A SURVEY ON THE USE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES BY ELT AND ELL STUDENTS OF DUHOK UNIVERSITY IN KURDISTAN

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the use of vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) by the English language teaching (ELT) and English language and literature (ELL) students as well as the impact of gender and grade levels on the use of learning strategies. A five Likert scale questionnaire, consisting of 36 items was classified under four strategy categories was administered to 466 participants from the Duhok University. The Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS, version 20) was used to analyse the obtained data. The results of the descriptive statistics showed that Duhok university students were medium strategy users. The study also found that the cognitive strategies were the most popular strategies among the learners. Social strategies were found to be the least preferred strategies. The results of the t-test showed that in general, the scores of female learners regarding the use of VLSs were slightly higher than male learners. Moreover, ELT learners were found to be more strategy users than ELL learners. The results of ANOVA revealed significant differences regarding the use of VLSs and grade levels.

Keywords: Learning strategies, vocabulary learning strategies, ELT/ELL learners

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge plays an important role in learning English as a Second Language (ESL). Read (2000, p.1) stated that “words are the basic building block of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole text are formed”. The previous statement shows the importance of vocabulary in expressing thoughts and conveying meanings and it can also be an indicator that communication will poorly be understood without a large number of words.

Learners have rarely been taught that they should gain efficient knowledge of vocabulary in order to produce meaningful sentences. Language learners should be taught VLSs in order to be able to determine the meaning of new words and memorize them. Learning becomes more efficient and effective by the use of strategies and learners become more proficient in an L2 when they use strategies. Besides, if learners tend to acquire the vocabulary in an L2, they need a good knowledge of VLSs. Thornbury (2005) declared that the good language learners are those students who are able to develop their own VLSs so that they do not need to be taught how to learn. Learners spend much time on memorizing words but unfortunately, they face problems and cannot communicate well when they need them. The good language learners are those who use efficient VLSs and control their vocabulary learning. This means selecting the most suitable strategy from a variety of known strategies and determining how to follow the strategy and when to change to another one. It seems that
the language teachers’ main purpose is to lead students to reach a level of autonomy and make them independent from teachers in learning vocabulary.

1.1 The Problem Statement

As far as the researcher knows, the current situation with Kurdish learners is that, to some extent, many teachers have ignored to teach them different ways of learning vocabulary. Therefore, most of language learners just mechanically memorize new vocabulary, without being aware of different VLSs. The language students generally learn the meaning of the new words based on their phonetic representations or their meanings Kurdish. This might indicate that learners are not quite aware of different VLSs. Teachers also think that there is no need to allot too much time and effort to teach vocabulary.

Shortly, the present situation of learning vocabulary with Kurdish learners can be outlined as follows: 1) Lack of different strategies in learning vocabulary. For a long time, there has not been adequate change in vocabulary teaching methodology. Most teachers do not pay attention to VLSs. 2) Inefficient ways of learning vocabulary. Generally, learners mechanically memorize vocabulary without being aware of other effective learning strategies.

1.3 The Aim of the Study

The main aim this study is to examine and compare the use of VLSs by undergraduate ELT and ELL learners at the Duhok University in Kurdistan to understand better the ways that they use to learn words in English. Based on the research objectives, the study examines the total level of strategy use, and the most and least used VLSs as well as whether there are significant differences among learners in applying VLSs according to gender and grade levels. Moreover, the study aims to investigate whether there is a difference between ELT and ELL learners in VLS use.

More specifically this study will seek to answer the following questions:
1. What is the level of VLS use by the ELT and ELL undergraduate learners in Duhok University?
2. What are the most and least frequently used VLSs by the ELT and ELL learners?
3. Are there any significant differences between gender, grade levels, fields of study and the use of VLSs?

1.4 The Significance of the Study

It is important to find effective strategies of learning vocabulary. Based on the problems mentioned above, this study might help teachers and learners to become aware of the importance of vocabulary and solve those problems to enhance the development of the language learning process. If the findings reveal that the learners are not familiar with a wide range of VLSs; this research might help language teachers become aware of different VLSs. Besides, a study of this type will aid students to choose the strategies that are appropriate to their learning styles.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Importance of Vocabulary Learning

In most of EFL contexts, students with knowledge of a wide range of words are successful EFL learner. For ESL/EFL learners, vocabulary plays a crucial role in learning a language that supports the reading,
writing, speaking and listening skills. Vocabulary has a clear connection with reading comprehension, such as Matsuoka and Hirsh (2010) stated, “there is a strong link between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension” (p. 56). This strong link is mutual that poor knowledge of words would not make someone a good reader; in contrast, good knowledge of reading comprehension helps someone to acquire more words. Words are the devices learners use to imagine, think or express ideas and thoughts, as Hunt and Beglar (2005, p.2) argued that, “the heart of language comprehension and use is the lexicon”.

Inadequate vocabulary items refrain learners from expressing their ideas and thoughts. On the other hand, sufficient or rich vocabulary provides language learners the correct words to apply at the right time. For language learners, vocabulary knowledge is of great significance when using a foreign language, while no one can communicate without lexical repertoire. Oxford and Crookall (1990) noted that vocabulary is not explicitly taught in most language classes. It is clear that both vocabulary and grammar are of great significance in good language classes, but to compare between them, vocabulary is more central than grammar and more attention should be paid to vocabulary instruction. Ellis (1994) indicated that lexical errors tend to obstruct comprehension more than grammatical errors. Besides, Wilkins (1972, p.111) affirms that “Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”. In comparison with aspects of language, such as grammar and pronunciation, vocabulary is the area of language that learners seem most conscious of (Ellis, 1996). Mastering vocabulary items is an important component of second/foreign language learning.

2.2 What is Involved in Knowing a Word?

In ELT literature, there is a clear distinction between receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. According to Nation (2001), the ability to understand the form of a word while listening or reading means receptive vocabulary whereas, the ability to use the appropriate spoken and written means productive vocabulary. Language learners are not required to recognize all the aspects of knowing a word. Knowing aspects of a word, it can be said, depends on language learners’ level of education, whether learners are beginner, intermediate or advanced. For instance, there is no need for young language learners to deal with morphology, register or collocation since these aspects are very difficult for them but advanced language learners need to deal with them if they intend to have a better knowledge of vocabulary. Regarding the aspects of knowing a word, Ur (2002) suggested that knowing a word concerns knowing word form (pronunciation and spelling), grammar, collocation, aspects of meaning (denotation, connotation, appropriateness, and meaning relationships), and word formation. In general, knowing a word means knowing its form and its meaning.

2.3 Which Words Need to be Taught?

In every language there are too many words that EFL/ESL learners need to know in order to understand authentic texts. It seems obvious that in any language, it is sensible to teach the most frequent words before the unusual ones are taught, as they are probably the most useful words for students of that language. Macro (2003) indicated that there 2,000 high frequency words of which many are function words. This would lead us to decide that they must be taught in L2 classrooms and taught in an explicit way. Once learners acquire these words, it is time to begin increasing their vocabulary command by introducing less
frequently used words. Without the most frequently used words, learners cannot function in the foreign language. Besides, Schmitt (2000) affirmed that words around 2,000 would be a realistic goal. It seems that since in all kinds of text, high frequency words occur, so this leads us to determine high frequency words should be taught to language learners. Nation (2001) indicated that other categories of words are academic words, technical words and low frequency words. Macro (2003) noted that academic words become essential when learners go beyond the intermediate language learning stage and are starting to learn about academic content (e.g. psychology, economics, areas of study) through the medium of the L2 while technical words are very closely related to the topic and subject area of the context. There are thousands of low frequency words in the language (Nation, 2001). As far as low frequently used lexical items form a large number of words, it is definitely impossible to master them in a/the L2 class. As a result, instead of wasting time on less frequently used words inside the class, language teachers should provide and train on good VLSs for learners. Strategies regarding these words should be taught to learners.

2.4 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

VLS means any devices, tools or techniques used by the language learners to retain their vocabulary easily. Nation (1990) asserts that most of language learners’ problems in both receptive and productive usage of vocabulary emerge from their insufficient learning of lexical knowledge. VLSs must contain strategies for learning a word, in addition to using a word. Hedge (2000) proposes that in addition to the teachers’ explanation of the new words to learners, one of their main crucial roles is to improve independence among learners by teaching them effective strategies. Accordingly, VLSs are teachable, that language learners can be taught various kinds of VLSs and how to practice them effectively. Therefore, language learners need to be familiar with a variety of VLSs and acknowledged with a selection of VLS and are taught how to employ them in order to build up their vocabulary or to resolve the problems they face in learning vocabulary effectively.

In the language classroom, VLSs taught probably build learners’ self-confidence to learn vocabulary autonomously. In order to deal with a new word when it occurs and be successful and independent language learners, Harmer (1991) stated that language learners should be familiarized with extensive kinds of strategies, which is very beneficial since they become able to select the type of strategies that are appropriate to their individual learning styles. LLSs create a better self-direction for language learners. Oxford (1990) pointed that independent language learners are self-directed learners, who have the responsibility for their own learning strategies and progressively obtain confidence and proficiency. Schmitt (1997) declared that learners are widely inclined to employ basic VLSs. This in turn makes VLS instruction an important part of foreign or SLL. Language teachers need a good knowledge of VLS that could be useful to plan their teaching more successfully and guide learners in adopting effective strategies. Therefore, training in the VLSs is necessary for language learners.

2.5 Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Scholars have different ways of classifying VLSs. Schmitt (1997) investigated many learning strategies altogether in his own classification of VLSs. He distinguished between the strategies that learners use to determine the meaning of unknown words when they first encounter them from the ones learners use to consolidate meanings when they encounter the words again. Schmitt classified the strategies in his taxonomy...
as discovery strategies (social and determination strategies) and consolidation strategies (social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies for learning vocabulary). Social strategies are included in two groups of strategies because they can be used for both purposes. Lessard-Clouston (2008) stated that this categorization has been developed based on language-learning strategies’ classification organised by Oxford’s (1990).

In discovery strategies, determination strategies are used for the discovery of a new word’s meaning without attaining somebody’s knowledge. Schmitt noted that learners try to determine the meaning of a new word by guessing it with the help of context, dictionary or through using social strategies to ask someone (e.g. teachers, their classmates) for help with unfamiliar words. Group learning work through which learners study and practice the meaning of new words is an example of social strategies for consolidating a word. Memory strategies involve those approaches to relate the word with some existing learned knowledge. Schmitt defined cognitive strategies as “manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner”. Cognitive strategies refer to the repetition and employing some mechanical means for learning vocabulary. Lastly, metacognitive strategies are defined as a conscious overview of the learning process and they assist students to control, plan, monitor and evaluate the best ways to study (Schmitt, 1997).

**METHODOLOGY**

3.1 Research Design

The research is designed as a descriptive survey study with quantitative approach. Creswell (2012, p.376) stated that we “use survey research to determine individual opinions”. Surveys are designed to process large quantities of data statistically when needed to be researched. Therefore, this study mainly depends on quantitative data collection methods.

3.2 Participants

Table 1 shows the distribution of students according to gender and field of study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of study</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study included 466 undergraduate students at Duhok University, Kurdistan. The data were collected from the Faculty of Educational Science and the Faculty of Humanities. The questionnaire was distributed to the whole ELT and ELL population in these two faculties.

As table 1 shows, the study included 267 female students and 199 male students. It was originally planned to select an equal or at least a close number of male and female learners. This seemed to be impossible.
because of the limited number of female learners at Duhok University. 223 of the participants were ELT students from the Faculty of Educational Science and 243 were ELL students from the Faculty of Humanities.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the students according to their grade levels in the English language departments.

Table 2: The distribution of students according to their grade levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade levels</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st grade</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grade</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd grade</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th grade</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the students in the study were on a BA degree programme in the English Department. The students were four-year degree learners. As can be seen from table 2, the study included 129 first year students, 139 second year students, 106 third year students and 92 fourth year students.

3.3 Instrument

In this study, a written VLS questionnaire was used as a main instrument in order to identify patterns and preferences of the participants’ use of VLSs. The questionnaire used in this study is the one developed by Tek (2006) who adapted it from Kudo (1999) who relied mainly on the study conducted by Schmitt (1997). This questionnaire was chosen because the researcher believed that they are close to the samples in his study.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. In the first part, questions are designed to gain demographic information about participants. Questions in this section include the respondents’ gender and grade level. The second part includes the questions related to the VLSs. The questionnaire contains 36 items. The items are divided into four categories, social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive. Each category consists of nine items. To find the frequency of use for each strategy, a five point Likert scale was used with the options, “never”, “sometimes”, “often”, “usually”, and “always”.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The written VLS questionnaire as the main tool for the data collection was used in this research study. The questionnaire was administered to 466 ELT and ELL undergraduate learners studying English in the Duhok University. A VLSs questionnaire in English was applied as a data collection instrument. The original version of VLS questionnaire was used because all the participants majored in English and they were expected to have enough language proficiency to understand the statements.

