts of the world beginning in 1993, to 2015, where the results of the study showed that the most prevalent and most effective tool in the world was the tool of customer Relationship Management (CRM), followed by the following tools: assessment of employee participation, strategic planning, outsourcing balanced scorecard, mission and vision statements, supply chain management, change management programs, customer segmentation, core competency, total quality management, mergers and acquisitions, business process reengineering, satisfaction and loyalty management, strategic alliances, time management in digital transformation, contingency Planning and scenario, reduced complexity,, price optimization models, tools of decision-making right, zero-based budgeting

Pasanen (2015) also studied strategic management tools and techniques in 143 Finnish companies working in the service and production sector. The results of the study showed that the tools and management methods were divided into three groups, with the first among the most strategic tools Common and used in 75% of the institutions studied and included in business strategies Mission and Vision statement). The second group was seized with the following tools (strategic alliances, outsourcing, (benchmarking) Growth strategy, quality system, OT analysis Customer satisfaction Analysis) The third group included Balanced Scorecard. Virtual Teams (kal, A. and Bozkurt, O. C, 2013) has sought to identify the trends of the Executive directors of small and medium-sized companies in Turkey towards the selection and use of strategic management tools and techniques. A total of 192 different enterprises have been selected, and the study has shown that the most widespread and corporate strategic management tool over a five-year

© 2018 Global Journals

period is as follows: Strategic planning, human resources analysis, all quality management, customer relationship management, Outsourcing, financial Analysis, mission statement, PEST Analysis, benchmarking, financial analysis of competitors, benchmarking, strategic Planning software, portfolio analysis, critical success factors, stakeholder analysis, value chain analysis, Organization's cultural analysis, OT, scenario analysis and conditional analysis.

I also tried studying (Afonina, A &chalupský, V, 2012). To study the extent to which strategic management tools and techniques are used in 31 companies operating in the Czech Republic. The results of the study have shown the order of these tools as follows: OT analysis, customer satisfaction analysis, price analysis, analysis of the views and attitudes of employees, cost-benefit analysis, analysis of customer problems, analysis of the views and attitudes of Customers, Porter's five forces, PEST analysis, service level analysis, market segmentation, market share analysis Customer profitability analysis, (benchmarking) The relative profitability analysis, portfolio analysis, winning or losing analysis, Customer value analysis, advertising effectiveness analysis, product life-cycle analysis, analysis of new product adoption, strategic gap analysis, Balanced scorecard.

Where she did (Friedl, p., &biloslavo, R, (2009). Study the tools and management methods that used by 91 companies operating in the state of Slovenia where the results of the study indicated that there were a number of different tools and techniques being used in those companies, the most important of which were in order The following: Balanced scorecard,, life cycle analysis, value chain analysis, activity-based costing OT analysis, customer satisfaction analysis, market segmentation, Customer complaints Analysis Porter model, PEST analysis, customer profitability analysis.

The review of the few published literature on management tools and techniques used in environmental analysis shows the extent to which these tools are different and multiple. They also show the importance of using them in developing the performance of different institutions based on the size and nature of the work of the Organization, as indicated by these studies Lack of ownership and control of one tool in all studies thus the researcher in the third requirement tries to give an idea of the most famous of those tools used in environmental analysis.

VII. Conclusion

Results of the study and proposed scenario for environmental analysis tools used in strategic planning From the reality of what has been presented, the researcher outlines a number of the results of the study, the most important of which are:

1. The process of environmental analysis is a key element of strategic management so that strategic management cannot take place without that process
2. Strategic plans in their own and their realities depend on the extent to which environmental analysis is realistic in its ability to properly perceive environmental variables, thus depending on the realism of the environmental analysis and the success or failure of the strategic plan.
3. The success of the strategic analysis process depends on the selection of the tools used to derive realistic results from the strategic analysis process.
4. If organizations want to achieve the success of the strategy plan, it is necessary not to focus on a single tool but to apply a variety of environmental analysis tools
5. The weak ability of Egyptian universities to understand the characteristics of their environment may directly affect the ability of universities to achieve their development goals.
6. The changes in the management sciences have led to the emergence of modern management tools for the environmental analysis process. These modern tools contribute to overcoming the problems they face and thus the ability to achieve progress and prosperity for the organization and its level
7. There is no better tool than others but it varies depending on the nature and circumstances of the Organization, as each of these tools can be used according to the purpose of the enterprise you want to achieve.

Recommendations and mechanisms for their effective actualization.

In the light of the results of the study, the researcher may develop a number of recommendations as follows:

1. If the environmental analysis process is a key element of strategic management so that strategic management cannot take place without that process, it should be the need to train deans of colleges and planning officials at Egyptian universities in strategic management processes in general and environmental analysis In particular through workshops and specialized conferences on strategic planning processes, this training can be carried out by the capacity development centre of the faculty members of Egyptian universities.
2. If the success or failure of strategic plans depends on the extent to which environmental analysis is realistic in its ability to properly perceive environmental variables, to reconcile the selection of tools used to derive realistic results from the strategic analysis process, modern tools should be studied For environmental analysis in terms of their relevance, objectives of use, and by leveraging

© 2018 Global Journals

other universities that have been successful in choosing the right tools for them. Workshops should also be held on the feasibility of each of these instruments and their linkage to the university environment concerned

3. The weak ability of Egyptian universities to understand the characteristics of their environment may directly affect the ability of universities to achieve their development goals. In this sense, the environmental analysis process must be thoroughly studied and not just a phase of strategic planning processes and could be done by the unit And this accreditation and strategic planning centers in Egyptian universities using a number of means including the collective workshops for all the owners such as workshops for students and other members of the teaching staff and for members of the community and so on as questionnaires can be used, opinion polls and more.
4. If organizations want to achieve the success of the strategy plan, it is necessary for those responsible for environmental analysis processes not to focus on a single tool rather, the application of a variety of environmental analysis tools is based on the premise that there is no better tool than others but varies according to the nature and circumstances of the organization Each of these tools can be used according to the purpose of the organization you want to achieve.

References Références Referencias

1. Afonina, A & Chalupský, V (2012). The current strategic management tools and techniques: The evidence from Czech Republic. Acta Univ. Agric. Silvic. Mendelianae Brun Journal . 2013, 61, 833 840http://dx.doi.org/10.11118/actaun201361040833
2. Afonina, A (2015). Strategic management tools and techniques and organizational performance: Findings from the Czech Republic. Journal of Competitiveness, 7(3); 19-36 https://doi.org/ 10.7441/joc.2015.03.02
3. Albana B & Enver K & Justina S ,Pula, (2017), Strategic Management Tools and Techniques: A Comparative Analysis of Empirical Studies , ACTA Universitatis Agriculturae Et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, Volume 65, Number 2, 2017: pp. 558-599
4. Bagher Asgarnezhad (201) Analyzing the Use of Strategi Management Tools and Techniques between Iranian Firm, Academy of Strategic Management Journal Volume 16, Number 1, 2017
5. Berisha Q, Albana, Enver K and Justina Shiroka P, 2017,"Strategic Management Tools and Techniques Usage: A Qualitative Review", Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 65(2), pp.585–600. https://doi.org/10.11118/ actaun 201765020585
6. Elbanna, S (2007). The nature and practice of strategic planning in Egypt. Strategic Change, August 2007, Published online in Wiley Inter Science (www.interscience.wiley.com) DOI: 10.1002/jsc.797
7. Friedl, P., & Biloslavo, R (2009). Association of management tools with the financial performance of companies: The example of the Slovenian construction sector. Journal of Managing Global Transition, 7 (4): 383-402 http://www.fm-kp.si/ zalozba/ISSN/1581-6311/7_383-402.pdf.
8. Frost, F. A, 2003), The use of strategic tools by small and medium-sized enterprises: An Australasian study. Strategic Change, Volume 12, Issue 1 pages 49–62, January /February 2003, 49- 62.
9. Hitesh S. viramgami, (2007): Fundamentals Enterpreneurship, New Delhi APH Publishing Corporation, p.p 54-55 https://www.amazon.com/Fundamentals-Entrepreneurship-H-S Viramgami/dp/8131303012/ref=sr_1_2?s=books&ie=UTF8&qid=1512689306&sr=1-2
10. Strategic Management Insight, Strategy Tools, Ovidijus Jurevicius, October 6, 2013, https://www.strategicmanagementinsight.com/tools/vision-statement.html
11. Hussey, D (1997). Glossary of techniques for strategic analysis. Strategic Change Journal, Volume 6, Issue 2, March 1997 Pages 97–115. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1697(199703)6:2%3C97::AIDJSC223%3E3.0.CO;2-I/abstract
12. Jim D(2015), The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants, Strategic Analysis Tools, London,, Technical Information Service, Topic Gateways, 2015, http://www.cimaglobal.com/ Documents/ImportedDocuments/cid_tg_strategic_analysis_tools_nov07.pdf
13. Kalkan, A. and Bozkurt, O. C (2013). The choice and use of strategic planning tools and techniques in Turkish SMEs according to attitudes of executives. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 99: 1016-1025.https://www.researchgate.net/publication/273851970_The_Choice_and_Use_of_Strategic_Planning_Tools_and_Techniques_in_Turkish_SMEs_According_to_Attitudes_of_Executives
14. Kotler, P, Roland B and Nils B(2015), The Quintessence of Strategic Management: What You Really Need to Know to Survive in Business,, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer. http://www.springer.com/ us/book/9783642422386
15. Pasanen, Mika, 2011, "Strategic Management Tools and Techniques in SMEs", Society of Interdisciplinary Business Research (SIBR) 2011 Conference on Interdisciplinary Business Research, https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1867897# (accessed October 26, 2017).

© 2018 Global Journals

https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1867897# (accessed October 26, 2017).
16. Rigby, D. K (2015). Management tools 2015: An executive's guide, BAIN and COMPANY., June 10, 2015,http://www.bain.com/publications/articles/management-tools-and-trends-2015.aspx
17. Khafaji, Abbas Khudair, strategic management: Introduction, concepts and processes, I 1, Culture Library for publishing and distribution, Amman, 2004.

© 2018 Global Journals

This page is intentionally left blank

© 2018 Global Journals

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 18 Issue 12 Version 1.0 Year 2018
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

On Persian Japanese Intonation

By Norouzi Tayebeh
University of Tsukuba

Abstract- The aim of this study is to investigate learners' acquisition of Japanese lexical accent in different prosodic environments. Nineteen Iranian learners and one Japanese native speaker participated in the experiment and were asked to pronounce a dialogue using the same three-mora non-word in three different positions in the dialogue. The results show that native speaker pronounce the non-word with three possible accent types: Atamadaka-gata (i.e., the first mora has a high pitch (H) and all subsequent morae have low pitches (L)), nakadaka-gata (i.e., one or more than one mora that is neither the first nor the last within that word has a high pitch) and heiban-gata (i.e., the first mora has a low pitch and all subsequent morae have a higher pitch, and the pitch gradually lowers). However, accent realization does not change in different prosodic environments. On the other hand, when analyzing the Iranian learners' pronunciation, a total of seven accent types were recognized, and the results demonstrate that accent realization differs by prosodic environment: while LHL (an accent form like nakadaka-gata) appears frequently in a focal environment, LHH (an accent form like heiban-gata), which is similar to a Persian accent, is realized more in other environments such as neutral or post-focal environments. The above result suggests that since, at the beginning of conversation sentences and in focal environments, the learners' degree of consciousness is higher than for the whole conversation, L1 interference is less likely to occur.

Keywords: japanese accent, japanese intonation, japanese prosody, iranian learners.

GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 339999



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



© 2018. Norouzi Tayebeh. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creative-commons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

On Persian Japanese Intonation

Norouzi Tayebeh

Abstract- The aim of this study is to investigate learners' acquisition of Japanese lexical accent in different prosodic environments. Nineteen Iranian learners and one Japanese native speaker participated in the experiment and were asked to pronounce a dialogue using the same three-mora non-word in three different positions in the dialogue. The results show that native speaker pronounce the non-word with three possible accent types: *Atamadaka-gata* (i.e., the first mora has a high pitch (H) and all subsequent morae have low pitches (L)), *nakadaka-gata* (i.e., one or more than one mora that is neither the first nor the last within that word has a high pitch) and *heiban-gata* (i.e., the first mora has a low pitch and all subsequent morae have a higher pitch, and the pitch gradually lowers). However, accent realization does not change in different prosodic environments. On the other hand, when analyzing the Iranian learners' pronunciation, a total of seven accent types were recognized, and the results demonstrate that accent realization differs by prosodic environment: while LHL (an accent form like *nakadaka-gata*) appears frequently in a focal environment, LHH (an accent form like *heiban-gata*), which is similar to a Persian accent, is realized more in other environments such as neutral or post-focal environments. The above result suggests that since, at the beginning of conversation sentences and in focal environments, the learners' degree of consciousness is higher than for the whole conversation, L1 interference is less likely to occur.

Keywords: japanese accent, japanese intonation, japanese prosody, iranian learners.

I. Introduction

Since Japanese uses pitch to mark certain morae in utterances, it is considered a pitch accent language. It is very similar to Persian, as Persian uses pitch accents in its into national system. However, there are fundamental differences between the two languages. In this section, we provide a brief overview of Japanese prosody, highlighting the similarities and differences between Japanese and Persian.

First, Japanese, like Persian, only has two levels for prosodic organization: accentual phrase (AP) and intonation phrase (IP). AP is a sequence of low (L) and high (H) tones and has only one type of pitch accent. One or more APs make up the larger unit, IP, which is followed by a boundary tone (i.e., a rise or fall in pitch that occurs in speech at the end of each IP).

According to Japanese lexical accent characteristics, the pitch rises at the AP head, and if there is an *accento-kaku*, the pitch falls immediately after. This *accento-kaku* is discriminable and has been identified as the most important feature of the Japanese accent. Therefore, the existence or position of this *accento-kaku* creates more than one accent pattern. Accent patterns in Japanese may be described as either *kifuku-shiki* (accented) or *heiban-shiki* (unaccented). *Kifuku-shiki* is further divided into *atamadaka-gata* (i.e., the first mora has a high pitch (H) and all subsequent morae have a low pitch (L)), *nakadaka-gata* (i.e., one or more than one mora that is neither the first nor the last within that word has a high pitch), and *odaka-gata* (i.e., the first mora has a low pitch and all subsequent morae have a higher pitch, and the pitch falls suddenly when followed by certain particles). However, there are no subcategories to *heiban-shiki*. When contrasting *heiban-shiki* with the above subcategories of *kifuku-shiki*, it is typical to use the word *heiban-gata* (i.e., the first mora has a low pitch and all subsequent morae have a higher pitch; the pitch falls gradually).

In a stress accent language like Persian, the accent of nouns, adjectives, and most adverbs falls on the final syllable of the prosodic word (hereafter, "word") and thus, the accented syllable position is predictable in most words. In addition, Persian has the concept of *nuclear pitch accent* (hereafter "NPA"). In other words, only the final AP of an utterance or IP is perceived as more prominent by the listener. Only the final AP has a low boundary tone while other APs have a high boundary tone (Sadat-Tehrani 2007). NPA, which is also known as a *sentence accent*, is absent in Japanese.

A third difference between the two languages that is related to the above concept is the case of focus realization. Japanese, like Persian, applies pitch range expansion in order to mark focus. Focal prominence has a remarkable effect on the following component as well as on the focused component itself. In other words, focal prominence brings prosodic subordination to the following APs. In Japanese, this subordination may delete the tone sequence that marks the boundary between two APs, but it does not delete the tone sequence of accent, and, actually, the post-focal accents are maintained. In Persian, on the other hand, the NPA falls on the focused component, and a complete dephasing occurs in the following APs. Since Persian uses NPA and Japanese does not, Persian learners of Japanese may find it difficult to realize accents in positions where an NPA is not present.

The above differences may cause language interaction during language acquisition; that is, Persian speakers' first language (L1) may interfere with their pronunciation of Japanese as a second language. Since pronunciation is greatly affected by L1 and since no explicit and systematic prosody education is provided to learners of Japanese, it is expected that learners will not

Author: University of Tsukuba. e-mail: tyb_nrz@yahoo.com

© 2018 Global Journals

be able to pronounce Japanese sentences while consciously maintaining the accent of words in various prosody environments.

Given the above information about the Japanese lexical accent (hereafter "accent"), it has been assumed that the topic of accent has long been a complex issue in Japanese language education; many studies have been conducted to investigate the realization and perception of the Japanese accent by learners of Japanese. The results have demonstrated that although *nakadaka-gata* is the most difficult accent type to perceive, most words are realized in the pattern of *nakadaka-gata*, in particular the pitch fall after the second to last mora of a word. However, only a few studies have focused on the effect of prosodic environment on the realization of accent.

To fill this gap, this study aims to investigate how different prosodic environments influence the realization of accent in Iranian learners of Japanese. We hope to clarify not only the details of Iranian learners' accent realization, but also its acquisition in various prosodic environments.