3.5 Data Analysis

Concerning the data collection, the completed VLS questionnaires of all students were analyzed with the help of the SPSS programme in order to test the use of VLSs. The analysis of the questionnaire was done in order to answer the research questions. Descriptive statistics was used to find out the percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations of the variables. ANOVA was used to identify the relationships among the means of more than two variables. In this study, ANOVA was used to identify whether there were
differences among grade levels regarding their use VLSs. Independent T-test is a method that used to determine the relationship between two variables. In the present investigation, the T-test was used to identify whether there is a relationship between the students’ gender and the use of VLSs. Moreover, T-test was used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the ELT and ELL students in VLS use.

FINDING AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Overall Vocabulary Strategy Use and Level

Table 3 shows that 2.98 is the overall mean score of VLSs used by the students. According to Oxford’s (1990) scoring system, the students of this study were found to be medium strategy users.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for overall VLS use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>466</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of descriptive statistics of this study showed that students were medium strategy users. Therefore, it can be concluded that in general, Duhok University learners had moderate success in employing VLSs due to their limited knowledge of the existing strategies. Since the results reveal that VLSs are not given importance by the language teachers in their lessons, these findings demonstrate that it is crucial for language teachers to teach vocabulary strategies more thoroughly.

4.2 The Frequency of Usage of VLS Categories

To locate the most and least frequently used VLS categories, descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations of the four categories were calculated. Table 4 shows the frequency of strategy use of the four categories.

Table 4: The mean score and standard deviation of the four categories of VLSs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy main category</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Strategy level</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 4 show that the Duhok University undergraduate learners used all four categories of VLSs moderately. Therefore, Duhok University students reported only average-level use of VLSs of any category (M= 2.98). Cognitive strategies (M=3.29; SD= 1.08) were reported as the most frequently used strategies by the respondents, followed by memory strategies (M=3.06; SD=1.06) and metacognitive strategies (M=2.89; SD=1.13). Social strategies (M=2.69; SD=1.12) were found to be the least frequently used strategies compared to other strategies.
Cognitive strategies were found to be the most frequently used strategies. These strategies were used at the medium level of strategy use with the mean score of 3.29, but compared to the strategies of the other three categories, they were more frequently used. This result goes in line with many previous research findings (e.g., Pourshahian et al., 2012; Bengar & Kasmani, 2013; Karami & Barekat, 2012; Kudo, 1999; Tek, 2006). The frequent use of cognitive strategies might result from students’ high English proficiency level. According to Gu and Johnson (1996), the use of cognitive strategies is a positive predictor of general proficiency. Therefore, the main reason behind the frequent use of cognitive strategies might be that Duhok University students were proficient learners of English. Social strategies were the least frequently used strategies among the students. Many previous researchers found that social strategies were least popular among language learners (e.g., Heidari, Izadi & Ahmadian, 2012; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Karami & Barekat, 2012; Doczi, 2011; Bangar & Kasmani, 2013; Kodu, 1999; Hamzah et al., 2009). Researchers who examined the use of VLSs (e.g., Bengar & Kasmani, 2013) suggested that the infrequent use of social strategies might be explained by the fact that learning vocabulary is an individual process.

4.3 The Five Most Used Strategies

Table 5: The five most preferred strategies by the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use English language internet</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take notes in class.</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a bilingual dictionary</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image word’s meaning.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a monolingual dictionary</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table 5 shows the five most frequent used VLSs by the students of this study. The results revealed that “Using internet” is the most frequent strategy among learners of this study. This means the students see the internet as a main source to find out information to learn a new word. Several years ago, the commercial internet service providers began to emerge in Kurdistan. Commercial internet services widespread quickly. Therefore, people in general and students in particular found the internet to be a source of new extracurricular language learning activities for them. It can be said, this new advanced technology, to some extent, motivated the students to discover new VLSs. Moreover, because of its novelty and extraordinary character, students probably started to spend much time working on the internet, and thus they tended to frequently come across various unknown words and thus enrich their vocabulary. Finding this strategy as the highest used strategy might also have a connection with the students’ very frequent use of various forums or online exercises on the Web. On the other hand, the high frequency of using internet to learn vocabulary might be related to its accessibility.

The second most frequently used strategy is “Taking notes in class”. It seems that language teachers have advised the students to memorize and take notes in class as a preparation for examination. This result was similar with the findings of some previous researchers (e.g., Karami & Barekat, 2012; Ahmad, 1989). The possible explanation for the high use of this strategy among the learners could be because of the educational system, which is mainly based on individualism. This means that inside the classrooms, language teachers
mostly provide the materials and knowledge in front of the students and the students are required to just listen and take notes. Interaction activities in this kind of classes would occur very rarely, and the least frequency of use of social strategies in this study is the evidence.

The third popular strategy was the use of a “bilingual dictionary”. The results of this study showed that the students preferred using bilingual dictionaries more than using monolingual dictionaries. This means that the learners tended more to think the meaning of the unknown word in their L1 translation. However, finding the popularity use of bilingual dictionary among the students of this study does not mean that it is a useful source for learning a word, as in the VLS literature review, Brown (2000, p. 377) stated, “It is unfortunate that such practices rarely help students internalize the word for later recall”. Moreover, the use of a “bilingual dictionary” was criticized for several reasons, for example to encourage using the translation, provides little knowledge on how the words are used (Nation, 2001).

### 4.4 The Five Least Used Strategies

Table 6: The five least used strategies by the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test with your parents, if they know English</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask your school teacher for Kurdish translation</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask your teacher to check your word lists for accuracy</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to English- radio program</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read an English language newspaper</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 6 shows, the least frequently used strategy among 36 VLSs by the students of this study was from metacognitive strategies, which was “Testing with your parent, if they know English”. This finding indicates that the parents might not know the English language therefore; the students almost never tested the meaning of the new word with them. The second and the third infrequently used strategies are from social strategies which are, “Ask your teacher for Kurdish translation” and “Ask your teacher to check your word lists for accuracy”. It seems that inside the language classes, interaction activities very rarely happen. The most sensible explanations for the least use of social strategies, particularly asking teachers for the L1 translation or other information to determine the meaning of a new word, is that learning vocabulary items seems to be regarded as an individual process rather than seeking help from others. These findings are also similar with Bengar and Kasmani (2013), who suggested that the reason of the infrequent use of social strategies could be that learning English vocabulary is inclined to be seen as an individual task, therefore, when learners think to discover the meaning of the new word, they prefer not to ask help from others. Another reason for the rare use of asking teachers’ help in learning a new word might be found in the peculiarities of the educational system in Kurdistan, particularly in Duhok University. In language classrooms, teachers seem to be the centre of language learning. This means that language teachers tend to provide information and materials in front of the learners and the students are required to follow the instructions by just listening and taking notes. In this kind of classrooms, interaction activities very rarely would be seen.
4.5 Significant Differences of VLS Use Based on Gender

The results in table 7 show the significant differences only in four individual strategies found between gender and strategy use.

Table 7: Significant differences of VLS use based on gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Items</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>d.f</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take notes in class</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>-3.49</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test with your parents, if they know English.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-2.95</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn by pair work in class</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>-3.30</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn by group work in class</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>-3.05</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this study, the significant differences were found only in using four strategies. Female learners were more frequent strategy users in those four strategies than male learners. The results in table 7 indicate that the female learners (M=3.92) seem to take more notes in the class than the males (M=3.58). This finding suggests that inside the classroom, female learners are more active and follow the teacher’s instructions more than male learners. The results also show that female learners (M=2.03) tend to test the meaning of the new word with their parents more than male learners (M=1.92).

In literature review, research studies have investigated that females talk to parents more than males, such as Noller and Callan (1991) stated, “females talk more to parents and disclose more in conversation regarding issues such as interests, family sex roles and relationships”. Consequently, females are more verbally interactive with parents and receive affection from parents in general than males. Therefore, this might be a main reason that female learners used to test the meaning of the new words with their parents more than male learners. In the Kurdish background culture, females spend most of their times staying at home compared to males. Therefore, the fact that females spend more time staying at home might be another reason why they are more inclined to test the meaning of the new words with parents than males. The female learners (M=3.22) showed that they preferred more to work in pairs than males (M=2.90). Interestingly, the same with the frequency of use of strategy “Learn by group work in class”, that females (M=3.32) were using it more frequently than the males (M=3.00).

These findings suggest that females tend to build social interaction and learn the meaning of the new word through pair or group work more than males, such as Timmers and Fischer (1998) stated that “females’ communication patterns focus on relationships and females’ focus on power”. The most plausible explanation for the frequent use of social strategies by females could be that females in general are more inclined to interact and build social relationships than men. Several research studies explained that females seek for help more than males, females are more eager to keep on the need for social support and approval (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989). Hall (2011) stated that if the idea of believing that female learners are better L2 learners than male
learners is right, then probably it is resulted from their effective social interactions. These findings support the idea that the females tend to use more social strategies than males.

4.6 VLS Use and Grade Level

The results in the table 8 shows, the reported strategies by the students among all the grade levels used in the medium level.

Table 8: VLS use among the grade levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Grade</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fourth grade</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third grade</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First grade</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second grade</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 8 show that there is a slight difference among the frequency of use of the grade levels and strategy use. Despite this, a close look at the results shows that the fourth and the third year students use more strategies than the second and the first year students. Therefore, it can be said, that the results reveal that there is a significant difference in the frequency of use of VLSs between the fourth, third year students and the second, first year students. This finding suggests that the more experienced students (fourth and third year students) in studying English reported more frequent use of VLSs than the less experienced students (second and first year students) in learning English. Similar result was found by some previous researchers (e.g., Ahmed, 1989; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Schmitt, 1997). It is a common belief that the use of learning strategies has a positive relation with language proficiency. Ahmed (1989) stated that the more experienced learners use more strategies. It seems that the experienced language learners in English combine and orchestrate their use of particular vocabulary in a successful way. The high frequency of use of VLSs by fourth and third level learners might have several reasons, for example, they might have a good knowledge of vocabulary. Researchers (e.g., Boonkongsan & Intaraprasert, 2014; Hamzah et al., 2009) revealed that the students with high and low vocabulary knowledge tend to use VLSs differently. Moreover, the fourth and third year students could have high proficiency of vocabulary, thus this high proficiency might have motivated them to use VLSs frequently.

4.7 Significant Differences of VLS Use Based on Field of Study

Table 9 illustrates the significant differences in two major fields of study and strategy use.

Table 9: Significant differences of VLS use based on field of study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Items</th>
<th>Major Field</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>d.f</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms</td>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>3.609</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use new word in sentences</td>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings revealed that the ELT and ELL learners studying at the Duhok University were more alike than different in VLS use. As can be seen from the table 9, the ELT learners were frequent users of the “Connect the words with its synonyms and antonyms” strategy than ELL learners. This could be because the ELT teachers during their lessons focused more on connecting the word to its synonyms and antonyms. The ELT students preferred to use new words in sentences, ask teachers for sentence including the new word and ask teachers to check their word lists for accuracy more frequently than ELL students. A close look at the high frequency of use of these strategies by the ELT learners, shows that these strategies have more relationship with the ELT learners than the ELL learners. This could be because ELT learners deal with the structure of sentences and grammar rules more frequently than ELL learners. Therefore, this might have led the ELT students to use the new word in sentences. ELT students preferred to use “Memorize parts of speech” strategy to learn the meaning of a new a word more frequently than ELL students. The ELT learners might have more experience in parts of speech than ELL learners, who rarely deal with parts of speech.

The results show that the ELL learners were more eager to use internet to find the meaning of a new word than ELT learners. The reason could be that when the ELL students deal with literature, especially medieval literature, they probably face many difficult words that might not be found in modern dictionaries. Therefore, these difficult words might have affected the students to use internet to find the meaning of the new words. To summarize, it was concluded that there were minor differences between the ELT and ELL learners in strategy use. In general, the ELT students were statistically more strategy users than the ELL students.

### IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Implications

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that the students were familiar with limited VLSs. The medium level of VLS use indicated that the students were not quite aware of different VLSs. Therefore, several implications can be made based on the results of this study:

In Duhok University language classes, vocabulary was not taught explicitly, since only several VLSs among 36 strategies were popular among the students. This indicates that even language teachers might not know enough about VLSs. Therefore, this study can assist the teachers and the students to have more knowledge on VLSs. Training learners by using various strategies would probably lead to better independent L2 learners in the language learning process. To do this, teachers need to be familiar with different kinds of VLSs at first. Then, they are required to train their learners with different learning strategies.
The least frequency of use of social strategies indicates the poor social interaction in language classes. Language teachers are required to design more cooperative learning discussions and communicative competence activities in their L2 classroom. To do this, the university first must provide a curriculum, which is more directed towards collaborative and interaction activities to enhance learning in L2 classes. Then, language teachers are also required to arrange suitable group activities in order to encourage learners to share ideas when learning new vocabulary. Therefore, language teachers need to be aware of the importance of incorporating strategies inside language classrooms. Moreover, language teachers should be aware of differences in VLSs preferences between male and female learners and provide different opportunities for learning words.

5.2 Suggestions for Further Research

Further research should be done to get better understanding of student’s VLSs use. Since the respondents of this study were medium strategy users of VLSs, it would be interesting to see how the teachers teach words and whether they apply any of the strategies in their own classrooms. Moreover, the parents’ English language as a factor affecting their childrens’ learning process seems important to be investigated more widely in future studies. Using qualitative data collection to triangulate the data could reveal whether the respondents’ answers in the written questionnaire are similar with what they actually do. To attain this aim, qualitative data collection method and classroom observation should be employed. In addition, although this study showed that there was only a slight difference between male and female learners in VLS preferences, this does not mean that male and females are similar in other fields or levels of education. No difference between males and females among English majors does not mean that there is no difference among the students majoring in other subjects. No difference in VLS use between male and female learners among university students does not confirm that there is no difference between males and females in the basic or preparatory schools. All these aspects need to be investigated in future studies in order to get a better understanding of gender differences in SLL.

REFERENCES


THE BEST OF TWO WORLDS: COMPREHENSION OF IDIOMS BY L2 SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

A community where the members have already internalized one or more indigenous languages (L1) before the acquisition of another usually foreign language is a second language (L2) one. The purpose of this study therefore is to examine whether L2 learners use knowledge of their L1 to comprehend idioms in their L2. Also to determine whether L1 idioms that are very similar to their equivalents in the L2 would cause more interference than those idioms that are different or the speaker is able to switch from one code to the other with ease. If they encounter any interpretation challenge, the speaker usually finds a way out. Therefore, this study attempts to provide information about the different strategies learners use when they have to comprehend idioms they do not know. This study enables us to describe the characteristics of those idioms which are the easiest to learn and assess the differential effects of transfer on the comprehension and production of idioms of L2 speakers. Those expressions whose literal meanings offer no clue as to the figurative meanings are more difficult to access than those whose figurative and literal meanings are close. The former are tagged decomposable idioms, while the latter are tagged non-decomposable idioms. When an idiom is decomposable, readers assign independent meanings to its individual parts and will quickly recognize how these meaningful parts combine to form the overall figurative interpretations of the entire phrase. Our observations provide an insight into strategies that would be effective in teaching and learning idioms and thereby enhance the linguistic performance of the learners.

INTRODUCTION

The axiomatic outlook about idioms did not take into account the fact that speakers of any language have the capability or ability to produce and understand utterances which are appropriate in the context in which they are used. This is what is described as communicative competence for example by Hymes (‘Competence’): what the child internalizes beyond the rules of grammar as he becomes a full-fledge member of its speech community. For a foreigner, it is what he learns about a group’s verbal behaviour so as to participate appropriately and effectively. The speaker must know the code as well as what to say and how to say it appropriately in any given context in addition to all the extra linguistic factors that must be assumed to give the speech event its total meaning. Hymes suggests that communicative competence depends on ‘tacit knowledge and ability for use’: the knowledge of language in actual use and the actual use of the language in concrete situations. This means that the social and cultural knowledge of speakers and other skills needed to put the knowledge to communicative use all play a part in the use and interpretation of linguistic forms. This is the knowledge Saville-Troike (Ethnography) says includes, rules for communication (linguistic and sociolinguistic), shared rules for interaction, cultural rules and knowledge (the basis for the context and content of communicative events and processes). The suggestion is that culture is what the individual needs to function well in the community and knowing the meaning of a speech act requires knowing the culture in which it is embedded.

For a Second Language (L2) speaker, the use of idioms cannot be discussed without recourse to the concept of transfer. This is because previous learning affects subsequent learning in language as the forms and patterns of the First Language (L1) are imposed on the L2. When the two languages are identical and the learner uses the L1 in producing the L2, positive transfer occurs and the learner produces correct L2 forms and patterns. On the other hand, when the two languages are different, using L1 to produce the equivalent forms or patterns in the L2 causes negative transfer and errors here are called interference errors. Moreover, transfer and comparative analysis are linked because a comparison of two languages can help to show how an item in one language can be transferred to the other language. In this case how an idiom in the language(s) of the L2 speakers is transferred into English. This is a significant factor that has implications for teaching L2 learners.

Background
An L2 learner already has an L1; therefore there is the influence of the L1 on the L2 that is being learnt. An L2 is the language learners are exposed to after they have already acquired their native language. The acquisition or learning of an L2 is different from that of the L1.

An L2 learner, who is an adult, has already acquired an L1 and is therefore more conscious of its cultural codes and rules. These cultural codes may help or hinder the L2 learning process. The learner may have also been exposed to a way of talking about language which is often learnt in school. Therefore, the learner’s understanding of grammatical concepts and terms may affect his L2 learning process. This is the issue of metalanguage.

The social or cultural milieu is the environment in which an individual is situated, thus determining their beliefs about other cultures and language; these beliefs which have a significant impact on L2 acquisition.

Language transfer refers to a situation in L2 learning and acquisition in which a learner’s L1 influences his L2 (Crystal 1997). Transfer means carrying over the forms and meanings of one language to the other, resulting in interference.

Objectives

a. examine whether L2 learners use knowledge of their L1 to comprehend idioms in the L2.

b. whether L1 idioms that are very similar to their equivalents in the L2 would cause more interference than those idioms that are non-familiar.

c. provide information about the different strategies learners use when they have to comprehend idioms they do not know.

d. determine the characteristics of those idioms which are the easiest to learn.

e. assess the differential effects of transfer on the comprehension of idioms of L2 speakers.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses on which this research is based are:

1. familiar idioms would show evidence of positive transfer and the easiest to comprehend and produce correctly;

2. similar idioms would show evidence of negative transfer;

3. for non-familiar idioms, there would be no evidence of either positive or negative transfer and subjects would comprehend and fewer non-familiar idioms than idioms of the other two types.

METHODOLOGY

Twelve Nigerians, who are advanced learners of English, were the subjects of this study. They were first given 90 idioms to categorize them into familiar and non-familiar idioms. Out of these, 15 idioms that are familiar to all participants, 15 regarded as non-familiar and 15 which are similar to those in their indigenous languages which they can readily think of were isolated. This makes the total number of idioms used 45. The participants were asked to provide the meaning of each of the 15 familiar idioms individually on sheets of papers provided. Then in a group session the non-familiar idioms were discussed to identify the strategies used to access the meaning of the idioms. Those idioms which have similar meanings, idea or equivalents to the indigenous idioms were examined and compared to the meaning of their English counterparts.

FINDINGS

At the end of this study, these are our findings:

1. The familiar idioms were the easiest to comprehend and thus constantly used by the participants. This is because their literal meanings offer clues to the figurative meanings and can easily be identified with by the participants. The meanings expressed in the idioms can be conceptualized by the participants in their indigenous languages using the words contained in the idioms. This class of idioms are those which have been tagged decomposable idioms by researchers. When an idiom is decomposable, readers assign independent meanings to its individual parts and will quickly recognize how these meaningful parts combine to form the overall figurative interpretations of the entire phrase. Therefore, there is positive transfer.
2. Those idioms which have similar ones in the indigenous languages of the participants were also easy to comprehend, although in some cases participants could not say the exact idiom in their indigenous language but knows them and can explain them.

3. The following strategies were identified as those used by the participants in comprehending the idioms and accessing their meanings:
   a. Certain words in some of the idioms that are regarded as non-familiar were used to arrive at the meaning of such idioms appropriately, through the exploration of the relationship of the words with others in the expression.
   b. The participants also call up the meanings of idioms in their indigenous languages when they encounter those that are similar in terms of certain phrases, words or ideas. Even when they cannot recall the exact expression in their indigenous language, the meanings are triggered and when expressed they are appropriate for the English idioms provided.
   c. For some of the non-familiar idioms, after a discussion of their knowledge of some key words in some idioms, the participants could see the connection between such words and their meanings and quickly explain the meaning of the idiom.

4. Those whose literal meanings offer no clue as to the figurative meanings are more difficult to access than those whose figurative and literal meanings are close. Some of the idioms that are regarded as non-familiar belong in this category. This class of idioms are those which have been tagged non-decomposable idioms. The participants could not identify any word in the idioms that could give them a clue as to the meaning. Therefore, there is neither positive nor negative transfer as the participants say they would not use these idioms at all.

CONCLUSION

The relationship between the literal meaning of the individual words in the string of an idiom and the idiomatic or figurative meaning vary from one idiom to another and play a vital role in the comprehension of idioms. Some idioms still have vivid synchronic relation to literal meaning while some do not. In between, there are different levels of relationship that can be identified between the literal meanings of the words and the figurative meanings of the idioms that they are the constituent parts. This suggests that the ability of native speakers to comprehend idiomatic expressions inadvertently shows that the analyzability of an idiom is the extent to which the speakers of the language can trace the relations between the literal and figurative levels of meanings. This is also true for L2 speakers. Familiar idioms show evidence of positive transfer and the easiest to comprehend, similar idioms show evidence of both positive and negative transfer, and non-familiar idioms show no evidence of either positive or negative transfer. Our observations show that to ensure effective teaching and learning idioms there is a need to explore the meanings words in the idioms and similar idioms in the speakers L1 in order to enhance the linguistic performance of the learners in the use of idioms.

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Appendix

Familiar Idioms
1. Don't count your chickens before they hatch.
2. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth.
3. Don't put all your eggs in one basket.
4. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
5. All in the same boat.
6. Hit the nail on the head.
7. Idle hands are the devil’s tools.
8. Get up on the wrong side of the bed
9. Cry over spilt milk
10. Get over it
11. Cry wolf
12. Let bygones be bygones
13. Cock and bull story
14. On the same page
15. A Slap on the Wrist

**Non-Familiar**
1. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth
2. Bend over backwards
3. Between a rock and a hard place
4. Chow down
5. Close but no cigar
6. Come hell or high water
7. Crack someone up
8. Get down to brass tacks
9. Keep your chin up
10. Level playing field
11. No room to swing a cat
12. Not playing with a full deck
13. Out of the blue
14. Out on a limb
15. Out on the town

**Similar**
1. Blood is thicker than water
2. Flesh and blood
3. Keep body and soul together:
4. Let sleeping dogs lie
5. Let the cat out of the bag
6. Like a chicken with its head cut off
7. Never bite the hand that feeds you
8. New kid on the block
9. Off on the wrong foot
10. On pins and needles
11. On the fence
12. Over my dead body
13. Finger lickin' good
14. To Make A Long Story Short
15. Without A Doubt
EDUCATION AND SOCIETY: THE ISSUE OF RELEVANCE IN NIGERIAN EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
The aspiration of everyone acquiring any form of education be it traditional or western is to be enlightened, responsible, reliable and above all, be able to earn a good living at the completion of the course that is, after graduation. The African traditional education was so effective in making the individuals who have acquired it fully employed at graduation; this is due to its functionality and relevance to the needs, aspirations and yearning of the society. The young ones were exposed to various vocations and inculcated with the rudimental skills needed to master the vocations. The advent of western and formal education introduced new set of professionals like Administrative officers, engineers, lawyers, doctors, historians, philosophers to mention a few. However, not everyone have the mental and intellectual ability to attain the above professional levels, some are good in practical work but lack ability for theoretical work, but due to misplacement of priority, they are allowed to go to secondary school instead of technical and vocational schools. The absence of some technical and vocational subjects and perhaps, lack of commitment and competence on the part of teachers who teach the few available ones makes the students incapable and jobless at graduation. This paper therefore, examines the concept of education, people’s expectation of education, unemployment and the causes, the effects of unemployment on the society, how to make education relevant to the needs, aspirations and yearning of the society; and recommendations towards making education relevant to people’s needs were made
Keywords: Education, society, relevance

INTRODUCTION
Education is a crucial factor in making every individual whatever he or she purposes to be in life. It is a process of intellectual re-engineering and development that aims at liberating the receiver from the bondage of ignorance, dogmatism, parochialism and make him live a fruitful, purposeful and acceptable life (Asoga-Allen, 2000).

Education illuminates individuals mind and make them rational thinkers, technologically inclined and methodical in the pursuit of the issue of life. An illiterate or illiteracy generally is a kind of barrier,
impediment, and obstacle in the way of the people who had no opportunity of being educated or acquired literacy.

The objectives of African traditional education include:

1. To make a child useful to himself and to the society at large.
2. To expose the child to vocational skills that would make him self-employed when he becomes adult.
3. To make every child physically and mentally fit.
4. To make every child well behaved and morally sound.
5. To develop in every child the spirit of cooperation and understanding thereby making each child loyal and patriotic to the society.
6. To make every child obedient to the rules and regulations guiding the society and to inculcate in the young ones the spirit of love and affection for the community, and being ready to render voluntary services which include willingness to defend the Society.
7. To develop in the child the attitude of respect for the parents and older ones in the society (Ijadunola, 1998).

One basic thing about African traditional education is that individual child learns to do by doing which is similar to John Dewey’s philosophy of learning and teaching (Asoga-Allen, 2002). The teachers of traditional education are parents, old sibling and the elderly ones in the society and the children when exposed to various vocations like farming, weaving, hunting, fishing to mention a few. The child picks the one he knows better and practices it when he becomes adult. That is the reason why unemployment was very rare in the African traditional setting.