II. Purpose and Hypotheses

This study aims to investigate how Persian learners of Japanese realize accent in different prosodic environments. Given the above information, in this research, we will test the following hypotheses:

1. The tendency of accent realization will differ between APs receiving NPA (when the prosodic environment is strong) and APs not receiving NPA (when prosody is neutral or weak).
2. The accent rules of Persian will be introduced with respect to word accent, and accents will thus be placed at the end of the word.

III. Experiment

a) Material

Based on the characteristics mentioned in section 1, previous studies investigating Japanese learners' accent realization have focused on the accuracy of accent type by examining readers' reading of word lists (Sukegawa 1999, Nakato 2001). However, words are not usually uttered in isolation and since prosody elements such as sentence structure and intonation influence accent, the realization of accent is considered to differ in the case of reading a sentence than a single word. However, it is considered difficult to use free utterances as material for analysis and comparison, as the utterance amount, vocabulary, prosodic environment, etc., differ for each utterer (Ayusawa 2003).

Ayusawa (2003) thus proposed a test to investigate accent acquisition status with respect to nouns. She suggested setting up a dialogue in which the target nouns would be situated at several locations throughout the dialogue. If a noun is pronounced correctly in all locations, it can be inferred that the accent type of this noun has been acquired. Moreover, even when the accent type is not correct, if the same pitch pattern is used in different sentences, it can be surmised that the utterer is conscious of word accents.

In this study, based on Ayusawa (2003), a short dialogue was designed to test whether accent realization differs between different prosodic environments. We constructed a dialogue in which three positions were used as the target prosodic environments: environment 1 is a prominent location; environment 2 is a neutral location; and environment 3 is a post-focal location. Twenty non-words were then used to determine the lexical accent realization by Iranian learners. We applied non-words to control the effect of word frequency or possible acquisition on the realization of accent. The target dialogue is provided below:

A: Osake desu ka?
Is that sake?

B: Osake janakute, (non-word) desu.
It's not osake, it's (non-word).

A: Sou desuka. (non-word) wa, dare no (non-word) desuka?
I see. Whose (non-word) is that (non-word)?
(The underlined positions are focused.)

b) Subjects

Nineteen Iranian learners of Japanese whose native language is Persian participated in the experiment. The subjects ranged in age from 20 to 23 and had a basic proficiency level. A female native speaker of Tokyo Japanese also participated as a control target.

c) Procedure

First, before the main experiment, participants signed a letter of consent in which they were fully informed about the purpose of the experiment and were assured that their voices would not be used for non-academic purposes. Then, to avoid unnatural pronunciation, the subjects were asked to memorize the dialogue until they could say it by heart and become accustomed to the experiment environment. They were then asked to repeat the dialogue using the same non-words in the target locations each time. Finally, they were paid for participating in the experiment. Subjects' utterances were recorded in a sound studio and the data were digitized.

d) Measurements

For the phonological description, two trained native speakers were paid to evaluate the non-word accent realized by Iranian learners. To reduce the influence from factors other than the target environment as much as possible and also to reduce the burden on the judges, the dialogues pronounced by the learners

© 2018 Global Journals

were edited so that only sentences including the non-words remained while the other parts were excluded.

The native speakers were asked to label the accent of target non-word sets in each dialogue using L or H. For convenience, only the pitch tracks of the target location were extracted and the time between these positions was removed. The native speaker judgments were conducted individually, and a kappa coefficient test found that the coincidence rate between judges was k =.76. Thus, it was considered that there was sufficient reliability. Discrepancies between evaluators were settled through consultation.

For the acoustic analysis, the pitch tracks were extracted using Praat software ver. 6.0.43 (Boersma & Weenink 2010).

IV. Results

Table 1 shows the accent realization tendency of the native speakers by environment. Three accent types, "HLL," "LHH" (flat plate type), and "LHL" were confirmed. "HLL" (80%) was considerably more common than "LHL" (10%) and "LHH" (10%). However, each non-word was realized with the same accent type in all environments.

Table 1: Accent types and their frequency observed in the utterances of native speakers

Accent type (%)				
Environment	HLL	LHL	LHH	Total
1 focus	16(80)	2(10)	2(10)	20(100)
2 neutral	16(80)	2(10)	2(10)	20(100)
3 post-focal	16(80)	2(10)	2(10)	20(100)
total	48(80)	6(10)	6(10)	60(100)

Table 2 shows Iranian learners' accent realization tendency by environment. As can be seen, overall, seven accent types ("LHH" (3.14%), "HLH" (1.92%), "LHL" (19.64%), "HLL" (13.15%), "LLH" (8.07%), "HHH" (3.24%) and "LLL" (0.79%)) were confirmed. Among these, the realization frequency of "LHH" (53.15%) was the highest.

A chi square test was conducted to examine whether there was any significant difference between the frequency of the above seven accent types depending on the environment, and a significant difference was observed (χ^2 (12) = 558.207, p <. 01 *Cramer's V* = 0.495). Therefore, residual analysis was conducted (Table 2). The results demonstrate that in environment 1, "LHL" (38.95%), "HLL" (21.05%), "LLH" (8.94%), and "HHH" (5%) occurred more than other accent types, while the occurrence frequency of "LHH" (6.86%) which was generally overwhelmingly high, was significantly low. In environment 2, "LHH" (72.10%) occurred more frequently, indicating that the frequency of other accent types was significantly reduced. In environment 2, as in environment 3, "LHH" (80.52%) occurred the most while the frequency of other accent types decreased.

Table 2: Accent types and their frequency observed in the utterances of learners

Accent type (%)								
Environment	LHL	HLL	LLH	HHH	HLH	LLL	LHH	Total
focal	148(38.95)▲	80(21.05)▲	73(19.21)▲	34(8.94)▲	19 (5) ▲	0▽	26 (6.86) ▽	380(100)
neutral	48 (12.63) ▽	32 (8.42) ▽	19 (5) ▽	3 (0.79)▽	2(0.52)▽	2 (0.52)	274(72.10)▲	380(100)
post-focal	28 (7.36) ▽	38 (10) ▽	0▽	0▽	1(0.26)▽	7(1.84)▲	306(80.52)▲	380(100)
total	224 (19.64)	150 (13.15)	92 (8.07)	37 (3.24)	22(1.92)	9 (0.79)	606 (53.15)	380(100)

V. Discussion

In section 4, the accent tendencies of native speakers and learners were described based on the auditory impression of native speakers. In this section, we compare the utterances of the Japanese native speaker with the utterances of Persian learners and describe how the prosodic environment affects the realization of accent. Before analyzing the prosody realization in each utterance, it is necessary to explicate the prosody of Japanese related to the sentences applied in this study. In section 5.1, we first summarize the prosodic features of the potential accent type of the word and the prosodic features of the dialogue in standard Japanese. We then describe the accent realization of the native speaker and learners observed in each prosodic environment.

a) Japanese Prosody

As defined by Matsuzaki and Kawano (2010: 34), "The arrangement of relative height and strength which is arbitrarily decided as a social custom in relation to each word, is called 'accent.'" However, the rules of arrangement of this height and strength differ depending on languages and dialects. There are two rules for the accent type of the Tokyo dialect: (1) the heights of the first and second morae differ; (2) once the tone falls, it does not rise again. In Tokyo dialect, n + 1 accent types are potentially allowed for n-morae words. However, there is not an equal number of words in each accent type. For example, in three-mora words there are

© 2018 Global Journals

theoretically four accent types of accent: *atamadaka-gata* (indicated like "HLL"), *nakadaka-gata* (indicated like "LHL"), and *odaka-gata* and *heiban-gata* (indicated like "LHH"). However, in actuality, their frequencies are not equivalent (Matsuzaki & Kawano 2010).

On the other hand, it is said that the pronunciation of loanwords that have not yet been fully assimilated into the language reflect the accent system of the language in a simplified form, and such a word is pronounced with a specific accent type (Kubono & Ota 1998). Specifically, in the Tokyo dialect, there is a rule that, for loanwords, "*Accento-Kaku* is applied to the third mora counted from the leftmost edge of a prosodic word" (Kubono & Ota 1998: 81). Although loanwords were not used in this research, if we consider the target words as new loanwords for which the pronunciation of the original word is unknown, it is expected that they would be pronounced as HLL (*atamadaka-gata*) types by native speakers of the Tokyo dialect.

As mentioned above, environment 1 was the environment with focus. The focal point does not normally change the accent type, but it is one of the elements of focus in which the pitch range of the focused phrase is expanded (Kori 1997). Therefore, it can be assumed that "HLL" is environmentally friendly for environment 1, that environment 2 is a neutral environment but "HLL" can easily be applied as in environment 1, and that environment 3 is an interrogative question sentence, and comprises the environment immediately after the interrogative word in which prominence is easily placed.

Another feature of the focus is that the AP after the focal point is reduced and its independence disappears. In other words, the focused AP integrates with the immediately following AP to form one IP. Accordingly, it is assumed that in *dareno* 'whose' (interrogative word), prominence is placed on the interrogative, the pitch range of the interrogative is expanded, the accent realization of the following non-words is reduced, and one IP is formed. It is thought that in this way, the accent is weakened. Therefore, it can be assumed that the accent of the word in environment 3 is realized as "HLL" as in environments 1 and 2. In other words, non-words will be realized in the same accent type in all three environments.

b) Accent realization by the native speaker and learners

First, we will describe the tendency of prosody realization in each environment based on the native speaker's typical pitch patterns (Figures 1 to 3). Then, we will describe the tendency of prosody realization in each environment based on the learners' typical pitch patterns (Figures 4 to 12) For convenience, we extracted environments 1 to 3 and deleted pauses from the utterances. The horizontal axis represents time (seconds), while the vertical axis represents height; that is, the fundamental frequency (F0) of the sound. The scale of the height is indicated by a semitone value (st) based on 100 Hz. Similar to other languages, the pitch differs between men and women (Ayusawa 1991).

i. *Native speaker's prosody*

Since environment 1 is the environment in which prominence is placed, as can be seen from Figures 1 to 3, the pitch range of non-words is expanded. The pitch suddenly descends immediately after the mora on which the *accento-kaku* is placed. Similarly, in environment 2, the pitch suddenly falls immediately after the mora on which the *accento-kaku* is placed and does not rise to the end of the AP, including the particle "wa." In environment 3, prominence is placed on the question word *dareno* 'whose', and the AP, including the non-word, is weakened. Finally, "ka" of the final mora is realized with a rising tone. As mentioned earlier, in this experiment, the native speaker pronounced non-words as "HLL," "LHL," and "LHH." Of these, the "HLL" type was the most common. However, in all environments, words were realized with similar accent types.

ii. *Learners' prosody*

The non-words used in this study may be pronounced with various accent types by individuals. Specifically, as mentioned earlier, for three-syllable words, there are theoretically four possible accent types: "HLL," "LHL," "LHH" (*odaka-gata*), and "LHH" (*heiban-gata*). However, if the same non-words are realized with similar accents in various environments and realized at an appropriate height according to the environment, it can be said that, overall, accent and intonation have been acquired.

In accent realization by learners, "LHH" and "LLH" are similar to the Persian accent, but "LHH" (53.15%) occurred many times, while the incidence of "LLH" (8.07%) was extremely low.

In environment 1, non-words are pronounced with emphasis at the beginning of an independent phrase, despite appearing after the phase "*osake janakute.*" As mentioned in the section 4, environment 1 has many variations of accent type as individual differences are large. Examining the learners' pitch patterns (Figures 4 to 12), we may observe that the accent tendency differs among individuals. There are also accent patterns such as "HLH," "LLH," and "HHH" that violate the accent rule of the Tokyo dialect among the seven accent types that have been confirmed. Overall, "LHL" (38.95%) and "HLL" (21.05%) are the most frequent. However, regardless of accent type, the pitch rage is sufficiently expanded. In other words, since in Persian, as in Japanese, prominence is realized by expansion of the pitch range, positive transfer allows learners to pronounce accented words with a focus at an appropriate degree of realization.

In the neutral utterance of environment 2, the accent types ("LHL," "LLH," "HLL," "HHH," "HLH") that occurred frequently in environment 1 decreased

© 2018 Global Journals

significantly, whereas in environment 1, the less frequent "LHH" was significantly higher than the other accent types (72.10%).

Environment 2 appears at the beginning of the sentence and forms an independent AP followed by the particle "wa." The accent of the target word of environment 2 should be realized using the same type of accent as in environment 1. However, as can be seen from Figures 4 to 12, two patterns were used. These are a pattern (Figures 4 to 7) in which the same accent type as environment 1 was realized and a pattern in which an accent type different from environment 1 was realized (Figures 8 to 12).

Regarding the first pattern, since the learners were already conscious of the word accent, they used the same accent type as for environment 1. However, for the second pattern, no appropriate rise is seen in the phrase head, and the pitch is realized in a nearly flat form just before the end of the phrase. As described in the results, this pattern was judged to be LHH.

On the other hand, a certain pattern can be seen in the tone at the end of the phrase. As observed in Figures 4 to 12, at the end of the phrase, Iranian learners (1) prominently pronounced the particle "wa" at the end of a phrase (Figures 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11), (2) give a rise to particle "wa" at the end of the phrase (Figure 6), or (3) lengthen particle "wa" at the end of the phrase (Figure 11). This can be regarded as a "habit of learners who rebuild new phrases by resetting every word" (Matsuzaki 2001: 239). However, the accent of the non-word in environment 2 is influenced by the phrase boundary tone and becomes "LHH."

Based on the above, when we summarize the procurement situation of environments 1 and 2, if words are pronounced with a similar accent type in both environments, and if the end of the sentence falls in tone, then it can be said that, on the pitch curve, the prosody became similar to that of the native speaker. Examining the learners' pitch patterns, prosody such as that above can be said to be realized only in S1 and S2 (Figures 4 and 5), and Japanese prosody can be learned.

In the next step, we see the intonation of interrogative sentences and the realization of accent weakening.

As confirmed in Table 2, after the focus of environment 3, "LHH" and "LLL" occur most frequently. Environment 3 is an interrogative. In Japanese interrogatives, (1) the focus is placed on the interrogative, (2) the words in AP immediately following the interrogative word are subordinated until the end of the sentence, and finally, (3) the final mora of the IP rises.

As shown in Figures 4 to 12, focus was placed on interrogatives in the utterances of all members except learner 12, and non-words immediately following an interrogative word weakened until the end of the sentence. The accents of non-words pronounced in environment 3 were judged as "LHH."

In order to examine whether this is due to the influence of Persian prosody, we will first discuss the intonation of Persian sentences. As mentioned in Sadat-Tehrani (2007), for Persian interrogatives, like in Japanese, prominence is placed on the interrogative word, the pitch range of the interrogative word is expanded, and the following AP is weakened. In addition, the sentence final tone of the simple interrogative is high, while the sentence final tone of the interrogative with a question word is low.

If Persian prosody is at work, it would be expected that learners' 'whose (non-word) is that?' would be realized by a falling tone. However, as seen in Figures 4 to 12, most of the Iranian learners were able to realize this question using a correct tone: that is, the rising tone. Specifically, the pitch range of *dare* 'who' was expanded due to prominence, and the AP of the non-word immediately after it was weakened. Finally, the end of the sentence was realized with a rising tone.

On the other hand, the final tone of the interrogative question sentence may be a cause of the "LHH" in environment 3. As mentioned above, the final tone of Japanese interrogatives is a rising tone, and the rise usually occurs at the last mora of the sentence. However, the rise of interrogatives by Iranian learners began before the final mora. Thus, in environment 3, the non-words were realized with LHH. In pronouncing *dare* 'who', there were cases in which the pronunciation was followed by a pause between the interrogative word *dare* 'who' and the target non-words, and cases in which the pronunciation was continued without pauses, as well. However, in both cases, the accent of nonwords was realized in a weakened form.

From the above, it can be said that beginner learners are able to acquire the final tone of Japanese interrogatives. However, since the accent of environment 3 is realized in a type different from environments 1 or 2 and in a form that rises toward the end of the sentence, it can be assumed that the accent type of the word is also influenced by the prosodic environment in environment 3. Therefore, the learners have already acquired intonation and are conscious of intonation, but they are not conscious of accent.

Ayusawa (1993) pointed out that the intonation of interrogatives is acquired in the following seven stages:

1. Step of pronouncing like L1 intonation.
2. Acquiring rising tone and pronouncing all interrogatives in the rising tone
3. Acquiring intonation of interrogatives with question words
4. Acquiring the final rising tone of interrogatives *desuka?* and *masuka?*

© 2018 Global Journals

5. Level of acquiring discrimination between *nakadakagata* and *heibangata*
6. Acquiring rising tone at the end of words with accent type -2 (i.e., the *accento-kaku* falls on the second-to-last mora).
7. Acquiring the rising tone when the word ends with n or a long vowel.

Given the above acquisition stages, it can be assumed that the rising tone at the end of the sentence is acquired earlier than accent. Our study confirms this assumption. Iranian learners have acquired the correct final tone of interrogatives as well as dephasing the words immediately after the focus. However, they have not yet acquired the correct accent.