Every system has its functionality or disfunctionality, when a system is working in a foreign country and other foreign countries want to replicate it. It must ensure that the system vis-à-vis what makes it functioning where it is being practiced are properly studied and replicated. If you just embrace the system without what makes it functional, the system may end up in failure. That is the situation with the western education in Nigeria which has brought unemployment to the graduates due to the way it has been handled by those at the helms of affairs in Nigeria.
The focus of the paper therefore is on the concept of education, people’s expectation of education, unemployment and the causes in Nigeria, the effects of unemployment in the society, how to make education relevant to the needs, aspirations and yearning of the society, and makes recommendations towards employment-oriented education

THE CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

Education means different things to different people and nations. That is, there are many definitions of education as there are many educational philosophers and scholars, the multisided nature or heterogeneity of education definition arises from a misunderstanding between what it should be, its forms and what should be it content (Akanbi and Olokun, 1994). Some scholars focus their definitions on what the end or goal of education should be while others defined it from the perspective of what the content should be. First and foremost, let us examine the concept of education from the dictionary view.

The Longman dictionary of contemporary English (1995), defines education as the process by which one’s mind develops through learning at a school, college or university; or the knowledge and skills that you gain from being taught, or a general area of work or study connected with teaching.

Certain facts that can be adduced from the Dictionary’s concept of education are;

1. That education develops human mind.
2. That education takes place in school, college or university and
3. That education brings about acquisition of knowledge and skills as a result of being taught.

However, it must be stressed that not only in school, college or university that education takes place. Education takes place at home, in the field, even at an informal level. It is an erroneous idea to feel that those who were not opportuned to pass through the four walls of educational institutions are uneducated. Rather it would be appropriate to say that such people are illiterates than calling them uneducated. Literacy is acquired in school, college and university.

Scholars philosophers who have expressed their opinions on what should be the concept of education includes Spencer(1929) who sees education as having for its objectives the formation of character, Mayer(1966) regards education as a process leading to the enlightenment of mankind in intellectual growth, emotional maturity and ethical awareness. Asokoya(1985) while trying to define education, sees
it as the leading inborn powers and potentialities of the individual in the society and the acquisition of
skills, aptitudes and competences necessary for self-realization and for coping with life’s problems.
Fafunwa(1974) believes that education is the sum total of abilities, attitudes and other forms of
behaviour which are of positive value to the society.

People’s Expectations of Education

The peoples’ expectations of education are comparable to the aims of education in Asoga-Allen (2002)
which include:

1. Promoting unity and international understanding
2. Removing sound inequalities, poverty, hunger, diseases, illiteracy, ignorance, superstitions and fear.
3. Providing individual happiness and pleasure, self realization, moral and aesthetic development.
4. Training for good citizenship, health improvement, vocational competence, industrial and
   commercial developments and adult literacy.
5. The promotion of manpower for economic development.
6. Creating a society with high moral standard (a virile society)
7. Eradicating the problem of the country’s economic and technological dependence on advanced
countries of the world.
8. Promoting public enlightenment and civilized behaviour.
9. Striking a balance between national, local and foreign ones.
10. Promoting and developing harmoniously balanced and contented individuals and producing self-reliant individuals who are loyal, patriotic and proud of their cultural heritage and nation.

It must be stressed that the above aims look far wide and national, at the point of individuals, the major
expectations of individuals of education is that after acquiring education, they must be able to earn a
good living, becoming what they intend to or aspire to be in life. It may be impossible for the
government to employ every graduate from the school system however, the enabling environment must
be created for the school graduates to realize their ambition of getting a good job or create one.

In advanced countries, the statistics of enrolment of students in schools as to when they enter and when
to graduate are kept by the Government. The purpose of this is to know the number of students that
would graduate each year and to create job opportunities for them. In the developing country like
Nigeria, the story is different; it doesn’t seem that government cares about students after graduation. That is one of the reasons why millions of Nigerian graduates are unemployed and they roam the streets. Another pertinent issue is the type of education being given to the students. In a developing country, the vocational and technical education should run pari-passu with theoretical education. A lot of students are not good in theoretical education but good in technical area. There was a time when Nigeria adopted a policy of education popularly called 6-3-3-4 educational policy. This means six years of primary education, three years of junior secondary school, three years of senior secondary school and Four years of University education. In this policy, emphasis was on vocational and technical education. Only exceptionally brilliant students would be allowed to go to senior secondary school after three years of junior secondary school, those who are not so brilliant or good in practical work would go to technical schools.

The aim of the policy is to ensure that students after graduation would have a chosen vocation already learnt in school that they could engage themselves in to earn their living. As good as this policy was, it failed due to poor implementation. Today both brilliant and dull students are allowed to graduate to senior secondary schools from junior secondary school, this account for mass failure in West African School Certificate Examination (WASC) and National Examination Council (NECO). Even those who passed the WASC and NECO have no vocation that they could engage themselves in, that is jobless. Likewise University, Polytechnics and Colleges of education graduates.

Most Nigerians are hopeless in terms of acquiring western education especially as they see a lot of graduates without job; they are worried about what becomes their future after acquiring the education. More so, as the government play lips service to the creation of jobs. In the light of this, people no longer see the Nigerian education as being relevant. In fact, the relevance in any educational system is its ability and capability of making the receiver of the education what they aspire to be. Even though there is misplacement of priority by not implementing a proposed system of education that would make everyone self employed at graduation, the government at all levels seem not to show concern about creating jobs for the jobless.

Meaning of Unemployment
Unemployment occurs when people are without work and actively seeking work (Wikipedia, 1914). It is a situation or a kind of economic deprivation where one has the ability and the needed qualifications to earn a living but the means are completely absent. The unemployed person suffers a lot of deprivations and lack of recognition in the society. Some of the deprivations include:

- Lack of purchasing power due to lack of income.
- Suspect when something is missing at home or outside.
- Lack of respect by the general public
- Inferiority complex in a gathering of the employed.
- Psychological trauma.
- Inability to plan ahead.
- Dependence on parents, friends and relations for economic survival.
- Inability to contribute to the national product and
- Economic liability

Unemployment rate is a measure of the prevalence of unemployment and it is calculated as a percentage by dividing the number of unemployed individuals by all individuals currently in the labour force.

**Causes of Unemployment in Nigeria**

The following are the causes of unemployment as far as Nigeria is concerned:

1. **Corruption by Politicians**

   It is no longer news that politics in Nigeria is a game of corruption. And the nation has not been fortunate to have a leader who subject self interest to national interest. The mentality and idiosyncrasy of Nigerian politicians is to amass wealth through crooked means, no sooner you hold political power than you become a multi-millionaire. The money that would have been utilized to create jobs is pocketed by individual politicians. The corruptions of the politicians explain why election is a do or die in Nigeria. Emphasis is on self, not the National growth and development

2. **Wrong Educational Policy**

   This is another cause of unemployment in Nigeria. The idea of impacting only theoretical knowledge in school would not make the students self-employed after graduation. In fact, the idea of promoting secondary school education at the expense of technical and vocational education would result in
producing graduates with empty hands. The 6-3-3-4 earlier mentioned would have been the best thing that has ever happened to Nigerians and Nigerian education. But this policy was handled with disdain and poorly implemented and hence, it failed. While in secondary school, students would have been taught house wiring, motor mechanic, electrical installations, wood work, metal work, bricklaying, architectural designs e.t.c which they would have engaged in one, and earn a living at graduation. Also the idea of allowing students who demonstrate innate ability for technical work to graduate to senior secondary instead of technical school is a serious error.

3. Scientific and Technological Backwardness

Nigeria is still very backward in terms of science and technological development. It takes science and technology to develop a nation, the place of science and technology for every sphere of human development cannot be over emphasised. No adequate measures has been made by the Nigerian government to encourage the scientists, inventions by scientists are not being given desirable attention by the government, thus, the nation depends on technologies invented in other parts of the World. The deception that Nigeria is transferring technology from the advanced countries is a ruse, because what is being called technology transfer is merely a product of technology, if it is technology itself, it would be capable of developing the nation’s technology. No nation is ready to give the secret of its technology to another nation. What Nigeria ought to do is to develop its local technology.

4. Unemployable Graduates

This is another problem causing unemployment in Nigeria. Some of the graduates of Nigerian higher institutions are not competent to be employed. The reason for this ranges from poor facilities in some of the higher institutions, poor background of some of the students before entering higher institutions and incessant strikes by Lecturers due to poor welfare packages.

5. Lack of adequate attention to Agriculture

Nigeria is blessed with fertile land that is suitable for arable farming according to Ekemode, Arabami and Sanbe (2000). The country occupies a lad mass of 98 million hectares, of which 70% represents five ecological zones suitable for agriculture including Arable farming, forestry, livestock and fisheries. If agriculture have been mechanized and developed, the jobless Nigerians are not enough to work in the agricultural sector but this is not done. The focus of the government has been on the crude oil alone, and
the proceeds from the crude oil have been mismanaged and diverted by few individuals who are less than 5% of the population and thrown the rest citizens into poverty and penury.

6. Lack of Electricity

This is another cause of unemployment in Nigeria. Electricity is very crucial in the creation of jobs, with regular supply of electricity, a lot of companies would emerge, those already in operation would enlarge their coast thereby employing more workers. But it is a pity that trillions of Naira are spent on electricity generation by every regime in Nigeria without anything to show for it. As at 2014 ending, Nigeria is still in a complete darkness without any headway in power generation and distribution.

7. High rate of Bank interest

The interest charged on loans in Nigeria is still on a high side, it does not favour entrepreneurs who would have borrowed money for business purposes. This also affect the graduates who would have love to start a business of their own.

8. Interest in Office job alone

This is another serious cause of unemployment in Nigeria, most of the unemployed graduates are not ready to do any menial job except government office job. Job is job once It fetches money, money realised from a dirty job would not smell. If you are yet to get what you want, you take what you get. But most unemployed in Nigeria prefer to roam the street looking for unavailable office jobs than to accept a menial job for the mean time.

The Effects of Unemployment on Nigerian Society

An adage says that “an idle hand is the devil’s workshop”, lack of employment for the teaming youth graduates have the following effects:

- High crime rate in the society
- Poor purchasing power by those who are working because of heavy dependence by unemployed relations.
- Low gross domestic product (GDP)
- Lack of interest in going to school by the young ones.
- Parent’s unwillingness to send their children to school.
• Economic stagnation when the number of the unemployed is more than or almost equal to those who are employed

• Waste of youthful energy that would have been utilized for economic purposes.

• It can cause Youth protest/ Crisis.

• Late marriages by the Youth.

• Psychological withdrawal of loyalty to the nation.

In conclusion, any purposeful government must take the employment of its teeming youth very serious and give it all it takes to be successful. Unemployment is a serious economic and mental deprivation; it is like a cloud, when it gets to the saturation level it would rain, if it continues unchecked, it is capable of causing chaos and anarchy in the society.

Recommendations towards making Education relevance to the needs, aspirations and yearnings of the people

• Nigerian education needs immediate restructuring, more technical and vocational schools must be put in place for students who are good in technical aspect.

• The Guidance counsellor at the secondary school levels should be allowed and encouraged to monitor academic records of the students so as to direct at the completion of Junior secondary were each student should proceed to.

• Technical and vocational subjects should be given a priority in our secondary schools and the facilities needed to handle these subjects should be made available.

• The Nigerian government and the Politicians should borrow leaf from the governments of advanced countries, shun corruption and put the national interest above self interest.

• Teachers should be trained in vocational areas so as to train the students and give them adequate knowledge to practise what they learnt after graduation.

• More resources should be diverted towards agricultural mechanization to create jobs for the jobless.

• Salaries of politicians should be reduced, a situation where law makers in Nigeria earn higher than presidents of some advanced countries impoverishes the nation and very unfortunate.
- Government should have the statistics of yearly enrolments into tertiary institutions so as to know the year of graduation and provisions needed in terms of job creation.
- As a matter of urgency, government should do all within its power to employ millions of jobless graduates that roam the streets.
- Registration of jobless graduates should be carried out in every local government of the country to know the total number.
- Private sectors should be encouraged to employ more unemployed graduates.
- None of the government that ruled the nation would be credited to have done anything if the trillions of naira spent on electricity only bring more darkness than lightness. Thus, those who embezzled the money made for generating and distributing electricity should be tried and the money collected from them.

**REFERENCE**


JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN WARTIME BEIJING FOUND IN HOKUSKI (THE NORTH CHINA)

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ABSTRACT

This presentation focuses on the life of Japanese community and residents in Beijing during the wartime period of the late 1930s and the early 1940s. There is today rich literature on modern Sino-Japanese relations generally speaking, while a small number of previous studies have dealt with Japanese residents and communities on the Chinese continent before 1945. Although Beijing competed with Shanghai over the status of the largest Japanese community in wartime China, studies on the former are scare even in comparison to those on the latter. The history of the Japanese community in Beijing can be traced back to the very beginning of the twentieth century, and its residents called their own community “Beijing Village (Pekin mura)” prior to the 1930s. The “village” turned to be one of the largest Japanese communities at the very beginning of the 1940s as a result of the drastic influx of the Japanese from Japan proper and Manchuria, especially after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese Conflict (1937-45). This study attempts to delineate the wartime life of Japanese residents in Beijing by paying attention to the monthly journal titled Hokushi (The North China) edited by the North China Transportation (Kahoku Kotsu) founded in 1938 as the group company of the Japanese state policy enterprise South Manchuria Railway (Minami Manshu Testsudo). The accounts of the monthly journal tell us what problems/difficulties Japanese residents encountered and how they tried to cope with them in the wartime foreign land.