Utsugi (2004) noted that the Japanese accent is ignored, regardless of the presence or absence of the focus in learners' utterances, and the peak of the pitch appears on the second mora of the phrase as a whole. Similar results have been found for Brazilians in Sukegawa (1999) and for Koreans in Nakato (2001). From this, it can be considered that "LHL" is relatively frequently common in Japanese utterances by foreigners, and one interpretation of this is that the "LHL" has been formed based on learners' intermediate language strategy. However, this study shows that "LHL" occurs only on the focus point and declaratives.

c) Consciousness

In the above, we have explained the accent realization and effect of prosody of Iranian learners of Japanese. In this section, we will consider the learners' accent realization from the viewpoint of consciousness. The focus of environment 1 is the part that conveys the important information of the sentence, but it is also the starting point of the conversation sentence in the order of presentation. In this environment, the learners' degree of consciousness is higher than for the whole conversation. For this reason, students are conscious of words and pronunciation, so L1 interference is less likely to occur (Min 1989). On the other hand, in environments 2 and 3, learners have no place to speak emphatically, and gradually tend to allocate attention to the content of utterances, as the degree of consciousness of pronunciation is lower than for environment 1. Therefore, L1 interference becomes strong. The relationship between consciousness and realization of accent is also indicated in Min (1989), and when the learner consciously pronounces it, a change in pitch appears. However, because it violates the accent rule of Japanese, it is not like Japanese.

VI. Conclusion

In this study, 19 students with a basic proficiency level were targeted, and two hypotheses were developed to verify the accent realization tendency and influence of prosody in units larger than words. As a result of the investigation, Hypothesis 1, that different accent tendencies will emerge for AP receiving sentence accent (when the prosodic environment is strong) and AP not receiving sentence accent (in cases where the prosody is neutral or weak), was verified. Specifically, in the case of the focal environment, the stress accent characteristics are likely to appear, while in other circumstances, the accent tends to be flat. Furthermore, although learners are conscious of accent, their pronunciation may be influenced by the intonation of a phrase or sentence ending.

Hypothesis 2 was that "Persian accent rules will be applied in regard to word accent so that accents are placed at the end of the word." The study found that in the focus environment, other factors than L1 interaction affected learners' accent realization. In the past, we have noted the use of L1 interference in accent realization as well as the interlanguage strategy used by learners. However, in this study, it became clear that the influence of each factor varies depending on the environment. Specifically, in the case of a focus environment, since learners' consciousness of accent is high, a strategy other than L1 interference is used. On the other hand, if there is no focus, the learners' accent consciousness level is low, and the influence of L1 is clearly evident.

The target environments in this research differed in terms of sentence position (i.e., environment 2 in the middle of a phrase, environment 2 leftmost of phrase) and sentence type (i.e., declarative or interrogative). In future work, we will further examine learners' realization of accents / intonation of learners' words by unifying the prosodic environment. In addition, as a result of using only three-mora non-words, LHL occurred more frequently. In the next step, we will investigate how the realization of accent and intonation changes depending on the number of morae.

© 2018 Global Journals

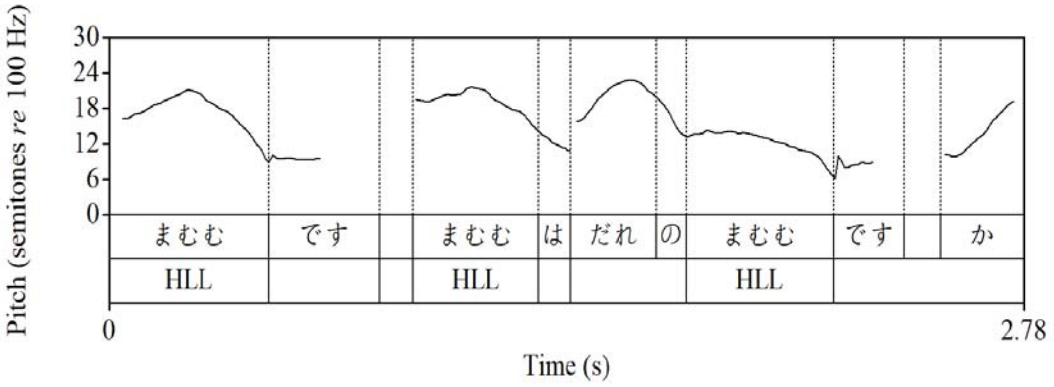


Figure 1: Utterance by native speaker (Female) (H)

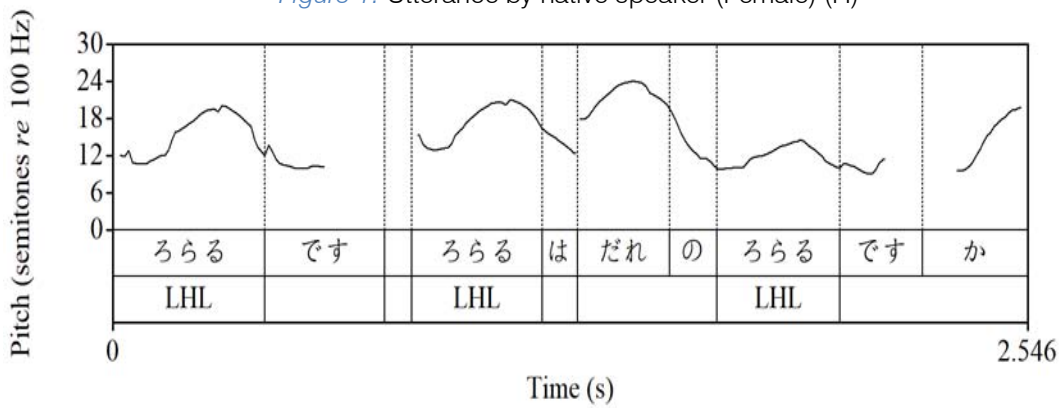


Figure 2: Utterance by native speaker (Female) (LHL)

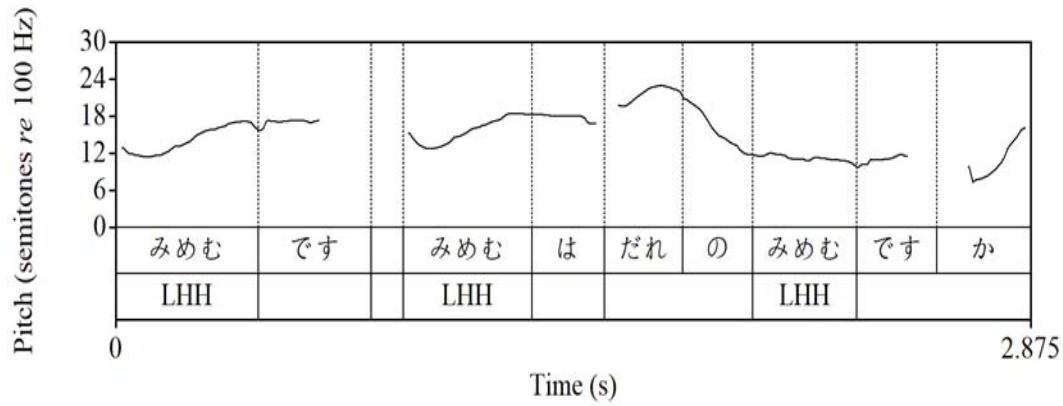


Figure 3: Utterance by native speaker (Female) (LHH)

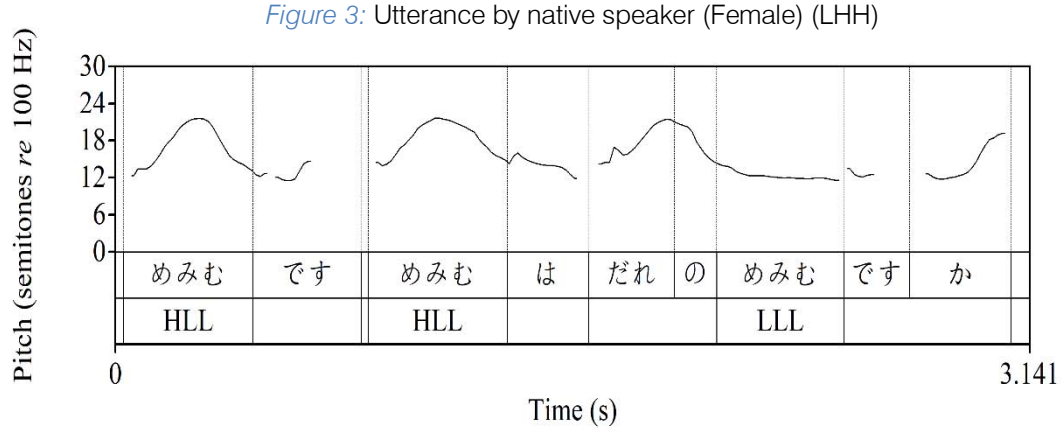


Figure 4: Utterance by S1 (Female)

© 2018 Global Journals

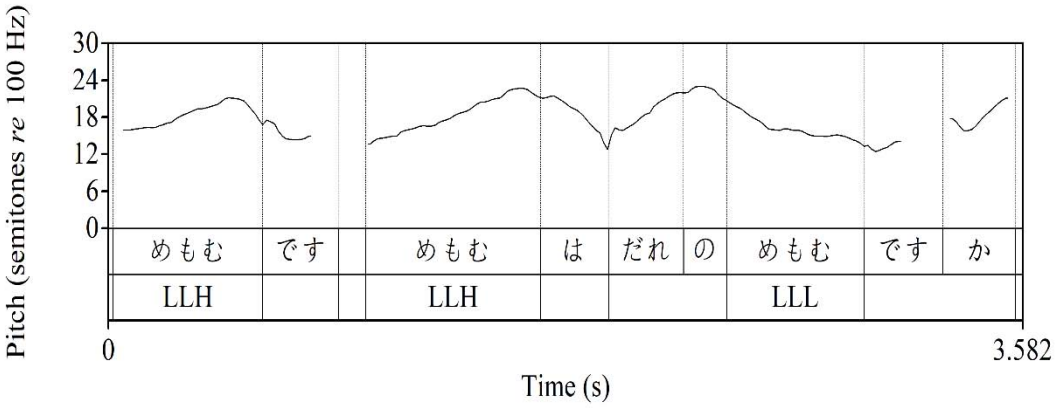


Figure 5: Utterance by S2 (Female)

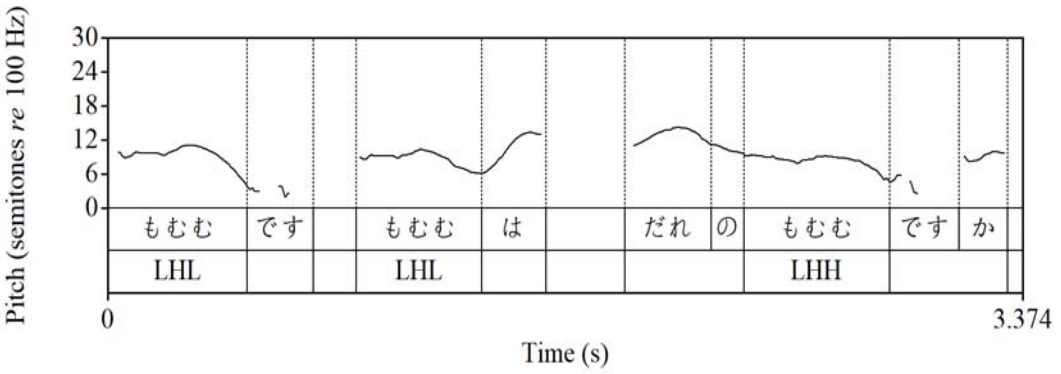


Figure 6: Utterance by S3 (Male)

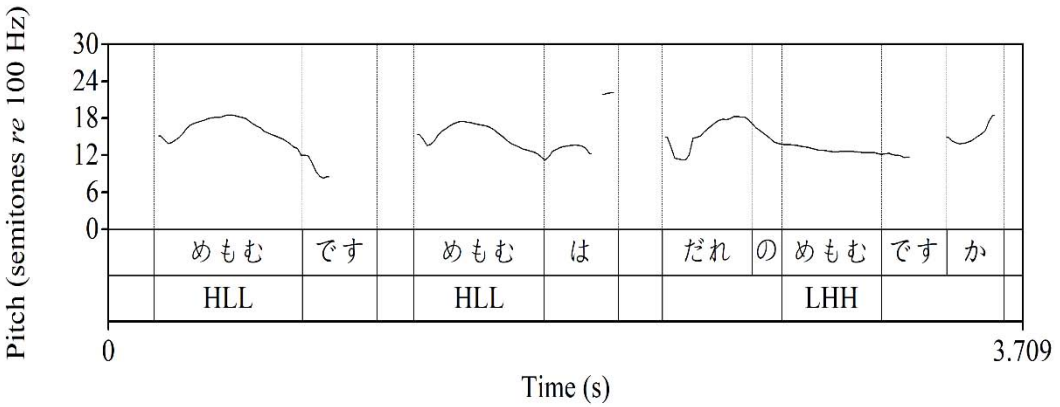


Figure 7: Utterance by S4 (Female)

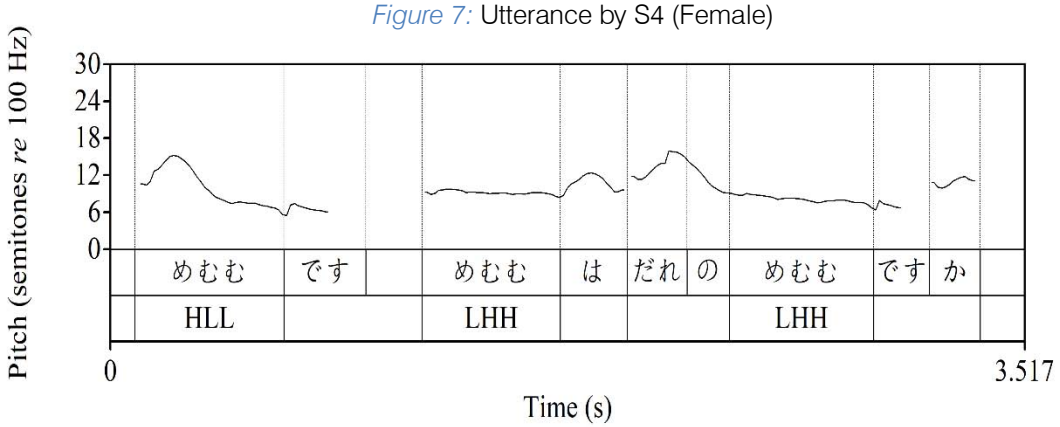


Figure 8: Utterance by S5 (Male)

© 2018 Global Journals

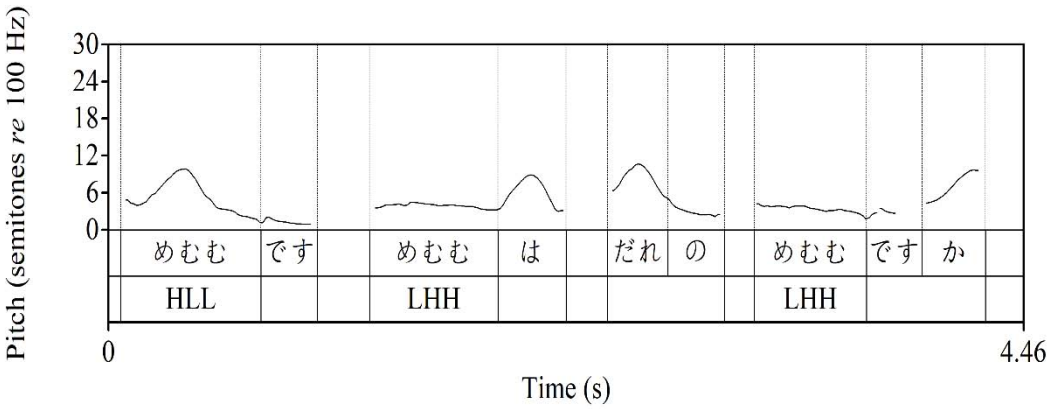


Figure 9: Utterance by S6 (Male)

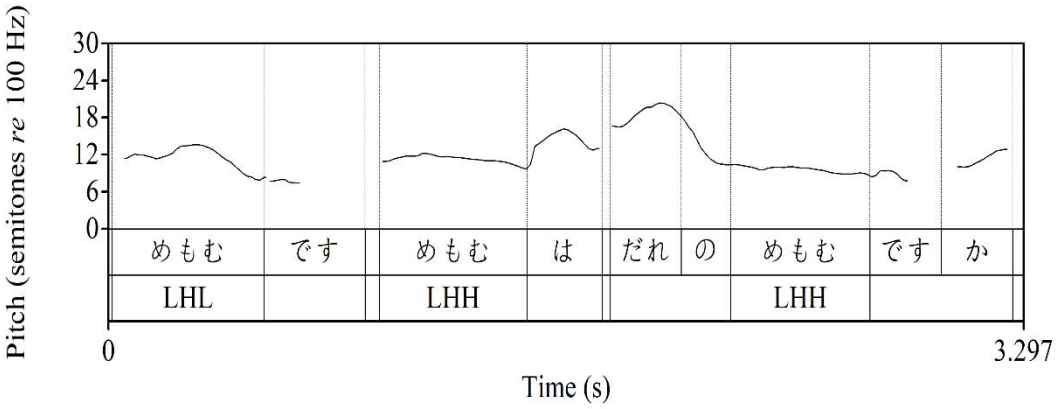


Figure 10: Utterance by S7 (Female)

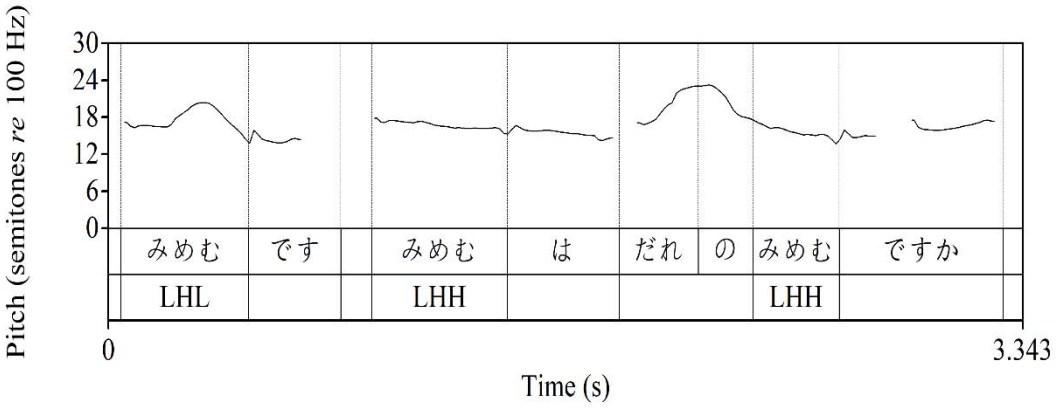


Figure 11: Utterance by S8 (Female)

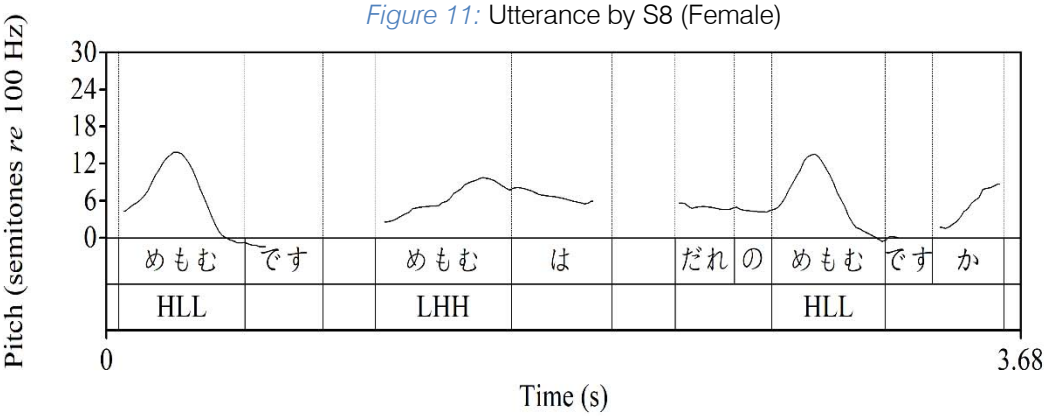


Figure 12: Utterance by S9 (Mmale)

© 2018 Global Journals

References Références Referencias

1. Ayusawa, Takako. (1991) Intonation and Japanese language teaching. *Japanese Language Linguistics*, 10 (7): 98-113.
2. Ayusawa, Takako. (1993) Intonation of learners of Japanese - acquisition of intonation of the Tokyo Japanese interrogatives -. In: Open Symposium of University and Science Organizing Committee. *Internationalizing Japanese*: *Spoken Language Science and Speech Education*, Tokyo: Kubapuro, 165-172.
3. Ayusawa, Takako. (2003) Acquisition of Japanese accents and intonation by foreign learners. *Journal of the Phonetic Society of Japan*, 7(2): 47-58.
4. Boersma, P., & Weenink, D. (2015) Praat: Doing phonetics by computer (Version 5.1.25) [Computer program]. Retrieved from http://www.praat.org/.
5. Kori, Shiro. (1997) Japanese intonation - type and function-, In: Sugitou, Miyoko, Kunihiro, Tetsuya, Kowano, Morio, Hirose, Hajime. *Accent, Intonation, Rhythm and Pause*, Tokyo: Sanshodo, 69-199.
6. Kori, Shiro. (2004) A new analysis of accent in Tokyo Japanese: About handling rise of the beginning of the word. *Japanese Language Studies*, 55(2): 16-31.
7. Kori, Shiro. (2008) Accent reduction and restrictive modification in Tokyo Japanese. *Journal of the Phonetic Society of Japan*, 12(1): 34-53.
8. Kori, Shiro. (2012) Restrictive modification and realization of lexical accents in Tokyo Japanese: A quantitative study. *Journal of Language and Culture Studies*, 38: 1-22.
9. Kubono, Haruo, and Ota, Satoshi. (1998) *Phonological Structure and Accent*. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.
10. Matsuzaki, Hiroshi and Kawano, Toshiyuki (2010) *Phonetics for Succeeding with Japanese Language Education Proficiency Test*, Tokyo: Aruku.
11. Matsuzaki, Hiroshi. (2001) Speech education in Japanese. In: Jouo, Hakutaro. *Japanese Education Series Volume 3 Computer Phonetics*, Tokyo: Oufuu, 207-258.
12. Min, Mitsujun. (1989) Prosodic feature in Japanese speech of Korean speaker and its evaluation by Japanese speaker. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, 68: 175-190.
13. Nakato, Yasue. (2001) Pitch realization of Korean learners of Japanese in word reading. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, 109: 80-89.
14. Pierrehumbert, J. B., and Beckman, M. E. (1988) *Japanese Tone Structure*. Cambridge, MA & London: MIT Press.
15. Sadat-Tehrani, Nima. (2007) *The Intonational Grammar of Persian*. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Manitoba.
16. Sukegawa, Yasuhiko. (1999) Pitch realization of 2/3-mora-words by Brazilian learners of Japanese. *Journal of the Phonetic Society of Japan*, 3(3): 13-25.
17. Yamada, Nobuko. (1994) Steps in the acquisition of Japanese lexical accent: The case of foreign learners. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, 85: 108-120.

© 2018 Global Journals

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 18 Issue 12 Version 1.0 Year 2018
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Designing a Course with Critical Thinking Focus: Developing basic English Skills for the Students of Computer Science and Engineering at a Private University of Bangladesh

By Shamima Sultana
State University of Bangladesh

Abstract- This article suggests some critical thoughts about a four months English course for the students of Computer Sciences and Engineering titled 'Developing Basic English Skills" for general academic and professional purposes. The primary aim of this paper is to exhibit how the course can be designed by critical thinking and by following some well-established strategies with the help of needs analysis. Some new approaches like flipped approach along with lecture and multimedia presentation the class was conducted by the researcher for the group of students from CSE, first semester in a private university in Bangladesh.

Keywords: strategies, designed by critical thinking, developing basic english skills, flipped approach, course design.

GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 200399, 200302

DESIGNINGACOURSEWITHCRITICALTHINKINGFOCUSDEVELOPINGBASICENGLISHSKILLSFORTHESTUDENTSOFCOMPUTERSCIENCEANDENGINEERINGATAPRIVATEUNIVERSITYOFBANGLADESH

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

© 2018. Shamima Sultana. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creative-commons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Designing a Course with Critical Thinking Focus: Developing basic English Skills for the Students of Computer Science and Engineering at a Private University of Bangladesh

Shamima Sultana

Abstract- This article suggests some critical thoughts about a four months English course for the students of Computer Sciences and Engineering titled 'Developing Basic English Skills" for general academic and professional purposes. The primary aim of this paper is to exhibit how the course can be designed by critical thinking and by following some well-established strategies with the help of needs analysis. Some new approaches like flipped approach along with lecture and multimedia presentation the class was conducted by the researcher for the group of students from CSE, first semester in a private university in Bangladesh.

Keywords: strategies, designed by critical thinking, developing basic english skills, flipped approach, course design.

I. Introduction

For university education, students need to prepare themselves with adequate knowledge of the English language because in Bangladeshi privet universities with the recommendation of UGC initiated English as the medium of instruction. So English courses are offering to every school, Like the school of Business Administration, School of Social Sciences and School of Science and Technologies. The prime concerns of the courses are made every students able to read and write in English and to cope them up with English Lectures and presentations. From that intentions the researcher is taking a Developing Basic English Skills course with the students of BSc in Computer Sciences and Engineering for academic Purposes with context embedded language of everyday interaction and academic writings. The course designing for the course was the mixture of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and CSD (Communicative Syllabus Design) models.

The EGAP (English for general academic purpose) curriculum typically based on the consciousness of the students that in academia they should talk and write about their new plans and reading materials in a definite manner. It develops their "Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)". Cummins (1979).CALP builds on the students' acquisition of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) - the oral confidence required to act promptly for everyday's casual circumstances.

Developing Basic English Skills for general academic purposes course, which reflect a one-size fits all study-skills perspective on EGAP, are still offered to a considerable number of students in many university settings (Rogers, 2016:38) though these type of course fail to take adequate steps to develop a remarkable changes of individual disciplines. (Murray, 2016:2). Moreover, students enrolled on BSc in Computer science and Engineering program have already completed Higher Secondary Certificate, and therefore have had their fill of the study skills-based teaching-learning associated with Basic English Skills. Therefore, this Developing Basic English skills (DBES) for specific academic purposes course has been designed to reflect the academic literacy perspective, which lea and Street suggested as 'focuses on the literacy demands of the curriculum" involved multiplicity of communicative performances, as well as variety, and disciplines' (Lea and Street, 159). Along with the perception of Chomsky's (1965) concept of 'linguistic competence' has been censured as being too constricted, and now everybody believed that any theory of language must have the knowledge of the social features that form our selection and use of these structures. So Chomsky's concept has to be developed into a extensive notion of 'communicative competence', which relates the relationship between language and the appropriate particular condition (Campbell & Wales, 1970; Hymes, 1972). The paper will discuss how the course accomplishes development through designing critically to mitigate the problem of unwelcoming rural students.

II. Context

The course's with ESP (English for Specific Purposes) approach in which the teaching content is matched to the requirements by needs analysis of the learners tasked with authentic materials and tasks have been chosen and build up for medium-sized classes of 20-30 students. The course adopted a 'flipped' approach to giving lessons to make the course effective

Author: Sr. lecturer Dept. of English Studies State University of Bangladesh. e-mail: shamima@sub.edu.bd

© 2018 Global Journals

for the short duration of the course. For this reason, students required to work in pair and also separately with the sense of independence which motivated to develop the communicative performances. Which also help them to be self reliant in other courses of Computer Science and Engineering, because the medium of instruction and learning in university is English.

III. Course Type

Students of the university were all adults who already had connections with English after completing their HSC (Higher Secondary Certificate) and would like to learn the language properly for communication. As required by the University Grant Commission the university were suggested to initiate a new English course to prepare the students to be skilled in using English in their classes.

IV. The Approach

The basic approach to course design that is taken here is an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) the teaching content is matched to the requirements of the learners. So the researcher has done the needs analysis of the students by semi-structured discussions (interviews) with the students. The interviewers had eight guiding questions for finding out the real necessity the respondents. The interview questions were basically similar to the questions written on the questionnaires. For designing the course Bell's Language teaching syllabus design was in plan.(Bell,1981,p.36)

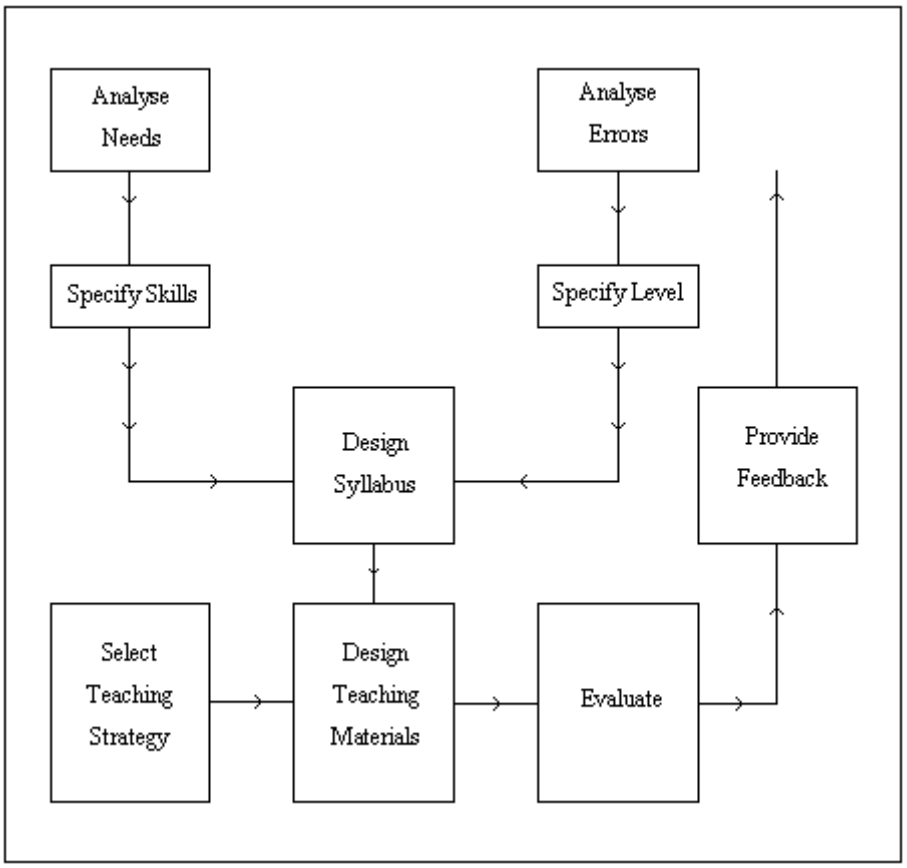


Figure 1: Language teaching syllabus design

a) Needs Analysis

The most useful model for analyzing linguistic needs is Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978). A basic view of the appropriate part of the model is showing bellow in figure 2.

© 2018 Global Journals

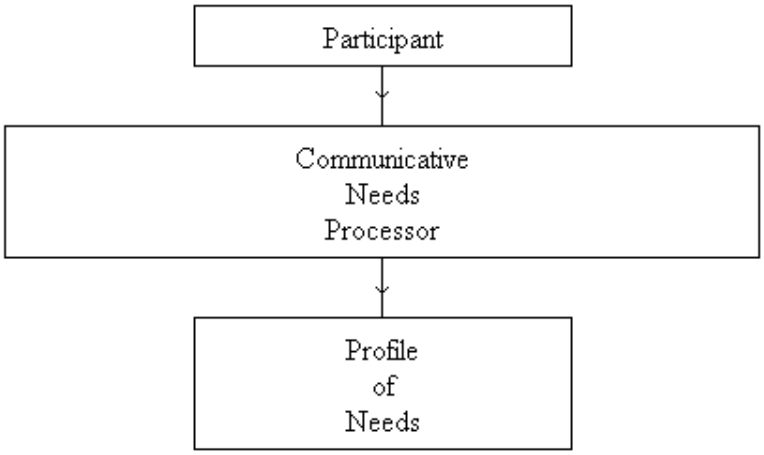


Fig. 2

The student of CSE for DBES course was the participants, and they let the researcher know their needs by some set of questions through that the researcher gathered their needs and made it a point for designing the course for specific students needs.

b) Key findings from the

In the face of the informal and small-scale nature of the NA, it provided affluent information about the students' goals and their necessities, requirements and deficiency. The key findings from the NA are summarized below. *Key findings:*

- Students are newly arrived in Dhaka and are highly motivated to do something new with new ways of learning, and they want to develop their speaking skills.
- Each of the student fulfilled the requirement for the BSC in computer science and engineering.(lowest CGPA 2.80)
- Most students are on the course did not meet the IELTS requirements.
- Classes are homogenous, with 100% of students are from Bangladesh.
- The field of reading and writing are most important in the BSC in computer science course because technical writing, exam writing (short answers), research-based writing are regular needs.
- Assessment is through written work (except six largely lab-based exams), with word counts ranging from 1000 words to 2000 words.
- Students have to give a 20-minute oral presentation in their last class to go with their lab reports.
- Lectures are the key mode of deliverance, but students also engage themselves in seminars, power point slide presentation sessions in group and individual performances.
- Students have accesses to the online library so a lot of the library research students comes to consult about research articles.
- Students are expectant to take their own notes during lectures for self-help.
- The CSE faculty is consist of of international lecturers and for some students understanding accents and international variations of English are challenging.(Malaysian English and American English)
- Students are expected to use Moodle as a guide of communication(among other things).

c) Needs Analysis and some negative reality of the students

- Inadequate background knowledge of the subjects students comes to study.
- Poor English language skills.
- Lack of motivations and enthusiasm.
- Taken for granted assumption that certificate or degrees are to be given, not earned.

V. Implications

The result of the needs analysis facilitate the researcher to prepare the design of the new English course that fit into the needs of the target audience, i.e, the students of the non-English Departments. After arranging the design, the researcher formed a list of books and online materials which were conducted in the classroom.