Keywords—Sino-Japanese Conflict, Sino-Japanese Relations, Beijing, Japan, China
THE INFLUENCES OF THE PERIODICAL WORKING ON THE FAMILY FUNCTIONING OF IRANIAN OFFSHORE OIL COMPANY EMPLOYEES (IOOC) - 2010

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ABSTRACT

One important family duty is to secure physical and mental safety of each family member in order to ensure their mental health. Although family is known to be the primary social component, it has abundant complexities so much that its cognition, importance, and functions have been the subject of attention of many diverse experts. In this research, the influences of the periodical working on functioning of the families of IOOC employees were evaluated and its influencing factors were identified. In the theoretical framework, William Goode’s role pressure theory was applied. The methodology of this research is descriptive and inferential, and the data is collected using the survey method. The statistical population of this research is from the families of all employees in IOOC employees who were employed before 1389 (2010) of whom 500 were selected through cluster sampling proportional to the population in order to complete the questionnaires. The tools used in this research were FAD questionnaire and interview. In conclusion, the most important outcomes of this research are the significant difference between the work site (the platform and the island) and differences between types of work (shift working and fixed working) in emotional involvement area of FAD test. Furthermore, a significant connection between periodical working and family function was found. Therefore, in order to enhance the condition of families’ functioning it is necessary to consider the employees’ type of work and workplace.

Keywords: Family functioning, Periodical Working, Type of work, Work site

Abbreviations: IOOC (Iranian Offshore Oil Company), WHO (World Health Organization), GHQ (General Health Quality), FAD (Family Assessment Device)

INTRODUCTION
It was expected that, with the advantage of technology and development of industry, we see improvements in career status and life quality of the people. But issues such as career stressors have influenced this prediction. One of the stress resources that achieved in the studies up on the employees of industrial sectors, especially satellite jobs of oil and gas, is the issue of remote working away from the family. Among other factors that brings stress is undesirable career situation and unpleasant environment, lack of mental safety, etc. in all sectors. There are also issues and problems related to specific jobs such as inappropriate life as well as geographical conditions, being far away from family and anxieties caused by living in particular areas, etc. which are mostly visible in tour employment and occupations in remote, distant areas of the country.

**RESEARCH BACKGROUND**

Khodabakhshi provided a study regarding the relationship between career tensions and mental health of tour employees as well as mental hygiene of their children and spouses, as a comparison in two groups, namely tour and non-tour employees. He concluded that there is a negative significant relationship between career tensions of employees and their mental health. In other words, the more we have career mental tensions in this group of employees, the more serious mental harms are witnessed. Also the study shows that there is no significant difference between mental hygiene in tour and non-tour fathers, but there is a positive relationship between mental hygiene of fathers with children and their spouses. In another research, Ferdowsi studied the comparison of the level of marital satisfaction and mental health of male staff and tour employees of Iran Oil Co. in central districts. The results show that there is no significant difference between marital satisfaction of tour and staff employees but there is significant correlation between mental health and marital satisfaction and all employees.

**Problem statement**

Employees of Iran Oil Co. have 14-day shift in islands and operational platforms, and have 14 days off with their families. These employees are spread in more than 200 cities of various provinces, and in initial studies accomplished by the company, there are signs of such harms. Results of the studies in terms of psycho-social effects of working shift shows that the type of job in tour condition affects satisfaction from life of the employees' families. Lack of self-esteem and limited relationships with friends and acquaintances as well as difference between two groups, namely tour and non-tour employment is also evident. Working far away from the family and not fulfilling the role of being father and spouse affects family condition, marital relationships and father-children communication, and some studies show the effect of tour employment on marital satisfaction. (Ghabiti, 2015)
Research Question

IOOC is one of the active companies in oil and gas operations from Iranian marine reservoirs, which has brilliant experts and engineers among the middle east. Total number of employees in this company is approximately 4000 persons, of which 3000 persons (85%) are working on periodical basis in operational and marine oil platforms in cities offices. These persons serve 14 days in operational zones including Sirri, Lavan, Kharg, and Bahregan islands, and will remain 14 days near their families to rest. These employees are serving in more than 200 cities and provinces, with some initial symptoms in the studies of this company.

On this basis, initial and main research questions are as follow:

1. Does tour employment (working shift, constant working) effect on the performance of employees’ families?
2. Is there any significant difference between the effect of tour working on the performance of the families in terms of employment status (shift working and constant working)?
3. Which aspects of families’ performance are affected by tour employment?

Research purpose

This research is aimed at examining the effect of tour employment on family status of employees working in islands and operational oil and gas platforms and finding approaches to reduce negative harms of this employment pattern.

Related works or discussion

Among researches provided in this topic is Mohammad Moradian Zadeh’s work which is aimed at examining family problems of employees working in Iran oil industry tour plan, who are residing in Isfahan. The questions of the study are that “does employment in a tour plan lead to family issues and disorder in educative and academic affairs, family management, social behavior, emotional and mental affairs as well as economic status of the family?” The results show that there is a significant relationship between tour employment in Oil industries and family issues. It was also evident that there is a significant relationship between tour employment and disorder in educative, mental and emotional affairs as well as family management (Moradian Zadeh, 2009; 1).

In their study, Sutterland and Felin showed that offshore employees consider transferring between home and workplace as their most significant source of stress. Family, generally speaking, is a social unit. For this category of employees, who are isolated due to their specific type of job, the role of family is more pronounced than normal condition and can act as an important supporting mechanism.
In a study on Northern Sea American employees’ families, Forice and Gathier found that decision making and playing roles as well as problem solving in the families related to such employment categories are the burden of the wife. They called this decision making and home management strategy as ‘periodical guest’ and considered it as one of the most powerful strategies in such families. In this approach, the wife is the major decision maker in all affairs and the husband is regarded only as a guest in his times of presence (Ki Parks, 2005; 1).

Mourice and Clement believe that the father comes back home after 2 weeks or more of working shift. In other hands, the family demands for attention and collaboration of father in home activities, but the father is still tired and he is caught in a kind of conflict between desire to contribute in home activities and hindering it by fatigue. Although the father is physically at home but he is deprived of collaboration in home affairs because of fatigue, insomnia and vigilance.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Taking into consideration that the present research is to analyze the impact of periodical working on general health of personnel and their families (Employees of IOOC), this needs continuous steps of research. Therefore, focusing on research methodology there shall exist analyzing the interviews and questionnaires to obtain this goal in order to collect required information in this regard.

**Theoretical framework**

Mc Master Model has been appointed as the intended theoretical framework to examine the performance of the family.

**Research Instruments**

Mc Master’s questionnaire (FAD) evaluates 6 areas of the family: problem solving (in territory of family), communication (in territory of family), roles (in territory of family), emotional responsiveness, emotional collaboration, behavior control.

**Data Analysis Methodology**

Descriptive and inferential statistics are applied to analyze the data. In order to analyze the status of working field, type of periodical working, etc., some descriptive table (frequency and frequency percent) and related diagrams are applied, in order to test the research hypotheses, some parametric tests are applied. In order to test main hypothesis, some route analysis are applied.
Analysis of specific hypotheses. It is mentioned in different hypotheses including periodical working and the levels of dependent variable analysis of Pseudo-distance and T-test are applied so. In relational hypotheses, the Chi-square test was applied.

**RESEARCH FINDING**

Table 1 Frequency distribution and the average of health scores based on regions of working

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Micro-index</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>Bahrgan</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khark</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Siri</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lavan</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tehran</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.00000</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Frequency, minimum, maximum and mean scores of the respondents, according to micro scales of family performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Micro Scales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Std Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional company</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional intercourse</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior control</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 Conclusion of the hypotheses, difference in type of job (shift working and constant shift), and territory of employment (offshore or onshore) in FAD test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FAD</th>
<th>Difference between shift working and constant working</th>
<th>Offshore-onshore difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing role</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional company</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional intercourse</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior control</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

**Results coming from FAD sub-scale family performance** which includes problem solving, role, emotional company, emotional intercourse and behavior control, shows that in terms of problem solving, emotional company, emotional intercourse and behavior control, the majority of respondents are in improper condition. Meanwhile, in terms of role and communication, the majority of respondents are in proper conditions of family performance.

**Results coming from FAD sub-scale family performance divided by offshore-onshore** shows that in 6 micro scales of family performance, offshore workers are showing more signals of harm and improper performance in terms of problem solving, emotional company, communication, emotional intercourse and behavior control.

**Results coming from FAD sub-scale family performance divided by shift working or constant working** shows that in 6 micro scales of family performance, shift workers are showing more symptoms of improper performance in terms of problem solving, emotional company, playing role and behavior control, while constant worker are mostly showing symptoms of improper performance in terms of emotional intercourse. The signs of improper performance in terms of communication is similar in both groups.

**Results coming from the difference in significance of offshore and onshore workers in FAD sub-scale family performance** in terms of problem solving, emotional company, communication and behavior control does not show any significant difference, meanwhile in terms of emotional intercourse, there is a significant difference between 2 groups.

**Results coming from the difference in significance between shift workers and constant workers in FAD sub-scale family performance** in terms of problem solving, playing role, emotional company, communication, behavior control there is no significant difference. Meanwhile, in terms of emotional intercourse there is a significant difference between two groups.

**CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

- Holding courses and workshops
- Guidelines to control environmental stresses
- Negotiation and discussion
- Spare time activities
- Providing intimate and friendly atmosphere
• Providing an appropriate platform
• Presence of families in working fields
• Providing a supporting network for families in their residence cities
• Holding courses and workshops
• Paying attention to children’s demands
• Development of opportunities for communication between work and home
• Providing consulting as well as psychological services to employees and families
• Training for managers
• Remote consulting services for employees and families
• Supporting employees’ wives
• Providing a comprehensive guideline for employees and their families
• Recruitment of experienced psychologists

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CEO OVERCONFIDENCE AND THE COST OF BANK LOAN

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the impact of Chief Executive Officer (CEO) overconfidence on the cost of bank loan. Using a sample of the firms in the US from 1992 to 2012, we find that overconfident CEO enhance a firm’s external financing capacity by lowering the firm’s cost of bank loan. In other words, the overall findings in this study suggest that the information transparency hypothesis dominates the manager optimism hypothesis in term of positive impact of CEO overconfidence on the cost of bank loan. Our results are also robustness to the financial crisis, potentially selection bias and endogeneity problem issue.

Keywords: CEO, Overconfidence, Bank-loan contract

INTRODUCTION

Academics and industry practitioners have long puzzled over whether and to what CEOs have heterogeneous talents and abilities of a firm matters for its performances and investment decisions (Adams, Almeida, and Ferreira, 2005; Bertrand and Schoar, 2003; Gabaix and Landier, 2008; Kaplan, Klebanov and Sorensen, 2012 and Murphy and Zabojnik, 2004) and the human beings who run the firm ultimately determine the level of efficiency achieved and the cost of bank loan (Berkm, Stanton and Zechner, 2010; Frank and Goyal, 2007; Graham, Harvey and Puri, 2013; Rahaman and Zaman, 2013). This paper contributes to the extant literature by directly estimating the impact of a firm’s CEO overconfidence on its cost of bank loan which are critical sources of funding for firms by testing two competing, but not mutually exclusive, hypothesis: the information transparency hypothesis and manager optimism hypothesis.

1 Overconfidence is the tendency of individuals to think that they are better than they really are in terms of characteristics such as ability, judgment, or prospects for successful life outcomes (Hirshleifer, Low and Teoh, 2012).

2 Over the past two decades, the syndicated loan market has become the largest sources of worldwide corporate financing (Ivashina, 2009) and roughly 80% of all public firms maintain private credit agreements, compared with only 15-20% that have public debt (Faulkender and Petersen, 2006; Sufi, 2009). Malmendier and Tate (2005) show that overconfident managers avoid equity financing and rely on internal cash and debt to fund projects.
The information transparency hypothesis predicts that CEO overconfidence enhance a firm’s external financing capacity by lowering the firm’s cost of bank loan. As suggested by previous studies firms with overconfident CEO have greater information transparency with respect to performance and project quality, it may mitigate the information and monitoring costs on the bank lender. Andriosopoulos, Andriosopoulos and Hoque (2013) find that overconfident CEOs disclose more information is more likely to disclose explicit information on their intended buyback program. Gervais, Heaton, and Odean (2011) present a model where overconfidence can increase firm’s value by aligning incentives and mitigating moral hazard. In addition, Hirshleifer, Low and Teoh (2012) find that over the 1993–2003 period, firms with overconfident CEOs have greater return volatility, invest more in innovation, obtain more patents and patent citations, and achieve greater innovative success for given research and development expenditures. Kaplan, Klebanov and Sorense (2012) find that both buyout and VC CEOs, success is more strongly related to execution, resoluteness, and overconfidence-related skills than to interpersonal-related skills.