VI. Teaching Methodology

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was selected as the methodological approach of the Developing Basic English Skills course for its distinctive characteristics. First, this CLT methodology aims at communication and emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In CLT classes, learners are expectant to enthusiastically engage themselves in understanding others. Second, the responsibility of the teachers in CLT is also different from traditional teaching methods. The teachers act only as facilitators, allowing their students to be charge of their own learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The lecturers set up various communicative situations that the students are likely to

© 2018 Global Journals

encounter in real-life social contact, for example asking, requesting, getting permission, offering help, clarifycations or writing reports. The exercises are in the forms of games, role-plays, problem solving tasks, etc. In these exercises, the students are required to communicate their needs and thoughts using the target language. By applying CLT methodology in DBES classes, the students were anticipated to enhance their self-confidence in using the target language.

a) Expectations about course designing

At this stage, there are several situational issues to think before categorize learning outcomes (Fink, 2005).Questions related to the context of the course, the students, the institution, and the environment can help identify the course framework before shaping the learning outcomes for the course. The Course Design Cycle is a useful tool for ideas and working through the development, assessment, teaching and learning strategies, and continuous improvement of course design. So with the view of flower researcher found out the learning outcome given below.

b) Intended learning outcome (ILO)

Upon completion of the course, students will be able to:

- Communicate, both orally and in writing, in a more grammatically correct and appropriate way.
- Communicate effectively, and give formal presentations in a wide range of situations, without any inhibition or shyness.
- Students will be better able to process and produce the written and spoken texts archetypal of BSc computer science course.
- Students will have increased awareness of the different cultural standard and values of the universal context.
- Students will have engaged in a range of communicative activities to help them acclimatize to and function confidently in an interactive learning environment.
- As a Student of computer science will have developed the academic literacy to fulfill the requirements of an active member of the computer science communication community.
- In postgraduate level students will act with core academic skills acquisition and policies by self-help.

c) Course objectives (CO)

The course objectives articulate the detailed ways in which the goals will be achieved (Graves, 1996:17), therefore each objective mentions a course goal/s or intended learning outcomes. The objective of this course is to remedy certain lapses and weaknesses in the use of grammatical structures that students retain from their former learning in schools and colleges. It is found that although they have memorized many rules of grammar, they often lack competence in using them for actual communication in real life situations and academic purposes.

Students will require doing short, contextualized tasks covering a wide range of situations for the practice of grammar items and structures (such as the tense, subject-verb agreement, modals, etc.) as well as for developing new vocabulary.

d) During the course

- Students will identify the features of spoken and written texts that are distinctive of a BSc in computer science and engineering course, particularly research journal articles, examination questions, critical literature reviews, technical writing and, oral presentations.
- Students will be exposed to a range of international variations of spoken English (through the use of video) to better prepare them for instruction by international faculty. And through some songs lyric written in colloquial English.
- They will be introduced to role play with some mini dialogues to solve some problematic circumstances.
- Students will critically analyze and synthesize spoken and written Scientific research from multiple sources in order to adopt a stance and build a variance.
- Students will employ and build up a variety of learning tactics and academic proficiency (particularly vocabulary diaries, reading journals, newspapers, online study, forum discussion, corporate analysis, peer-reviewing, and self-evaluation) that will enable them to be efficient and autonomous graduate learners who can monitor and check their learning.

(ok till here)

VII. Findings from Classes

The course was offered to the students of 2nd semester of the undergraduate program of CSE, and the class size was consist of 20 students from different areas of Bangladesh and different family background. For their needs analysis, there were some questions asked where they admitted that the level of difficulty for the skill of listening was average (not very fair). While in speaking, 65% of the students found that delivering presentations was very complicated. Some students stated that to give a presentation using English was tough because they had to face the fright of stage in front of people, to look intelligent and attractive, and to use a language that they hardly ever used in their daily life. When asked about each skill of reading, 30% of the learners admitted that they had complexity in scanning reading texts. Some interviewee confessed that their reading speed was slow because they tried to understand each written word. At the end, these slow

© 2018 Global Journals

readers had complicatedness in their reading comprehension. Writing an essay or review was also considered complicated by 48% of the subjects. Some students said that it was difficult for them to apply their inadequate knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in writing. They already had problems in writing in Bangla (the mother tongue), thus it was even more difficult for them to write in a foreign language. When asked to grade the significance of each English skill in relation to their subject matter courses, most students also claimed that they needed speaking (45.5%), listening (32.9%), reading (56%) and writing for exam or other purposes (35%) to support their 1st and 2nd semester's study. The majority of students also emphasize to prefer speaking and writing to other skills. They also claimed needs about the other course teachers of their courses of computer science and engineering to take classes with English though it will be difficult for them to understand for some days they will cope by time as English is the medium of instruction.

To motivate them in learning English, the respondents asked the researcher to include some of the most interesting topics in their future English course namely entertainment, technology, tourism, career, business, and culture. Another suggested topic was sports and social media (10.6%). Students interviewed affirmed that it would be more motivated when topics presented were associated to their personal focus like music or sports. Sometimes the classes were fun through picture or painting description with the biography of some world-class painters and musicians. Listening lyrics of songs and filling blanks was real fun and test for their capability of listening.

Students and teachers of the department argued that they needed the mastery of speaking in English. In Bangladesh, at the beginning, people desired English reading knowledge in order to be global with the econo-technologically developed countries. As a result, it was tacit that reading must be the aim of teaching and learning English (Ahmad, 1997, p. 47).

However, as the exercises and utility of the English language continue to grow, now Bangladeshis need the language to play active roles in the advancement of technology, economy, trade and international politics. As a result, the students should be given opportunities to master the English language for communicative purposes and academic purposes.

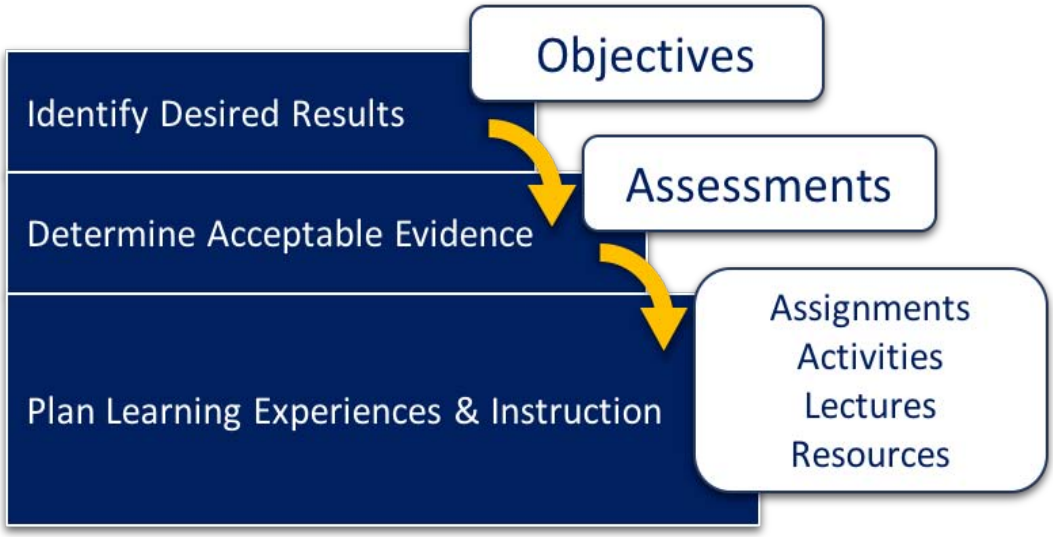
a) Designing a DBES course: (course content)

Students who are able to think critically are able to solve problems effectively. To be effective in the workplace (and in their personal lives), students must be able to solve problems to make effective decisions; they must be able to think critically. The course design ought to leave enough space for the students to ponder upon:

- Their thoughts and opinions on the issues being taught.
- The source and reasons of the opinions and thoughts.
- The implications of b new knowledge.
- Possible areas of applying the new knowledge.
- Judgmental analysis of the opinion.

b) Course Design Approaches: A Consolidation

We also need to consider our own expectations for students, prioritize and narrow the content so that it is manageable within the allotted timeframe, and consider the degree to which our students should learn the material. Bloom's revised taxonomy (Krathwol & Anderson, 2001) can be helpful when determining the level of complexity of our educational goals and students' demonstration of achievement.(have to rewrite with own words)



© 2018 Global Journals

c) The Course Design Cycle

When designing a course, the natural inclination is to begin by examining the course material and developing class lectures according to the selected texts. This approach makes content the focus of the course and may leave the knowledge, skills, and values we want students to have upon completion of the course undefined. Whether designing a new course or modifying an existing one, thoughtful planning during the design stage can help instructors develop a successful course. (flower)

Course Design Cycle



Fig. 3

As the Course Design Cycle indicates, reflection is integrated throughout the process. The significance of reflection on teaching and learning has been well documented in the education literature (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985; Boud , & Walker, 1993; Boyd, & Fales, 1983; Brookfield, 1990, 1995; Dewey, 1933; Mezirow & Associates, 1990; Mezirow, 1991; Schön, 1983, 1987).

VIII. Course Content

Here the researcher included one of the course outline for the students of CSE for the course DBES (Developing Basic English Skills).

a) State University of Bangladesh

Department of CSE

Summer 2018

Course Code: ENG101
Course Name: Developing Basic English Skills
Credit hours: 3

© 2018 Global Journals

Table 1: COURSE OUTLINE

Lecture number	Topic
Lecture-01	Ice breaking and introduction to 4 skills of language
Lecture-02	Brainstorming- skills and strategies Practice brainstorming for language skills
Lecture-03	Reading-top down and bottom up process Pre, while and post reading activities
Lecture-04	Writing- product and process approach Pre, while and post writing activities
Lecture-05	Writing- describing picture/ surrounding, writing activity Speaking- strategies , extempore speech practice
Lecture-06	Listening-pre-while and post listening activities Writing- Linking words
Lecture-07	Reading-Reading skills, practice (skimming, scanning)
Lecture-08	Writing-structure of paragraph and its kinds, writing practice
Lecture-09	Quiz and practice
Lecture-10	Speaking and vocabulary practice-"guess the word" Listening- listen to a story and find the answers
Lecture-11	4skills-practice and discussion
Lecture-12	Reading- practice skills (inferring, predicting) Listening- listen to a speech and ask questions
Lecture-13	Speaking- situational context/role-play/polite request Writing-practice
Lecture-14	Writing- formal application writing Reading-practice with authentic resources
Lecture-15	Writing- complain letter Reading-skills practice
Lecture-16	Writing- formal/informal writing Speaking-completing a story
Lecture-17	Writing short-film review Speaking- sharing opinion on a given topic
Lecture-18	Presentation session
Lecture-19	Writing practice Group/pair work for reading activities
Lecture-20	Review, practice and discussion

Course Instruct: Shamima Sultana

a) Recommended Readings

- Soars, Liz. *New Headway: Intermediate*. 4th ed., OUP, 2009.
- Murphy, Raymond. *English Grammar in Use*. 4th ed., CUP, 2015.
- Thomson, A.J. & A. V. Martinet. *Practical English Grammar*. 4th ed., Oxford, 1986.
- Wilson, Ken. *Something to Say*. Edward Arnold Ltd, 1984.
- Buys, William E, Thomas Sill and Roy Beck. *Speaking By Doing: A Speaking-Listening Text.* 3rd ed., National Textbook Co, 1981.
- Galvin, Kathleen M and Jane Terrell. *Communication Works: Communication Applications in the Workplace.* McGraw-Hill Education, 2001.
- Richards, Jack C., David Bycina, and Sue Brioux Aldcorn: *Person to Person.* Oxford: OUP, 2007

IX. The use of Technology

Technology aided courses 'offer enhanced support for the poor performer , connect students who do not react well to typical classroom education, give chance for speed up learning for exceptional and brilliant students, and develop self-determining learning skills'(Boulton, 2008:11). Also, they bring in extra straits for communi-cation and an opportunities for teamwork (Richardson, 2010). This course, therefore, sometimes uses technology to accept a 'flipped' approach to teaching. Peachey (2012:72) states that using a flipped approach guaranteed that students come to the face-to-face sittings willingly prepared with a well-built understanding of surroundings matters and essential technical skills and knowledge. The flipped approach is particularly suitable for this short course because it maximizes the effectiveness of the face-to-face sessions.

© 2018 Global Journals

a) Assessment and course evaluation in DBES

"Reflecting on what we and our students are doing and learning all the way through and at the conclusion of a course can assist us to appreciate how improved learning works, which can help us get better our practice and provide us insight into serving students become more autonomous and self-governing learners. "(flower, 2011) So in the commencement of the DBES course students were informed how they would be assessed by the instructor with marks distribution. Not only they will have marks for attending class, but they have to perform to gather marks for the final grade. Here instructor showed how they normally segmented the marks for the whole semester.

Marks distribution

1. Attendance and performace-10 (sudden test + attendance)
2. Presentation -05 (slide show and oral)
3. Group task-05 (flip class)
4. Class test/quiz-10 (multiple choice)
5. Midterm -30 (written)
6. Final-40 (written)

b) Formative and Summative Evaluation

Facts can be collected through continuing feedback for student learning development (formative assessment) and advice for a grade (summative assessment). In the framework of the Course Design Cycle, assessment can be understood as an continuing process of realizing, accommodating, and improving student knowledge. Assessment can approach in many shapes. For example, grounding assignments, report writing, presentations, exams, group works, reading test from journals, and class discussions can all be used to evaluate student learning. As flower said "It is important to keep in mind that the information we gather through our assessment techniques is not only feedback for our students in how well they are performing and how much they are understand the material, but it is also feedback for instructors in terms of what teaching strategies may or may not be working." (flower, 2011)

c) Common Mistakes in course designing and way out

The most common mistake one may be susceptible to is to start course design with too big scope Failing to assess the skills and competence level of the learners may misalign the course contents with the student's way of learning. Courses that are designed in isolation and contain vague objectives end up in failure to transmit any practical or critical knowledge to the very learners who should attain such through the process. Unfocused, poorly compiled and inadequate course contents or deficient scope of interactivity cause to the students to drop interest and glide away from the learning flow. Improper or insufficient means assessment and lack of focus on course contents results in textual and incomplete learning. Designs that fail to consider at the beginning the targeted outcome of the course never finds its way out to accurate knowledge.

To avoid such mistakes, one must not repeat using the same course contents for a long time; regular modification should be done to fit into the situational requirements. Course objective must also be addressed with due importance so that learning and critical thinking can be ensured at the same time. It must be accepted that students have their differences in capabilities and ways of learning as well as motivations. Sufficient flexibilities, therefore must be kept inside the course design to accommodate these differences in the same classroom. However, attainment of course objective must be ensured. Finally, learning for past academic experiences and using them may be the most rational way to design courses that can provide enough space for critical thinking of their own growth and development.

X. Conclusion

We should think as a teacher about the future of the graduates so a course designer on the one hand incorporates contents that students can and will understand and learn and on the other hand elicits student's inner capability to act as it appropriate. In the course of Developing Basic English Skills was designed to meet the needs of Employability, that means good communication skills, problem-solving skills, innovative approach, pair work (British Council 2013) with the other purposes of academic life related to reading, writing and speaking. It will also help them to understand class lectures of additional courses of computer sciences delivered in the English language.

References Références Referencias

1. Fowler, D., Sandoval, C., Layne, J., & Macik, M.(2011). Course designcycle. Retrieved from https://cte.tamu.edu/getattachment/Faculty-Teaching-Resource/Course-Design/Fowler-et-al-2011-Course-Design Cycle. pdf.aspx
2. Brookfield, S. (1995) Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
3. Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.)
4. Bell, R. T. (1981). *An introduction to applied linguistics*. London: Batsford.)
5. Inside India, Education Intelligence, British Council 2013.
6. Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. Bilingual Education Paper Series, 3(2). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Centre, California State University.
7. Lewelling, V.W. (1991). Academic achievement in a second language. Washington, D.C. ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.