The manager optimism hypothesis predicts that CEO overconfidence diminish a firm’s external financing capacity by heightening the firm’s cost of bank loan. As suggested by previous studies firms with overconfident CEO have over optimistic. They will overestimate future cash flow and underestimate the volatility of their firms' future cash flows. This character will make bias in the future performance and it will enhance the risk cost of lender of bank. Griffin and Tversky (1992) find overconfident individuals tend to overestimate the net discounted expected payoffs from uncertain endeavors, either because of a general tendency to expect good outcomes, or because they overestimate their own efficacy in bringing about success. Furthermore, people tend to be more overconfident about their performance on hard rather than easy tasks. Malmendier and Tate (2005) propose a simple model and the empirically show that managerial overconfidence can cause corporate investment distortions. They find that the sensitivity of investment to cash flow is strongest in the presence of overconfidence. Ben-David, Graham, and Harvey (2007) provide a theoretic framework to analyze the relations between managerial overconfidence and corporate policies. However, they define the CEO overconfidence as miscalibration. Based on their definitions, overconfident managers who either underestimate the volatility of their firms' future cash flows or use lower discount rates than unbiased managers
do. Hribar and Yang (2011) examines whether overconfidence increases the issuance of overly optimistic management earnings forecasts and greater earnings management. Chen, Ho and Ho (2014) examine the relationship between unexpected increase in research and development (R&D) expenditure and CEO overconfidence and find that the positive long-run stock performance is found only for firms with non-overconfident CEOs.

This paper focuses on a sample of 4809 loans which include 805 firms and 1163 CEOs in the US covering the period of 1995 to 2012. Our main finding is that overconfident CEOs have lower spread than non-overconfident CEOs. Since bank could design covenants to mitigate the anticipated effects of overconfidence (Sunder, Sunder and Tan, 2010) and overconfident CEOs have greater information transparency with respect to performance and project quality which can reduce information and monitoring cost. In other words, we suggest that the information transparency hypothesis dominates the manager optimism hypothesis. In addition, our results are also robustness to the financial crisis, potentially selection bias and endogeneity problem issue.

This research makes at least two valuable contributions to the literature. First, to the best of our knowledge, our paper is the first to combine CEO confidence and the cost of bank loan. Despite the growing evidence of the effects of CEO overconfidence on corporate decisions (Malamendier and Tate, 2005, 2008; Campbell, Gallmeyer, Johnson, Rutherford and Stanley, 2011; Malamendier and Tate, 2011; Hribar and Yang, 2011), it is unclear whether investors rationally discern and incorporate such overconfidence in contracting with firms with overconfident CEOs. This paper fills a gap in the literature by examining how bank contract with firms in the presence of overconfident CEOs. Nevertheless, nowadays, private bank loans have become the primary source of corporate debt financing, overtaking public debt since the last decade (Denis and Mihov, 2003; Bradley and Roberts, 2004; Sufi, 2007, 2009). The concurrent increases in the levels of intangibles and bank financing in recent decades make it important to examine how this particular form of organizational capital (intangibles) affects the pricing and design of bank loans. Second, we complement the literature which studied which factor affect the pricing and design of bank loans. Base on the Rahaman and Zaman (2013) ideal that is manager quality matter to lender. They use the management practice scores in Bloom and Van Reenen (2007)
to measure the managerial quality of the firm that is a measurement of past behavior, but we use overconfidence to be a forward looking variable. The creditor’s perspective in assessing the role of CEO overconfidence for CEO performance and efficiency and shows that beyond shareholders, creditors also explicitly take into account the cost down of information collection cost and supervision cost from CEO overconfidence when designing debt contract.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we describe the data and introduce the methodology used in this paper. Section 3 analyzes the empirical results. Section 4 displays our robustness checks and section 5 concludes this study.

2. Data and Variables

2.1 Data

Information on bank loan is from the DealScan database in the Loan Pricing Corporation database, and contains detailed information on U.S. commercial loans made to corporations since 1989. Strahan (1999) and Chava and Roberts (2008) provide a god description of the LPC Dealsacn database. In our empirical analysis, the basic unit is a loan, also referred to as a facility or tranche in Dealscan. The information about firms is from the Compustat annual files, and CEO overconfidence measure information in our samples is collected from Execucomp. We merged the Deals, Compustat annual file and the Execucomp to create our final sample for the years 1995 to 2012. This leaves a sample of 4809 loans observations which include 805 firms and 1163 CEOs.

2.2 Variable Definitions

2.2.1 Measurement of the cost of loan

The primary outcome variable of our analysis is the cost of bank debt. Much of the literature on the cost of bank debt (e.g., Graham, Li and Qiu, 2008 and Rahaman and Zaman, 2013) uses the loan spread over LIBOR at the time of the loan origination as a measure of the cost of bank debt. The “All-in-Drawn” (Loan Spread) variable in the DealScan database describes the amount the borrower pays in basis points over LIBOR for each dollar drawn down. It also adds the spread of the loan with any annual (or facility) fee paid to the bank or bank group. We use the logarithm of the “All-in-Drawn” variable as our measure of the cost of bank
2.2.2 Measurement of CEO Overconfidence

The measure of CEO overconfidence (Longhlder) we use the data on option compensation. Our measures of CEO overconfidence are the same as a series paper of Malmendier and Tate (2005, 2008). Following Malmendier and Tate (2005, 2008), Confident CEO takes a value 1 if a CEO postpones the exercise of vested options that are at least 67% in the money, and 0 otherwise. They employ the panel data of the CEO's personal portfolios in executive options exercise to identify whether CEO is overconfidence. CEO obtains the right to purchase their company's share from executive options, and the exercise prices of the options are usually at the stock price on the grant date. The duration of most executive options is ten years, and the vesting period in which the options are unexercisable are usually four years. If a CEO is identified as overconfident by exercise option measure, she remains so for the rest of the sample period.

As we do not have detailed data on a CEO’s options holdings and exercise prices for each option grant, we follow Campbell et al. (2011) in calculating the average moneyness of the CEO’s option portfolio for each year. First, for each CEO-year, we calculate the average realizable value per option by dividing the total realizable value of the options by the number of options held by the CEO. The strike price is calculated as the fiscal year-end stock price minus the average realizable value. The average moneyness of the options is then calculated as the stock price divided by the estimated strike price minus one. As we are only interested in options that the CEO can exercise, we include only the vested options held by the CEO.

Using this measure with the Execucomp sample allows us to include more firms and to cover a more recent period that includes the millennial high-tech boom and Subprime mortgage crisis. Although this measure is less precise, Malmendier, Tate, and Yan (2011) show that it works well after controlling for past stock return performance. Furthermore, Campbell et al. (2011) show that this measure of overconfidence generates results similar to those in Malmendier and Tate (2005).

2.2.3 Control variable

a. Firm characteristics

To control the firm characteristics we use several variables. We use log(total assets). The natural
logarithm of the firm’s total assets represents a firm’s annual book value of assets. Leverage is the ratio of long-term debt to total assets. Profitability is the ratio of earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization (EBITDA) to total assets. Tangibility is defined as the ratio of net properties, plants, and equipment to total assets. Interest coverage ratio (ICR) is defined as EBITDA over interest expenses; a higher coverage ratio indicates greater ability of a firm to service its existing debt. Finally, we use ZSCORE is defined (1.2Working capital + 1.4Retained earnings + 3.3EBIT + 0.999Sales) / Total assets which can be used to predict the probability that a firm will go into bankruptcy within two years.

b. Loan characteristics

Some loan-specific characteristics may affect spreads. We control for natural log of loan size because there may be economies of scale in bank lending. If so, the loan spread would be negatively related to loan size. We further control for loan maturity because banks might face greater uncertainty and higher credit risk in loans carrying relatively long maturities. Loan may differ from non-pricing clauses. Therefore we use dummy variables to control this possibility. The financial covenant may reduce the risk so we use the dummy variable. We also control the sponsored, refinancing, secured and syndication that we expect to affect spreads. In order to facilitate a quick overview on our explanatory variables, we provide definitions of the dependent and independent variables examined in our study in the Table 1.

2.3 The baseline model

The Tobit framework accounts for the constrained range of the dependent variable and hence, is an econometrically sound choice to obtain consistent estimates of the regression coefficients. The regression model is specified as

\[ y_{ijt}^* = \beta_0' x_{ijt} + \zeta_j + \gamma_{ijt} + \epsilon_{ijt} \]

with

\[ y_{ijt} = \begin{cases} y_{ijt}^* & \text{if } y_{ijt}^* > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

where \( y_{ijt}^* \) is a latent variable that is observed for values greater than 0 corresponding to firm i’s loan spread for industry j per year t (Loan Spread ) and zero otherwise. \( \beta_0' \) is a vector of coefficients associated with the regressor vector \( x_{ijt} \) including the explanatory variables as described in Section 2.2 on an annual basis, \( \zeta_j \) measure the industry effect; \( \gamma_{ijt} \) control the year effect and \( \epsilon_{ijt} \) is the error term.
3. Empirical result

3.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 displays summary statistics such as mean, standard deviation, etc. for all of our variables. It can be seen that loan spread exhibits a mean of 166.713 basis points, ranging between 5 and 1325 basis points during sample period. Longholder variable even distribute in our sample. The average of loan tenor is 4 years which means the long term loan more than short term loan. In Table 3, we provide pairwise correlation of the variables in our sample. The general level of the correlation coefficients in Table 3 is below 0.7. Therefore, we suggest that the problem of multicollinearity in my following regression analysis is quite limited. Table 4 provides preliminary univariate statistics for the sample of CEO overconfidence firms and their nonoverconfidence peers. It shows that loan spread of the CEO overconfidence firms are significantly lower than that of nonoverconfidence peers (162.601 basis point vs. 173.036 basis point). CEO overconfidence firms also enjoy significantly larger deal amount ($705.911 million vs. $613.689 million), larger tenor with overconfident CEO (4.267 years vs. 4.051 years), more covenants to overconfident CEO (0.875 covenants vs. 0.843 covenants) and higher ZSCORE with overconfident CEO (1.73 points vs. 1.636 points). In addition, for almost variables, the median test of the difference between overconfident CEOs and non-overconfident CEOs are statistically significant at 1% level, except for median difference test of the spread and asset which are significant at 5% level.

Moreover, the median difference tests of loan spread between overconfident CEOs and non-overconfident CEOs are significant under 5% level. To sum up, based on the mean and median difference tests, Table 1 suggests that the characteristics of firms with and without overconfident CEOs who loan spread may be different. Accordingly, it is important to control the firm characteristics in the following Tobit regression analysis.

3.2 Tobit regression: Baseline

Table 5 reports the multiple Tobit regression results from testing the association between loan spread and firms with CEO overconfidence (Longholder) to enable the testing of the two competing, but not mutually
exclusive, hypothesis: the information transparency hypothesis and manager optimism hypothesis. The coefficient of longholder is negative and significantly supporting the information transparency hypothesis that CEO overconfidence enhances a firm’s external financing capacity by lowering the firm’s cost of bank loan. Since bank could design covenants to mitigate the anticipated effects of overconfidence (Sunder, Sunder and Tan, 2010) and overconfident CEOs have greater information transparency with respect to performance and project quality which can reduce information and monitoring cost (Gervais et al., 2011 and Andriosopoulos et al., 2013).

4. Robust test

4.1 Impact of financial crisis

US banking system was highly affected by 2008 financial turmoil, our results might be influenced by this time of high uncertainty. To analyze possible effects, we repeat the regressions from Tables 5, but additionally interact the variable we are most interested in longholder with a dummy for the crisis years 2008 and 2009. Tables 6 report the results for the loan spread and we find that the non-interacted coefficients of the longholder are again negative, and in general slightly more pronounced and of the same significance compared to the whole sample period reported in Table 5. The interacted coefficients capturing the diverging impact during the financial crisis are positive and exceed those previously presented in terms of their magnitude. The respective sums of both coefficients (-15.046 + 95.535 = 80.489) represent the pricing impact during the financial crisis. They are positive, and tests are highly significant. This suggests that the negative impact of the longholder on loan spread—as predicted by our model—holds but is distorted during the financial crisis.

4.2 Exploring the endogenous problem

Does overconfident CEOs have lower spread because they are overconfidence? Maybe they just take lower spread then they become overconfidence. We use two stage tobit regression to examine the endogenous problem and use age as instrumental variable which we examine whether our results are robust after controlling

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3 The baseline OLS regression results on the effect of CEO overconfidence on loan spreads are also considered. To save space, we do not report these results; the tenor of the results remains unchanged and they are available from the authors upon request.
for potential endogeneity. CEO age can have a significant impact on decision making, since younger persons may be more prone to risk taking. However, experience grows with age, allowing executives to take more risks, but sensibly. Evidence suggests that risk aversion and age are nonlinear, as personal risk aversion tends to increase with age until the age of 70 and then decline (Shefrin, 2005). Moreover, Agarwal, Driscoll, Gabaix and Laibson (2007) report evidence suggesting that the sophistication of financial decisions varies with age. We use two-stage Tobit regression to examine endogeneity in Table 7. The result is consistent with prior results and it is significant at 1% level. When except the endogeneity overconfidence still have negative relationship with loan spread.

4.3 Exploring the selection bias problem

A potential problem in existing literature, including the above analysis, is the selection bias problem. The empirical analysis focuses on bonds issued during the period of interest. When company need to borrow money they tend to borrow in the good timing. The lending marking is good or company condition is welling to borrow money. Overconfident CEOs have lower cost of bank not because they’re overconfidence. Possibility they chose the great timing to borrow money.