© 2018 Global Journals

8. Rogers, L. (2016). Teaching EAP groups from different academic fields: the pros and cons. Modern English Teacher, 25/1.
9. Murray, N. (2016). *An academic literacies argument for decentralising EAP provision*. ELT Journal, 70/4
10. Lea, M. R. & Street, B. V. (1998). *Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach.* Studies in Higher Education, 23:2.
11. Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. MIT Press.
12. Soars, Liz. *New Headway: Intermediate*. 4th ed., OUP, 2009.
13. Murphy, Raymond. *English Grammar in Use*. 4th ed., CUP, 2015.
14. Thomson, A.J. & A. V. Martinet. *Practical English Grammar*. 4th ed., Oxford, 1986.
15. Wilson, Ken. *Something to Say*. Edward Arnold Ltd, 1984.
16. Buys, William E, Thomas Sill and Roy Beck. *Speaking By Doing: A Speaking-Listening Text.* 3rd ed., National Textbook Co, 1981.
17. Galvin, Kathleen M and Jane Terrell. *Communication Works: Communication Applications in the Workplace.* McGraw-Hill Education, 2001.
18. Richards, Jack C., David Bycina, and Sue Brioux Aldcorn: *Person to Person.* Oxford: OUP, 2007
19. Bell, T. (1996). Do EAP teachers require knowledge of their students' specialist academic subjects? The Internet TESL Journal, Vol. V (No. 10).
20. Campbell, R., & Wales, R. (1970). The Study of Language Acquisition. In Lyons, J.
21. (Ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics*, 242-260. Harodsworth: Pinguin Books Ltd.
22. Hymes, D. H. (1972). On Communicative Competence. In Pride, J. B., & Holmes, J.
23. (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics,* 269-293. Baltimore, USA: Penguin Education, Penguin Books Ltd.
24. Graves, K. (1996). *Teachers as Course Developers*, CUP, Cambridge.
25. Larsen-Freeman. (2000) Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
26. Dee Fink. 2003, Creating Significant Learning Experiences: An Integrated Approach to Designing College Courses, San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
27. Ahmad, N. (1997). ELT needs and services: Challenges facing ELT providers. In H. Coleman, T. M. Soedradj at, & G. Westaway (Eds.), Teaching English to university undergraduates in the Indonesian context: Issues and developments (pp. 45-60). Bandung: ITB Press.
28. Anderson L.W., Krathwol D.R, Airasian P.W., Cruikshank K. A., Mayer R.E., Pintrich P.R., Raths J. and Wittrock M.C, (2001).A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing. New York: Longman.
29. Krathwohl, D.R. (2002). A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: A Forty Year Retrospective, Chicago, The National Society for the Study of Education, 46(4), 452-455
30. Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). Reflection: Turning experience into learning. London, UK: Kogan Page.
31. Boyd, E.M., & Fales, A.W. (1983). Reflective learning: Key to learning from experience. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 23, 99-117.
32. Brookfield, S. (1995) Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
33. Dewey, J. (1933) How We Think. Boston: D. C. Heath.

References from webpages

1. https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=Cummins+(1979)+calls+Cognitive+Academic+Language+Proficiency+(CALP).&hl=en&as_sdt=0&as_vis=1&oi=scholart,retrived at 02.11.18.
2. cummings - https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED184334
3. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/29454991_English_for_General_Academic_PurposesCatering_for_Discipline_Specific_Needs.retrived at 02.11.18.
4. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1468-0378.2008.00341.x
5. https://www.google.com/search?q=Peachey+(2012:72)+states+that+using+a+flipped+approach+ensures+that+participants+come+to+the+face-toface+sessions+readily+prepared+with+a+strong+understanding+of+background+issues+and+basic+technical+skills+and+experience&client=firefoxb&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjm4q3rIcDeAhWXknAKHazrDXwQ7Al6BAgFEA0&biw=1150&bih=635

© 2018 Global Journals

This page is intentionally left blank

© 2018 Global Journals

Global Journal of human-social science: G
Linguistics & Education
Volume 18 Issue 12 Version 1.0 Year 2018
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals
Online ISSN: 2249-460X & Print ISSN: 0975-587X

Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Teaching Listening Skills to English Foreign Language Students at Three Ethiopian Universities

By Edaso Mulu Genu, Solomon Lemma Lodisso & Mary Thuo
Hawassa University

Background- The listening skill plays a decisive role in our day-to-day communication. Hedge (2000) found that up to 45% of one's communication time is spent on listening activities, while Chen (2011) estimates that 50% of an adult's communication consists of listening. It is thus clear that one spends much more time on listening communication activities than on the rest of the language skills (i.e., reading, writing and speaking). The fact that people spend so much time on listening, however, does not imply that they are 'good' listeners. It is rather an indication of how important it is that their listening skills should be developed and that time should be spent on the teaching of this important communication skill to ensure effective communication. second or foreign language started to gain attention when the Communicative Language Teaching methodology, which emphasised the need of teaching listening for effective oral communication (Goh 2008), became popular in language teaching in the 1970s. Although much ground-breaking work on the teaching of listening in second and foreign languages has been done, it is still one of the skills that receive little attention in many classes which is a challenge for learners in the classroom and beyond (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

GJHSS-G Classification: FOR Code: 200302, 930299



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

© 2018. Edaso Mulu Genu, Solomon Lemma Lodisso & Mary Thuo. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creative-commons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Teaching Listening Skills to English Foreign Language Students at Three Ethiopian Universities

Edaso Mulu Genu [α], Solomon Lemma Lodisso [σ] & Mary Thuo [ρ]

I. Background

The listening skill plays a decisive role in our day-to-day communication. Hedge (2000) found that up to 45% of one's communication time is spent on listening activities, while Chen (2011) estimates that 50% of an adult's communication consists of listening. It is thus clear that one spends much more time on listening communication activities than on the rest of the language skills (i.e., reading, writing and speaking). The fact that people spend so much time on listening, however, does not imply that they are 'good' listeners. It is rather an indication of how important it is that their listening skills should be developed and that time should be spent on the teaching of this important communication skill to ensure effective communication. The role that listening plays in the acquisition of a second or foreign language started to gain attention when the Communicative Language Teaching methodology, which emphasised the need of teaching listening for effective oral communication (Goh 2008), became popular in language teaching in the 1970s. Although much ground-breaking work on the teaching of listening in second and foreign languages has been done, it is still one of the skills that receive little attention in many classes which is a challenge for learners in the classroom and beyond (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Various scholars contributed ideas about the role and importance of listening skills in language learning and teaching. Vandergrift (2003) refers to the "key role" that listening plays in current theories of second language acquisition. According to Guo and Wills (2005) language learning mainly depends on listening since it provides the aural input that serves as the basis for language acquisition and enables learners to interact in spoken communication. Moreover, it is believed that listening provides the foundation for all aspects of language learning and in this sense it plays a lifelong role in the process of communication.

As far as second language acquisition theory is concerned, Guo and Wills (2005) explain that language input is the essential condition for the acquisition of a second language. As an input skill, listening plays a crucial role in students' language development. Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching, it is vital for language instructors to help students become effective listeners. Kristiani (2008) discusses the importance of listening skills when learning English and emphasises the fact that everyone who wants to learn English well should be able to master the listening skill as the most basic skill necessary for mastering the other skills. According to him listening is a prerequisite for understanding spoken messages and therefore the teaching of listening skills should not be neglected during English instruction (Kristiani, 2008). Vandergift and Tafaghodtari (2010) refer to the relative ease with which native (first) language speakers acquire the complex skill of listening comprehension, whereas second and foreign language learners struggle to do so. This observation emphasises the need for supporting second and foreign language learners' listening comprehension skills.

Goh (2008) reports that traditional listening teaching techniques such as merely expecting learners to answer comprehension questions based on a listening passage, are still common practice in many classrooms and that this practice of language teaching may cause students to become anxious.

Boyd (2001) indicates that the important concept of teaching listening skills is sometimes overlooked, while David (2002) writes that teaching listening skills is not considered by English language teachers to be taught with (i.e. integrated with) the teaching of writing, speaking and reading. Therefore, he calls listening skills "[t]he Cinderella skill in second language learning" and argues that proficiency in a second language has tended to be viewed in terms of the ability to speak and write the language in question, with listening relegated to the second position.

Author α: PhD Assistant Prof. School of Language Studies, College of Social Sciences, Hawassa University.
Author σ: (PhD) Associate Prof. Department of Educational Planning and Management, College of Education, Hawassa University.
e-mail: soleysus7@gmail.com
Author ρ: (PhD) Associate Prof. Department of Educational Planning and Management, School of Education, Wolaita Sodo University.

© 2018 Global Journals

It can therefore be concluded that the teaching of listening skills is a critical element in language learning and communication – especially second and foreign language learning and communication – since it is the base or key to acquiring the skills of speaking, reading and writing. In spite of this it seems that it is the least considered skill in the process of language teaching and learning.

II. Exploration of the Problem of Listening in English as a Foreign Language in the Ethiopian Context

When it comes to the practice of teaching EFL listening skills, it seems that the teaching of listening skills in particular is neglected in Ethiopian schools and higher education institutions. Studies done on listening skills and teaching of listening in the Ethiopian context revealed that students are ill equipped for listening effectively (Berhanu, 1993).

In addition to Seime's study, Berhanu (1993) carried out research to investigate the listening strategies used by fourth year Addis Ababa University students majoring in English. Since Berhanu's (1993) study was basically intended to investigate the listening strategies actually used by students, he did not indicate whether listening was actively taught in the university. What Berhanu (1993) found was that learners' listening skills were not properly developed and that there was a need to provide students with appropriate listening comprehension skills.

Likewise, Haregewoin (2003) conducted an investigation in which she focused on grade eleven students to investigate the classroom listening comprehension teaching practices in relation to the new English textbooks. In her study she found that teachers did not show any significant efforts to give pre-listening tasks or to provide students with visual support. Furthermore, it was found that the materials used to teach listening skills are inadequate in the sense that they do not express the real life of the learners. The materials in the language laboratories in higher institutions are, for example, regarded as irrelevant to the contemporary conditions of teaching listening skills, and they do not appeal to the interest of Ethiopian students (Obeidat & Abu-Melhim, 2008). Most students who study English as a foreign language at university level are not able to listen effectively in English. It is therefore necessary to do research on current listening practices in order to provide guidelines for improvement. From the above-mentioned local studies it seems that Ethiopian EFL learners have underdeveloped listening skills. It can be concluded that the teaching of English foreign language listening skills in Ethiopia is not as effective as it should be – neither in school, nor at the higher education level. In the universities where this study took place, students are often heard complaining about the inadequacy of the teaching of listening skills. Berhanu's study (2007) suggests that there is a need to provide students with appropriate listening comprehension practices. The question is how lecturers go about teaching EFL listening skills and whether students are being provided with appropriate listening comprehension practices.

In view of the preceding discussion regarding the importance of listening when communicating in a second or foreign language and for learning in a higher education institution on the one hand and the lack of proper listening instruction on the other hand, it is evident that there is a need to investigate the teaching of listening skills to English foreign language students at Ethiopian universities and to determine how they can best be taught to listen effectively. In light of the above background this research attempts to answer the following research questions.

How effective do students at selected Ethiopian universities perceive the teaching of EFL listening skills to be?

- How effective the use of material used in teaching of EFL listening skills as perceived by the students?
- Is there gender difference in the perception of the effectiveness of teaching EFL listening skills?
- The study follows a sequential explanatory mixed methods/strategy. The reason for selecting this strategy is according to Creswell, (2009); Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Jiao (2006) allows the researcher to collect quantitative data during its first phase which could then be followed by qualitative data collection through interviews and observation in a second phase.

Three universities Dilla, Hawassa and Arsi University were purposively selected. For the quantitative part of the study all first and second year students from the Language Studies Department, were requested to complete the questionnaire. In the qualitative phase of the study interview was used. Six students from each sampled university with highest Cumulative Grade Point Average (CGPA) from first and second year students were purposively selected and interviewed.

A structured questionnaire was developed for all students involved in EFL listening courses. The questionnaires used in this study made use of a five point Likert scale in which the respondents had to choose between the following five options: 1= Highly effective; 2= Fairly effective; 3= Somewhat effective; 4=Not very effective; and 5=Ineffective.

III. Respondents' Background Information

Out of 158 students, 53.2% were female while 46.8% were male. The majority of the students were

© 2018 Global Journals

between the age of 18 to 20 (70.3%) while only 29.7% were 21 years and above. Of the 158 students, 53.8% were first years while 44.3%were second year students. In relation to the English listening ability show that about 44.3% of the students rated themselves as good or very good, 29.7% were of the opinion that their listening ability was average, while 31.3% regarded their listening ability as poor or very poor. The variation on the students' English listening ability could be related to the sample where the majority (53.8%) were first years and 44.3% were second year students.

IV. An Exploratory Overview

In this section the frequency response patterns to groups of questions in the questionnaire provide an overview of students' responses to the following four components that could have an influence on the effectiveness of teaching listening in EFL: the pre-listening phase, the while listening phase, the post-listening phase, and the use of listening materials.

a) *Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the pre-listening phase*

Results presented in Table 1 and Table 2 are based on responses from ten Likert scale type items which focused on activities implemented during the pre-listening phase.

Table 1: Composite frequency table of responses to questions that measure students' perceptions of the effectiveness of pre-listening

Questionnaire questions	Pre-listening (Effectiveness rating, students)					
	Highly effective	Fairly effective	Somewh at effective	Not very effective	Ineffective	Total
1. Integrating EFL listening skill with teaching of reading, writing, speaking	40 25.32	33 20.89	35 22.15	34 21.52	16 10.13	158
2. Letting students think about the listening process they are going to follow	29 18.35	40 25.32	31 19.62	34 21.52	24 15.19	158
3. Explaining the purpose of listening activity before letting students listen to the listening passage	45 28.48	24 15.19	36 22.78	37 23.42	16 10.13	158
4.Incorporating activities to stimulate students' background knowledge prior to exposure to the listening passage	28 17.72	32 20.25	43 27.22	30 18.99	25 15.82	158
7. Ensuring beforehand that students are not anxious during EFL sessions	28 17.72	28 17.72	38 24.05	32 20.25	32 20.25	158
8. Announcing the topic and then let students predict what the listening passage may be about	37 23.42	29 18.35	37 23.42	28 17.72	27 17.09	158
9. Explaining unfamiliar keywords that would be heard in the listening passage	33 20.89	29 18.35	36 22.78	38 24.05	22 13.92	158
17. Teaching students different listening skills before letting them listen to the listening passage	33 20.89	24 15.19	40 25.32	36 22.78	25 15.82	158
20. Explicitly teaching listening strategies before letting students listen to the listening passage	26 16.46	44 27.85	33 20.89	32 20.25	23 14.56	158
34. Ensuring students are motivated to listen to the listening passage	37 23.42	35 22.15	29 18.35	38 24.05	19 12.03	158
Total	336 21.27	318 20.13	358 22.66	339 21.46	229 14.49	1580 100.0 0
Probability (of Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 38.98 under the null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between response patterns of questions) = 0.33						

From Table 1 it can be seen that although the students' overall impression of the effectiveness of the pre-listening activities they were exposed to is positive (41.40%), more than a third of the students (35.95%) indicated a degree of inefficiency. Therefore, although there is an overall positive perception, it is not a very strong vote on effectiveness. A large percentage of the responses (22.66%) were undecided. The variation on the responses could be attributed to the aggregation of data across the universities hence loss of information.

© 2018 Global Journals

Table 2: Composite frequency table of responses to questions that measure students' perceptions of the efficiency of while-listening activity

While-Listening						
Item: questionnaire questions	While-Listening(Effectiveness rating, students)					
Frequency	Highly effective	Fairly effective	Somewhat effective	Not very effective	Ineffective	Total
10. Expecting students to listen for specific information in the listening passage	38 24.05	32 20.25	35 22.15	35 22.15	18 11.39	158
11. Letting students distinguish between fact and fiction while listening to the listening passage	26 16.46	38 24.05	25 15.82	46 29.11	23 14.56	158
12. Letting students guess the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases in the listening passage	26 16.46	41 25.95	26 16.46	48 30.38	17 10.76	158
13. Letting students interpret the tone of the message in the listening passage	33 20.89	28 17.72	39 24.68	38 24.05	20 12.66	158
14. Letting students interpret emotive (manipulative) language in the listening passage	21 13.29	42 26.58	33 20.89	38 24.05	24 15.19	158
15. Letting students practice listening in real-life situations	30 18.99	29 18.35	37 23.42	43 27.22	19 12.03	158
16. Letting students respond to eye movement, gestures and body language while listening	31 19.62	32 20.25	37 23.42	30 18.99	28 17.72	158
19. Letting students take notes while listening	34 21.52	39 24.68	32 20.25	35 22.15	18 11.39	158
35. Letting students listen for the gist of the matter in the listening passage	26 16.46	34 21.52	36 22.78	37 23.42	25 15.82	158
36. Letting students communicate with one another while teaching EFL listening	19 12.03	39 24.68	34 21.52	45 28.48	21 13.29	158
40. Making use of a variety of methods when teaching EFL listening	38 24.05	25 15.82	37 23.42	25 15.82	33 20.89	158
Total	322 18.53	379 21.81	371 21.35	420 24.17	246 14.15	1738 100.0 0
The probability (of Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 52.78 under the null hypothesis that response patterns of questions do not differ statistically significantly) = 0.09						

There is a small difference between a positive and negative effectiveness rating. Although the overall impression of while-listening activities is positive, it is not a very strong positive perception and is only slightly more positive than negative. This can be seen from the 40.34% effective rating responses compared to the 38.32% rather ineffective responses that were given. 21.35% of responses were undecided. Thus, although an experience of effectiveness is prevalent, the experience of an ineffective activity phase is also present.

b) Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the post-listening phase

Eight items were included in the Likert type scale items as a measure of how effective students regard activities that are usually typically performed after the listening activity.