We use Heckman’s (1979) approach to control for selection bias, which consists of two steps. In the first step, we run a probit regression to examine firms’ bond issuance decision. For all individual firms included in our sample, we construct a monthly dummy variable that indicates whether a firm issued new bonds in each month, from February 1995 to December 2012. The list of explanatory variables include some variables used in the baseline analysis as well as several additional variables (the credit market and global financial market variables described below), so as to ensure that the probit analysis provides additional information.

We add three different specific variables. First, firm-specific variables, including firm size, leverage and rating. These variables may reflect firms’ financing need and their ability to raise new funds in the bond market. Second, country-specific macro and financial market variables, including stock market returns, GDP gap and interest rates in each economy. Final global financial market variables, including the implied volatility of the S&P 500 (VIX) and the Baa–Aaa spread in the US market. A higher VIX indicates higher volatility and higher risk aversion in the financial market, and the Baa–Aaa spread is associated with the size of the risk premium.
We calculate the inverse Mills ratio based on the probit analysis. In the second step, we re-examine the impact of loan issuance by including the inverse Mills ratio as an additional explanatory variable.

The baseline analysis, however, is subject to the selection bias critique. A Heckman two-step approach can correct for selection bias. The second-step regression including the inverse Mills ratio, which is calculated from the probit analysis, adjusts for the selection bias problem. Table 8 reports the results. The Heckman adjustment does not change the baseline results. Overconfidence continues to play a significant role in lowering spread. Indeed, its economic significance even increases. In addition, the statistical and economic significance of other explanatory variables is relatively robust. It is worth noting that the inverse Mills ratio has a significantly negative impact in both equations.

Overall, the Heckman correction analysis suggests that there are direct and indirect impacts of overconfidence and other explanatory variables on the cost of loans in the primary markets. The indirect impact comes through the decision of loan issuance, and the direct impact affects the cost after controlling for this selection bias.

4.4 How the difference between overconfident (non-overconfident) CEO replaced by non-overconfident (overconfident) CEO

Almost firms’ operate time longer than CEO tenor. When a firm’s CEO change variable of Longholder will also change. Therefore, we test the different when Longholder change to Non-Longholder and Non-Longholder change to Longholder. Table 9 reports the results. The spread different of Longholder change to Non-Longholder is positive and it is significant at 1% level. This result consists with previous finding which indicate overconfidence CEO’s loan spread lower than non-overconfidence CEOs. Sometimes loan will sign on begging of term but confirm overconfidence will on end of term. Then, we lag Longholder to examine the results whether coefficient is negative or not. The result also consists with previous results.4

CONCLUSION

We test the information transparency and the manager optimism hypotheses to examine the importance

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4 The results of lag Longholder present overconfidence CEOs have negative relationship with loan spread. It indicates overconfidence CEOs loan spread lower than non-overconfidence CEOs.
of the cost of bank loan in explaining the impact of CEO overconfidence. The information transparency hypothesis predicts that CEO overconfidence enhance a firm’s external financing capacity by lowering the firm’s cost of bank loan, because firms with overconfident CEO have greater information transparency with respect to performance and project quality, it may mitigate the information and monitoring costs on the bank lender. The manager optimism hypothesis predicts that CEO overconfidence diminish a firm’s external financing capacity by heightening the firm’s cost of bank loan, because firms with overconfident CEO will bias in the future performance and it will enhance the risk cost of lender of bank.

Examination a sample of 4809 loans in the US covering the period of 1995 to 2012, our main finding is that overconfident CEOs have lower spread than non-overconfident CEOs. Since bank could design covenants to mitigate the anticipated effects of overconfidence and overconfident CEOs have greater information transparency with respect to performance and project quality which can reduce information and monitoring cost. Our findings overall suggest that the information transparency hypothesis dominates the manager optimism hypothesis. In addition, our results are also robustness to the potentially selection bias and endogeneity problem issue.

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THE IMPACT OF GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS AND INTERNET TRENDS ON INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS IN INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

Global financial crisis in 2008 has affected some economic sectors include tourism industry in many countries, including Indonesia. There is indication why and how the tourism industry is affected by crisis. Branding of destination might also influence tourist visit to Indonesia and can be tracked from internet.

This research is using Vector Autoregression (VAR) model. There are five variables in this research, they are international tourist arrivals from Japan, US, and UK; GDP growth; relative price; internet trends; and crisis. Internet trends variable is derived from Google Trends tools to see the number of internet search volume with the trending keyword being used about Indonesia tourist destination. All variables are going to be used in time series data.

The research finds a negative and significant impact of global economic crisis on tourist arrival to Indonesia, while internet trends variable has a positive and significant impact in influencing tourist arrivals from Japan, US, and UK to Indonesia. Coefficient of internet trends in absolute term is relatively larger than coefficient of crisis. This evidence shows that Indonesia needs to improve tourism infrastructure in order to have better branding/internet trends of tourism condition in Indonesia, therefore tourist arrivals to Indonesia will increase in the future.

Keywords: global economic crisis, VAR, Google Trends, Indonesia tourism
THE IMPACT OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) ON GLOBALISATION

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ABSTRACT
All sectors of business capacities across the globe including Africa are becoming increasingly effective and efficient as a result of globalisation and the digitisation of information that have comprehensively improved the way governments, International organisations and private companies are conducting their daily businesses. Past and current studies argued that, ICT plays a critical role in engineering and knowledge economy as well as in management. Information and Communication (ICT) seems to assume an explanatory role in energizing the coming together of world societies. More so, it aids in the acceleration of the interdependence of institutions, organs, processes and values. This article is therefore set to explore a symbiotic linkage and explain the nexus between ICT and globalization. To achieve this goal, ICT is used as a framework for analysing global interdependence through effective communication. Using a theoretical method of inquiry, this paper inferred that ICT is the tool through which technology is transmitted, while technology is the oiling of communication which is the nerve of globalization.

Keywords: Digitisation, globalisation, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Engineering Economy, Knowledge economy, technology, Resources, Communication

INTRODUCTION
Globalisation activities are varied and most of these are related to economic productivity. The inclusion of ICT therefore has made globalisation to become more effective in that ICT reduces transaction cost. It offers readily available connectivity while improving transparency and accuracy (Kramer et al., 2007). Globalization could be identified as a Single Sector Analysis (SSA) or a Multi-Sector Interaction (MSI). In both instances, it explains elements of a widespread perception that there is a broadening, deepening and speeding up of international interconnectedness and interrelationships in all parameters of life, from the political to the cultural, from the economic to the criminal, from the financial to the environmental (Ezeanyika and Opurum, 2008).

As a single sector analysis, globalization refers both to an increasing flow of goods and resources across national boundaries and the emergence of a complementary set of organizational structures to manage the expanding network of international economic activities and transactions (UNCTAD, 1997). It is the international integration in trade, investment, financial and consumer markets (UNDP, 1998). Globalization is the growing economic interdependence of countries worldwide through increasing volume and of cross-border transactions in goods and services, free international capital flows and more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology (IMF, 2003). It is also a worldwide process of homogenizing prices, products, wages, rates of interest and profit (Sheriff, 2003). These definitions corroborate the meaning of globalization as in the pioneering work of Levitt (1983). These studies perceive globalization as essentially a financial phenomenon. The reality on the ground is that the global economy is far from such an ideal situation. It would therefore, be
more appropriate to carefully describe the ongoing globalizing process as *international economic interdependence*. This will suggest a situation in which international linkages between markets and among manufacturing production and financial interactions are so dynamic that economic developments in any one nation are substantially spurred by policies and developments in other nations. In such a scenario, resource endowments, institutional arrangements and policy options should be patterned by national economic performance, as well as to the way international forces influence that performance (Ezeanyika and Oruebor, 2001: 140-141).

Globalization is also a multi-sector interaction, though with greater thrust on the economy. It is a social phenomenon of Western creation integrating the world societies, values and resources through sustained trend of communication (Obiukwu and Opurum, 2003). Giddens (1990, 2001) concurs with this understanding of globalization. He construes globalization as the intensification of worldwide social relations, which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa. As a MSI, globalization elicits certain subsystems, which include: the political, the economic, the social and the cultural (Hoogvelt, 1997: 116). The economic subsystem of globalization serves an adaptive function, through ensuring market discipline, flexible accumulation of capital by global webs of financial deepening. The political subsystem serves the purpose of mobilizing material and human resources. The cultural subsystem provides the governance with value system, requisite for social reproduction through time. The social subsystem targets the integration of values of all the subsystems for a functioning and functional global environment.

Globalization is, therefore, the latest level of that sustained communication of more than four centuries, integrating the world's societies to a Single World Community (SWC), for the continued survival of the Possessors of High Potential Capabilities (PHPC) (Obiukwu and Opurum, 2003). Globalization significantly captures to expanding interrelationships in the human environment expressed in terms of the 'intra and extra' territorial mutuality. Territorial mutuality or interdependence does not necessarily suggest 'mutual progress' or 'equal benefits'. It may, at times, involve unequal economic relations.

Globalization also captures spatial and longitudinal influence on human thoughts, attitudes and actions, leading to periodic change in international standards of socio-economic and political relations. This explains the recent use of the terms global good governance, cyber-behavior, e-banking, global commerce, shared development, global security, etc. Perhaps, globalization serves a new purpose, that of creating a new awareness in the broadening and deepening efforts to link distant localities to the matrix of expanding capitalist institutions or structures. This growing awareness in territorial linkage and value-deepening efforts seem to find a steam and nerve ICT. As mentioned earlier, ICT plays a critical role in engineering and knowledge economy as well as in management Information and Communication Technology (ICT) seems to assume an explanatory role in energizing the coming together of world societies. More so, it aids in the acceleration of the interdependence of institutions, organs, processes and values. This article is therefore set to explore a symbiotic linkage and explain the nexus between ICT and globalization. To achieve this goal, ICT is used as a framework for analysing global interdependence through effective communication.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

2.1 *Understanding the Concept of Cybernetics Communication*

Communication is derived from the Latin word, *communicare*, meaning ‘talk together, confer, discuss and consult with one another’ (Anyanwu, 2005: 79). It is the epicenter of human society. It is also perceived as the wheel on which all human activities revolve. Without communication, society will remain static and stagnant (Ndolo, 2005).

Cybernetics is a technical concept associated with communication theory. It is a derivative of the Greek word *kubernetes*, which means steersman, governor, pilot or rudder, the same root as government (Ashby, 1958; North, 1967). It is a broad field of study, but its essential goal is to understand and define the functions and processes of systems that have goals and that participate in circular, causal chains that move from action to sensing to comparison to desired goal to action (Umpleby, 1989: 111; heylighen and Joslyn 2001: 158). Wiener
(1948) defined cybernetics as the study of control and communication in the animal and the machine. Beer (1974) explained cybernetics as the science of effective organization. The word cybernetics was first used in the context of the study of self-governance by Plato (1927) in *The Laws, Volume 12* to signify the governance of the people.

The above explanation draws a linkage analysis between governance and communication, such that one, who governs, equally communicates with, and steers the environment and people. Such a person mobilizes the people, generates material resources and allocates such resources to pursue society-relevant policies and interests. Governance at any level of societal development seems a near impossibility without communication. In the same way, good governance, shared development and global peace and security are occasioned by communication. As a matter of fact, cognate interdependence of humans and nations are made possible through communication.

Cybernetics communication, perceived as ‘all procedures by which one mind affects another’ (Shannon and Weaver, 1959: 95) offers the above definition to reflect the *techniques* and *patterns of exerting observable influence on the intellectual conduct, actions or inactions of associating parties and minds*. This understanding points to the relevance of communication in learning and knowledge acquisition, teaching and mutual interaction, as well as interest articulation and aggregation. Communication is thus, relevant in knowledge preservation, utilization, and expression. It remains an inevitable essential factor in construction and in destruction of values as well. In fact, two or more minds cannot agree to build or destroy without trails of communication. Conflicts and disagreements are activated and resolved through abstract and sublime ideologies translated into realistic and substantive instruments of revolution and change. This is the situation when ideology sensitizes a man to action, i.e. he questions the existing order and moves to alter it through protests, demonstrations and revolution (Smith, 1980; Rothkopf, 1998).

In this sense of ‘one mind affecting another,’ communication assumes a complex phenomenon, which organizes and re-organizes human collectivities, controls their activities, directs their actions and motivates them towards effective capacity generation and utilization. Understanding communication as an all procedure through which one mind affects another, illustrates the Eurocentric claim of civilization and salvages colonial mission in Africa (Ezeanyika, 2006).

This claim of communication technique helped to neutralize the initial resistance of African societies to the forces of colonization. The communication technique also tends to explain the subsisting picture of the ‘South’ as a group of poor and helpless nations in the global environment, whereas the nations of the North are consciously positioned as high capacity nations or simply referred to as development compliant nations (Ezeanyika, 2007). To bridge this gap or widen it requires mainstreaming communication. Hence, developing globalization, or globalizing development, is a function of defective communication.