Table 3: Composite frequency table of responses to questions that measure students' perceptions of the efficiency of the post-listening phase

Item: questionnaire questions	Post-Listening(Effectiveness rating, students)					
Frequency	Highly effective	Fairly effective	Somewhat effective	Not very effective	Ineffective	Total
21. Teaching students how to draw conclusions based on the listening passage	25 15.82	33 20.89	44 27.85	40 25.32	16 10.13	158
22. Letting students integrate new information with prior knowledge after listening to the passage	30 18.99	38 24.05	37 23.42	32 20.25	21 13.29	158
23. Expect students to express their own opinions on the topic of the listening passage	25 15.82	43 27.22	35 22.15	39 24.68	16 10.13	158
24. Letting students critically evaluate the listening passage	23 14.56	47 29.75	33 20.89	35 22.15	20 12.66	158
25. Letting students evaluate their notes by comparing them to those of others	23 14.56	43 27.22	43 27.22	30 18.99	19 12.03	158
26. Letting students transfer information from	26	38	36	23	35	158

© 2018 Global Journals

oral to written mode	16.46	24.05	22.78	14.56	22.15	
27. Asking questions to evaluate what students remember from listening	33 20.89	38 24.05	29 18.35	38 24.05	20 12.66	158
28. Expecting students to pronounce words they have heard on the tape recorder	23 14.56	30 18.99	41 25.95	36 22.78	28 17.72	158
Total	208 16.46	310 24.53	298 23.58	273 21.60	175 13.84	1264 100.00
Probability (of Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 34.17 under the null hypothesis of no significant difference in response patterns) = 0.19						

From table 3 it can be deduced that the students' overall impression of post-listening activities were positive. They perceived this phase to be effective (40.99% effective rating responses as opposed to 35.44% rather ineffective responses). Although there was an overall positive perception, it is not a very strong vote on effectiveness. Furthermore, 23.58% of responses were undecided.

c) *Students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the listening material*

The students' perceptions about the use of the effectiveness of the listening material are presented in table (Table 4). Seven items were included as a measure of how effective students regard the use of listening material to be while teaching English listening skills.

Table 4: Composite frequency table of responses to questions that measure students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the listening material used when teaching listening

Item: questionnaire questions	Listening Material(Effectiveness rating, students)					
Frequency	Highly effective	Fairly effective	Somewhat effective	Not very effective	Ineffective	Total
5. Using listening passages interesting to students	35 22.15	39 24.68	28 17.72	38 24.05	18 11.39	158
6. Using of listening passages somewhat above students' level of understanding	15 9.49	35 22.15	45 28.48	40 25.32	23 14.56	158
29. Using of the language laboratory to teach listening skills	33 20.89	29 18.35	28 17.72	38 24.05	30 18.99	158
30. Letting students listen to English mother tongue speakers	30 18.99	40 25.32	21 13.29	35 22.15	32 20.25	158
32. Making use of authentic listening passages	25 15.82	38 24.05	42 26.58	40 25.32	13 8.23	158
37. Utilising appropriate equipment in the language laboratory	27 17.09	29 18.35	37 23.42	38 24.05	27 17.09	158
39. Using activities and listening material such as songs, narratives, dialogues to teach listening	27 17.09	34 21.52	36 22.78	40 25.32	21 13.29	158
Total	192 17.36	244 22.06	237 21.43	269 24.32	164 14.83	1106 100.00
*Probability (of Chi-square statistic assuming the value of 38.01 under the null hypothesis of response patterns that do not differ statistically significantly over questions) = 0.03**						

From Table 4 it can be deduced that while 39.42% of students regarded the language material used to teach listening as effective, almost the same percentage (39.14%) of ineffectiveness responses were received. 21.43% were undecided. Apart from the relatively high undecided response of 28.48%, 39.88% regarded the use of listening passages that are somewhat above students' level of understanding as not very effective or ineffective. Only 39.87% of students perceived the use of authentic listening material as either highly or fairly effective, while more than a third (33.55%) regarded it as not very effective or ineffective and 26.58% were undecided.

d) *Compact measures of participant perceptions of the effectiveness of teaching listening in EFL*

The measure for each component was calculated as the mean response to all responses a participant offered in answering the subset of questions that probed a particular listening component (e.g., 'listening material'). These compact perception measures are referred to as scores or perception-scores and are presented in the tables in this section. Results presented in Table 6 show the mean for students on the four components (pre-, while and post-listening as well as the listening material). The scale items are summed up for all items for each component (e.g., 10 items for pre-listening) and the weighted mean of the summated items is given. Considering a standard deviation from the mean data suggests that the practice is fairly effective based on the majority of students.

© 2018 Global Journals

Table 6: Score means calculated for respondent type categories

Respondent type	N	Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min.	Max.
Students	158	Pre-listening	158	2.88	1.07	1.00	4.70
		Listening material	158	2.97	1.01	1.00	4.86
		While-listening	158	2.94	1.05	1.09	4.73
		Post-listening	158	2.92	1.08	1.13	4.75

The biographical property of gender also affected the perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the teaching of EFL listening. Results in Table 7 presents the score means calculated for gender categories (males and females) for the four components (pre-, while- and post-listening, and the listening material) separately. Results suggest that the males perceived the effectiveness of listening teaching differently except on the 'while-listening phase' where the mean for males was 3.24 and that of females was '3.27' which is approximately '3'.

Table 7: Component means scores for students with regard to gender categories

Type of respondent	Gender	N	Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min.	Max.
Students	Male	74	Pre-listening	74	3.26	0.93	1.00	4.50
			Listening material	74	3.17	0.93	1.09	4.73
			While-listening	74	3.34	1.01	1.13	4.75
			Post-listening	74	3.18	0.96	1.00	4.43
Students	Female	84	Pre-listening	84	3.19	1.08	1.10	4.70
			Listening material	84	3.30	1.02	1.09	4.73
			While-listening	84	3.31	1.07	1.13	4.75
			Post-listening	84	3.28	1.00	1.29	4.86

From Table 7, results for female and male students suggest that both groups perceived the effectiveness of listening teaching equally on all the components; that is, with a mean of roughly '3.00' they viewed the components to be somewhat effective. In general, it could also be suggested that both sexes rated the effectiveness of three components (pre-, and post- listening, and the listening material) as effective.

V. Analysis of Variance Results

An analysis of a variance (ANOVA) test offers a way of investigating the significance of the effect of biographical properties on perceptions of the efficacy of the listening course. An analysis of variance tests identifies whether, and which, biographical properties statistically significantly influence participants' perceptions of a component of the course, for instance, the effectiveness of listening materials. An indication of the significance of such a biographical effect on perceptions is derived from the P-value (F-probability) that is associated with the F-statistic (or F-value) calculated for each biographical property as part of the ANOVA test. An effect is identified as significant if the reported F probability (see Table 8) is less than 0.05 or 0.01; or 0.001 (respectively 5% ['*']; 1% ['**'] and 0.1% ['***'] significance levels). The effect of gender proved to be statistically significant effects on perceptions of the different components of the listening course evaluated for effectiveness.

Table 8: Analysis of variance: Summary results of analysis of variance

Listening component	General F-statistic (and Probability)	R- square	Gender
Pre-listening	13.15 (<0.001***)	0.15	7.91 (<0.01**)
While-listening	15.59 (<0.001***)	0.17	14.10 (<0.001***)
Post-listening	13.94 (<0.001***)	0.15	12.13 (<0.001***)
Listening material	11.32 (<0.0001***)	0.13	7.75 (<0.01**)

Table 9 reports that the effect gender, statistical significance was verified for all components on at least the 1% level of significance. This implies that being male or female significantly affected how the various components of the English listening course were evaluated.

© 2018 Global Journals

a) *Analysis of Data Obtained from Interviews Pertaining to The Four Components of Teaching Efl Listening*

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with eighteen students (first and second years) on current practices used in EFL listening teaching. Students' names were coded to ensure respondents' identity was protected and confidentiality maintained and further for ease of analysis. The following coding system that has been used can be explained as follows: In the code UnAs11 refers to University A and S_{11}refers to year one, student number one. If $S_{23}$is used, it refers to year two, student number three.

b) *The pre-listening phase*

During the interview sessions, students were asked to describe how lecturers prepared them for the listening activity (pre-listening phase) and whether they regarded the preparation as effective. The majority of both first and second year students from the three universities agreed that the preparation given by lecturers before a listening lesson was not adequate. For example, student $UnAS_{11}$ said that the lecturer "*only talks about the topic. The preparation is not also enough as he doesn't explain well."*From the same university, student $UnAS_{12}$ said that the lecturer "… *writes some notes on the blackboard and reads the questions one by one and talks about them."* According to the student, the lecturer*"... doesn't give proper lesson, as a result the preparation is not sufficient."*

Insufficiency of preparation during the pre-listening phase was further echoed by student $UnAS_{21}$who said that "*the lecturer doesn't have enough knowledge himself, as a result, the preparation was not enough"* while student $UnAS_{23}$ from the same university said that *"... the lecturer tries to prepare us, but not as we expect."*

Some students referred to the difference between activities used to prepare them for listening in the classroom and the language laboratory. Student *$UnBS_{11}$* stated that *"... his preparation can be enough some times in the lab but not in the classroom."*However, student*$UnBS_{11}$* said that*"... lecturers picks up some new words and give explanation"* but, according to the student the preparation was not enough because of a shortage of time that made the lecturer rush through the lesson. In general most students agreed that preparation for the listening activity was not sufficient and ineffective.

The need to prepare students by including pre-listening activities is in line with research conducted by Rueda *et al*. (2009) who state that people always have a purpose for listening which makes it easier and more effective for them to listen. The use of pre-listening activities by lecturers supports work by Vandergrift (2013) who argues that providing second language students with a context helps in activating their prior knowledge and it also helps in developing students' conceptual framework for constructing the meaning of what they do not understand. A lack of proper preparation for the listening task will, therefore, be detrimental to the effective teaching of EFL listening.

c) *The while-listening phase*

During the interviews, students were asked to state what a typical lesson looked like during an EFL listening class. Students expressed different activities in relation to what happens in a typical EFL listening lesson. Lecturers, for example, according to student $UnCS_{13,}$ may start teaching listening in the language laboratory and later ask them to work on the questions after listening. Student $UnAS_{12}$stated that lecturers *"... may read stories and ask students whether they can remember or not."*

The majority of the students said that lecturers read or gave one of their fellow students a passage to read to the class and then asked them to answer questions. Student $UnCS_{12}$ for example said that the lecturer "... *reads some passage and asks some questions."*

Most of the students further stated that they watch videos, listen to audio tapes or native speakers' accents, and later they are asked to answer questions to see how much they could recall. For example, student $UnCS_{21}$said that the lecturer "... *used video"* or *"writes some words on the blackboard."* Student $UnBS_{11}$ mentioned that sometimes the lecturer *"... opens certain recorded cassettes and lets us listen after which we were asked to answer questions."*

The findings are cause for concern if it is taken into consideration that Renandya and Farrella (2010) found that foreign language students experience a number of challenges particularly while listening to native speakers in video or audio-recorded speech. The need to use different activities in a listening lesson was also emphasised by Sun (2009) who argued that creating and imitating real-life situations during the teaching process presented students with a way to think and express what they had heard. It was also a way to help them integrate both thinking and expression.

d) *The post-listening phase*

Questionnaire data revealed that students mostly had a positive perception of the effectiveness of post-listening activities. Interview responses from students, on common activities used by lecturers during EFL listening teaching, indicated that lecturers mostly asked students to answer certain questions after a listening activity. These questions, however, mostly dealt with what students could remember after reading a story to them. For example, student $UnBS_{21}$ had this to say, "*Lecturers give questions from the passage to be answered by us…."* In other cases, according to student $UnBS_{13,}$ lecturers asked students to read to their peers while others listen, and they encouraged them to interact with each other after they have listened to the

© 2018 Global Journals

passage. This relates to what was suggested by Goh and Taib (2009), namely that students could take turns to read aloud their notes on their reflections during the discussions while other students listened, asked questions or gave their own comments in turn.

Interview data obtained from students revealed that this phase was not done effectively. Student $UnBS_{23}$said that "… *we forget … we do not practice since the time allocated is not enough."* Many other students also commented on the lack of enough time to practice or to use strategies such as letting them reflect on what they have heard.

During the interviews students responded to questions which asked about the teaching methods and type of listening materials used during the listening sessions. In Ethiopian universities EFL listening is taught by means of both language laboratories and classroom lessons. Some of the students expressed their discontent with listening to recordings done by native speakers. This is because of the fact that the pronunciation of the materials was not as clear to them as listening passages read by the local lecturers.

VI. Conclusion

The overall perception of students are in agreement about the effectiveness of the pre-listening, while listening and post listening activities and the integration of listening with other language skills. They also indicated the language material used to teach listening as effective. The biographical property of gender also affected the perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the teaching of EFL listening results for female and male students suggest that both groups perceived the effectiveness of listening teaching equally on all the components. However, male students were of the opinion that the while-listening stage was more effectively done as compared to females who evaluated the component as somewhat effective.

References Références Referencias

1. Berhanu, B. 1993. Listener strategies in collaborative discourse of AAU 4th year students. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University. Berhanu's study (2007).
2. Boyd, S. 2001. The human side of teaching: effective listening, *Techniques*, 76(7):60-61.
3. Chen, H. 2011. Brief analysis of strategies to improve English listening comprehension competence among non-English undergraduate students. *Asian Social Science,*7 (12):68-71.
4. Collins, KMT, Onwuegbuzie, AJ, & Jiao, QG. 2006. Prevalence of mixed methods sampling designs in social science research. *Evaluation and Research in Education,* 19(2):83-101.
5. Creswell, JW. 2009. *Research design: Qualitative and mixed methods approaches (*3rd ed.) Los Angeles: SAGE. David (2002).
6. Girma, D. 1999.The extent to which high school teachers teach the listening skill with special reference to the newly designed grade nine textbook. Unpublished senior essay. Kotebe College of Teacher Education.
7. Goh, C. 2008. Metacognitive instruction for second language listening development: theory, practice and research implications. *RELC Journal,* 39: 188-213.
8. Goh and Taib (2009).
9. Goh, C & Taib, Y. 2006. Metacognitive instruction in listening for young learners. *ELT Journal,*60 (3): 222-232.
10. Guo, N& Wills, R. 2005. An investigation of factors influencing English listening comprehension and possible measures for improvement. Available at: www.aare.edu.au/05pap/guo05088.pdf (accessed 20 October 2015).
11. Haregewoin, F.2003.An investigation of classroom listening comprehension teaching practices in relation to the new English course books - Grade 11 in focus. Unpublished MA. thesis. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
12. Hedge, T. 2000.*Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
13. Klapper, J. 2006. *Understanding and developing good practice: Language teaching in higher education.* London: CILT.
14. Kristiani, V. 2008.*A study on the method of teaching listening skill at the first year of SMP Negeri 1 Sragen*. Unpublished BEd paper. School of Teacher Training and Education, Mohammadyah: University of Surakarta.
15. Martinez-Flor, A &Uso-Juan, E. 2006.Towards acquiring communicative competence through listening in: Uso-Juan, E & Martinez-Flor, A.(Eds).*Current trends in the development and teaching of the language skills.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. 29-46.
16. Mendelsohn, D.2006. Learning how to listen using learning strategies. In: Uso-Juan, E& Martinez-Flor, A. (Eds).*Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. 75-89.
17. Naughton, Hamlin, McCarthy, Head-Reeves and Schreiner(2007).
18. Obeidat, N & Abu-Melhim, A. 2008. Common practice in teaching English listening skills at elementary schools in Jordan. *International Forum of Teaching and Studies,*4(2):34-41.
19. Renandya, WA& Farrell, TSC. 2010. Teacher, the tape is too fast! Extensive listening in ELT. *ELT Journal,* 65(1):52–9.
20. Rueda, JD, Rodrìguez, CA, Pinzòn, JC & Rodrìguez, LM. 2009. *Approaches to the development of*

© 2018 Global Journals

*listening skills in EFT: A state of the art.*New York:Universidad Industrial de Santander.
21. Seime, K. 1989. An investigation of listening abilities of Baher Dar college students, Unpublished MA thesis. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
22. Sun, W. 2009. Improving speaking by listening cultivating English thinking and expression probe into the teaching of business English listening. *English Language Teaching,*2(2): 56-59.
23. Vandergrift, L. 2003. From prediction through reflection: Guiding students through the process of L2 listening. *Canadian Modern Language Review,*59 (3):425-40.
24. Vandergrift, L & Goh, C. 2012. *Teaching and learning second language listening: Met cognition in action*. New York: Taylor & Frances Group
25. Vandergrift, L & Tafaghodtari, MH.2010. Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: An empirical study. *Language Learning,*60(2):470–497.
26. Wallace, T, Stariha, W & Walberg, H. 2004. *Teaching speaking, listening and writing. Available at:* http:// www. Curtin.edu.au/curtin/dept/smec/iae (accessed 9 September 2014).
27. White, G. 2008. Listening and good language learners. In: Griffiths, C. (Ed.). *Lessons form good language learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

© 2018 Global Journals

Global Journals Guidelines Handbook 2018

www.GlobalJournals.org

FELLOWS

FELLOW OF ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY IN HUMAN SCIENCE (FARSHS)

Global Journals Incorporate (USA) is accredited by Open Association of Research Society (OARS), U.S.A and in turn, awards "FARSHS" title to individuals. The 'FARSHS' title is accorded to a selected professional after the approval of the Editor-in-Chief/Editorial Board Members/Dean.



- The "FARSHS" is a dignified title which is accorded to a person's name viz. Dr. John E. Hall, Ph.D., FARSS or William Walldroff, M.S., FARSHS.

FARSHS accrediting is an honor. It authenticates your research activities. After recognition as FARSHS, you can add 'FARSHS' title with your name as you use this recognition as additional suffix to your status. This will definitely enhance and add more value and repute to your name. You may use it on your professional Counseling Materials such as CV, Resume, and Visiting Card etc.

The following benefits can be availed by you only for next three years from the date of certification:

FARSHS designated members are entitled to avail a 40% discount while publishing their research papers (of a single author) with Global Journals Incorporation (USA), if the same is accepted by Editorial Board/Peer Reviewers. If you are a main author or co-author in case of multiple authors, you will be entitled to avail discount of 10%.

Once FARSHS title is accorded, the Fellow is authorized to organize symposium/seminar/conference on behalf of Global Journal Incorporation (USA). The Fellow can also participate in conference/seminar/symposium organized by another institution as representative of Global Journal. In both the cases, it is mandatory for him to discuss with us and obtain our consent.





You may join as member of the Editorial Board of Global Journals Incorporation (USA) after successful completion of three years as Fellow and as Peer Reviewer. In addition, it is also desirable that you should organize seminar/symposium/conference at least once.

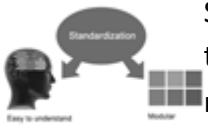
We shall provide you intimation regarding launching of e-version of journal of your stream time to time.This may be utilized in your library for the enrichment of knowledge of your students as well as it can also be helpful for the concerned faculty members.



The FARSHS can go through standards of OARS. You can also play vital role if you have any suggestions so that proper amendment can take place to improve the same for the benefit of entire research community.

As FARSHS, you will be given a renowned, secure and free professional email address with 100 GB of space e.g. johnhall@globaljournals.org. This will include Webmail, Spam Assassin, Email Forwarders,Auto-Responders, Email Delivery Route tracing, etc.





The FARSHS will be eligible for a free application of standardization of their researches. Standardization of research will be subject to acceptability within stipulated norms as the next step after publishing in a journal. We shall depute a team of specialized research professionals who will render their services for elevating your researches to next higher level, which is worldwide open standardization.

The FARSHS member can apply for grading and certification of standards of the educational and Institutional Degrees to Open Association of Research, Society U.S.A.
Once you are designated as FARSHS, you may send us a scanned copy of all of your credentials. OARS will verify, grade and certify them. This will be based on your academic records, quality of research papers published by you, and some more criteria. After certification of all your credentials by OARS, they will be published on your Fellow Profile link on website https://associationofresearch.org which will be helpful to upgrade the dignity.



The FARSHS members can avail the benefits of free research podcasting in Global Research Radio with their research documents. After publishing the work, (including published elsewhere worldwide with proper authorization) you can upload your research paper with your recorded voice or you can utilize chargeable services of our professional RJs to record your paper in their voice on request.



The FARSHS member also entitled to get the benefits of free research podcasting of their research documents through video clips. We can also streamline your conference videos and display your slides/ online slides and online research video clips at reasonable charges, on request.



The FARSHS is eligible to earn from sales proceeds of his/her researches/reference/review Books or literature, while publishing with Global Journals. The FARSHS can decide whether he/she would like to publish his/her research in a closed manner. In this case, whenever readers purchase that individual research paper for reading, maximum 60% of its profit earned as royalty by Global Journals, will be credited to his/her bank account. The entire entitled amount will be credited to his/her bank account exceeding limit of minimum fixed balance. There is no minimum time limit for collection. The FARSS member can decide its price and we can help in making the right decision.

The FARSHS member is eligible to join as a paid peer reviewer at Global Journals Incorporation (USA) and can get remuneration of 15% of author fees, taken from the author of a respective paper. After reviewing 5 or more papers you can request to transfer the amount to your bank account.



MEMBER OF ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY IN HUMAN SCIENCE (MARSHS)

The ' MARSHS ' title is accorded to a selected professional after the approval of the Editor-in-Chief / Editorial Board Members/Dean.



The "MARSHS" is a dignified ornament which is accorded to a person's name viz. Dr John E. Hall, Ph.D., MARSHS or William Walldroff, M.S., MARSHS.

MARSHS accrediting is an honor. It authenticates your research activities. Afterbecoming MARSHS, you can add 'MARSHS' title with your name as you use this recognition as additional suffix to your status. This will definitely enhance and add more value and repute to your name. You may use it on your professional Counseling Materials such as CV, Resume, Visiting Card and Name Plate etc.

The following benefitscan be availed by you only for next three years from the date of certification.



MARSHS designated members are entitled to avail a 25% discount while publishing their research papers (of a single author) in Global Journals Inc., if the same is accepted by our Editorial Board and Peer Reviewers. If you are a main author or co-author of a group of authors, you will get discount of 10%.

As MARSHS, you willbegiven a renowned, secure and free professional email address with 30 GB of space e.g. johnhall@globaljournals.org. This will include Webmail, Spam Assassin, Email Forwarders,Auto-Responders, Email Delivery Route tracing, etc.





We shall provide you intimation regarding launching of e-version of journal of your stream time to time.This may be utilized in your library for the enrichment of knowledge of your students as well as it can also be helpful for the concerned faculty members.

The MARSHS member can apply for approval, grading and certification of standards of their educational and Institutional Degrees to Open Association of Research, Society U.S.A.





Once you are designated as MARSHS, you may send us a scanned copy of all of your credentials. OARS will verify, grade and certify them. This will be based on your academic records, quality of research papers published by you, and some more criteria.

It is mandatory to read all terms and conditions carefully.

© Copyright by Global Journals | Guidelines Handbook

AUXILIARY MEMBERSHIPS

Institutional Fellow of Open Association of Research Society (USA) - OARS (USA)

Global Journals Incorporation (USA) is accredited by Open Association of Research Society, U.S.A (OARS) and in turn, affiliates research institutions as "Institutional Fellow of Open Association of Research Society" (IFOARS).



The "FARSC" is a dignified title which is accorded to a person's name viz. Dr. John E. Hall, Ph.D., FARSC or William Walldroff, M.S., FARSC.

The IFOARS institution is entitled to form a Board comprised of one Chairperson and three to five board members preferably from different streams. The Board will be recognized as "Institutional Board of Open Association of Research Society"-(IBOARS).

The Institute will be entitled to following benefits:

The IBOARS can initially review research papers of their institute and recommend them to publish with respective journal of Global Journals. It can also review the papers of other institutions after obtaining our consent. The second review will be done by peer reviewer of Global Journals Incorporation (USA) The Board is at liberty to appoint a peer reviewer with the approval of chairperson after consulting us.

The author fees of such paper may be waived off up to 40%.

The Global Journals Incorporation (USA) at its discretion can also refer double blind peer reviewed paper at their end to the board for the verification and to get recommendation for final stage of acceptance of publication.





The IBOARS can organize symposium/seminar/conference in their country on behalf of Global Journals Incorporation (USA)-OARS (USA). The terms and conditions can be discussed separately.

The Board can also play vital role by exploring and giving valuable suggestions regarding the Standards of "Open Association of Research Society, U.S.A (OARS)" so that proper amendment can take place for the benefit of entire research community. We shall provide details of particular standard only on receipt of request from the Board.



The board members can also join us as Individual Fellow with 40% discount on total fees applicable to Individual Fellow. They will be entitled to avail all the benefits as declared. Please visit Individual Fellow-sub menu of GlobalJournals.org to have more relevant details.

We shall provide you intimation regarding launching of e-version of journal of your stream time to time. This may be utilized in your library for the enrichment of knowledge of your students as well as it can also be helpful for the concerned faculty members.



After nomination of your institution as "Institutional Fellow" and constantly functioning successfully for one year, we can consider giving recognition to your institute to function as Regional/Zonal office on our behalf.
The board can also take up the additional allied activities for betterment after our consultation.

The following entitlements are applicable to individual Fellows:



Open Association of Research Society, U.S.A (OARS) By-laws states that an individual Fellow may use the designations as applicable, or the corresponding initials. The Credentials of individual Fellow and Associate designations signify that the individual has gained knowledge of the fundamental concepts. One is magnanimous and proficient in an expertise course covering the professional code of conduct, and follows recognized standards of practice.

Open Association of Research Society (US)/ Global Journals Incorporation (USA), as described in Corporate Statements, are educational, research publishing and professional membership organizations. Achieving our individual Fellow or Associate status is based mainly on meeting stated educational research requirements.



Disbursement of 40% Royalty earned through Global Journals : Researcher = 50%, Peer Reviewer = 37.50%, Institution = 12.50% E.g. Out of 40%, the 20% benefit should be passed on to researcher, 15 % benefit towards remuneration should be given to a reviewer and remaining 5% is to be retained by the institution.

We shall provide print version of 12 issues of any three journals [as per your requirement] out of our 38 journals worth $ 2376 USD.

Other:

The individual Fellow and Associate designations accredited by Open Association of Research Society (US) credentials signify guarantees following achievements:

- The professional accredited with Fellow honor, is entitled to various benefits viz. name, fame, honor, regular flow of income, secured bright future, social status etc.

- In addition to above, if one is single author, then entitled to 40% discount on publishing research paper and can get 10%discount if one is co-author or main author among group of authors.
- The Fellow can organize symposium/seminar/conference on behalf of Global Journals Incorporation (USA) and he/she can also attend the same organized by other institutes on behalf of Global Journals.
- The Fellow can become member of Editorial Board Member after completing 3yrs.
- The Fellow can earn 60% of sales proceeds from the sale of reference/review books/literature/publishing of research paper.
- Fellow can also join as paid peer reviewer and earn 15% remuneration of author charges and can also get an opportunity to join as member of the Editorial Board of Global Journals Incorporation (USA)
- • This individual has learned the basic methods of applying those concepts and techniques to common challenging situations. This individual has further demonstrated an in–depth understanding of the application of suitable techniques to a particular area of research practice.

Note :

"

- In future, if the board feels the necessity to change any board member, the same can be done with the consent of the chairperson along with anyone board member without our approval.
- In case, the chairperson needs to be replaced then consent of 2/3rd board members are required and they are also required to jointly pass the resolution copy of which should be sent to us. In such case, it will be compulsory to obtain our approval before replacement.
- In case of "Difference of Opinion [if any]" among the Board members, our decision will be final and binding to everyone.

"

Preferred Author Guidelines

We accept the manuscript submissions in any standard (generic) format.

We typeset manuscripts using advanced typesetting tools like Adobe In Design, CorelDraw, TeXnicCenter, and TeXStudio. We usually recommend authors submit their research using any standard format they are comfortable with, and let Global Journals do the rest.

Alternatively, you can download our basic template from https://globaljournals.org/Template.zip

Authors should submit their complete paper/article, including text illustrations, graphics, conclusions, artwork, and tables. Authors who are not able to submit manuscript using the form above can email the manuscript department at submit@globaljournals.org or get in touch with chiefeditor@globaljournals.org if they wish to send the abstract before submission.

Before and during Submission

Authors must ensure the information provided during the submission of a paper is authentic. Please go through the following checklist before submitting:

1. Authors must go through the complete author guideline and understand and *agree to Global Journals' ethics and code of conduct,* along with author responsibilities.
2. Authors must accept the privacy policy, terms, and conditions of Global Journals.
3. Ensure corresponding author's email address and postal address are accurate and reachable.
4. Manuscript to be submitted must include keywords, an abstract, a paper title, co-author(s') names and details (email address, name, phone number, and institution), figures and illustrations in vector format including appropriate captions, tables, including titles and footnotes, a conclusion, results, acknowledgments and references.
5. Authors should submit paper in a ZIP archive if any supplementary files are required along with the paper.
6. Proper permissions must be acquired for the use of any copyrighted material.
7. Manuscript submitted *must not have been submitted or published elsewhere* and all authors must be aware of the submission.

Declaration of Conflicts of Interest

It is required for authors to declare all financial, institutional, and personal relationships with other individuals and organizations that could influence (bias) their research.

Policy on Plagiarism

Plagiarism is not acceptable in Global Journals submissions at all.

Plagiarized content will not be considered for publication. We reserve the right to inform authors' institutions about plagiarism detected either before or after publication. If plagiarism is identified, we will follow COPE guidelines:

Authors are solely responsible for all the plagiarism that is found. The author must not fabricate, falsify or plagiarize existing research data. The following, if copied, will be considered plagiarism:

- Words (language)
- Ideas
- Findings
- Writings
- Diagrams
- Graphs
- Illustrations
- Lectures

- Printed material
- Graphic representations
- Computer programs
- Electronic material
- Any other original work

Authorship Policies

Global Journals follows the definition of authorship set up by the Open Association of Research Society, USA. According to its guidelines, authorship criteria must be based on:

1. Substantial contributions to the conception and acquisition of data, analysis, and interpretation of findings.
2. Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.
3. Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

Changes in Authorship

The corresponding author should mention the name and complete details of all co-authors during submission and in manuscript. We support addition, rearrangement, manipulation, and deletions in authors list till the early view publication of the journal. We expect that corresponding author will notify all co-authors of submission. We follow COPE guidelines for changes in authorship.

Copyright

During submission of the manuscript, the author is confirming an exclusive license agreement with Global Journals which gives Global Journals the authority to reproduce, reuse, and republish authors' research. We also believe in flexible copyright terms where copyright may remain with authors/employers/institutions as well. Contact your editor after acceptance to choose your copyright policy. You may follow this form for copyright transfers.

Appealing Decisions

Unless specified in the notification, the Editorial Board's decision on publication of the paper is final and cannot be appealed before making the major change in the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

Declaration of funding sources

Global Journals is in partnership with various universities, laboratories, and other institutions worldwide in the research domain. Authors are requested to disclose their source of funding during every stage of their research, such as making analysis, performing laboratory operations, computing data, and using institutional resources, from writing an article to its submission. This will also help authors to get reimbursements by requesting an open access publication letter from Global Journals and submitting to the respective funding source.

Preparing your Manuscript

Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.

Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.



Format Structure

It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals should include:

Title

The title page must carry an informative title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) where the work was carried out.

Author details

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

Abstract

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Keywords

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

Numerical Methods

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Abbreviations

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

Formulas and equations

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.

Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

Preparation of Eletronic Figures for Publication

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution at final image size ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs): >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Color charges: Authors are advised to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence, please note that if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a Color Work Agreement form before your paper can be published. Also, you can email your editor to remove the color fee after acceptance of the paper.

Tips for writing a good quality Social Science Research Paper

Techniques for writing a good quality homan social science research paper:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

2. Think like evaluators: If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

3. Ask your guides: If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

4. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of homan social science then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

5. Use the internet for help: An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



6. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

7. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

8. Make every effort: Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

.

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.



© Copyright by Global Journals | Guidelines Handbook

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.



© Copyright by Global Journals | Guidelines Handbook

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

Administration Rules to Be Strictly Followed before Submitting Your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc.

Please read the following rules and regulations carefully before submitting your research paper to Global Journals Inc. to avoid rejection.

Segment draft and final research paper: You have to strictly follow the template of a research paper, failing which your paper may get rejected. You are expected to write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The peer reviewers need to identify your own perspective of the concepts in your own terms. Please do not extract straight from any other source, and do not rephrase someone else's analysis. Do not allow anyone else to proofread your manuscript.

Written material: You may discuss this with your guides and key sources. Do not copy anyone else's paper, even if this is only imitation, otherwise it will be rejected on the grounds of plagiarism, which is illegal. Various methods to avoid plagiarism are strictly applied by us to every paper, and, if found guilty, you may be blacklisted, which could affect your career adversely. To guard yourself and others from possible illegal use, please do not permit anyone to use or even read your paper and file.

Criterion for Grading a Research Paper (Compilation) by Global Journals

Please note that following table is only a Grading of "Paper Compilation" and not on "Performed/Stated Research" whose grading solely depends on Individual Assigned Peer Reviewer and Editorial Board Member. These can be available only on request and after decision of Paper. This report will be the property of Global Journals

Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

Index

A

Absenteeism · 20, 23
Andragogy, · 85
Astoundingly · 2
Azerbaidjanais · 41, 44, 46, 48, 50, 52, 56, 58

C

Cantonese · 3
Connaissance · 41, 42, 43, 53
Consensus · 18, 85

D

Detournee · 50

H

Horriblement · 50

I

Itesiwaju · 1, 18, 20

M

Meticulously · 38
Morpheme · 6

P

Philanthropic · 64
Phraseologie · 41, 42, 44
Profondeur · 44
Provenance · 11, 13
Pythagorean · 77

Q

Quelconque · 42

S

Seulement · 41, 42, 43, 44, 50, 58
Soulignerait · 50
Syntactic · 11, 13

T

Traduit · 50



save our planet



Global Journal of Human Social Science

Visit us on the Web at www.GlobalJournals.org | www.SocialScienceResearch.org
or email us at helpdesk@globaljournals.org



ISSN 975587

© Global Journals