Just like in any other aspect of North-South relationship and interaction, globalization presents an extended version of world imbalance in interrelationship. It is heavily propelled by technological development, imbalance between the developed North and the developing countries of the South.

### 2.2 Cybernetics Communication as a ‘Complex Image’

Responding to the question: Communication is a complex image of what? Boulding (1956) opines that ‘communication is a complex image of what is and an image of what ought to be.’ In this sense, communication serves as a showcase of the expected norms, attitudes and belief systems in the society as contrasted from deviant behaviors. It is an image of the existing and expected values in the society. To Boulding (1956) therefore, man operates according to cybernetic principles: that is, that man behaves in various ways in an effort to reduce the gap between the images of what is an image of what ought to be. Hence, the global system functions in such a way as to reduce the gap between the ‘existing’ and ‘preferred’ interstate relations.

### 2.3 Communication as Information Dissemination and Message Transaction

When an impoverished family in Ajegunle, a slum in Lagos State of Nigeria says, ‘I prefer a television (TV) to a refrigerator because there is always a program on TV,’ or a Senegalese rural community champions the
installation of a parabolic dish in order to view national and international programs, they are merely emphasizing the relationship to a medium of communication that links them to the globalizing world through a language of images, ideas, and messages and allows them to know what is happening in the world.

Communication entails all processes by which information is conveyed from one part of the system to other parts of the system. Deutsch (1966) defines information as a “patterned relationship between events.” He stated that information is that aspect of the state of description of each stage of channel of communication that has remained invariant from one stage to another. Immutability is therefore very essential in any message transaction that assumes the status of information. This means that distortion of a piece of message before it gets to its destination may not constitute wholesome information. The quality of any piece of information is the capacity of its message contents to be invariant, while subjecting the message receiving systems to a high level capacity to change. In this sense, information as an integral part of communication is capable of changing, influencing or modifying its receiving medium. Hence, any observable directions of social and political change, global interactions or interdependence as well as interstate relations are patterned by information (Mowlana, 1986; Mowlana and Wilson, 1989; Mowlana, 2000). Put simply, there is a symbiotic relationship between the quality of information, which exist within the global system and the degree of changes therein.

Deutsch (1966: 275) corroborates this view when he opined that “the extent of the effect of the introduction of new information into a political or economic system might well be related, among other things, to the extent of the instabilities that already exist there.” It follows, therefore, that the new awareness towards political reforms, economic restructuring, anti-corruption crusade and re-orientation programs in Nigeria and other developing countries of the globe may not be unconnected to the quality of information available to the countries in question.

It can therefore be said that the print and electronic media enjoy efficacious power embedded in its information. They can, at an instant, relay disturbing information (through images) as tragedies unfold that rivet the attention of world audiences. Such information, for instance, could be on the adverse human predicament say in Africa. Examples such as the Ethiopian scenes of fatal hunger and mass tragedy caught in 1985 by the late Mohamed Amin’s camera (whose photographs were splashed on the front pages of world newspapers, coupled with Bob Geldof’s heroic initiative (in concert with other concerned well-wishers) to raise funds through music (later dubbed Band Aid), conveyed powerful stirring images and information that went a long way in not only mobilizing world opinion but also in internationalizing the poverty issue at large (Khalil, 2007: 171-172).

2.4 Communication as a two-way Traffic

The basic understanding here is that communication is not a unidirectional indulge. It is rather, a two-way interaction of two entities (or parties), aimed at impacting on each other. It involves conscious transmission of stimulus-response actions (messages), which leads to value exchange among interacting entities. The major concern of scholars of cybernetic bias is the nature and nurture of the value exchanged. On this issue, opinions are divided along schools of thoughts.

The equal benefit school maintains that communication can only take place when there are two interacting entities or parties, which, through the exchange of messages, have equal opportunity to benefit from the object of interaction. The value derivable in this sense is equitably or near equitably distributed among the interacting entities. It follows therefore, that a two-way traffic explanation of communication entails a positive relationship and is expressed in terms of equal exchange values. The numeric representation of the equal benefit analysis may be put at 50 – 50 percent or 5 ± 50 percent value exchange among interacting entities. In this light, proponents of this school view globalization as an entirely new phenomenon with its roots in the recent technological transformation of world societies. They also argue that slavery, mercantilism and colonialism are not trends of globalization, rather those of Western contact, which the matrix of communication can explain. The major argument here is that slavery, mercantilism, colonialism etc. only achieved a one-way traffic that cannot assume the status of communication. More so, they argue that this one-way communication not only yielded exclusive benefit to Europe but it was extremely detrimental to the development of African societies.
The contact school holds a different view. It postulates that communication is a contact between two or more entities or parties. It believes that communication can be said to have taken place whenever or wherever there is a contact or an interaction between two or more entities or parties. The nature and manner of contact is not so essential in determining communication, though it could be helpful in ascertaining the effect of communication on its associating media. The effect of communication in this understanding may be explained in terms of positive or negative relationship, such that the benefit derivable from an object of interaction may not be equitably distributed for communication to exist. The value exchange in contact analysis may be expressed in terms of more that one and less than hundred (≥ 1 and < 100) percent relationship. This situation explains a negative and adverse communication type. A handy example is the contact between Europe and Africa through colonialism and neocolonialism. In another dimension, a communication type can reveal a minus one to a plus hundred (−1 to 100) percent relationship, as was the case between Europe and some African societies during the slave trade. Another group of scholars hold the view that the recent maximization of technological values in communication has brought about an equitable or near equitable value exchange between interacting entities or parties. This leads to a relationship of 50–50 percent value exchange or about 5 ± 50 percent value exchange within which globalization tends to assume a new phenomenon and communication accorded relevance in the analysis of global interdependence.

Communication is, however, more of a contact than a two-way traffic in the equal benefit sense. Even the equal value benefit analysis manifests a contact between its interacting media, objects or entities. It follows therefore, that communication as a two-way traffic does not necessarily mean the values should be distributed on equal proportions but they must elicit a clear impact that may be planned or unplanned, positive or negative.

Finally, communication entails a systematic and comprehensive co-ordination and manipulation of organisms, including machines to enhance qualitative interaction in the human environment. Communication is thus, propelled by a set of skilled knowledge, exerted on the structural dynamics of the human society as technology. The thrust of our argument is that information and communication technologies (ICTs) have aided globalization. However, globalization in a developing country like Nigeria with less developed communication and information provides opportunities for the extension of the imperialistic agenda of imbalance in relationships and interactions in North-South relations.

THE TWIN ROLE OF ICT

There is a symbiotic relationship between technology and communication. Technology is the knowledge and skill component of communication, which energizes the contact between entities, objects and organs. It is the part of communication, which provides it with dynamism, requisite value and the know-how to steer the environment and people. A comprehensive review of the studies of Galbraith (1971), Lall (1990), Lundvall (1992) and Enos (1995) culminates to the synthesis that technology, in all its multifaceted and multidimensional perspectives, is the systematic application of scientific and organized knowledge and capabilities for the successful resolution of practical tasks and developmental problems. Put simply, technology is a better way of doing things. It is, indeed, an embodiment of techniques whose acquisition depends on communication. Reflecting on the above explanation, we deduce that technology is scientific, practical, developmental and functional. It is also cultural and traditional in terms of value build-up, manifesting in peculiar skill.

ICT is the vehicle through which technology is acquired, transmitted, transferred or driven. ICTs have also revolutionized the way we receive and disseminate information. This has outdated the idea of national media. For instance, as direct satellite-to-home transmission become a reality, the idea of globalization of information becomes possible, thus, altering significantly, the concept of national media within national territory.

ICT through Communication elicits movement, influence, action and change as its basic characteristics, which are briefly discussed below:

Change: it is the ultimate goal of communication and the observed end effect of an action. It suggests an improvement on the original state or value. Hence, ‘movement’ and ‘action’ are the igniting spirit of communication, whereas ‘influence’ and ‘change’ are it is observed effects. These four cardinal features of
communication, which find steam in technology, are central to identifying the role of communication in the global environment.

THE IMPACT OF ICT AT GLOBAL LEVEL

There is a connectedness between ICT and globalisation. ICT is therefore seen viewed as a pillar for the strengthening of globalisation activities. The understanding of the role of ICT in the interaction of world societies is very important to understanding the complex structures, institutions and processes of globalization. The nature of this contact globalisation among nations reveals the aim and goal of globalisation. The goal of globalisation assumes its esteeming in terms of the manifest or latent roles of ICT. These roles include: integration, mobilisation, adaptation, regeneration, and transformation.

Integration is a socio-economic role of ICT, which attempts to align all national economies with the global capitalist economic order, using a common index or matrix. It is this role of ICT that underpins the intensification of the co-operation between the rich and the poor nations. The goal is explanation or shared development for the Afro-centrists or Euro-centrists, respectively. Integration function equips globalisation to build organisations, institutions, agencies and organs, which regulate the conduct of nations in the international system. It is through integration that globalisation strives to achieve existential mutuality of world societies. The hope for a single world community that will reduce the pains of man is made alive through integration.

Mobilization is a political role of communication, which attempts to harness the human and material resources towards global integration. It involves the use of aid grants, loans and technical assistance options by the advanced capitalist nations, to woo the developing nations to appreciate the liberal initiative of capitalism. Mobilization as a political role of communication started with the acquisition of territories and their subsequent administration through colonization. Mobilization at this period made the colonized territories to recognize the Western colonial authorities as stakeholders in their resources. This pattern has been so entrenched to the extent that, even after nominal political independence, Western nations still occupy a prime position to negotiate for access to unequal opportunities in favor of their multinational corporations (MNCs) and their nationals (Ezeanyika, 2006). The most recent mobilization strategy of globalization reveals the following:

1. Offer of important positions in the capitalist controlled and dominated agencies and institutions to citizens of developing nations. This strategy includes allowing developing nations to occupy some key positions in the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Court of Justice (ICJ), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), etc. including the position of the Secretary General of the United Nations Organization (UNO). Essentially, the recent offer to Africa of two permanent seats at the Security Council of the UNO clearly typifies the mobilization strategy of globalization as a role of communication.

2. Grant of debt relief facilities. The debt profile of some developing economies has been tagged antithetical to the development by the advanced capitalist nations. Hence, to sustain the compliance of these developing economies to the global capitalist economic order, the West introduces its debt relief facility. This facility assumes the form of debt rescheduling, debt forgiveness or outright cancellation. It is believed that the mobilization strategy or role of communication guarantees adaptation of developing economies to the conditionalities of Western economic policies linked to the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Adaptation is the use of integration and mobilization strategies to ensure that all nation-states comply with the principles and conditionalities of global capitalism. It seeks to identify and adhere strictly to the rules, conditions and principles guiding grants in aid, loans, technical assistance, debt relief facilities, etc. Simply put, the adaptation role of communication translates into the acquisition of requisite capitalist economic orientation. This economic orientation may take the form of deregulation of national economies to allow for greater openness, unrestricted trade and product competition. It may also include privatization and commercialization principles, maintenance of effective work force and deep national economic restructuring to stem corruption, economic and financial crimes as well as lopsidedness in projects initiation and
implementation. Following this pattern of manifestation, adaptation enhances national reproduction of global socioeconomic values, however inappropriate.

Regeneration, as a role of communication, entails the sustenance of the adaptation strategy for the socioeconomic reproduction of values. It suggests a state of affairs in which the global economy achieves subsisting identity, which regulates the international system.

Transformation function of communication is accompanied by trappings of chance into the global interdependence of values. This is a stage where the extra-national integration introduces a new set of values to redefine the existing international order. This explains the use of certain terms at different periods of the global transformation, such as neo-colonialism, neo-dependency, new international economic order (NIEO), neo-globalism, etc.

The latent role of communication explains the intricacies of deregulation of the global economy through the gradual withering of state dominance of the international socioeconomic affairs. This latent role is as well observed in terms of the ‘sustenance’ of global inequality through the core-periphery stratification of the world. The ‘disintegration’ function of communication is also a latent, which activates the break-up of bogus agencies, entities and institutions through value distortions and mutations of needs. Indeed, understanding globalization is appreciating the role of communication. This is so because there is a nexus between communication and globalization which has functional attires such as the ones afore discussed.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have established that there is indeed a nexus between communication and globalization, which plays an explanatory role in the integration of world societies. We have also identified communication as a complex phenomenon, which organizes and re-organizes human collectivities, controls their activities, directs their actions and motivates them towards effective capacity generation and utilization. We observed that communication emphasizes ‘contact’, ‘complex image’, ‘message transaction’ and two-way traffic, which lead to value exchange among integrating entities or parties, whereas, globalization is a new awareness in the broadening, deepening and speeding efforts to link distant localities to the matrix of expanding capitalist institutions and structures. We also postulated that the essence of these expanding interrelationships is to achieve intra and extra-territorial mutuality towards shared development.

In order to achieve the goal of globalization, technology-driven communication plays a fundamental role. This is mainly because technology remains an embodiment of skills and techniques, and its acquisition depends on communication. The nexus between communication and globalization has therefore been explored in the light of its manifest functions ranging from integration, mobilization, adaptation, regeneration and transformation. It is these manifest functions, blended with certain latent variants, which give globalization its comprehensive meaning and true identity.

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